REGIONAL TOURISM POLICY COORDINATION AFFECTING ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN SERENGETI-MARA ECOSYSTEM WITHIN THE EAST AFRICAN COMMUNITY INTEGRATION FRAMEWORK

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This proposal is my original work, prepared with no other than the indicated sources, support, and it has not been presented elsewhere for a degree or any other award.

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APPROVAL BY THE SUPERVISORS

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for acceptance of Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology a proposal entitled **"Regional Tourism Policy Coordination Affecting Ecotourism Development in Serengeti Mara Ecosystem Within the East African Community Integration Framework."**

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ABSTRACT

Regional tourism cooperation can promote tourist destinations and travel corridors with complementary locations. Such cooperation is vital for ecotourism development in shared ecosystems in a regional bloc. This type of tourism is much viable in border areas where nature remains undisturbed across border. However, a shared ecosystem such as Serengeti-Mara is subjected to statist tourism policies despite existence of an EAC regional tourism policy. This means that the EAC regional tourism policy is incomprehensive; as such, policy coordination difficulties abound in Serengeti Mara ecosystem. These policy coordination challenges affect ecotourism development in this shared ecosystem as a result of a weak EAC regional policy. This study is anchored on political realism, green political, functionalism and systems theories to analyze effects of regional tourism policy coordination on ecotourism development in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration frameworks. The study will examine the nature and extent of regional tourism policy coordination affecting ecotourism development in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem. It will further determine formal institutional coordination that affects ecotourism development. Further, the study will evaluate contributions of informal institutional coordination to ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem. The study will employ descriptive and exploratory study design to investigate how regional tourism policy coordination affects ecotourism development. Purposive, census, stratified and simple random sampling methods will be used in determining samples. The study will use questionnaire, interviews, and focused group discussions to collect data while secondary data will be collected using journals, documents, acts, legislations, sessional papers and conventions on issue of tourism. Data will be analyzed using descriptive statistics. It will be presented in form of tables, pie charts and narrations. This study is important since tourism sector is a foreign exchange earner to partner states in EAC region. Therefore, a regional tourism policy is important particularly in shared ecosystems. Also, ecotourism which is dependent on natural resources creates jobs and border communities depend on it for their livelihoods in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACSP	Audubon Cooperative Sanctuary Program
ADR	Alternative Dispute Resolution
CBO	Community Based Organisation
CNRM	Community Natural Resource Management
DFID	Department for International Development
EAC	East African Community
EACJ	East African Court of Justice
EALA	East African Legislative Assembly
EANECE	East African Network for Environmental Compliance and Enforcement
EAPA	East African Publicity Association
EATTA	East African Tourist Travel Association
EATWCA	East African Tourism Wildlife Conservation Agency
EATWCA	East African Tourism Wildlife Conservancy Agency
EC	European Commission
EK	Ecotourism Kenya
EPA	Economic Partnership Agreement
ETC	European Travel Commission
EU	European Union
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organisation
GCAs	Game Control Areas
GCC	Gulf Corporation Council
GTZ	German Organization for Technical Cooperation
HRA	Hotel and Restaurants Act
IGAD	Intergovernmental Authority on Development
IGAD	Inter-governmental Authority on Development
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KALTO	Kenya Association of Local Tour Operators
KATO	Kenya Association of Tour Operators

KECOBAT Kenya Community Based Tourism Association of Tours

KTDC Kenya Tourism Development Corporation

KUC Kenya Utalii College

KWS Kenya Wildlife Service

KWS Kenya Wildlife Services

LVBC Lake Victoria Basin Commission

MICE Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions

MOTW Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife

NEPAD New Partnership for Africa and Development

NGO Non Governmental Organisation

NP National Park

SADC Southern Africa Development Community

SIDA Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency

SMME Serengeti Maasai Mara Ecosystem

SWOT Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities and Threats

TANAPA Tanzania National Protected Area

TBPA Transboundary Protected Area

TENT-T Trans-European Transport Network

TTC Tanzania Tourist Corporation

TWB Tanzania Wildlife Board

UN United Nations

UNEP United Nations Environment Programme

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNWTO United Nations World Tourism Organisation

USAID United Sates Agency for International Development

WMA Wildlife Management Areas

WTTC World Tourism and Travel Council

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DEFINITION AND OPERATIONALIZATION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Biodiversity- all aspects of the living world, from genetic variation among individual organisms to differences between species and habitats in the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem.

Cross Border- the political and administrative border between Kenya and Tanzania that is traversed by the Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

Development- refers to structural transformation of the economy, society, polity and culture of an ecotourism destination such as Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

Ecosystem- the complex interacting system comprising migratory wildlife populations, and the physical environment within Serengeti Mara ecosystem of Tanzania and Kenya.

Ecotourism development- responsible tourist travel to natural areas that considers conservation of the environment and wildlife, community development and tourism infrastructure in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

Environmental Security- the dynamics and interconnections among the natural resource

Indigenous Knowledge- the cultural heritage of communities that reside around the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem.

International Community- a collection of states and non state actors acting together as a single, unified entity to conserve and promote ecotourism in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem

Regional Tourism Policy Coordination Challenges- refers to tourism policy as stipulated in the EAC Treaty of 1999 that calls for regional cooperation and challenges that emanate from it with regard to Serengeti Mara region.

State Sovereign Rights- the inherent supremacy of Tanzanian and Kenyan States within their borders, and independence with regard to development strategy of ecotourism in Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

State Sovereignty- Tanzania and Kenya's absolute and unlimited power with regard to ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara region.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background to the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, justification, scope of the study and summary. This chapter argues that an ineffective regional tourism policy could lead to policy coordination challenges particularly in shared ecosystems such as Serengeti-Mara. Therefore, there is need to interrogate EAC regional tourism policy with regard to ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

1.1 Background to the Study

Ecotourism is considered as the marriage between development and conservation, and may serve as an economic component that can strengthen regional cooperation in the area of tourism particularly in shared ecosystems (Honey, 2008). The stakes is even higher in shared ecosystems due to their expanded geographical scale, the involvement of border communities, the stronger role of the state, and the importance of regional cooperation (Honey, 2008).

Thus, many regional blocs experience tourism policy coordination challenges in shared ecosystems that run across international borders despite the existence of a regional tourism policy. As such, state sovereignty and state sovereign rights of partner states in these cases have been qualified by the duty to co-operate so as to coordinate regional tourism policy to realize the development of ecotourism (Honey, 2008). In the European Union, for example, the Treaty of Lisbon established a legal framework for the tourism sector among the EU partner states. The treaty indicates that the EU has capacity to support, coordinate or complement policy action among partner states (Prokkola, 2009).

This regional policy is applied in the Dinaric Arc region where six EU partner states cooperate to promote ecotourism development in a shared ecosystem. Therefore, the EU as a regional organization only coordinates policy actions or activities of partner states. By doing this, it reduces competing political and economic interests that may rise from anarchical nature of border regions and the notion of tragedy of commons.

In other regions, partner states have put in place legal mechanisms on how to coordinate policy on a regional perspective. In Latin America, Mexico, Guatemala and Belize countries have all made efforts to protect the Maya Forest, a transboundary ecosystem. They signed the Central American Alliance for the Promotion of Sustainable Development in 1992 to help change the economic and environmental sustainability in the member countries. This agreement facilitated the exploration and restoration of ancient tourist sites and the initiation of a Maya Pass to check on tourist numbers (Saarinen, 2009). In ASEAN region, ten member states signed the ASEAN Connectivity 2011-2015 Agreement which touched on key areas of regional tourism policy. A good example is the Mekong cooperation mechanism among countries sharing the Mekong River.

In Africa, the SADC state parties signed two protocols: Tourism Development (1998) and Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement (2003). The former provides for, among other things, the creation of a regional body to market the SADC region as a collective tourism destination while the latter supports the establishment of TFCAs. With TFCAs as a single tourist destination, the Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA) envisages that the region will, by 2020, receive tourists accounting for 52 % of total arrivals in Africa (SADC, 2012)

The EAC Treaty of 1999 established a regional tourism policy to foster policy coordination among partner states. This is clearly captured in Articles 115 and 116 of

Chapter Twenty of the EAC Protocol. These articles state that partner states should coordinate tourism policies in areas of conservation of natural/wildlife resources and forge a common front in marketing of it as a single tourist destination (EAC, 1999).

Therefore, regional tourism policy coordination is mostly realized after formal agreements by respective states are signed. But informal policy coordination is involvement of non-state actors such as Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and International Non Governmental Organizations (INGO). However, NGOs role mostly limited to funding of conservation efforts, thereby positioning the state at the centre of regional policy coordination.

Despite the existence of regional tourism policy, tourism policy coordination challenges are witnessed in many shared ecosystems as a result of weakness in them. These policy coordination challenges are a result of competing political and economic interests such that statist tourism policies are at play even in shared ecosystem.

This is the case with Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC region. Despite existence of a regional tourism policy, policy coordination challenges abound in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem. For instance, the SMME is majorly managed by national institutions/agencies such as Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA). These national institutional entities create disjointed tourism policies. As a result, Serengeti-Mara ecosystem suffers from uncontrolled development of tourist facilities and large numbers of visitors (LVBC, 2010; UNESCO, 2013). Despite such developments, the net benefits accruing to local communities are minimal and the various challenges to conservation including human-wildlife conflicts and encroachment on protected areas have been on the increase (Manyara, 2009). Therefore, the regional tourism policy is deficient in the context of policy coordination in this ecosystem.

From review, it can be argued that regional tourism policy is important to ecotourism development in shared ecosystems. However, challenges abound with policy coordination in regions where this policy is weak. This is particularly true in border areas where anarchy is a catalyst for competing interests between the involved states. In such a situation, ecotourism development is affected in terms of conservation efforts, environmental awareness, community development and tourism infrastructure. It is against this background that this study seeks to analyze regional tourism policy coordination challenges affecting ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem within EAC integration frameworks.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ecotourism development within a shared ecosystem tends to flourish within the context of comprehensive regional tourism policy (Nikolas, 2007). In the EU, for example, the Thayatal which is a shared ecosystem between Austria and the Czech Republic has a coordinated management policy on tourism (Melenhorst, 2013). In this region, Czech and Austrian visitors comprised 80% of the cross-border tourists. The signs, information and interpretation are presented in both languages and connectivity between parks is enhanced by roads. In Latin America, Mexico, Guatemala and Belize countries signed the Central American Alliance for the Promotion of Sustainable Development in 1992 to help change the economic and environmental sustainability in the member countries. This agreement facilitated the exploration and restoration of ancient sites and the initiation of a Maya Pass to check on tourist numbers in the region (Saarinen, 2009).

In the SADC regional bloc, state parties signed two protocols: Tourism Development (1998) and Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement (2003). The former provides for, among other things, the creation of a regional body to market the SADC region as a collective tourism destination while the latter supports the establishment of TFCAs. This has seen the cooperation between the park agencies in charge of the Hot Springs Game Park and Richtersveld National Park, Namibia Wildlife Resorts and South African National Parks (SANParks) since 2006 (Montini, 2011). Joint management bodies are established at various levels, such as the Bilateral Ministerial Committee and the Joint Management Board, both working at the strategic policy level of cross-border park management. The bilateral Park Management Committee coordinates at the operational level. Since 2009, park agencies have gained experience in organizing joint transboundary tourism activities. But weakness in these pacts lies in lack of harmonization of legal matters which remains nonetheless inadequate (Vasilijević, 2015).

In the EU, South America and SADC situations, the development of ecotourism is facilitated by coordination of policy actions of partner states. This is enabled at sub-regional level with bilateral agreements or treaties that complement regional tourism policy coordination. However, the role of non state actors is not explicitly explained and, communities in these tourist destinations are isolated in policy decisions.

In the Serengeti Mara ecosystem, ecotourism development has largely been affected by statist tourism policies despite the existence of a regional tourism policy. This ecosystem is subjected to statist tourism policies, and regional or sub-regional cooperation on policy coordination is minimal. Consequently, tourism policy coordination challenges abound notwithstanding the established EAC regional tourism policy that facilitates cooperation in the management of tourism in shared ecosystem such as the Serengeti-Mara (EAC, 1999). The EAC regional tourism policy is majorly focused on resource management which means it has little to do with tourism in general. Therefore, the EAC regional tourism policy is not comprehensive enough to enforce coordination of policy actions particularly in shared ecosystems such as Serengeti-Mara. It focuses on collaborative natural resource management with view of forestalling conflict among the partner states. In addition, the policy is focused on wildlife tourism which limits policy coordination action to wildlife tourism thereby limiting tourism products.

With such weakness, there is a likelihood of policy coordination challenges that compromise the integrity of ecotourism development in general. For instance, the white-bearded wildebeest, found across Serengeti Mara is facing large declines due to incompatible land uses in their migratory corridors and dispersal (Estes and East, 2009). This has occurred as their migratory corridors and dispersal areas have become blocked or lost, limiting their migratory movements. Tourism flow between the two countries is negatively affected by Kenya and Tanzania 1985 bilateral agreement that stipulated that tour vans are barred from entering each other's borders. This study proposes, therefore, to investigate regional tourism policy coordination challenges affecting ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study will be to investigate the effects of regional tourism policy coordination challenges on ecotourism development in the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework.

The specific objectives of the study will be to:

i. Examine the nature and extent of regional tourism policy coordination challenges affecting ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework.

ii. Determine the effect of formal institutional coordination to ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework.

iii. Evaluate the contribution of informal institutional coordination to ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework.

1.4 Research Questions

The study will be guided by the following corresponding research questions:

i. What is the nature and extent of regional tourism policy coordination challenges affecting ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework?

ii. To what extent does formal institutional coordination affect ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework?

iii. How does informal institutional coordination contribute to ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem within the EAC integration framework?

1.5 Justification of the Study

From a research and academic perspective, EAC regional policy coordination has focused on conflict over natural resources, natural resource management and how they affect state relations. Secondly, focus in this academic field has been on ecotourism development in individual states in the Inter-governmental Agreement on Development (IGAD). For example, Omar's (2013) study focused on how conflicts over natural resources in this region affect state relations in East African Africa. A study by United Nations Tourism Organization (2006) only captures aspects on the challenges and opportunities of developing ecotourism in individual nation states in the IGAD region. These studies do not explore the aspect of regional tourism policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development in shared ecosystems, and moreover not specifically in Serengeti Mara ecosystem. Therefore, this study seeks to build on the limited literature in this field of study. Not much literature exists with regard to regional tourism policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development in the trans-boundary ecosystems such as Serengeti-Mara. The existing literature does not pay specific attention to this ecosystem in the context of regional tourism policy coordination and ecotourism development. Only a few scholars have addressed the use of regional cooperation crafting of common policy that would develop tourism and focus is on host and visitor. Therefore, these studies deal with traditional (mass) tourism and not ecotourism. This study will focus on both state and non state actors' role in fostering cooperation through regional tourism policy coordination which is lacking in previous research studies. Statist tourism policies are a result of state sovereignty and the anarchical nature of border regions which hamper greater regional tourism policy coordination as a result of deficient regional tourism policy. This study will, therefore, provide a vital tool of source of information on environmental diplomacy/security in relation to tourism industry on a regional angle with focus on ecotourism and not conflict over natural resources.

From a practical and policy perspective, regional policy coordination has been considered in terms of Transboundary Natural Resources Management (TBNRM) between states, and how this affects state relations in the larger EAC region. For instance, a study by Omar (2013) observed that nation centered policies have taken center stage which have affected nation state relations. Therefore, there is need for a stronger regional tourism policy to promote ecotourism in EAC region with focus on sustainable tourism within the confines of international law to strike a balance in many policy areas. A comprehensive and binding regional policy would safeguard the integrity of a shared ecosystem by creating mechanisms where all stakeholders' responsibilities are well defined and benefits shared equally. In this regard, therefore, this research acts as an important tool to the stakeholders involved in formulation of laws and policies in the development of ecotourism from a transboundary perspective.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study will focus on regional tourism policy coordination affecting ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem. As much as there is an EAC regional tourism policy that facilitates coordination, policy coordination challenges abound with regard to ecotourism this ecosystem. The study focuses on the period starting 1999 when the EAC Treaty was formulated into the unforeseeable future. Competing interests between the two states started in 1980 with the closing of Bolonga gate (Sindiga, 1999) and has intensified in the recent years with Kenya and Tanzania banning tour vans from entering each other's borders. In the recent times, environmental degradation has been on the increase because of unplanned development and human activities that do not promote ecotourism development (UNESCO, 2015). Therefore, there is need to carry out a study on EAC regional tourism policy coordination challenges affecting Serengeti Mara within the confines of EAC integration frameworks. The researcher will take about three months (November-January, 2017) in the field collecting data. The researcher will analyze how this regional tourism policy affects ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem. The study will analyze formal and informal institutional coordination that affect ecotourism development in SMME. The international and regional treaties/protocols, rules and regulations with regard to ecotourism development will be considered. It will focus on regional tourism policy coordination affecting ecotourism development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem within EAC integration frameworks.

1.7 Summary

Ecotourism is a new form of tourism that fosters development and environmental security. For ecotourism to succeed, nature in border areas needs to remain undisturbed by human activity. With ecotourism, focus is on how the local communities benefit from tourism projects and activities. In other words, ecotourism is supposed to enhance local communities, conserve the biodiversity, wildlife and culture of the indigenous people. The essence of ecotourism is also to satisfy the visitor in terms of access to rich biodiversity, wildlife and culture. However, this is not the case with many shared ecosystems because of weak regional tourism policy. This means that transboundary ecosystems may be threatened with environmental degradation and wildlife loss when states sharing the resource enact statist tourism policies and regulatory frameworks with respect to its management. Therefore, ecotourism in such transboundary ecosystems call for a strong regional tourism policy. To comprehend this study, a literature review was conducted that situates the problem of the regional policy coordination challenge on ecotourism development in varied perspective.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter critically analyzes various secondary sources that have covered these aspects: policy coordination, interdependence, institutions, nature and extent of regional tourism policy coordination challenges; formal and informal institutional coordination in areas of land use and environmental conservation; marketing and monitoring; and tourism infrastructure in shared ecosystem. The conceptual framework which guides the study is also discussed in this chapter. The chapter ends with a summary.

2.1 Policy Coordination

Guillermo (2015) argues that ccoordination is the traditional response, from the public administration perspective, for tackling complex problems. It is the instruments and mechanisms that aim to enhance the voluntary or forced alignment of tasks and efforts of organizations within the public sector. These mechanisms are used in order to create a greater coherence and to reduce redundancy and contradictions within and between policies, implementation and management (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2010). There are abundant typologies of coordination that distinguish among mechanisms of coordination (Bouckaert *et al.*, 2010), levels of coordination (Metcalf, 2004) or moments of policy process in which coordination takes place (Peters, 2015).

He argues that notwithstanding the types of coordination, there are two main observable characteristics of the concept of coordination, that is, information and knowledge exchange and the clearly defined rules and responsibilities for the actors that are supposed to coordinate. Information sharing is the most basic and necessary condition for coordination to exist. Wheatley (2006) observes that whenever limited sharing of information and knowledge exists in an organization, its members are unable to develop integrated solutions to problems. However, people resist sharing information within or among organizations (Ardichvill et al, 2003; Cress & Kimmerle, 2006). Based on a typology of the factors influencing information sharing for inter or intra governmental coordination drawn by Yang and Maxwell (2011), features ranging from organizational structure and culture, to the system of rewards and incentives within an organization, to the member's beliefs about organizational information sharing are all relevant.

From review, it is clear that finding solutions to complex problems needs coordination in terms of policy. However, coordination between actors is difficult from a regional perspective, particularly when sharing information is limited or very little.

To enable sharing of information, the existence of clearly defined rules and procedures for actors to coordinate determine inter-organizational coordination even at regional or sub-regional levels (Kumar 2007). He argues that lack of formal rules and financial resources prevents the existence of free-flowing information within organizations. Further, Streeter *et al.* (1986) argues that coordination requires the construction of rules or procedures for collaboration, which may vary depending on the degree of desired coordination. If organizations do not share the same objective but are only bound to collaborate in the development of some activities, rules and procedures might be informal and result from people's efforts to coordinate. When organizations do share the same goal, formal rules and procedures are established, although they are constantly renegotiated. Finally, where collective goals are prioritized over individual goals, rules and procedures are highly formalized and organizations' members are committed to their enforcement (Streeter *et al.*, 1986: 35-36).

From the coordination perspective, then, complex problems could be solved by bringing the relevant parties/actors together (at the top and/or at the bottom of the administration) and getting them to agree upon a greater (and common) goal.

Furthermore, this goal can be pursued only by interacting through organizations whose structures and procedures are designed to function through information exchange. The underlying logic is that since any single agency is not able to tackle a complex problem on its own, coordination (which is the decision of a common goal, and its attainment through structures and procedures that foster information sharing), serves to gather all the pieces together and produce coordinated government actions (as opposed to fragmented ones.

In shared ecosystems across international borders, coordination of policy is vital to tackle complex problems such as wildlife loss and environmental degradation among others. This means that clear rules or practices guide the actions of both state and non-state actors. Without clear rules or practices and institutions at regional/sub-regional level, information exchange is minimal. Moreover, actors act in a disjointed manner because they lack a common goal orientation, and therefore have varies interests.

2.1.1 Interdependence

From the forgoing discussion, coordination manifests itself in the practice of policy management: individuals, social interactions and organizational structure. It is important, however, to discuss the significant of two conceptual elements that permeate coordination (Juliana, 2013).

These two conceptual elements are interdependence and institutions. Interdependence provides the “common interest” or “common purpose” for joint actions among many actors. Interdependence makes cooperation necessary in a particular area of policy coordination.

In this context, to analyse the significance of coordination in a given group of actors it is necessary to investigate the nature and extent of their interdependence. One possible approach is when two actors have any kind of exchange. Second is to map the areas in which the formal jurisdictions and competencies of the organizations in question are contiguous, overlap, and interact (Juliana, 2013).

O'Toole & Montjoy (1984) present different categories of interdependence that express the connections required for policy implementation as follows: "pooled couple" no organization requires anything from another to do its part of the job; "sequential couple" ,sequentially interdependent agencies and "reciprocal couple", organizations must adjust mutually to achieve the goal. These types of interdependence entail different levels of complexity in interaction between actors during policy implementation. Logically, these different levels of complexity impose different demands on the coordination process. Depending on the type of flow, the failure of an agent can mean that the entire program will collapse. However, in other types, some agents may act with a certain level of autonomy.

From review, it is clear that in a shared ecosystem, state and non state actors must adjust mutually to achieve common interests such as conservation. This is so because of the interdependence between them with regard to ecotourism development which is dependent on nature.

Thompson (1974) argues that to analyze interdependence is to start from multilateral interdependence (among multiple actors) and "break it down" to bilateral interdependencies (between two actors). He argues that through this resource it is possible to "locate interdependence", facilitating its management. This interdependence context makes it clear that organizations are not entirely autonomous entities but invariably depend, in some way, on the environment. In the case of shared ecosystems, there is multilateral interdependence due to states involved and non state actors such as NGOs, international organizations, private enterprises, conservation organizations and local communities.

Starting from this understanding, the consequence is that actors will be capable of influencing each other's choices and interests in many ways. The significance of this premise lies in the fact that uncertainty is a factor in the relations established among implementing agents. In fact, if the actors can influence each other and if no single actor controls the choices made by others, interdependence inevitably entails uncertainty. On the other hand, it is generally accepted in organizational theory that organizations always seek to mitigate uncertainty. The key problem that arises from a state of interdependence, therefore, is how to reduce uncertainty to an acceptable level via structured coordination of the behaviors of the most relevant organizations (Juliana, 2013).

Therefore, interdependence (and consequent uncertainty) confirms that these elements are an inherent feature of policy implementation which exists in a close relationship to the coordination process. Thus, analysis of interdependence becomes a valuable resource for policy makers seeking to improve coordination on policy actions (Juliana, 2013).

2.1.2 Institutions

Secondly, institutions prove to be useful in understanding coordination. Institutions are understood as social constructions that remain in processes and endow social life with stability and meaning (Berger & Luckmann, 1966). Many authors attribute the stability provided by institutions to their capacity to reduce the range of possibilities from which individuals make their choices.

Institutions act as structures that guide daily life, providing constraints to and incentives for human behaviour (North, 1990), and giving the social system "solidity" in time and space (Scott, 2008). On the other hand, they depend on human action for their reproduction and transformation (Scott, 2008) on every scale, from personal to global (Scott, 2008). Lastly, institutions may be formal or informal, and they may or may not need external sanctions for their existence (North, 1990).

In this context the argument developed here is that socially shared practices and interactions among the individuals, groups and organizations involved in policy implementation influence the level of coordination achieved.

With regard to the individual, for example, his cognitive structure, or the mechanisms by which he understands and interprets the phenomena that surround him, forms in the course of sedimentation of personal experiences with the environment. Mantzavinos (2004) argues that mental interpretations are enabled by the creation of "clusters of rules". "Mental institutions", then, are sets of rules that help the individual to understand reality. Regarding the symbolic view that individuals have about the organization, Clegg & Hardy (2006) claim that this view is also the result of institutions existing in that environment

On the dimension of social interactions, the emergence of patterns of interaction affects continuous interaction inside organizational environments. Furthermore, the continuous process of institutionalization of beliefs, values, views, norms and meanings that occurs through social interaction exerts a strong influence on organizational structures and forms, and similarly has impact on coordination's dynamics.

Institutions have formal and informal structures that constitute institutional framework mechanisms (rules, standards and conventions) that give rise to formal and informal coordination which shape the behaviour of implementation agents. Besides this, by limiting the extent of the issues to be considered, institutions establish expectations about behaviour and restrict the factors taken into account in decision making. This fact delimits the scope of negotiations and conflicts and, in short, provides a foundation and a context for policy coordination.

From review, policy coordination can be limited because of institutional gaps. For instance, in the context of shared ecosystems between states, institutional structures need to cater for interests of both state and non state actors. An institutional framework whereby some actors' interests are not catered for leads to policy coordination challenges.

In this direction, Heymann (1973) argues that a motivation to coordinate (e.g. congruence of interests) is necessary but not sufficient for coordination effectively to happen. The other necessary condition besides motivation is a real capacity to coordinate, which derives from formal and informal conventions and rules, i.e. institutions. Gupta *et al.* (1994) corroborate this view, noting that if a "common logic" is shared among organizations, coordination is more likely to occur without interrupting their routines.

Therefore, in the context of shared ecosystem between states, national organizations/agencies do not have the capacity to coordinate policy across the border. Thus, states involved need to craft agreements/memorandum of understandings in the case of formal institutions that would institute rules or practices among actors. These formal institutions have the capacity to operate across the border. However, informal institutions are important since non-state actors are key stakeholders, and supplement state efforts towards a common goal.

Thus, once the parties have become "accustomed" to interacting, their judgments, views and behaviours become more standardized and this gives rise to interaction routines for liaison among organizations. Through these routines, known problems are linked to known options for action and choices are simplified. However, before concluding that these routines are always positive for coordination it is important to stress that institutionalized routines or standards can be detrimental as well as beneficial in this respect. For example, if they are characterized by efficient communication and shared forms of problem solving, they will naturally be beneficial for coordination, whereas if they are defective in certain ways.

Finally, it is important to note that the construction of this institutional foundation through the consolidation of standards and conventions is a slow process and also subject to institutional changes. The process is one of constant adjustment in an endeavour to coordinate behaviour in collective action (Bakvis & Juillet, 2004).

2.2 Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination Challenges and Ecotourism Development in Shared Ecosystems

Tourism policy can be defined as a set of regulations, rules, guidelines, directives and development/ promotion objectives and strategies that provide a framework within which the collective and individual decisions directly affecting long-term tourism development and the daily activities within a destination are taken (Edgell, 2008).

Tourism policy coordination is seen by Goeldner (2006) as first and foremost a political activity, influenced by the economic, social and cultural characteristics of a particular society, and by the formal structures of government and other features of the local political system. He argues further that this may extend beyond government and include 'policymaking tourist organizations and the tourist industry.' This means that there is a political motive, as well as economic for the development of tourism policy. Therefore, the state is a key actor in tourism policy coordination although other stakeholders such as NGOs are involved.

This study is focused on the fact that the increasing border permeability and increased interregional cooperation such as the European Union (EU) are manifesting themselves in the form of common tourism development policies and in the building of cross-border tourism destinations. However, the relationship between national borders and tourism development is complex, for borders manifest themselves in tourism and influence it in many ways (Goeldner, 2006). He argues that border institutions are built and maintained by state governance in order to control, regulate movement and transport between states. This physical border can form a barrier to tourism flows, or it can be crossed almost unnoticed.

According to Goeldner (2006) state borders in international relations have not gained much attention in the literature of tourism. It is important to note that regional tourism policy brings about cross-border collaboration in tourism which makes it easy to cope with global shifts and changes in regional cross-border dynamics. Therefore, regional policy coordination is important because it pools marketing resources and offer varied tourism product development. The opposite is true since lack of joint marketing sets stage for competing interests between states.

For instance, border permeability and the barrier effects caused by the border such as regulations for the movement of people and goods, will directly influence tourism flows and the development and distribution of tourism infrastructures in a border region.

Timothy (2006) concurs with him that border permeability and the level of cross border partnership reflect on political divisions and state regulation and, therefore, the shift in border discourse should be examined in the context of wider political and economic changes which the state regulation policies have encountered. Prokkola (2009) observes that tourism policy coordination in border regions has been state centric, characterized by hierarchically, organized, centralized state institutions, including the regional and local administrative districts. However, in recent decades, there has been a shift from national tourism policy and regulation towards a more scattered and complex global economic and political tourism policy environment.

This means that the foundation for political and economic activities with regard to tourism across national boundaries in border regions is no longer established and regulated exclusively by nation-states and bilateral agreements between states, but by many other sub-national and supra-national organizations, private enterprises and other transactions (Geilormo, 1995). As border permeability increases, the development of state-centric tourism can be supplemented or even replaced by regional cooperation. In this new politico-economic situation in which regional cross-border organizations and partnerships are emerging, state borders no longer merely represent barriers to development, but instead they have become resources (Hayson, 2009). This has led to the creation of regional tourism policy through coordination of tourism action plans.

Therefore, two sides of a border cannot ignore what is happening to the other side, in regions where cultural and natural tourism resources lie across or adjacent to international boundaries. This calls for cooperative planning necessary to exploit their potential and to reach the goals and principles of sustainability. According to Timothy (2006), regional cooperation takes form at various levels and can be divided into two categories. The first category is composed of institutionalized networks, promoted by government agencies authorized to operate on international or regional levels. The second category is composed of cooperation established between local authorities, businesses or individuals on two sides of a border; nonetheless it is not normally supported by laws or official treaties. Two communities, for example, belonging to opposite sides of a border planning a festival is an example of informal cooperation.

From review, it is clear that a region needs to facilitate cross border tourism policy coordination. However, this facilitation is not an end since other stakeholders could engage in tourism activities without knowledge of the State. Unfortunately, even with existence of regional tourism policy there are challenges of policy coordination in shared ecosystems.

Thus, local border tourism destinations need to switch their role from competitors to partners. The level of competition and complementarity among partner states is cross-border coordination (Timothy, 2006). However, the path from competition to complementarity is a dynamic process coordinated by a common policy. For example, territorial management organizations in tourism can operate in the areas of partnership that are particularly important in border regions because they are linked to borderland characteristics, contrasting political systems and issues of sovereignty (Odgaad, 2006).

According to Peters (1995) a common regional tourism management system might bring many advantages. On one hand, it can take common marketing initiatives, enhance the coordination, share the know-how, avoid the risk of losing market share because of competitors, enrich the supply, prolong the duration of stay of tourists and rationalize the offer of the area where there are present different managing organizations with similar competences. According to Kari (2001), the aims and roles of regional tourism policy revolve around a set of sub-themes. He argues that regional tourism policy coordination need to focus how cross border tourism rules and regulations enhance community development, ecosystem conservation, tourism infrastructure, monitoring and tourism marketing.

2.2.1 Ecotourism Development

The international tourism industry has grown to include alternative types of tourism, one of the most popular being ecotourism. According to UNWTO (2002) the term ecotourism refers to a sub-sector within the tourism industry that focuses on minimizing environmental and cultural consequences, contributes to conservation, community projects and environmental education. Therefore, communities that reside within or around tourist destinations are key actors that cannot be ignored in tourism policy coordination.

Nikolas (2007) concurs that ecotourism brings together both the international economic development and the international conservation sectors. Therefore, ecotourism has become a very effective policy tool. According to Buckley (2008) the common denominator is that ecotourism is concerned with travel by environmentally conscious visitors to interact and enjoy nature while imparting economic benefits to the local community and contributing to environmental conservation at the destination.

He argues that there are six characteristics of ecotourism to consider when adopting a definitional standard for this sector of tourism. First, ecotourism should involve travel to natural areas, which are often remote, and under some kind of environmental protection. Second, ecotourism must minimize the impacts on the surrounding area. Some ways to ensure the minimization of impacts on the surrounding areas is to regulate the number of travelers that may enter the area, their behavior, and the use of renewable sources of energy. Thirdly, ecotourism builds environmental awareness by educating the tourists and the residents of nearby communities. The fourth characteristic of ecotourism is that it provides direct financial benefits for conservation. Fifth, ecotourism provides financial benefits and empowerment for residents of local communities. Sixth, ecotourism must respect local culture by having a minimal effect on the natural environment and the human population. This characteristic puts the responsibility on the eco-traveler to be aware of the host country's political climate. In order to assure that ecotourism meets all these goals, many proponents suggest that a standard system of certification needs to be established (Buckley, 2008).

For example, according to Hawkins (1998), the implementation of an environmental certification system for eco-lodges and other ecotourism services will facilitate the setting of standards of excellence for the industry, and the increased promotion will thereby increase marketing opportunities and help further conservation goals. The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) designed Green Globe 21 Certification to define a global standard for environmental performance. Another certification standard, the Ecotel Certification, allows lodging facilities to rate their own environmental performance. Environmentally conscious travelers may base their lodging decisions on whether a lodge has demonstrated sensitivity and superiority in five areas: solid waste management, energy efficiency, water conservation, environmental legislation compliance and native land preservation, and employee environmental education and community involvement (Mustahahti, 2010). The National Audubon Society developed a certification system to motivate and educate people to protect wildlife and their habitats and to conserve natural resources. Moving beyond tourism, the Audubon Cooperative Sanctuary Program for Businesses and Corporate Properties (ACSP) encourages organizations to take a leadership role in conservation projects. Businesses may apply for certification by achieving excellence in four categories: environmental planning, wildlife and habitat management, environmental outreach, and resource conservation.

From review, ecotourism is a form of tourism that makes it necessary for policy coordination between stakeholders both at national, regional and international level. This type of tourism focuses on nature conservation and community where tourism activities take place. Thus, the states are mandated to facilitate policy coordination alongside non-state actors. Ecotourism somehow decentralizes policy coordination by involving regionalization and non-state actors unlike traditional mass tourism.

2.2.2 Ecotourism Development in Shared Ecosystems in Regional Blocs

Keating (2015) argues that development of ecotourism in transboundary ecosystems is a challenge. This is because working across international boundaries is qualitatively different from working at sub-national level between countries because of different rules and regulations reflected in different management/governance systems, incompatible databases and monitoring practices and varied levels of economic performance; sometimes too, there are difficult political relations between countries.

However, regional cooperation need to establishment of cooperative frameworks since it has a great potential to help improve ecotourism between sovereign countries and also distribute revenues evenly among stakeholders (Godber, 2002). Therefore, regional cooperation plays an important role in advancing ecotourism development when contiguous ecosystems are divided by a border (Gurung, 2008).

Therefore, regional cooperation and coordination is a way of opening negotiation, communication channels and thus reinforcing and enhancing ecotourism development across borders (Herne, 1999). The reverse, however, is also true; where there is no will to address border policy coordination challenges between countries, or where agreements are yet to be ratified.

But partner states that share a transboundary ecosystem need to be guided by international standards when marketing itself as an ecotourism destination. For instance, according to WTO (2004), regional tourism policy should respect and follow each of the respective national policies as well as all internationally recognized guidelines such as Ramsar, UNESCO and the European Sustainable Tourism Charter. Moreover, there are clear and practical policies and procedures established at an international level, as well as many successful cross-border initiatives, that could be the foundations for the establishment of regional tourism policy agreements on ecotourism development between states.

From this review, it is clear that a shared ecosystem that transcends an international border is likely to suffer tourism policy coordination challenges. This is because politics, economical and social interests inform policy action with regard to tourism development even in the context of ecotourism. Because of competing interest between states, non state actors have little role in policy coordination and are relegated to the periphery. Ecotourism development in such conditions becomes difficult because environmental degradation is greater in a shared ecosystem where policy coordination is little or lacking. The reverse is true because regional tourism policy coordination reduces competition and fosters cooperation as discussed in the following section.

2.2.3 The Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination and Ecotourism Development in the European Union

The Treaty of Lisbon established a legal framework for the tourism field among the EU member states, spells that the EU has competence in the field of tourism only through the use of supporting, coordinating or complementary action (Prokkola, 2009). In sum, the Lisbon Treaty provided a certain legal base that promotes legal transparency of the laws and also encourages a favourable environment for the development of an integrated approach to tourism issues.

European Territorial Cooperation (ETC), which more commonly is known as Interreg, has played an important role for cross-border tourism development. The main objective of ETC is to promote a harmonious economic, social and territorial development of the EU. Each Interreg programme is built around three strands of cooperation which include cross-border (Interreg A), transnational (Interreg B), and interregional (Interreg C) (EU, 2016). Interreg A include cooperation between NUTS III regions and it aims to deal with identified joint challenges in the border region, enhance cooperation and exploit growth potential (EU, 2016a). Interreg B focus on a larger scale and involves regions from several EU countries forming bigger areas. Projects within this strand often relate to innovation, environment, accessibility, communication and urban development (EU, 2016b). Interreg C has the largest scale of the three strands and involves all 27 EU member states. Focus of projects on this level include building networks for practice, facilitate exchange, and transfer of experience by successful regions (EU, 2016c).

One of EUs popular region is the Dinaric Arc, named after Mt. Dinara, one of the mountains of the large Dinaric Arc. It is a region of South Eastern Europe encompassing some 100,000 km and more than 6,000 km of the Adriatic Sea coastline, from north-eastern Italy to northern Albania. It includes portions of Italy, Slovenia, Croatia, BiH, Serbia, Montenegro, Albania and Kosovo.

Often one of the core challenges for transboundary sustainable tourism development is the lack of available funds. All the project sites (Drina Tara Region, Una-Plitvice Lakes National Parks, Dinara Mountain Range, Neretva River Delta, Durmitor-Sutjeska National Parks and Prokeltije are in need of funding, and current economic resources are scarce (Melenhorst, 2013). Despite the fact that these protected areas receive financial support from local and national authorities, funds for the PAs of the Dinaric arc are not abundant. While transboundary cooperation will be more cost-effective at a later stage of cooperation, the initial set up requires financial resources for negotiations, travel costs for joint meetings, possible translation and joint training sessions. However, the EU regional and cohesion policy provides funds for ecotourism projects.

The EU has a policy on sustainable management of tourism destinations and protects the heritage of tourism destinations across member states. Actions to promote sustainable tourism include the development of a system of indicators for sustainable management of tourist destinations; developing a European "Quality Tourism" brand to increase consumer security and confidence; promoting responsible attitudes of European tourists through awareness-raising campaigns; facilitating the identification of climate change risks; proposing a charter for sustainable and responsible tourism, as well as a strategy for sustainable coastal and marine tourism. Cooperation with emerging and Mediterranean countries is also to be developed.

Though tourism in the Dinaric Arc can be used as a means to generate income for nature conservation and education, certain impacts are unavoidable and these should be minimised. According to Melenhorst (2013), visitor management is an important component in limiting such negative impacts. He argues that collaboration in visitor management ensures that goals and objectives are aligned for the region as a whole, and can also limit the need for financial resources, avoiding duplication. The first means to make people aware of their impacts, and thus stimulate them to decrease such impacts is through information and education/interpretation sharing. Providing visitors with information about the PA and its surroundings through leaflets, books, websites, visitor centres and interpretation signs makes the visitor more understanding of the natural and cultural surrounding.

In as much as the EU has a regional tourism policy on how to educate the visitor on environmental conservation, this policy needs to extend and apply to communities that reside around tourist destinations. Further still, the EU regional tourism policy is silent on how tourists' projects benefit the local people; as a way of conserving environment (Knight, 1998).

In the Dinaric region of the EU, the six partner states collaborate by establishing a common code of behaviour, publication of brochures, leaflets and other information materials for the entire region. For example, the National Tourism Associations of Montenegro and Croatia are members of the Leave No Trace Canter for Outdoor Ethics; an educational, non-profit organization dedicated to the responsible enjoyment and active stewardship of the outdoors by all people, worldwide. For Montenegro, with a growing network of trainers, local tourism organizations, event organizers, travel agencies, institutions, association and clubs, the aim is to extend the awareness for nature protection while promoting wilderness and outdoor activities in Montenegro and Croatia (Melenhorst, 2013).

In this region, NGOs and travel agencies have joint efforts across the border to promote environmental awareness. It is clear that the state is incapacitated in such ventures as such other non-state actors are handy.

In a recent resolution of 14 January 2014, the EU emphasised the importance of regional quality branding as a means to sustain high-quality tourism covering the different fields of regional tourism such as agri-tourism, eco-tourism, gastro-tourism, industrial, historical, natural and cultural heritage, and called on the Commission to include various forms of tourism involving rural activities in related measures and programmes such as EDEN or Calypso.

Further still, the EU monitors ecotourism destinations with view of protecting heritage across member states. In Barents region, for example, the EU conserves the biodiversity of boreal and arctic ecosystems. This is made possible by bringing together a wide range of nature conservation authorities, research institutions and non-governmental organizations from Finland, Norway, Russia and Sweden. In order to develop sustainable tourism, the commission has co-funded the development of cultural routes. For example, it has developed astronomical sites across Greece, Spain, Italy, Portugal and Bulgaria (EU, 2007).

It can be argued that by funding projects of common interest, the EU not only conserves cultural heritage but also ensures that the concerned states mutually benefit from tourist activities. As such, competition among member states is reduced because development of tourism products or infrastructure is even in the region.

(Beachler, 2002) argues that the EU has a common marketing policy for all its member states in order to consolidate the image and profile of Europe. For example, the Centre for Sustainable Tourism Initiatives (Montenegro) in cooperation with Extreme Sports Club Limit (BiH) implemented a project for initiating the Via Dinarica route and the whole process of identifying the potential tourism resources, creating trails, helping small accommodation providers to reach the standards within the categorization standards set in both countries, and promoting the region as an ideal place for nature and culture activities. The result was a tourist offer under the brand 'Via Dinarica.' This brand will support cross-border initiatives for economic development with an emphasis on the improvement of rural tourism. By establishing linkages and providing the means for experience exchange among stakeholders, local knowledge was strengthened and the quality of services improved. However, one of the main constraints for the Dinaric Arc is the lack of existing online information. This includes websites with information regarding tourist attractions, cultural events, hotels, tour operators, transport, its history, culture, climate and links to other PAs (Melenhorst, 2013).

For accessibility to tourist sites within shared ecosystems, the EU has expanded, modernised and streamlined EU-wide transport infrastructure, by co-financing the development of the Trans-European Transport Network (TEN-T). TENT-T funds transport projects of common interest and traffic management systems that facilitate the mobility of goods and passengers within the EU. For example, the projects connect main airports or seaports to other modes of transports. To easy movement from one tourist destination to another, the EU adopted a common visa policy is applied to parts of its territory such as the Schengen Area. In this area, the EU has removed internal border controls for those travelling within the Schengen Area, but has retained external border controls (EU, 2007). According to Prokkola (2009), the new rules would, according to Commission, 'shorten and simplify the procedures for those wanting to come to the EU for short stays, and induce more cost savings and less bureaucracy, whilst maintaining the level of security' (European Union, 2007).

All tourism is related to the consumption of experiences and products. To facilitate this consumption, access by tourists and visitors to natural and cultural heritage sites like a PA, needs to be facilitated through the development of tourism products such as transportation, travel providers and interpretation programmes. Tourism based on the natural and cultural values of a region or destination is intrinsically place-specific and originates from the distinctive character of the place. It is the heritage identity or attraction of the place that is marketed, followed by the tourism products that enable travellers to actually experience and appreciate the place (Prokkola, 2009).

The Dinaric Arc region, for example, offers a wide variety of tourism products, some of which could also be used in a transboundary setting. One of the main products to be developed in the Dinaric Arc region is the establishment of connecting hiking and cycling trails between the different bordering sites. For example, the Croatian Mountain Rescue Service (HGSS) is an organisation which focuses on mountain rescue, education and prevention of accidents. For these reasons, HGSS started the initiative for improving the accessibility and safety of the Dinara Mountain range between Croatia and BiH, one of the sites of the Dinaric Arc. This initiative is in collaboration with the mountaineering association Dinaridi from Split and mountaineering associations from BiH. HGSS has initiated the marking of trails, building of mountain huts, shelters and the publication of a mountaineering tourist map of the area (Blamney, 2001).

On financial resources, the EU Cohesion Policy in particular asked the Commission to develop clear signposting for the financial support available for tourism-related projects, and emphasised that tourism should continue to play an important role in cohesion policy, within the framework of the 2014-20 financial perspectives. It also asked that a specific tourism programme, targeting micro-, small and medium sized enterprises in particular, be established in the 2014-20 financial perspectives, a proposal that did not in the end materialise.

From review, it can be argued that the EU regional tourism policy coordination makes it easy for tourists to visit tourist destinations which expose them to a variety of tourist products offered by partner states. By funding of common interest projects such as roads, routes and even airports to easy tourist movement form one state to another; development of tourism in many partner states is almost at par. The EU tourist destinations are marketed as one destination with different tourism products based on each state competitive advantage. This means that competing interests are removed since greater focus is on common interests between the member states. For example, the common visa in the Schengen tourist area facilitates tourist flow in different tourist sites of partner states. However, the EU tourism policy exclude any harmonisation of tourism laws and allow the EU only to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States. This means that EU tourism policy is limited to providing financial support or legislating through other EU policies (EU, 2007). In as much as the EU regional tourism policy coordination promote ecotourism, the policy suffers challenges of community development in tourist destinations; a core component of ecotourism.

2.2.4 Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination and Ecotourism Development in ASEAN Region

In ASEAN region, ten member states signed the ASEAN Connectivity 2011-2015 Agreement which touched on key areas of regional tourism policy. ASEAN member states agreed to address challenges to infrastructure development that was a hindrance to cross border tourism. In addition, the 2006 ASEAN framework Agreement for Visa Exemption of ASEAN nationals was to boost intra-regional tourism. The Common Visa policy for non-ASEAN nationals was put in place to promote ASEAN as a single tourist destination (Apichai, 1998).

The region created specific institutions to facilitate infrastructure development and transport connectivity. The ASEAN Transport Action Plan 2005 was put in place to cover land, air and maritime transport. Therefore, several projects such as ASEAN Highway Network project, the ASEAN Open Sky Policy, ASEAN Multilateral Agreements on Air Services are concrete policies and agreements to promote the full implementation of ASTP. To finance such transport connectivity the ASEAN Infrastructure Fund was created. Other key finances such as China, Japan, regional and international financial institutions like the ASEAN Development Bank complement (Grundy, 2001).

To diversify tourism product, four tourism products were identified for development and integration regionally through the ASEAN Tourism Marketing Strategy. The concept of Asia's Ten Perfect Paradises was adopted to promote diverse but integrated tourism products for ten member states.

The ASEAN region also recognizes the role non-state actors play in regional tourism. The ASEAN tourism related private sector and NGOs have developed in tandem with the ASEAN regional tourism process and evolving dynamic role of tourism industry in socio-economic development in the region. The ASEAN Tourism Association (ASEANTA) is a non-profit tourism association comprising both public and private tourism sector organizational over ASEAN. This organization role is to strengthen cooperation among member states and enhancement of standards of service and facilities for tourists (Page, 2000).

Furthermore, the region adopted a Mutual Recognition Agreement on tourism professionals that will increase quality tourism. The ASEAN Minimum Competency Standards for Tourism was created to develop human resource and facilitate mobility of professionals within the region. Member states also adopted the Standardization of Tourism Services covering green hotels, food, and ecotourism and heritage tourism.

The regional tourism in Southeast Asia is supported by sub-regional cooperation frameworks such as Mekong Cooperation Mechanism among countries sharing Mekong River, CLMV Tourism joint cooperation Plan and Growth Quadrangle (Apichai, 1998).

However, even with a regional tourism policy, the concept of single tourism destination is not fully developed due to challenges of less infrastructure development, marketing strategy which is not well developed. Further, investment in tourism is focused on transportation networks and commercial development rather than harmonization and integration of social, environmental, cultural and ethical dimensions. Also, social and environmental impacts assessment of tourism is limited (Laws, 2003).

2.2.5 Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination and Ecotourism Development in SADC Region

In SADC region, state parties signed two protocols: Tourism Development (1998) and Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement (2003). The former provides for, among other things, the creation of a regional body to market the SADC region as a collective tourism destination while the latter supports the establishment of TFCAs.

With TFCAs as a single tourist destination, the Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA) envisages that the region will, by 2020, receive tourists accounting for 52 % of total arrivals in Africa (SADC, 2012). BSA is also set to initiate a long-term investment in development infrastructure to increase the number of tourist facilities (hotels and lodges) and improve quality and sophistication of service industry (including transportation, tour operating services as well as visa and payment arrangements) within TFCAs (Boundless southern Africa, 2009, South African Department of Environmental Affairs, 2012).

Critical to the current discussion are two issues; first, the fact that BSA activities are anchored on the core idea of spatiality and borderlessness (that also underpins TFCAs) thus making cross-border tourist experiences part of an attractive package. BSA brand was actually designed as a strategy by the PPF and South Africa's Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) to seize the financial gains that TFCAs were potentially to mobilize through the soccer World Cup in 2010. Indeed, it is not difficult to make projections of how TFCAs can attract tourists to the region; all of the region's most famous attractions - Kruger park, Victoria Falls, Okavango Delta and Fish River Canyon - are enclosed in TFCAs (Büscher, 2012).

Tourism investment within TFCAs are currently linked to 'Boundless Invest' where issues of finance, foreign exchange, mortgage and property are handled (Lauermann, 2011). By 2008, only one year after the establishment of BSA, TFCAs had a pipeline of 51 bankable investment opportunities ranging from small and medium type lodges to multimillion developments while projects to the value of approximately USD 22 million were negotiated with investors (Boundless southern Africa, 2009, Lunstrum, 2011). In this context, BSA is framed to fit and support investments of a particular network of actors within TFCAs.

In the SADC region, the /Ai/Ais-Richtersveld Transfrontier Park (ARTP**)** was founded in 2003 and was the result of combining the /Ai/Ais Hot Springs Game Park in Namibia and the Richtersveld National Park in South Africa. /Ai/Ais Hot Springs Game Park in Namibia is government owned while the Richtersveld National Park in contrast is owned by the Richtersveld Community and leased to the government of South Africa (Steven, 1996).

Regional tourism policy coordination is evident through cooperation between the park agencies in charge of the /Ai/Ais Hot Springs Game Park and Richtersveld National Park, Namibia Wildlife Resorts and South African National Parks (SANParks) since 2006.

Further still, joint management bodies were established at bilateral and regional levels, such as the Bilateral Ministerial Committee and the Joint Management Board, both working at the strategic policy level of cross-border park management. The bilateral Park Management Committee coordinates at the operational level. Since 2009, park agencies have gained experience in organizing joint transboundary tourism activities. The harmonization of legal matters remains nonetheless inadequate (Steven, 1996).

One advantage here was the existing cooperation between the park management bodies at strategic and operational level. This has increased the knowledge on the different framework conditions and intensified the joint search for practical solutions. However, issues such as work permits for tour guides and immigration rules for kayak trail clients across the border are yet to be put in place (Richard, 1998).

To establish the tourism product development across the border, guides are trained in capacity development, to procure kayaking equipment and to work on marketing. The Nama community in Namibia was granted a concession for tourism development along the Orange River. Although this could attract more tourists to the area and benefit Desert

Kayak Trails, it could also mean increased competition for the project (Emillia, 2009). This means that even within the context of cross border cooperation tendencies of competition among actors are likely to arise.

Although Nama people on both sides of the border have the same roots, cross-border contacts are infrequent. However, cross-border communication between the Namibian and South African communities was enhanced by visits of community guides. Cross-border activities have been extended at park management level, contributing to Transboundary Frontier Conservation Area (TFCA) coordination. The main job opportunities in the region are provided by mining companies and commercial farms, but unemployment is generally high. It can be stated that on the whole communities on both sides of the border lack opportunities for income generation (Kumar, 2003).

This means that community participation within the project is currently somewhat passive and strategies to hand over project operation to community members are vague. This objective will only be achieved if community guides are trained accordingly. The flow of information between project implementers and guides is seen as difficult and the absence of open dialogue is evident. Furthermore, the long distances between the villages and the tourism area are a challenge to greater economic and political participation of larger communities which derail the prospects of ecotourism development (Wolmer, 2003)

Regional tourism policy coordination between Swaziland and Mozambique came into being with the establishment of the Lubombo Conservancy-Goba (LCG) Transboundary Frontier Conservation Area (TFCA) combines Lubombo Conservancy, an association of protected areas in northeast Swaziland, with the Goba district in southern Mozambique. The Goba community on the Mozambican side and the Mhlumeni community on the Swazi side are the communities targeted in the project area. The pilot project aims at strengthening conservation through economic development and enhancing the livelihoods of people in the Lubombo mountain range area. Numerous activities with a strong community-based approach were envisaged, extending from community preparation via participatory land-use planning and baseline data collection to project implementation. This includes drawing up eco-business plans and an integrated management plan, as well as tackling infrastructure, capacity development and marketing. The project also contemplated cross-border activities such as the introduction of cross-border community forum on natural resource management (Wolmer, 2003).

The Lubombo Conservancy carried out several activities in the context of designing a community-based ecotourism product. These led to greater conservation awareness and the foundation of the CBO Mhlumeni Trust. In Goba, on the other hand, there has been no activity in this direction and consequently no cross-border outputs have emerged (Wolmer, 2003). The Lubombo Conservancy adopted a community-based approach. The foundation of the Mhlumeni Trust is one of the key outputs of the participatory approach that saw broad community involvement. In Goba, in contrast, the complex situation, the short timeframe and the ill-prepared approach were contributing factors to the failure of the participatory process. The CBO was not sufficiently involved and the fact that it was not representative of the whole community was ignored (Wolmer, 2003).

In as much the Lubombo Conservancy-Goba (LCG) Transboundary Frontier Conservation Area (TFCA) is a cross-border project, there is lack of coordination of plans. On the Goba side, the community was not fully involved in the implementation of the project unlike the other side, Lubombo Conservancy. Therefore, unless all actors are involved in coordination of policy plans the likelihood of cross-border initiatives not producing the desired result is high.

In the 1990s, participatory land-use planning was carried out in the Goba community and land set aside for conservation purposes. The process was never finalized, however, and to date no area has legal conservation status. Consequently there is no management body on the Mozambican side of LCG. Nevertheless, a community-based organization (CBO) was founded and entitled with land rights. On behalf of the Goba community, it was entrusted with the management of approximately 10,000 ha (Wolmer, 2003).

However, one non-governmental organization (NGO) on each side of the border is responsible for the project in LCG: Lubombo Conservancy on the Swazi side and CESVI on the Mozambican side. The idea of the project is to develop a cross- border trail with campsites/lodges in both communities. The project is embedded in a broader programme on the Swazi side, the Eco Lubombo Program, which promotes tourism development and biodiversity conservation (Wolmer, 2003).

But cooperation between the implementing partners failed. CESVI, the NGO on the Mozambican side, subsequently withdrew from the project. Cooperation was never formalized and for several reasons no agreement was reached on project implementation, e.g., poor assessments prior to implementation caused the partner in question to draw false conclusions about the situation in Goba. Replacement of a CESVI country director on two separate occasions during the project implementation phase led to loss of information. Both parties had neglected the aspect of cooperation (Kathrin, 2015).

From review, it could be argued that informal institutional policy coordination is difficult collaborating across the border without formal agreements. However, the process of formalizing these agreements need to be participatory; that is, involvement of all actors across the border. Ecotourism projects may also fail to produce desired results due to lack of monitoring as is the case with Lubombo Conservancy-Goba.

Other challenges have to do with equal distribution of benefits. The survey indicated that the industry had awaken the economy of the KAZA region particularly through the provision of more than 5,500 jobs, 94% of which were filled by local employees who earned more than USD 14 million in wages and salaries by 2004. In addition, about USD100 million was generated by the accommodation and tour operator sectors. The survey also reports that almost 90% of tourism businesses within KAZA were privately owned and that local owners were earning a relatively small proportion of total turnover generated in the industry. However, many of the sites of high tourism development potentials within the TFCA were still seen on communal land where local entrepreneurs do not have the necessary expertise or financial resources to start a tourism business (Suich et al., 2005).

There is particularly a growing evidence of massive loss of land by rural communities and the resulting increase in poverty (Lunstrum, 2015) leading to the view that TFCAs and other kinds of supra-national destinations are mainly a means to enter into regime of accumulation (Büscher, 2012). Indeed, tourism was not explicitly part of most NGO's original activity portfolio but there has been a progressive engagement in developing tourism-conservation enterprises that incentivize landowners outside national parks to protect wildlife (Van Wijk et al., 2015).

2.2.6 Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination and Ecotourism Development in EAC Regional Bloc

In EAC region, coordinating policies and regulations can lead to increased coordination and pooling of resources especially for the following tourism-related improvements: improved road and air access, fewer visa restrictions, increased cross-border movement of people and goods, and more harmonization of national policies as well as on safety and security – all of which bodes well for increasing the volume and benefits of EAC regional tourism (EAC, 1999).

Mayaka (2005) argues that in 1938, a common tourism policy within the East African region (Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania) emerged. This led to the formation of the East African Publicity Association (EAPA). By 1948, a quasi-government organization with the role of developing and promoting tourism to the region, the East African Tourist Travel Association (EATTA) was established. The industry's (tour operations and travel sectors) participation and innovation are best illustrated by the introduction of the nine seater tour van, uniquely used in the region to-date. At this point, there was effort to regionalize tourism in EAC.

Since 1999, coordination of tourism policy in EAC is captured in articles 115 and 116 of the EAC treaty of 1999. Article 115 states that the Partner States undertake to develop a collective and co-ordinated approach to the promotion and marketing of quality tourism into and within the Community. Strengthening coordination on regional tourism policy and marketing was addressed in Article 115 of the EAC Treaty, which requires member states to develop a regional strategy for tourism promotion, with the development objective of "ensuring equitable distribution of benefits" from sustainable tourism and wildlife resources (EAC, 1999).

The East African Community partner states (Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, Rwanda and Burundi, and recently South Sudan) have continued to strengthen their cooperation in Tourism and Wildlife sectors. The East African Tourism Wildlife Coordination Agency (EATWCA) is mandated with this task of marketing the region as a single tourism destination. A single tourist visa and a comprehensive roadmap for developing a brand strategy to promote East Africa as a single tourist destination is part and parcel of this strategy (EAC, 1999). The challenge to marketing is that no EAC state has developed a specific regional strategy individually or as a group.

But market and promotion of East Africa as a single tourist destination is enabled via the East African Tourism and Wildlife Coordination Agency (EATWCA) at international tourism fairs. For example, partner states participate jointly as EAC in major international fairs in UK and Germany. In terms of promotional efforts, promotional materials (DVDs, brochures, posters etc) have been produced and distributed to market the region

Lastly, in addition to these priority strategic interventions, the World Bank study recommended increased EAC coordination on improving and sharing statistics and research. The study recommended several other interventions, but improved research would provide the improved data needed to achieve the other interventions, such as improved crisis management and the creation of multi-country itineraries based on market demand and interest.

This article also stipulates that partner states develop coordinated efforts in controlling and monitoring encroachment and poaching activities. The challenge is that the region has not come up with a policy on monitoring and research. However, it emphasizes that joint training and research facilities be developed. Therefore, the EATWCA was created as an implementing agency for EAC tourism activities but the challenge is that it lacks mandate to host site for the research portal. A joint monitoring and research policy is important since with the best possible data and research from each country, the Agency would also, thereby, be better positioned to achieve the other interventions, notably joint marketing and the development of regional initiatives, especially related to routes and circuits, which would generate more operator and investor confidence and interest.

Furthermore, the policy stipulates for Hotel Classification exercises using the common EAC criteria. It is important to note that the Protocol on the establishment of The East African Community Common Market has already been signed and so there is now a more easy flow of people, goods and services across the Eastern African countries. This is expected to boost tourism in the region and benefit individual states and the region collectively as tourists from Europe, America and Asia visiting are expected to visit all the countries in a single trip to Eastern Africa. For instance, Kenya has developed quality standards as specified under the Hotels and Restaurants Act (HRA act) (EAC, 2012). But there are still policy coordination challenges on standardization, implementation and adherence to the collective agreements.

Article 116 further states that Partner States undertake to develop a collective and co-ordinated policy for the conservation and sustainable utilisation of wildlife and other tourist sites in the Community (EAC, 1999). To affect this mandate, the East African Tourism and Wildlife Conservation Agency was created as an implementing agency for EAC tourism activities. To this end, the East African Tourism Wildlife Conservation Association (EATWCA) Board function is preparation of operational procedures and guidelines on tourism in the region.

Despite a regional tourism policy, member countries promote and develop their respective tourism industries independent of each other, apart from Kenya and Uganda, who under the East African Community (EAC) have started on a joint promotion and marketing campaign together with other EAC member states (IGAD, 2011).

In particular, Tanzania had earlier on withdrawn its signature for the Protocol on Environment and Natural Resources Management (2013), which is key to operationalizing the environment chapter of the EAC Treaty (EAC, 1999). The country proceeded to disapprove the ‘Borderless Borders of East Africa initiative’ which approved a single tourist visa for East Africa in early 2014. Tanzania's decision based on the view that shared resources have revenue and security matters that have not been scrutinized especially with the current security threats that Al Shabab poses to the region.

The country's position exerts pressure particularly on the use of shared tourist destinations such as Serengeti-Maasai Mara ecosystem but also complicates travel arrangements for tourists wishing to visit the country through Kenya and vice versa. For example, in July 2013, Tanzania banned Kenyan tourist vans from entering the country (*Arusha Times*, 20/7/2013) while the Kenyan Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) banned Tanzania tour operators and vehicles from picking them up from Jomo Kenyatta Airport in Nairobi (*The East Africa*, 17-23/1/2015). Apparently, Tanzania and Kenya are implementing a bilateral agreement of 1985 that require off-loading of tourists at the borderland. Since there is no any regional agreement signed on shared tourism destinations, the 1985 restrictions are binding. This does not resonate well with the spirit of the announced Borderless Borders initiative.

Manyara (2009) argues that within East Africa context, the challenges have been that East Africa countries have not engaged in bilateral air service agreements owing to the fact that these countries do not adopt an "open-skies policy" which is major impediment to tourism product development, especially, the regional segment. This is because access to tourism sites varies according to the nature of the site, the state of infrastructure, and the efficiency of the public transport system. This is necessary for the development of regional infrastructure as it allows economies of scale through pooling and joint facilities.

Moreover, the protocol is more focused on joint natural resource management of shared ecosystems, and wildlife tourism. This means the protocol is deficient on many aspects of tourism product development. This tourism policy and regulatory frameworks is silent about policy coordination on research and monitoring with regard to ecotourism. Most policy documents mostly refer to wildlife and tourist market research. Most government research departments concentrate on collecting tourism statistics on visitor arrivals, departures, and expenditure and hotel occupancy. Less emphasis is given to aspects such as ecotourism product development, eco-marketing and eco-tourist visitor satisfaction and community development (IGAD, 2011).

From this review, it is clear that the EAC tourism policy faces institutional challenges in coordinating action between member states in the region. Non-state actors' role is not clearly stipulated in the protocol, the state is still the major decision maker on tourism issues. The regional tourism policy is silent on connectivity aspect that is enabled by interconnected roads networks, rail and airports to promote cross border tourism. The incapacity if regional tourism policy in key policy areas, sets stage for statist policies and competing interests among partner members and in particular shared ecosystems such as Serengeti-Mara.

In this ecosystem, the uncontrolled development of tourist facilities and large numbers of visitors in protected areas has resulted in a significant loss of biodiversity (UNESCO, 2013). Furthermore, despite such developments, the net benefits accruing to local communities are minimal and the various challenges to conservation including human-wildlife conflicts and encroachment on protected areas have been on the increase (Manyara, 2009). Therefore, ecotourism which is a form of sustainable tourism is affected negatively in EAC region because the protocol is deficient on many aspects of tourism in general. The following section discusses Tanzania and Kenya tourism policy.

2.2.6.1 Tanzania Tourism Policy

Tanzania is endowed with twenty protected areas which cover thirteen percent of its territory (Kahama, 1995). In addition, there are also fifty six controlled areas where humans and wildlife live together (Salzar, 2009).Tourism development in Tanzania can only be understood from a historical perspective.

During the colonial period, the tourism sector served the interests of westerners who came to observe and hunt exotic animals. Upon independence, the Tanzanian government established the Tanzania National Tourist Board. But the colonial legacy gave the Europeans and Asians the advantage over inexperienced Tanzanians. As a result, there were few indigenous entrepreneurs and little African capital for investment (Ranja, 2003). Even after independence, Tanzania's tourism was still under the influence of foreigners. This means that local participation in decision making was little, and therefore, policies were skewed in favour of foreigners.

The Arusha Declaration changed socialist approach to tourism matters. It considered tourism as a form of cultural imperialism which undermined cultural life (Shivji, 1973). Consequently, tourism became bounded up with the growth of the parastatal sector. The Tanzania National Tourist Board was wound up in 1969 and a new inefficient parastatal called the Tanzania Tourist Corporation established (Salazar, 2009). This parastatal work was to oversee hotel construction program, establish wildlife marketing and put up travel agencies. In 1970, a tourism division was added to the Ministry of Natural Resources. The TTC commissioned a 'Tourism Master plan' which saw the construction of the Kilimanjaro International Airport to facilitate direct flights from Europe. Due to the ideology of socialism, the government originally controlled the tourism industry. The Tanzania Tourist Corporation (TTC) built, owned and managed 15 properties and hotels. The development of tourism, it was argued, would not contribute to the *ujamaa* policy of self-reliance, and would in fact promote a dependency upon the developed world (Freisen, 1995). Therefore, the government invested few funds into tourism infrastructural works and discouraged private and foreign investment. Despite this lack of initiative, tourist numbers increased within the country during the 1960s and 1970s.

The growth of Tanzanian tourism sector was hampered by lack of participation by the non state actors such as private sector, non-governmental organizations and international organisations. The socialist approach to the management of tourism sector affected it in terms of growth due to lack of funds and expertise to run such a sensitive industry. The industry was placed in the hands of political elites who determined policy coordination.

For example, the Tourism Division, found within the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), is the main governmental body responsible for tourism within Tanzania. With a state controlled tourism industry, major foreign hotels were reluctant to commit their resources to Tanzania Tourism according to Curry (1978). Lack of capital was compounded by poorly trained and inexperienced personnel. Therefore, investment in the sector ceased and everything else fell below international standards. For example, management was localized; the new staff was inexperienced and not sensitive to the expectations of international visitors. The roads to the beach hotels north of Dar a Salaam and the wild life parks deteriorated.

Therefore, tourism in Tanzania became unsustainable because of socialistic approach. Lack of participation by non-state actors and particularly international NGOs denied Tanzanian tourism sector funds and expertise. This means that the state is handicapped when it comes to a sustainable tourism industry. Non-state actors are needed if sustainable tourism is to flourish. In addition, interstate cooperation between Tanzania and Kenya is lacking.

This situation changed after immense pressure from the World Bank and International Monetary Fund in 1985. Tanzania reopened its border with Kenya and enacted the

‘National Policy on Tourism’ in 1991. This policy recognized the importance of the private sector in the development of Tanzania tourism industry. The Tanzania Tourism Board was established, and together with the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism launched a new ‘Tourism master plan’ (MNTR, 2002). Tanzania took major reforms in partnership with foreign aid agencies such as USAID, DFID, SIDA and GTZ. With the assistance of World Bank, Tanzania upgraded its infrastructure including access roads and passenger facilities at harbors and airports (Richard, 1998).

This change of tact saw private investment increase by about 13% (Bachmann, 1987). There were twelve foreign companies such as Serena and Sopa lodges, Stock Hotels of South Africa operating in Tanzania tourism industry. Because there was concentration in the hands of foreigners, Tanzania, lost about two-thirds of its foreign earnings in the tourism industry (Manyara, 2009). According to All African Travel and Tourism Association, hunting is 95% foreign owned, air travel 99%, land 88%, hotels and lodges 80% and leisure and recreation 50% (MNRT, 2001).

With liberalization, Tanzania tourism has grown faster than Kenya’s (Kahama, 2005). But there is a long way to go before Tanzania catches up. (Akama, 1999). Chachaga (1999) argues that despite this development, Tanzania’s tourism development is stimulated through regional, continental and global alliance. Tanzania is a member of SADC which has a tourism coordination unit. At the continental level, Tanzania is a member of Africa Travel Association; and globally, a member of UN World Tourism Organization.

But with all these reforms Tanzanian tourism is still riddled by lack of community development, wildlife loss and cultural distortions. Tourism in Tanzania is linked to development and sustainability of natural parks, game parks and other protected areas as wildlife viewing contributes to a great proportion of the industry. However, increasing number of tourists in the area damage some of the nature parks (Salazar, 2009). Tourism in Tanzania meant hunting. Tanzania has the largest safari hunting industry. There are thirty five hunting companies registered of which fifteen wholly foreign owned, sixteen Tanzanian owned and four were joint ventures. The country has fourteen game reserves where licensed hunting is permitted. The Tanzanian government believes that a hunter brings in hundred times more revenue than does a non hunting visitor. However, those involved in conservation and nature tourism find hunting a threat to sustainable tourism (Salazar, 2009).

From review, it is clear that Tanzania has enacted statist policies and regulations to govern its tourism industry. Policy coordination is centralized, hierarchical and does not capture interests of many stakeholders. What has emerged from the review is that some policies do not promote conservation, community development, environmental awareness and tourist infrastructure. Tanzania regional cooperation is betrayed by the notion that opening its borders would lead to loss of revenue. However, there are stakeholders such as the local communities whose perception is that they do not benefit from tourist ventures. There is no mention of ecotourism as much as some strategies put in place relate to nature and sustainable tourism. Moreover, some of the policies such as hunting tourism could impact negatively on the ecosystem as a whole.

2.2.6.2 Kenya Tourism Policy

Kenya has a diverse natural environment and unique cultural heritage. The country boasts of numerous attractions ranging from pristine beaches along the coast, snow-capped mountain to varied landscapes of the rift valley, lake basins, forest and vast savannah beaming with wildlife to cultural diversity (IGAD, 2011).

Kenya tourism can only be understood from a historical perspective. In the period extending from late 19th century to 1962 at the height of Kenya's struggle for independence, British and American explorers and adventurers came to Kenya mainly for big-game hunting expeditions and sightseeing (Akama, 1992). In post independence Kenya (1963–1991), tourism was characterized by strong government interest and involvement as well as active private sector participation although not always in partnership (Akama, 1992). The Kenya Tourist Development Corporation (KTDC) was created in 1965 to finance potential investors in tourism, especially small and medium-scale hotel owners, and to invest in tourism on behalf of the government. In 1966, the Department of Tourism was upgraded to the Ministry of Tourism and Wildlife responsible for all matters of development and management of tourism.

According to Akama (1992), the government formulated a policy paper (Sessional Paper No.8) on the development of tourism in Kenya which defined the direction of growth and targets for the industry. It is within this context, for example, that the Kenya Utalii College (KUC) was established in 1975 with the mandate to train high and middle- level personnel for the tourism sector. The sessional paper adopted tourism policies that protected and developed tourists' attraction sites.

Therefore, based on this initial foundational model, tourism in Kenya is still supervised and coordinated by a fully-fledged government ministry, the Ministry of Tourism. The subject of tourism policy has been examined extensively; however there is little evidence of progress in addressing policy issues (Manyara, 2009). There have been a number of initiatives to draw long-term policies and plans for Kenya's tourism system (JICA/ MOTW, 2008). Therefore, tourism policy development in Kenya was statist, and involvement of other stakeholders such as local communities was minimal.

This explains why whereas tourism consumes resources at the largely rural destinations, the favorable economic impacts are not effectively felt as distribution of revenue is always at the discretion of the central government, often, in disregard of regional economic and social needs. Therefore, Kenya tourism policy lacks coordination even at national level. It also lacks cross-border aspect with regard to transboundary ecosystems such as the Mara and Kilimanjaro.

However, the 2010 constitution proposed a more devolved approach to management of resources and specifically mandates regional governments to have control over the tourism within their jurisdictions (Republic of Kenya, 2010). Henceforth, tourism policy coordination was decentralized but the process of policy formulation and the outcome remained a political process and hence the need for inclusivity and consensus among key stakeholders.

Kenya’s ecotourism development has been hindered by lack of tourism policy coordination even at the national level. This lack of policy coordination has left out key stakeholders such as local communities. This explains degradation of Kenya's natural wildlife and coastal beach resources, which historically are base of Kenya's tourism (Akama, 1992). Thus, tourism sites suffer from increased human settlement, overcrowding and poorly planned or unplanned tourism development which is detrimental to sustainable tourism.

In the Maasai Mara reserve, there is growing population pressure from agriculturists and livestock keepers around the park and in wildlife areas (World Bank, 2010). The dependence of these communities on resources is direct and immediate in the wildlife habitat. In their struggle for food and fuel they often have little choice. This is further complicated by the fact that environmental management policies cut across sectors and ministries and are affected by various political interests. There is evidence of overall product offering and destination decline as a direct effect of these environmental challenges (Akama, 1992).

The issue of structure and ownership of industry is historical and has both demand and supply implications. The feeling among some stakeholders that the tour operation's sector of the industry is either foreign owned or in the hands of non-indigenous Kenyans led to the formation of Kenya Association of Local Tour Operators (KALTO) in 2006 as an alternative to Kenya Association of Tour Operators (KATO) largely seen as representing non-indigenous Kenyan interests.

Mayaka (2005) argues that the foreign ownership is not obvious as the laws of the country somehow preclude it. This measure has facilitated the evolution of an alternative leakage model where majority of investment is the monopoly of political and social elites who front for foreign owners. Eighty percent of Kenya tourism industry mainstream service providers are owned jointly or entirely by political or politically influential figures (Elliott, 2005). Honey (2008), however, argues that among the measures was a strategy of ensuring that the communities living near protected areas financially benefit from the parks and tourism as a means to not only motive them conserve the environment, but also improve their socio-economic status.

From the forgoing discussion, it is clear that Kenya tourism policy captures aspects of ecotourism. But the exclusion of communities that reside around protected areas has affected conservation efforts. Further still, revenues that accrue from tourist ventures benefit a few political elites and foreigners. Therefore, tourism policy coordination is disjointed and is not inclusive of major stakeholders. Policy coordination even at national and regional levels is centralized and hierarchical which automatically locks out interests of other key stakeholders. This explains why ecotourism development even within Kenyan borders has suffered major setbacks.

However, there are attempts by the government to place several reserves, including Maasai Mara and Amboseli National park under the control of local county councils which began receiving revenue from both entrance fees, hotels and other tourism facilities (Honey, 2008). Mara has been owned and managed by the Narok Sub-County government. In 1994, Trans-Mara District was created and the establishment of the Sub-County government of Trans-Mara. Therefore, Masai Mara is dually managed by the two sub-county gocernmants that collect their revenues from tourists, lodges and camps from respective sides (Sindiga, 1999). Further still, through the group ranch approach, some communities have given up part of their grazing land for conservation and in partnership with the private sector engaged in tourism business ventures. These approaches have been broadened to encompass environmental and culturally sensitive tourism that helps to educate visitors and local community members; this formed the foundation of ecotourism development in Kenya (Sindiga, 1992).

From this review, despite the development of tourism in Kenya, there is no specific legal framework to guide and regulate ecotourism development. Moreover, regional cooperation in the Serengeti Mara region has not been considered as a key strategy to coordinate policy actions for a shared ecosystem. There is more focus on mass tourism as much as possible from tour visits, therefore, no policies on the damage the very visitors may cause nature, and wildlife and culture have been put in place. Further still current tourism policy does not boost community development as expected. This can be reflected in conflicts between humans and wildlife because the local population does not gain much from tourist activities in their area.

2.3 Formal Institutional Coordination Affecting Ecotourism Development

The border is not only a political line dividing states, there are economic, social and mental bordering processes that hinder cross - border interaction and network formation, which are prerequisites for cross -border institution building and the development of a cross-border regional cooperation. Within the cross-border region 'institutional gaps' can be observed, which resemble the limited amount of innovation related cross-border interaction among actors, due to differences in the institutional structures on both sides of the border. Furthermore, these institutional gaps can hamper the build -up of regularities and influence the evolution of regional tourism policy coordination in a negative manner (Jos, 2013).

He argues that institutions might consist of rules, routines, habits, conventions, customs or practices that are internalized by the majority of actors in a population (Moodysson & Zukauskaite, 2012). Formal institutions refer to laws, rules and other judicial elements in regional or national policy coordination. Differences in juridical systems and laws are challenges to cross -border cooperation (Haselsberger & B ennewort h, 2011). On the other hand, laws and regulations that are formulated on a supranational level can be supportive to cross -border cooperation as part of the uncertainty related to collaborative cross-border innovation is reduced. Scott (2008) argues that r egulative institutions show strong overlap with formal institutions. They are of a coercive nature and consist of rules, laws and accompanying sanctioning (Scott, 2008).

For sustainable tourism to thrive, a regional tourism policy on sustainable resources management practices needs to be developed. Therefore, laws relating to sustainable tourism within and outside protected areas need to be coordinated. For example, a no-waste policy, with recycling, composting and reusing should officially adopt as part of park practices (Buckely, 2008). The leave no trace policy, where visitors carry-out everything they've brought in should also be part of the overall sustainability goals of the park and visitor satisfaction. The Euro park charter has clear and concise rules or norms on tourism certification which includes sustainability standards (WTO, 2005). These are several key factors for waste water, waste management, sustainable building and energy efficiency

These laws extend to areas outside the protected areas. This is because a transboundary ecosystems' long-term viability is dependent upon the sustained vitality of local communities and the continued support of people who live and work in, and visit the protected areas given that a variety of businesses operate in and around the ecotourism Sites. For example, border communities need to develop micro generation of renewable energy, creating niche markets for sustainable agricultural products, capitalizing on site branded products or designing sustainable buildings, as examples (WTO, 2005).

Therefore, sensitive habitats or nesting areas need protection (Buckely, 2008). For example, zoning is applied in each ecotourism site core/Restricted-use areas such as bird nesting, rare plants, sensitive cultural resources, buffer zones, tourism activity zones such as Hiking trails, kayaking, biking; facilities and infrastructure areas such as Gift shops, offices, restaurants, hotels; Research zones and education areas; Traditional management zones such as Fish hatcheries, Organic farming and use of traditional crops, Fishing; Selective forestry and Creation of land use map for each site with current and future development of different zones (Colombo, 2010).

This follows that the number of tourists for each respective area be controlled and this information shared by actors. Such states need to ensure that on harvested species that are sold, displayed, consumed or traded comply with all regulation and ensure a sustainable utilization of the wildlife. (Buckely, 2008).

In South America region, Mexico, Guatemala and Belize made joint policy efforts to protect their environments and to safely promote the beauty of their respective protected areas. They signed the Central American Alliance for the Promotion of Sustainable Development in 1992 to help change the economic and environmental sustainability in the signors country. This agreement facilitated the exploration and restoration of ancient sites and the initiation of a Maya Pass to check on tourist numbers. Additionally, the agreement involves local people in the tourism ventures and the economic development of the region.

Secondly, marketing rules are important for any tourist destination. There is need to develop a strong regional brand identity and promote the brand at any tourism destination. Buckley (2008) argues that this activity needs not to be carried out in a parallel process across a transboundary ecosystem if this happens then competing interests set in. He further argues that each state develop a strong individual identity of protected areas needs to be promoted.

The Thayatal ecosystem between Austria and the Czech Republic is an example where the signs, information and interpretation are presented in both languages. Similarly, the Transboundary Protected Area (T.B.P.A) between Austria and Hungary also attracted many locals to take an excursion in the neighbouring park and here, too, international tourists constituted only a minority among the visitors.

The eco-marketing needs to focus on local product development. Hawkins (1998) argues that in most cases operators and communities develop their ecotourism programs on shoestring budgets, while in other cases; donors provide generous financing for specific activities. However, in general ineffective or insufficient marketing is probably the primary reason why worthy ecotourism ventures in developing countries fail to attract visitors. This means that beside the niche tourism products the state needs to partner with NGOs to develop a variety.

For example, the Mundo Maya organization was formed to market the regions tourism destinations. The purpose was to unite the culture, ecology and local communities to create a strong tourism marketing front for the three countries. These projects are strong examples of the Maya Forest countries desire to promote tourism and sustainable development (Steveny, 2000). These projects are successful because both state and non-state actors participate in a cross-border perspective.

Eco-marketing also targets small business enterprises and local community products. Steveny, (2000) argues that one possible solution to the publicity problem is collaborative marketing in shared ecosystems, that is; many small ecotourism projects advertise together in order to take advantage of their common pool resources. For ecotourism to flourish, a region must consider marketing strategies that support the conservation of ecosystem

Some communities and ecotourism operators in the Maya Forest, for example, are owners of eco-camps and other ecotourism facilities. Alianza Verde and EcoMaya are two organizations specifically dedicated to marketing ecotourism in the Peten Alianza Verde is a representative organization with several full-time employees. Members of Alianza Verde come from the tourism sector, the Guatemalan government, ecotourism committees from several communities and from NGOs with tourism initiatives. Alianza Verde is a non-profit organization whose objective is to maximize the ecological and socio-economic benefits of ecotourism in protected areas by promoting best practices in the regional tourism industry and through effective marketing (Escofet, 1999). EcoMaya also helps to market ecotourism in the Peten, but using different strategies than those of Alianza Verde. EcoMaya is a for-profit organization with five full-time employees. Tourism committees in eight rural communities and ProPeten/CI own the stock in EcoMaya .

In SADC region, the Boundless Southern Africa (BSA) initiated a long-term investment in development infrastructure to increase the number of tourist facilities (hotels and lodges) and improve quality and sophistication of service industry (including transportation, tour operating services as well as visa and payment arrangements) within TFCAs (Boundless southern Africa, 2009, South African Department of Environmental Affairs, 2012).

Tourism investment within TFCAs are currently linked to where issues of finance, foreign exchange, mortgage and property are handled (Lauermann, 2011). By 2008, only one year after the establishment of BSA, TFCAs had a pipeline of 51 bankable investment opportunities ranging from small and medium type lodges to multimillion developments while projects to the value of approximately USD 22 million were negotiated with investors (Boundless southern Africa, 2009, Lunstrum, 2011). In this context, BSA is framed to fit and support investments of a particular network of actors within TFCAs.

But challenges to policy coordination in these areas abound in some shared ecosystems. In practice, however, border regulations hinder regional policy coordination as described for the Aggtelek BR where border had been closed during the night until 2008. In the Aggtelek BR case, there is strict interpretation of competent jurisdiction together with a legal framework that didn't allow for joint action which hindered attempts to find common solutions for nature conservation issues as described for the case of the parallel Slovak/Polish trail in Babia Góra (Steveny, 2000).

Further still, lack of funds can complicate policy coordination. The governments of the Maya Forest region are extremely limited in funding for ecotourism marketing and awareness. These environmental initiatives and policies are of limited value without the proper financial backing to hire the proper number of enforcement personnel, environmental managers or park personnel (Steveny, 2000). This is reason why many governments have turned to partnerships with private agencies or NGOs with capacity to operate across the border.

The connectivity aspect in a region is possible if a region strategy on interconnected road, airports and rail networks exist. Cross-border tourism is an attraction to tourists who need to access tourist products with ease. This has made it necessary for regions to launch infrastructural projects along the borders to improve infrastructure and security to promote tourism and local community development. In the ASEAN region, for example, China is building and strengthening road access to the Kyirong valley, and Nepal is developing a road network that will eventually link to it, as well as eventually join Olanchung gola and Kima thank Pass in the eastern Himalayas. Similarly, India is building roads along the border with Nepal in the Singalila Range reaching to the Kachanjungha area. This new road network is anticipated to promote tourism, community-based conservation, and modern forms of business on both sides of the border and would transform the traditional way of livelihood.

Further still, communication and information exchange in shared ecosystems is vital. In some regions, however, Rainer *et al* (2007) argues communication and educational activities of the protected areas, especially in Babia Góra to certain extent also in Šumava and Aggtelekare not considered in a regional context. The websites and information material of the National Parks (NPs) only provide information about the own region and rarely visitors can obtain information of the cross-border area as a whole. Inter-linkages between communication programmes of the PAs are limited and joint strategies of communication are still lacking. Such lacks also persist regarding local transport and local culture. Joint solutions for sustainable transportation, cross-border events for local communities and visitors and commonly organised cultural programmes are still rare (Gerlinde, 2007).

From review, there are formal institutions that have enabled regional policy coordination as far as conservation and development of ecotourism projects are concerned for Maya Forest in Latin America region. But this is not the case in others such as Babia Góra, Šumava and Aggtelek in the EU region.

A regional tourism policy on monitoring and research is part of conservation efforts. This is to ensure that whatever policy actions taken need to be checked if desired results are being met or not. Therefore, monitoring and reporting prevent damage, or cumulative impacts of tourism. Monitoring rules here involves carefully selecting and piloting indicators, collecting and evaluating data, and presenting and acting on the results which are shared by both state and non actors across the region.

Isaacs (2000) argues that an important conservation and resource management activity is that of research and monitoring. Without accurate reliable data about the past and current situation of the park and its eco-systems it is impossible to establish an effective management regime. Monitoring ensures that park managers have the most accurate information and capacity to manage the conservation of sensitive ecosystems and vulnerable cultural heritage sites in their sites, buffer zones and tourism corridors, as well as adapt the tourism and conservation management measures to possible habitat changes caused by tourism, visitation, climate. Isaacs (2000) observes that an important part of the role of these staff members will also be to liaise with other institutions and academic research projects that want to undertake research in the park. This will provide a coordination of research activities in a cross border perspective enabling the park to guide the focus of research to priority areas and maximize the benefits for the park.

For example, a regional monitoring system has been adopted in the Dinaric Arc region (Melenhorst, 2013). Therefore, PAs across the border to be aware of types of impacts include environmental impacts; the impact of tourists on the PA and its surrounding areas. For example, the impact of visitors on certain bird species in a certain area (measure and monitor the presence or nesting success of the bird species in the area), erosion of trails; economic impacts – the impact of tourism on the local economy; socio-cultural impacts – the impact of tourism on the surrounding communities measured and monitored in a qualitative way (Melenhorst, 2013).

Rule or laws on regional service quality is a way to ensure quality experiences for the visitors and tourists across the region. Tourism is based on experiences and these experiences are again based on the provision of quality tourism products. Monitoring the service quality is the key for continued success of providing qualitative tourism experiences. In addition to monitoring visitor impacts or the service quality of the site, it is also essential to understand how the ecotourism destination is doing in comparison to other destinations in the region or world. For example what do other destinations in the region offer in regards to tourism products and what are their markets and how do they attract these.

However, sometimes gaining reliable tourism data is a challenge. For example, in the Western Balkans and thus in the Dinaric Arc region of EU, it is challenging. Data that is made available often only represent one-third of the actual figures, which accounts mostly for data in regards to the accommodation and service industry. This is mostly due to unregistered businesses and the requirement for bed/visitor tax payments (Melenhorst, 2013).

2.3.1 Formal Institutional Coordination Affecting Ecotourism Development in Serengeti-Mara Ecosystem

Article 115 of EAC regional tourism policy states that Partner States undertake to develop a collective and co-ordinated approach to the promotion and marketing of quality tourism into and within the Community. Further, Article 116 directs Partner States to undertake to develop a collective and co-ordinated policy for the conservation and sustainable utilisation of wildlife and other tourist sites in the Community.

To this end, market and promotion of East Africa as a single tourist destination is enabled via the East African Tourism and Wildlife Coordination Agency (EATWCA) at international tourism fairs. Secondly, the East African Tourism and Wildlife Conservation Agency was created as an implementing agency for EAC tourism activities, including the implementation of a 2007 ECA tourism marketing plan and strategy

Since Serengeti-Mara is a transboundary ecosystem in EAC region, the regional tourism policy applies to it. This is due to the fact that tourism activities or jurisdiction in one state affect the environmental and social systems in the other or East Africa region as a whole, and cross border communities have seamless cultural interactions (LVBC, 2010).

However, there are policy challenges with regard to conservation and sustainable utilisation of wildlife and other tourist sites in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem as stipulated in EAC regional tourism policy. In Tanzania, Tanzania Wildlife Division (TWD); (TANAPA is responsible for the management of all wildlife, including those outside protected areas. TWD administers the Game Control Areas around Serengeti National Park. Serengeti National Park is administered by Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA). TANAPA is a government parastatal with the mandate to conserve and manage wildlife resources within protected areas for the present and for posterity. In Kenya, Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) is a government parastatal with the mandate to conserve and manage Kenya's wildlife resources within and outside protected areas for the present and for posterity. Mara has been owned and managed by the Narok Sub-County government. In 1994, Trans-Mara District was created and the establishment of the Sub-County government of Trans-Mara. The Maasai-owned group ranches make up the larger part of Serengeti Mara ecosystem on the Kenya side. Among the association's aims is to integrate the activities of the various member ranches thus allowing for wildlife and livestock to be managed within a large landscape. Many NGOs operate in Serengeti Mara ecosystem, among them African Wildlife Fund (AWF) with conservation programs on both sides of the border (UNESCO, 2013).

From review, the international border bisecting the Serengeti Maasai Mara Ecosystem creates parallel zones of institutional rules, laws, practices or norms. These institutions are either local, regional or national therefore operate at that level. These institutions lack capacity to operate at cross border level. This means that formal institutional policy coordination at cross border level is lacking.

Article 116 of the EAC Treaty on tourism stipulates that partner states coordinate to promote activities which are conducive to sustainable tourism development. These activities can be human or tourism. This means that land use practices need to promote wildlife conservation and sustainable tourism in general.

In the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem, different land-use practices and conservation orientations linked to different rules, laws and conditions existing in the two countries lead to disjointed policy coordination virtually in all policy areas (LVBC, 2010). Thus, complex problems such as wildlife loss, environmental degradation and related transboundary issues across the ecosystem lack an integrated approach as stipulated in regional tourism policy. For example, the white-bearded wildebeest, found across Kenya and Tanzania as is facing large declines due to incompatible land uses in their migratory corridors and dispersal areas (Estes and East, 2009; UNESCO, 2013). This has occurred as their migratory corridors and dispersal areas have become blocked or lost, limiting their migratory movements.

This is reason why, in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem, land use practices adapted do not support conservation in varied perspectives. For instance, community lands around protected areas in the SMME are converted to provide land for settlements, cultivation and grazing. This means that the people around the SMME engage in other economic activities that do not support ecotourism. Historically, land use practices were favourable to ecotourism development because of low human population and partly due to the seasonal pattern of use by semi-nomadic pastoral tribes. But adoption of new modes of life by the surrounding communities, these areas is now facing undue pressure. Unfortunately, the biodiversity in these areas lacks adequate legal protection, and its utilization is often unplanned and uncontrolled across the ecosystem (LVBC, 2010).

These land use activities, which include cultivation, land subdivision, settlements, fencing and other infrastructure, disrupt migratory movements and cause wildebeest populations to decline. The patterns of land use in the Maasai Mara ecosystem have changed from nomadic pastoralism to sedentary pastoralism to agro-pastoralism and in some cases pure agriculture or cultivation.

LVBC (2010) report indicates that many of the above threats are caused by trade-offs between biodiversity conservation and other income generating activities. It states that there appears to be strong economic incentives for individual (private) landowners to develop their land at the expense of biodiversity on both sides of the border. Herne (1999) argues that since many of the prime tourist destinations in Tanzania are natural conservation areas, ecotourism has become a popular alternative for many tourists. Ironically, the growth of tourism has shown to contribute to the land tenure policy issues faced by the Maasai. For example, in its effort to expand the tourism industry, the Tanzanian government has sold land to foreign companies. It is often the case that the areas sold contain land in which the Maasai were living and herding cattle. Some tourism companies assume control over their purchased land and then deny the Maasai access. She argues that there have been reports of physical violence when the Maasai wander onto the privately-owned land, and many accounts suggest that these tourism companies are not creating financial benefits for the Maasai as promised (Herne, 1999).

LVBC (2010) report states that it is important to identify and develop biodiversity friendly alternative land use practices or laws, which would yield acceptable levels of income to landowners. He argued that the current revenues to landowners from wildlife-based tourism are simply not adequate to stop land development.

From this review, it is clear that land use practices on both sides of the border in Serengeti Mara do not support ecotourism development. There is lack of policy coordination. As a result, migratory corridors are blocked and wildlife dispersal areas reduced such that human-wildlife conflicts are a common occurrence.

Mayara (2009) argues that there is need to develop more community run management areas as additional buffer zones around the parks to enhance conservation of wildlife. This is due to threats on wildlife and other closely related natural resources; there is need for concerted efforts on long-term conservation needs and strategies. He argues that the most affected resources are forests, water and wildlife. Since these are the basis on which community groups are anchored and benefit, the need for sound strategies is indeed urgent and must incorporate trans-boundary legal and policy issues specifically addressing the Serengeti Mara ecosystem. This explains why conservation of wildlife in protected areas is too small to have an impact on overall resolution of human–wildlife conflicts (LVBC, 2010). The problem here is that Maasai Mara National Reserve

(MMNR) and Serengeti National Park (SNP) allow wildlife tourism as the only land use practice. These two core areas are surrounded by buffer zones consisting of game reserves and conservation areas which allow for tourism settlement, livestock, cultivation and hunting.

In the Maasai Mara, ecotourism has often been proposed as a sustainable alternative to agricultural land uses (LVBC, 2010). Tourism has also provided livelihoods for many Maasai living in areas around MMNR. The Mara tourist industry centres on wildlife viewing. Because wildlife survival depends on open land for migration, park managers make payment to the Maasai who continue grazing rather than fencing land for cultivation (LVBC, 2010). But some human land use practice in Maasai land are incompatible with wildlife survival, while increasing wildlife density also threatens pastoral and cultivation lifestyles. Elephants, in particular, threaten cultivation and large elephant populations raise concerns about crop trampling (Walpole *et al*. 2003) and damage to homesteads, while other grazing animals may eat the crops intentionally. Pastoralism also faces threats from migratory wildlife, with the Koyake Maasai community refer to the annual wildebeest migration as their yearly famine because the wildebeest outcompete cattle for grass and introduce diseases to the domesticated animal population (LVBC, 2010).

Further, EAC regional policy stipulates that partner states need to harmonize their policies for conservation of wildlife, within and outside protected areas. This not the case with Serengeti-Mara ecosystem, for instance, hunting is allowed in game reserves in Tanzania but prohibited in Kenya. LVBC (2010) report observes that hunting can have severe consequences on biodiversity if not well managed and controlled. He suggests alternative practices to hunting do exist, such as capturing animals to sell or provide to conservation institutions, and these options can be utilized in the case of local overpopulation of certain species of wildlife or instances of negative human-wildlife interactions.

Moreover, Tanzania enacted in March 1998 recognizes explicitly the principle that wildlife must pay if it is to be welcome on private and communal lands. The policy also provides for the creation of “wildlife management areas (WMAs)” on community lands where wildlife management is selected by the community as a land use and economic activity while it is the opposite in Kenya where no hunting, except limited game-bird shooting is allowed. Just to elaborate, in Tanzania’s Game Control Areas (GCAs), licenses are issued to hunting companies and individuals. Such kind of contradictory policies between countries that share common cross border resources the way Kenya and Tanzania do in the Mara-Serengeti region could mean that the ecosystem is endangered (Rentsch and Packer, 2012).

Poaching is a threat to many migratory populations, particularly as human populations around protected areas increase (Bolger *et al*., 2008). In the Serengeti National Park it is estimated that local consumption of bush meat is responsible for approximately 70,000-129,000 wildebeest deaths per year (Rentsch and Packer, 2012). A high intensity of poaching is also linked to a decline in wildlife numbers in the Mara area of Kenya (Ogutu *et al*., 2009).

Dispersal areas and migratory corridors can be kept open for wildlife, by encouraging wildlife-friendly land uses, and the cooperation and participation of community and private landowners. Therefore, governments need to provide the correct enabling policy and legislative environment to support the types of initiatives already emerging to protect migratory habitat. Due to the transboundary nature of wildebeest migration in the SMME, the respective countries and governments need to work together to mitigate threats to the migrations (UNESCO, 2013).

From review, it is clear that the local community is not engaged in policy coordination particularly on land use practices. The state, foreign companies and private individuals determine ownership and land use practices. Further still, policy coordination in a transboundary perspective on land use practices is lacking.

The EAC regional policy stipulates that partner states develop common policies, laws and strategies to minimize adverse impacts of tourism on the environment and natural resources and develop a code of conduct for tourists. However, Serengeti Mara ecosystem suffers from massive loss of biodiversity due to ineffective visitor management practices. Loss of wildlife habitat from both biophysical and socioeconomic impacts is an important problem in wildlife conservation. In the Maasai Mara National Reserve in the Narok sub-county of Kenya the primary problems are related to the insufficient life support system and the secondary problems are related to the infrastructure of the area (Manyara, 2009). Too much pressure on the park by tourists is a considerable problem for the reserve. High flow of tourists can be economically beneficial, but from the viewpoint of wildlife conservation this is not true.

It is overcrowded by tourist cars, vans, minibuses, airplanes, balloons, and micro lights, because of the very high opportunity to see the wildlife (Manyara, 2009). The infrastructure development including roads within the reserve, hotels, resorts, and campsites have a negative impact on the wildlife habitat.

The dramatic increase in visitors, vehicles, and visitors' accommodation has concerned many, especially the conservation community. Managing tourism impacts and assessing visitor capacity of the reserve has not been carried out (Walpole *et al* 2003)

It is irrefutable that visitors to natural areas have an impact on the environment, from vegetation trampling and trail erosion, to degrading cultural resources and allowing visitor crowding. Left unmanaged, these impacts can lead to unwanted changes in resource or social conditions, such as the loss of sensitive or rare plants and animals, or declines in visitor satisfaction. A challenge for protected area managers is, therefore, to prevent avoidable impacts, such as litter, tree damage or noisy/rude behaviour of tourists, and reduce unavoidable impacts such as trampled vegetation and wildlife disturbance. These impacts are most-commonly addressed through education (LVBC, 2010).

The policy also expects partner states to exchange information and adopt common policies on wildlife management and development. Therefore, good scientific information on where, when and why wildlife migrations occur is needed to inform conservation and management decisions. This includes mapping the movements and ranges of wildebeest, the ecological drivers of migration, population levels, and a good understanding of the threats to migrants and their habitats. In line with this law, the Kenya and Tanzania governments have entered a bilateral agreement to this end. They jointly map wildlife corridors and migratory routes with the aim of securing critical wildlife areas (TAWIRI and WCS, 2013). In other initiatives, researchers are collaring wildebeest to track their movements to understand how landscape fragmentation and climate change are affecting wildebeest, and reporting their movements online (CSU, 2013).

On tourism marketing, the regional tourism policy states that partner states undertake to develop a collective approach to promote and market quality tourism. In addition, the policy stipulates that partner states undertake collective measures to provide appropriate access, infrastructure and services for visitors. Connectivity of a shared ecosystem by interlinking roads, railway networks and direct flights connecting parks to access different tourist products is vital. Therefore, market and promotion of East Africa as a single tourist destination is enabled via the East African Tourism and Wildlife

Coordination Agency (EATWCA) at international tourism fairs. In addition, task forces have been formed to develop a work plan for the study and piloting of a single tourist visa, a comprehensive roadmap for developing a brand strategy to promote East Africa as a single tourist destination and harmonization of policies and laws in tourism.

However, challenges to policy coordination challenges abound. For instance, tourist access to ecotourism sites is made difficult because of inadequate transport network in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem. This is because the issue of revenue distribution and resource access is sensitive between the two countries. For example, the Bologonja tourist gate that joins Serengeti Maasai Mara remains closed since 1977 (LVRB, 2010). He argues that the land border would allow tourist traffic between the two countries but Tanzania fears losing revenue. This is because most tourist trips are still based in Nairobi. Many tourists would cross the border into Tanzania and visit the northern national parks as an `add-ons to their Kenyan destination safari. Most of the economic benefits, however, are not felt in Tanzania, but occurred to Kenya. Interregional flights between EAC countries do not exist. This means that access to migratory wildlife at a certain period of the year is not a possibility which could lead to tourist dissatisfaction.

Further in July 2013, Tanzania banned Kenyan tourist vans from entering the country while the Kenyan Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) banned Tanzania tour operators and vehicles from picking them up from Jomo Kenyatta Airport in Nairobi. Apparently, Tanzania and Kenya are implementing a bilateral agreement of 1985 that require off-loading of tourists at the borderland. Since there is no any regional agreement signed on shared tourism destinations, the 1985 restrictions are binding. This does not resonate well with the spirit of the announced Borderless Borders initiative. This regional tourism policy is lacking clarity on how such projects could be funded, more so cross border.

The EAC regional policy (Article 115) stipulates that a regional quality and standards control mechanism harmonizing for registration, classification, accreditation and grading of service providers and tourist facilities. This includes Hotel Classification exercises using the common EAC criteria.

From review, it is clear that Serengeti Mara ecosystem is managed by respective institutions or institutional practices of Tanzania and Kenya and EAC regional tourism policy does not apply. Ecotourism ventures in the SMME are yet to produce desired results due to weakness in regional tourism policy. Therefore, land use practices across the SMME are incompatible with conservation of biodiversity and wildlife. Other conservation practices have failed in protected areas and surrounding environment due to population increase and unplanned development. Moreover, land use policy has encouraged human settlement and other economic activities such as cultivation. Because transboundary institutions are yet to be created at regional level, there is little exchange/sharing of information in many policy coordination areas.

2.4 Contribution of Informal Institutional Coordination on Ecotourism Development in Shared Ecosystems

Informal institutions imply the use of values, norms and routines (Mattes, 2012). If organizations do not share the same objective but are only bound to collaborate in the development of some activities, rules and procedures might be informal and result from people's efforts to coordinate. Therefore, if organizations do not share that when crossing the border, not only laws and rules change, but also the manner in which actors interact and the relevant norms and beliefs that apply when doing business. Scott (2001) argues that informal institutions are normative institutions; morally governed, binding expectations to which people adhere such as values, norms and codes of conduct. They can also be called cultural-cognitive dimension of institutions because of shared logics and common beliefs that are taken for granted, supported by culture and everyday practices (Scott, 2001; Moodysson & Zukauskaite, 2012)

Therefore, informal institutional tourism policy coordination is composed of cooperation established between local authorities, non-governmental organizations businesses or individuals on two sides of a border; nonetheless it is not normally supported by laws or official treaties. Two communities belonging to opposite sides of a border planning a festival is an example of informal cooperation. Cross-border tourism is flourishing in integrated and interdependent borderlands

Non-governmental organizations initiate or support community-based biodiversity projects for the benefit of the public and biodiversity/wildlife (Buckely, 2008). He argues that ccommunity-based biodiversity projects need to be supported by environmental NGOs, local schools, and universities performing research activities in tourism sites, buffer zones and connecting corridors, in cooperation and under coordination of relevant PA management authorities.

These projects can have a multiplier effect towards new socio-economic action, and enable additional biodiversity gains within the local communities. This increases awareness and understanding of biodiversity conservation at community level (Colombo, 2010). For instance, the transboundary parks adjoining Uganda, the Congo and Rwanda, there is a very active involvement of NGOs in maintaining informal cooperation.

In South America, non-governmental organizations based in Mexico, Belize, Guatemala and the U.S are involved in the ecotourism industry and in the conservation of the Maya Forest across the borders. These NGOs regularly support the programs by promoting tours, publishing maps and newsletters, and organizing conferences and support systems for the local ecotourism ventures. However, unless there is substantial emphasis on the sustainability of the protected areas, ecotourism will be unable to flourish (Alexander, 1998). As the natural areas begin disappearing, available ecotourism destination sites will inevitably become limited. In addition, competing interests, such as logging, mining, and ranching, will discourage local community interest in promoting ecotourism as a sustainable economic alternative (Alexander, 1999). Therefore, the government's inability to formulate hard policies will result in the deterioration of the natural areas that can be set aside for ecotourism.

In the Limpopo Tran-frontier Conservation, the community has gained greatly by regaining its land rights in 1998 and has subsequently pursued economic development through conservation. However, most community benefits originate from government, private sector projects and income from consumptive and non-consumptive tourism ventures. The Makuleke group has received grants from government agencies, NGOs to support conservation and rural development programmes. The external subsidies to the communities participating in the conservation initiatives are usually viewed as short-term and unsustainable. This is evident in the Zimbabwe based conservation programmes whose performance has declined due to the withdrawal of donor funding. Just like the Mahenye ecotourism venture in Zimbabwe, the Makuleke community members have been hired to work in the lodges and employed as local tour guides in and around Kruger Park. Matswani Wilderness Safaris, a private sector partner for the Makuleke Community offered vocational training programs so that the Makuleke could serve as tour guides, hospitality staff and managers (Wolmer, 2003). In addition, after each safari hunt, animal meat is shared among the community members.

In the Himalayan region, at the local level, messages on reducing poaching, controlling forest fires, ways of strengthening livelihoods, and rationally using of pasturelands have become important. Therefore, a local-level network on the management of transboundary issues is evolving in the area. Annual herders' meetings take place independently of Transboundary programmes. Moreover, park authorities in Nepal and Sikkim have used such existing forums successfully to share information, and they could be used for future training activities. The result is that several poachers were arrested in Makalu-Barun and Langtang national parks (Oli, 2002).

Suich et al. (2005) conducted a baseline survey of tourism activities in 2004 in the KAZA region focusing mainly on generated economic impacts. The survey indicated that the industry had awaken the economy of the KAZA region particularly through the provision of more than 5,500 jobs, 94% of which were filled by local employees who earned more than USD 14 million in wages and salaries by 2004. In addition, about USD100 million was generated by the accommodation and tour operator sectors. The survey also reports that almost 90% of tourism businesses within KAZA were privately owned and that local owners were earning a relatively small proportion of total turnover generated in the industry. However, many of the sites of high tourism development potentials within the TFCA were still seen on communal land where local entrepreneurs do not have the necessary expertise or financial resources to start a tourism business (Suich et al., 2005). The study proposes that, with the current trend, the tourism industry within the KAZA region could be considered as contributing to economic growth through revenue generation, government tax revenues and job creation but it leaves much to be desired by local entrepreneurs.

The majority of the surveyed facilities were locally owned (82% of accommodation and 50% of tour operations for South Africa and 62% of accommodation facilities and 60% of tour operations for Zimbabwe). Likewise, the majority of employees in the sector were local residents in both countries. However, a great proportion of local employees undertake low rank positions due to the lack of appropriate academic qualifications and skills.

Nevertheless, recent studies in the same park have raised concerns about limited economic benefits available for local communities, a decade after the establishment of the TFCA (Lunstrum, 2010, Büscher, 2012). More recently studies record planned relocation of over seven thousand people from the Mozambican side of the GLTFCA following the increasing competition for land hence placing profound pressures on rural communities and their abilities to occupy space and access resources (Witter, 2013; Lunstrum, 2015.

Instead of associating tourism with the TFCA, the study associates periodic increases in tourism mainly with the growth in bed numbers which raise average length of stay and total visitor days. The second conclusion is that the increased size of and access to the transfrontier park did not dramatically influence the guests' decision to visit. That is, the change in area coverage of the park does not necessarily increase the diversity of attractions offered. Implicitly, the rate of tourism growth in KTP could be enhanced without the transfrontier arrangement by targeting expansion of park tourist facilities.

Tourism infrastructure involves local tourism product development. Since local communities are at the heart of conservation, there is need to support community based conservation initiatives. For example, in the Bwindi-Virunga National Parks, the IUCN, WWF and other international organizations provide the necessary funds and technical assistance to local community projects across the border. Ecotourism to the gorilla parks also provides the necessary funding needed for conservation of this endangered species (Rainer *et al*., 2007).

2.4.1 Contribution of Informal Institutional Coordination on Ecotourism Development in Serengeti Mara Ecosystem.

The AWF's Heartland Program which aims at securing land for wildlife protection has so far been the major role player in terms of merging pieces of land of different categories to link protected areas that are in proximity to each other and across borders (Henson et al., 2009). As its definition proves, the heartland project is central to constructing a supra-national conservation scale. For example, the Maasai Steppe Heartland involves creating connectivity between Tarangire and Manyara national parks which are part of the large Ngorongoro-Serengeti, and implicitly, connecting with the famous Serengeti- Maasai Mara ecosystem. This ecosystem crosses the Tanzania-Kenya border.

However, community land use practices in the SMME are different. The group ranch approach is a land use practice in the Maasai Mara part of the SMME. Some communities in Kenya give up part of their grazing land for conservation and in partnership with the private sector engaged in tourism business ventures. Over the years these approaches have been broadened to encompass environmental and culturally sensitive tourism that helps to educate visitors and local community members (Manyara, 2009).

In the recent years, however, there has been subdivision of group ranches; the Maasai population has stretched further across the area. The average homestead has declined in size from few communal '*bomas*' to many smaller settlements (LVBC, 2010). The footprint of these additional structures covers more space, interfering with wildlife migration patterns. The report state that wildlife density "declines significantly" when the density of structures rises. In addition to the expanding human population, private fenced ranches limit wildlife movement.

In Tanzania, however, NGOs have address issues that face the Maasai including controversial land tenure issues in Maasai land. A Tanzania-based NGO, the Pastoral

Women's Council (PWC), addresses many of the Maasai's issues, including land tenure. The PWC's land rights initiative works to make the Maasai more aware of their land rights status, as well as provide them with the skills necessary to manage natural resources and to benefit from them. The PWC works to accomplish these goals through capacity-building projects in the Maasai community (PWC, 2011).

The Maasai's land tenure issues in northern Tanzania have been acknowledged in the international arena. The UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination called on the Tanzanian government to inspect the controversies Enashiva Nature Refuge in 2009; the Tanzanian government did not act on the UN's request (Hammer, 2010).

To mitigate some of these problems, it is now commonly accepted that the people who live in close contact with, and are dependent upon, wild plants and animals for their survival must be fully involved in all efforts to find solutions for biodiversity loss. The latter forms the principle of what has evolved into Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM), which is a paradigm shift in conservation and natural resource management (LVBC, 2010).

In Tanzania, for instance, Klein's Camp undoubtedly upholds the first criterion, providing financial benefits and empowerment to the Maasai. As a result of the lease contracted between Klein's Camp and the community of Ololosokwan, funds were earned for community development. The revenue enabled the Maasai to reap financial benefits as well as use it as a source of empowerment.

In the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem the concept is gaining ground. For instance, Tanzania has redefined its wildlife conservation agenda to directly engage local communities (Goldman, 2002). The concept of CBNRM mainly involves villages managed through local authorities, the village assembly, the village finance and planning committees, the village natural resources committees and or village environmental committees. Generally game scouts and forest guards are used to police areas under community control but all members of the local community are obliged to help monitor and report illicit activities to the village authorities (LVBC, 2010).

In Kenya, there has been increased involvement of local communities in the management of local resources especially around protected areas. Within the Maasai Mara National Reserve (MMNR), management is supervised by Sub County of Narok which is a public body that develops management plans in collaboration with NGOs, the private sector and governmental agencies such as Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and National Environment Management Authority (NEMA). Within the group ranches owned by the Maasai community, there are several privately managed conservancies such as Olboisho, Mara North, Siana, Olare Orok and Motorogi.

On marketing, tourism products are supposed to be marketed in a way that benefits the local community. Coast (2002) argues that there are differences afforded by the hospitality industry for the Maasai men and women in the SMME. The Maasai women's handcraft and Jewelry that are mostly associated by the Maasai by international visitors do not directly benefit them. As such, revenues are not distributed evenly. Hogan (2011) argues that the Klein's Camp, an ecotourism company sells Maasai jewelry in its gift shop and purchase local products. These initiatives surely allow the Maasai to share the financial benefits of tourism.

Closely related to land conservation strategy is community based Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDPs) in the SMME that do not generate the scale of revenues needed to prevent the development of land (Boyd, 2012). Therefore, the expansion of ecotourism could provide various economic opportunities for the Maasai. In as much as many companies pose as 'ecotourism' companies, they do adhere to the principles of ecotourism. Some companies have purchased land from the government rather than directly negotiating with the Maasai, and some companies employ outsiders rather than local Maasai people (Boyd, 2012). For example, Thomson Safaris in Serengeti provides financial benefits to the Maasai through its financial contributions to FoTZC. However, funneling money to community projects does not necessarily empower the Maasai (Hogan, 2011). In these cases, ecotourism is not achieved, as the tourism companies are failing to contribute money to local communities and community services From review, in as much as community based development projects are facilitated by NGO's. Local groups and other organizations, there are challenges to development of ecotourism. This is due to the fact that Maasai cultural activities are not supported as part of cultural protection and cross border cultural festivities are yet to be promoted.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

This study is buttressed by the realism political, functionalism and green theories of international relations to explain aspects of interstate tourism policy coordination and ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

The political realism theory is about power politics of national interest. Therefore, realists emphasize the constraints on politics imposed by human selfishness and the absence of international government (Gilpin, 1986). For realists, global politics is, first and last, about power and self-interest. This means that states have competing interests which makes regional cooperation difficult. For classical realists, this human egoism determines state egoism, and creates an international system that is inevitably characterized by rivalry and the pursuit of the national interest. Thus, international cooperation and even 'perpetual peace' are therefore a utopian delusion. However, assumptions about human nature are peripheral within neo-realism, in which rivalry and conflict is explained in terms of the structure of the international system rather than the make-up of individuals and therefore of states (Waltz, 1979). This means that common interests facilitate cooperation, although, anarchy and relative gains always work against successful cooperation. Conversely, competing interests may be impeding cooperation. These standpoints of political realists have the following implications on shared ecosystems such as Serengeti-Mara.

To political realists, it is the practice of sovereignty which enables states to be primarily self-regarding, and avoid any sense that they have fundamental obligations to the rest of the world. Therefore, regional tourism policy coordination is hindered by statist policies. Goodin (1992) argues that the state, with sovereign rights intact, is a necessary political form to procure this regional cooperation on matters of tourism. For example, the state is the one to facilitate information about what other communities across borders were doing on a particular environmental problem. Thus there will still be a need for a central coordinating mechanism to collate everyone's action plans on policy.

On the other hand, the Green Political Theory focuses on a number of anti-ecological elements of development. One of the central features of development is the enclosure of commons (game reserves and national parks) in order to expand the realm of commodity production and thus the expansion of material throughput. Naess (1989), Hardin (1968) and Bookchin (1982) are thinkers behind the green political theory. Generally, they warn of the dangers of population growth and freedom. Bookchin (1982) highlights parallels between anarchism and ecology through the idea of 'social ecology', and is strongly critical of the 'mystical' ideas of deep ecology by Naess.

Their basic argument is that such enclosure determines redistribution and concentration of resources, which has direct ecological consequences and creates a growth-supporting dynamic as growth mitigates the effects of enhanced inequality. Therefore, concentrations of power which are involved in enclosure, as smaller numbers of people are able to control the way that land is used. Furthermore, such enclosure and the concentrations of power and wealth affects produce shifts in knowledge relations and systems, typically involving the marginalization of ‘indigenous knowledge’ and the empowerment of ‘experts’.

Therefore, the green political theory advocates for decentralism, a complete departure of the realist political theory. Unlike the realism political theory which advocates for state power and pursuit of state interests, the green political theory centres on common interests between states and non-state actors.

First, the nation-state is ineffective with environmental sustainability; therefore, new regional and global institutional structures (alongside decentralization within the state) are needed for regional tourism policy coordination. Second, authoritarianism may be required, but rejects the idea that this can be on a global scale. Green theorists advocate for small-scale, tightly knit communities run on hierarchical, conservative lines with self-sufficiency in their use of resources (bottom-up approach).

This is because small-communities are more reliant on the environmental support services in their immediate locality and therefore more responsive to disruptions in that environment. First, self-reliance and smallness shortens feedback channels, so it is easier to respond quickly before disruptions become severe. Second, local scale at which they work means that the patterns of mutual dependence make cooperation easier to achieve. Third, this also means that the culture of recognizing one’s dependence on others, and therefore having obligations, is easily entrenched.

Naess (1989) argument that the state should be relegated to the periphery on environmental matters is impractical. This is because that State is an entity that has power to organize, and is recognized beyond international borders. Therefore, regional cooperation can be facilitated by the States by creation of institutions that have capacity to operate across borders. Even in the context of informal coordination of action such as meeting of local communities across the border to curb poaching could be only permissible under the watch of the State.

General System Theory (GST) was first formulated by Ludwig von Bertalanfy (1998), as an explanatory paradigm in Biology. It has since been applied in other sciences such as physics, chemistry, ecological studies, and subsequently, to the behavioural and social sciences.

Ludwig came up with the following as main tenets of the system theory which are applicable to the international system. First, a System is made of many parts that are structured in their linkages; parts are ordered and not chaotic in their relationship. Second behaviour of a system is as a result of functioning of its parts such that alteration of a part then the behaviour of a system changes. But at the same time nations live with one another. They live in an international environment and participate in that environment. The behaviour of a nation is thus a "two way activity of taking from and giving to the international environment." This process of exchange is called the International System. Thirdly, any system is dynamic, in its interaction with other system to ensure survival. The Systems Approach conceives of nations which come in contact to form a complicated relationship resulting from the phenomenon of interaction. The activities of a nation are always directed towards the preservation of its national interest. Forth, any system has a boundary which is less more open. Boundary refers to the dividing line between the environment and the system itself. Environment means all that exists or is perceived as existing outside that system. This makes it easier to draft a line between national and an international system. Last but not least, any system is a system of a bigger system. The Systems Theory views the world as a system involving an organised complexity. This system is regulative and adoptive. Each system exists for certain purposes. And, it is for the attainment of these purposes that it adopts and regulates itself to the environment.

Lastly, the theory of functionalism by Mitrany (1966) advocates for functional areas and not states to bring about cooperation. He argues that cooperation on a certain function such as tourism, which is less emotive politically, could be a precursor to eventual integration. The form which such cooperation takes should be determined by the nature of the function in question-thus , for some functions a global institution will be appropriate while others regional or even local, institutions are all that is necessary. He further argues that exchange of information is all that is required, in some cases power of decisions may need to be vested with functional institutions. Each institution is set up in such a way that it is appropriate to cope with its particular function.

This study is focused on Serengeti Mara ecosystem. The ecosystem is subjected to statist policies regardless of the existence of an EAC regional tourism policy. Although both countries are signatories to global and regional treaties in relation to coordination of policy on tourism activities, there are challenges that abound with regard to ecotourism development in this ecosystem due to an incomprehensive EAC regional policy. This is because regional policy is deficient and partner states are yet to complement it through (sub-regional) bilateral agreements. Such a scenario diminishes interdependence in regional tourism development with regard to ecotourism development.

Therefore, there are formal and informal institutional coordination that affect environmental and wildlife conservation, community development, tourism infrastructure and education. Ecotourism is advocated as a win-win situation for the environment, local community and the tourist. But it is unplanned, unregulated in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem.

This study will focus on the relationship between regional tourism policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development in Serengeti-Mara ecosystem within the frameworks of EAC integration. The nature and extend of regional tourism policy coordination challenges, formal and informal institutional coordination are independent variables. The following figure 1 is a conceptual model that indicates interaction between the independent, dependent and intervening variables.

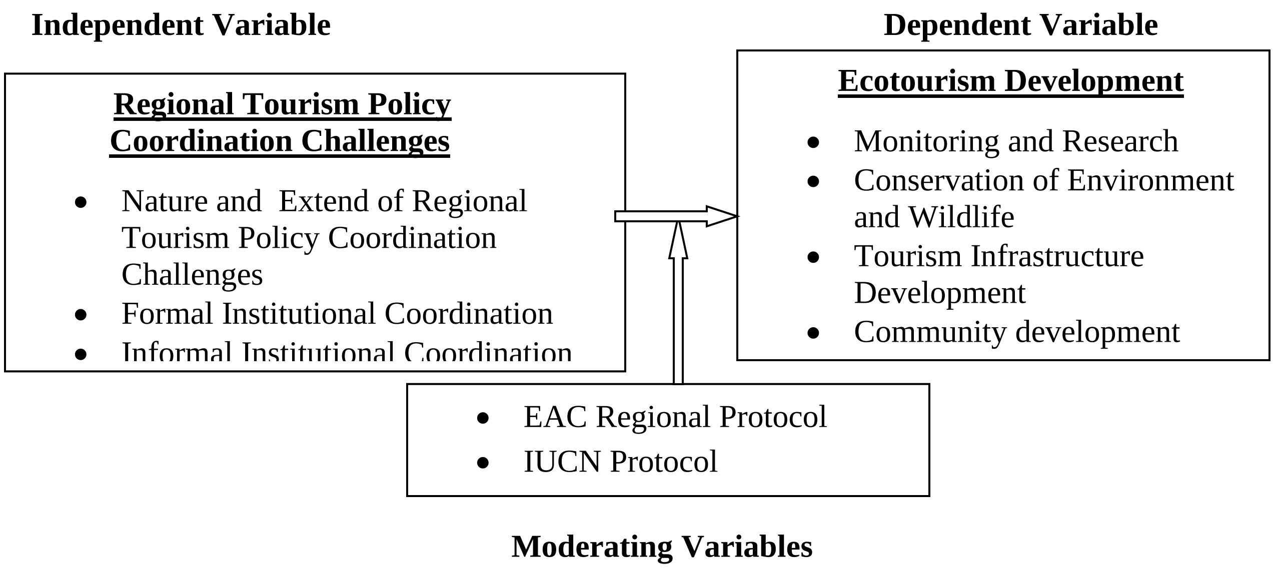


Figure 1: Conceptual Model

Source: Ungaya, 2016

Community development; conservation of environment and wildlife, and tourism infrastructure are dependent variables while international and regional protocols such as the IUCN, EAC are moderating variables. Ecotourism development opens doors for a wide range of investors to reach more remote environments (forests, coastal and marine areas) and communities that were previously not visited. But it is unplanned, unregulated, and over hyped in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem because of policy weakness in EAC regional tourism policy. Although, the EAC protocol encourages policy coordination in tourism marketing and wildlife management, inadequate regional institutions and focus on natural resource management has led to policy coordination challenges in Serengeti-

Mara Ecosystem. This has in turn affected ecotourism development in this shared ecosystem.

2.6 Summary

Literature review indicates that regional tourism policy coordination is made possible through agreements/treaties between states. Under international law, each state has sovereignty over resources within its territory. However, the same international law argues that countries are obligated to cooperate when such resources straddles international borders. The Lisbon treaty spelt out areas of policy coordination and support in the area of tourism among EU members. Other regional cooperation in tourism exists in Asia, South America, SADC and EAC. However, a weak regional tourism policy leads to coordination policy challenges particularly in shared ecosystem because of competing political and economic interests. Ecotourism is a new concept in the tourism industry that fosters development and conservation in remote areas. It is only possible when nature remains intact in such areas. However, developing ecotourism in regions complicates matters because of issues of sovereignty which creates national institutions/agencies with no capacity to coordinate policy across borders. Such a scenario sets stage for competing interests between nation states which affect ecotourism development. This compromises conservation of biodiversity and wildlife, community development, tourism infrastructure and environmental awareness among tourists and local communities.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodological base for this study. Specifically the following are addressed: Research design, study area, study population, sampling techniques and sample size, validity and reliability, data collection techniques, data analysis and presentation techniques, limitations of the study and ethical considerations.

3.1Research Design

The study will use descriptive survey research design (Okoth, 2012; Mugenda &Mugenda, 2003). The purpose of descriptive survey design in this study will be to describe the characteristics of an aspect such as regional tourism policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development. It can be designed to measure a variety of topics such as nature and extend of regional tourism policy coordination, formal and informal institutional coordination relation to ecotourism development which is the core of this study. A descriptive survey design will allow the researcher to explore a wide range of variables that affect ecotourism development in the Mara-Serengeti ecosystem and gather data from a large population of the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem in EAC region. It is also an easier and quicker form of inquiry and less expensive. It is flexible and versatile.

In addition, the study will use exploratory research design. Exploratory research is research conducted for a problem that has not been studied more clearly, establishes priorities, develops operational definitions and improve the final research design (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013). This research design fits the study because application of diplomacy with regard to ecotourism in shared ecosystem has been narrowly studied. This is because most previous studies in this area are focused on natural resource management and conflict over the same. Further, exploratory research helps determine the best research design, data-collection method and selection of subjects. The results of exploratory research are not usually useful for decision-making by themselves, but they can provide significant insight into a given situation. By adapting this design, the researcher will be able to delve deep into the subject of ecotourism development in shared ecosystems such as the Serengeti Mara.

3.2 Study Area

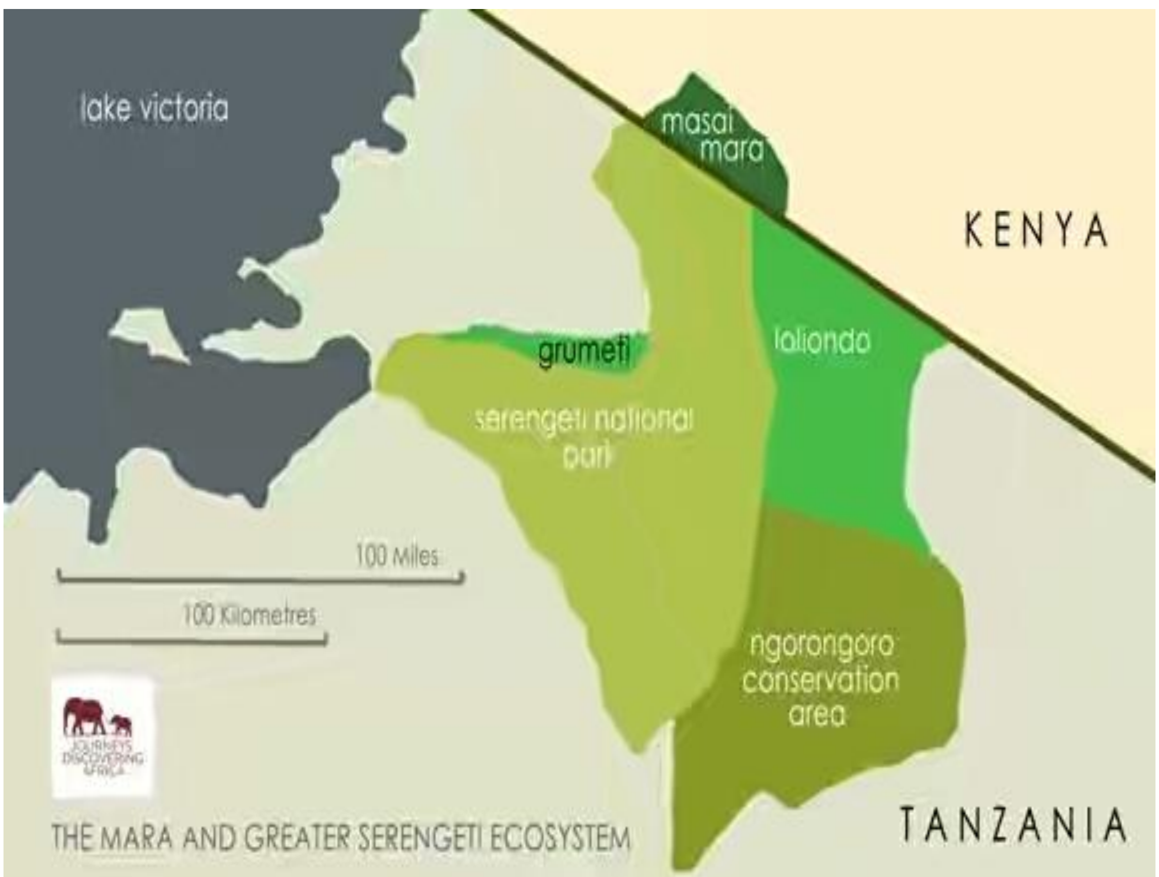
The Serengeti-Mara region is found within the EAC region on which the regional tourism policy Apples. The United Republic of Tanzania and Kenya share one of the greatest ecological regions of migrating wildlife in the world, known as the Maasai Mara Game Reserve in Kenya and the Serengeti National Park in the United Republic of Tanzania. The Mara River, the only perennial river in the transboundary ecosystem, is often the only source of water for grazing animals during the dry season. Increasing water demands from agriculture, industries, and growing human populations are likely to reduce its availability for migratory species. The Maasai Mara National Reserve is located in southern Kenya, adjacent to the Serengeti National Park across the national border in Tanzania. Together these two protected areas cover more than 1.6 million hectares (approximately 373,000 acres) and share a grassland ecosystem that extends into surrounding areas (Boyd, 2012). While the Mara River Basin is a logical unit to consider from the standpoint of water resource management, its boundaries (which relate to the national water-shade) are not contiguous to which those of the whole eco-region belong. Also, the Serengeti extends well beyond the basin; the Serengeti Maasai Mara Plains are internationally famous for having the highest density and most diverse combination of large herbivores on earth (Omar, 2013).

The Serengeti-Mara Ecosystem is an area of some 25000 km spanning the border between Tanzania and Kenya (34-36 degrees East, 1-3 degrees, 30's). The Kenyan part of the ecosystem lies in the South-West of the Nakuru County, forming part of two sub-counties, Narok and Trans Mara. It comprises approximately 6000 km of which 25% represents Maasai Mara National Reserve and 75% unprotected land inhibited by Maasai and other agro-pastoral communities (Malt, 2003). The Maasai Mara National Reserve and adjoining group ranches in Kenya form the northern portion of the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem to which wild animals, especially wildebeest and zebra migrate annually. The wildebeest and zebra from Serengeti National Park migrate and stay in the Maasai Mara ecosystem between June and November (Omar, 2013).

Serengeti-National Park in Tanzania encompasses 5,700 square miles. The total Serengeti ecosystem includes Kenya's Maasai Mara Reserve and the Ngorongoro Crater among others. The most famous feature of Serengeti is the Great Migration, the largest land mammal migration on earth. Each year, more than two million animals, wild beast, zebras, antelopes, and other herbivores, make a long journey from the eastern plains through Central to Serengeti and northward to the Maasai Mara in search of water and fresh grasses and then return in a yearly cycle. This has been going on for years. It is an amazing spectacle, grazers, predators, and all the other animal life woven into the fabric of this intricate ecosystem (Boyd, 2012).

However, the ecosystem suffers from tourism policy coordination challenges exist despite a regional tourism policy in place. This has led to mismanagement of the resources, increasing pressures exerted by a growing human population, increasing socioeconomic demands such as tourism activities, encroachment of human settlements, hostile neighbours with competing interests, and poaching (LVBC, 2010). Land use policy does not support ecotourism development. For example, there appears to be strong economic incentives for individual landowners to develop their land at the expense of biodiversity. It is important to identify and develop biodiversity- friendly alternative land uses, which would yield acceptable levels of income to landowners. It has been argued that the current revenues to landowners from wildlife-based tourism are simply not adequate to stop land development.   It also appears that the community based Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDPs) in the Serengeti Maasai Mara Ecosystem (SMME) do not generate the scale of revenues needed to prevent the development of land by local communities (LVBC, 2010).

Therefore, there is need to interrogate how regional tourism policy coordination challenges has affected ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara region within the EAC integration framework. The following figure 2 is a map showing Serengeti Mara region.



2: Map of Serengeti Mara Ecosystem

Source: UNEP, 2009

3.3 Study Population

The study population will include tourist officers in the EAC Ministry, directors of East African Tourism and Wildlife Coordination Agency (EATWCA) and the East African Tourism and Wildlife Conservation Agency(EATWCA), park managers of Kenya Wildlife Service (KWS) and Tanzania National Park Authority (TANAPA), tourist officers in the Ministry of Tourism, directors of Kenya Tourism Board and Tanzanian Tourism Board, directors of international non-governmental organizations and non-governmental organizations operating in Serengeti Mara region, municipalities managing national parks, managers of community based organizations/conservancy groups such as Maasai group ranches (peoples surroundings parks), tour operators such as owners of hotels, lodges, tour companies, camp; tour guides and tourists. Total in the sample is 710.

3.4 Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

According to Cozby (1989), sampling is important when conducting survey research because the purpose of the research is to describe what a whole population is like, based on data from relatively small sample of the population.

Purposive sampling will be used in the case of selecting stakeholders in Serengeti Mara region. These stakeholders will include Park managers (2), directors of tourism boards in Kenya and Tanzania (2), Managers of Narok and Trans-Mara sub-counties (2), tourist officers in the Ministry of Tourism (Kenya)-1 and Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (Tanzania)-1, tourist officers in the Ministry of EAC, directors of EAC agencies on tourism such as East African Tourism and Wildlife Coordination Agency (EATWCA) and the East African Tourism and Wildlife Conservation Agency. Stratified and simple random sampling will be used with community based organizations (managers) involved in conservancy activities of wildlife and biodiversity, NGOs (directors) involved in community projects and funding, tour operators (hotel and lodge owners, camp operators) and tourists. The essential requirement of any sample will be as representative as possible on the sides of Serengeti and Mara. The Mara has Narok, Trans-Mara sub counties and the six Maasai Group ranches represent the community. With regard to community natural resource management, a total of 26 active groups are involved in water resources management with 8 groups located in Mara and 18 groups located in Serengeti. With regard to eco- tourism groups, a total of 24 active groups are within the MSE, with Mara hosting 22 groups and Serengeti having 2 groups. According to Kerlinger (1983), 10% to 30% is a good representative sample from which findings can be drawn about a given population.

In wildlife conservation, a total of 12 groups operate with 11 in the Mara and 1 in Serengeti. Forestry sector has 22 groups of which 17 are located in Mara and 5 in Serengeti. Bee keeping had 4 groups which are all based in Mara. Under land use, there are 9 groups all based in Mara. In the energy sector, there are 3 groups of which 2 will be in Mara and 1 in Serengeti. In mining, 2 groups will be identified in Mara and 1 group in Serengeti. For the purpose of this study, a sample of 30% was taken on some of the sampled categories. A sample of 30% was appropriate for this study because number of respondents in each category were few. Sample size is 232. The accessible study population and sampled population are shown in the following Table 1

Table 1: Sample Size

	Population in the Sample	No. to be Sampled	Sampling Technique
Ministry of EAC (Tourist Officers)	1	1	Purposive
EAC Agency on Tourism (Directors)	2	2	Purposive
Park Managers (KWS and TANAPA)	2	2	Purposive/census
Ministry of Tourism/Natural resources/Land (Tourist officers)	3	3	Purposive/census
Community Natural Resource Management Groups (CNRM) (managers)	102	31	Purposive/simple stratified (30% technique applied)
Non Governmental Organizations (supporting conservation through community development) (Directors)	30	9	Purposive/ simple stratified (30% technique applied)
International inter-governmental Organizations (funding conservation initiatives)-Directors	10	10	Purposive/census
Sub-Counties (Narok, Trans Mara in Kenya) and local councils(Tanzania)-Managers	3	3	Purposive/census
Group ranches (Managers)	7	7	Purposive/census
Managers of Tour Operators Groups (tour companies, lodge and hotel owners, camps)	250	75	Purposive/stratified simple random sampling (30% technique applied)
Tourists	300	90	Purposive/Systematic (30% technique applied)
Total	710	232	

Source: Ungaya: 2016 and LVRB, 2010

3.5 Data Collection Techniques and Procedure

To get information on the relationship between regional tourism policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development, the researcher will collect both primary and secondary data types (numerical and string data).This study will also rely on secondary data by examining books, reports, journal articles, online materials and newspaper materials and articles on aspects of ecotourism and EAC Protocol on tourism.

The research instruments will be trial tested in Kilimanjaro Heartland in EAC region. Feedback from the pilot study will be used to revise the instruments for final data collection. The respondents in the pilot phase will be excluded during the final administration of the instruments. The questionnaires to be used will be both open and closed questions intended to capture a detailed level of content. They will be used due to their ability to reach distant respondents hence minimized researchers influence on the respondents. They will also allowed time for respondents to give well thought out answers and time to respond to the items. Use of questionnaires will be appropriate especially to guarantee unanimity (Prewitt, 1975). This instrument will be most suitable in finding out how a regional tourism policy coordination challenge affects ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara region within the EAC integration framework. The researcher will administer structured questionnaires personally to gather information.

Secondly, the researcher will use interview schedule. This is one of the main tools of data collection due to its ability to get in-depth information. The interview has been chosen due to its flexibility and adaptability. It provides the researcher with some measure of control over the research setting and one can modify questions and probe answers (Prewitt, 1975). The schedule will consists of open-ended questions that will help gather more information that would not have been obtained by use of questionnaires. It will deal with opinion and perception of stakeholders on issue of transboundary cooperation.

Focused group discussions will be used with Community Natural Resource Management (CNRM) groups, and Groups Ranches.

Finally, the researcher will source secondary data by analysis of publications such as journals on tourism, EAC tourism related legislations and government documents. These documents will include Kenya tourism strategic master plan, Tanzania tourism strategic plan, and EAC regional tourism protocol. The researcher will also analyse Land Acts and Sessional Papers that affect tourism. With secondary data analysis, the researcher will focus on policies, guidelines and institutional norms that govern ecotourism development and tourism in general.

3.6 Reliability and Validity

Validity refers to ability of a test or tool to measure what it is intended to measure (Kothari, 2004). The researcher will use content validity in which a measuring instrument provides adequate coverage of the topic under study. The instruments will be based on the research objectives and questions. To ensure content validity, the tools for the study will cover as many aspects on regional policy coordination challenges and ecotourism development in Serengeti Mara region. They will be subjected to expert judgment in the tourism industry such as EAC tourism agencies, park managers, tour agencies and guides since the number of instruments will be applied to different groups to establish the same. The scores obtained will be correlated to establish the construct related validity during the pilot study in Kilimanjaro Heartland. These locations will not form part of the final sample that will be used. The objective will be to ascertain the validity and reliability of instruments. The researcher will request the respondents to indicate if any statements are not clear to them. The instruments will be adjusted for accuracy before the actual field study. The participants in the pilot study will not be included in actual field study.

Structured questionnaires will be used during the pilot study. A high correlation above 0.60 would mean the instruments are measuring what was intended (Kasomo, 2007).

To test reliability of the instrument, they will be piloted in Kilimanjaro Heartland. Data will be analyzed and the results correlated to determine their reliability coefficient. Best (1989) suggests that Pearson product moment correlation (r) is most often used because of its precision with a value of around 0.5. The results obtained from the two exercises will be coded, secured using Pearson moment coefficient (r) formula and the correlation of the three sets of data as 0.85.

3.7 Data Analysis and Presentation Techniques

The researcher will clean data by listing, removed errors and check extreme values to ensure conformity. The group survey data was analyzed using SPSS Version 12. The variables will be subjected to descriptive statistics and cross tabulations. The qualitative data will be analyzed by consolidating emerging themes from the key informant interviews, topic analysis, and cut and paste methods on the focus group discussion transcripts. Liker scale will be used with tourists and tour operators. Quantitative data will also be analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages. The researcher will present data findings in form of frequency tables, pie charts, bar graphs and narratives.

3.8 Limitations of the Study

Limitations are aspects of the study which the researcher knows may adversely affect the results of the study, but over which the researcher has no direct control over (Orodho, 2004). There will be factors that affect the accuracy of the results of the study. One, the researcher will be unable to gather information from some respondents who decline to participate or are unavailable for interviews. Two, there will be language barrier in the rural areas. To overcome these shortcomings, the researcher will engage research assistants from the area to help. In addition, the researcher will utilize secondary materials from EAC Ministry, EAC agencies, Kenya Tourism Board and Tanzania Tourism Corporation. On language barrier, the researcher will engage an interpreter to explain and interpret for the respondents.

3.9 Ethical considerations

The researcher will obtain a letter from the Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, School of Graduate Studies, a research permit from National Commission for Sciences, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI). A letter of introduction from EAC Ministry, immigration department on the side of Tanzania and seek permission from relevant authorities at institutions where data will be collected. Informed consent will be obtained from the participants before the administration of the questionnaire and research instruments. This will be based on appropriate information given in the informed consent document and adequate time given to consider the information and ask questions. The consent will be in written form with details on ethical considerations, procedure of the study, confidentiality, benefits-personal and general, risks and the right not to participate or withdraw at any time.

4.0 Summary

The chapter discussed the research design employed by the researcher to collect data. The location of the study was described in terms of geographical set up and economic characteristics. The chapter discussed the study population, sampling techniques used and the sample size. The instruments used for data collection were described in detail and how they were tested for validity and reliability. The chapter also discussed how data were analyzed.

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Appendix One: Questionnaire for Park Managers/KWS/TANAPA/EAC Tourism Agency/EAC Ministry/Ministry of Natural Resources

Objective 1: Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Policy Coordination Challenges Affecting Ecotourism Development in Serengeti Mara Ecosystem within the EAC Integration Frameworks

1. Which of the following best describes the relationship between your protected area and the one across the border?

a) Legally binding agreement at sub regional level (Kenya and Tanzania)

b) Legally binding agreement at EAC regional level

b) Legally binding agreement between protected areas

c) Non- binding written (letter/email) agreement to cooperate

d) Informal

e) Ad hoc cooperation

f) No cooperation

3. Is there a common objective around which an EAC tourism policy applies to Serengeti Mara ecosystem? Yes/No.

If Yes, which one of the following areas of interests as specified in the EAC tourism policy apply in the SMME?

a) Regional Marketing B) Conservation of wildlife and Nature C) Monitoring and Research D) Tourism Infrastructure e) All

4. Is there a particular organization(s) at (as a result of EAC tourism agreement) that facilitates cooperation in Serengeti Mara? Yes/No

If Yes in (4), List the EAC organizations that facilitate joint actions in SMME?

a) ________________________ b) ________________________ c) _______________

5. Is there an existing and relevant EAC institution that can provide a forum for transboundary dialogue with regard to SMME? Yes/No

6. Are there projects that are jointly done in the SMME? Yes/No

List the Joint Projects _______________________________

____

____

7. To what extent do representatives of either side of SMME share human and material resources?

Always; often; sometimes; occasionally; never

8. Which of the following groups are involved in coordinating on-going cooperation in the SMME?

   EAC Tourism Agency, Sub-regional Agency, Partner states Governments, NGO, local community, protected area managers, IGO

9. Which of the following specific cross-border related challenges to tourism policy coordination affect ecotourism development in SMME? Tick
   - Social, cultural and economic factors
     - Language, traditions, history, taxation systems
   - Political factors
     - Laws & regulations, policies, power relations
   - Organizational and governance related factors
     - Communication, networks, visions, coherence
   - Other factors
     - Physical barriers, weak transport links, lack of financial resources, interest from private actors

10. How do you work to solve/avoid challenges associated with cross-border collaborations?

1____

2____

3____

Appendix Two: Questionnaire for Park Managers/KWS/TANAPA/Ministry of Natural Resources/NGOs/International Organizations/ EAC Ministry/EAC Tourism Agencies

Objective 2: Assess the Effects of Formal Institutional Coordination on Ecotourism Development

Section A: Conservation rules/norms

1. Which of the following tourist practices in the Serengeti Mara Ecosystem are not stipulated in EAC tourism policy?

i. tour excursions, ii. Wildlife viewing iii. Game Hunting

2. Which of the following planning expectations and development limits exist in EAC tourism policy and are adhered to in Serengeti Mara Ecosystem?

i. core/restricted areas ii. buffer zones iii. Tourism activity zones iv. Facility and infrastructure areas v. research zones and educational zones

3. Is the carrying capacity of each respective area determined to regulate and evaluate human impact on environment? Yes or No

4. Do you have lists and maps of endangered species across Serengeti Mara Ecosystem? Yes or No.

If yes, specify ____

5. Do you have an inventory of sensitive habitats and culturally sensitive area in across Serengeti Mara Ecosystem ? Yes or No

If yes, specify ____

6. Do you have a record of harvested species that are sold, displayed, consumed or traded across Serengeti Mara Ecosystem? Yes or No

7. Do you share information on conservation efforts identified in 3,4,5 and 6 with the other protected area across border? Yes or NO

If No, what are the hindering factors: a) ___________________________

b) ___________________________

c) ___________________________

8. Is there a cross border research and monitoring approach in Serengeti Mara Ecosystem to any of the following? (tick)

i. sensitive habitats and culturally sensitive areas ii. Endangered species iii. Harvested species iv. Human impact on the ecosystem v. none

10. Do you think it is important for cross border research and monitoring approach? Yes or No

11. Which of the following are benefits of cross border research and monitoring approach?

i. ensure long term protection of sites across the ecosystem

ii. Prevent cumulative impact of tourism

iii. Get accurate data about the past and current situation of the entire ecosystem

11. Are there obstacles to cross border research and monitoring approach in Serengeti Mara? Yes or no

If yes, specify ____

12. Do you think the following are threats to conservation in Serengeti Mara? (Tick)

a) Poaching b) forest fires c) logging d) none e) All

13. Are the threats in 12, cross border in nature and therefore need joint action? Yes/No

If yes, is there any cross border joint action to curb them? Yes/No

14. Do you think each of the threats in Q13 can be best solved through a coordinated approach across the border? Yes or No

15. Does increased cooperation correspond to improved biodiversity protection in your protected area and therefore ecotourism in EAC region?

Yes, no, other (please state)

Section B: Marketing Strategies

1. a) Is there joint marketing of Serengeti Mara as stipulated in EAC tourism policy Yes/No

b) Which of the following tourism products are marketed as per EAC tourism policy in SMME? (tick)

Local culture, natural heritage, historical sites, natural features/wildlife

2. If No in 1(a), do you think a strong individual identity for each PA enhances competing interest between these two parks sharing a common border in SMMEl? Yes or No

3. Do you think this promotes traditional mass tourism in EAC tourist sites such as Serengeti Mara? Yes or no

4. Do you think a regional identity would enhance any of the following? (tick any)

i. Visitor awareness of tourist products

ii. Availability of information about tourist destination in both parks

iii. Increases tourist traffic across the border

iv. Commercial potential through sales of souvenirs such as t-shirts and mugs

5. Does the region have an EAC common visa policy to facilitate movement of tourists across the border? Yes or no

a) Which of the following benefits do tourists enjoy in Serengeti Mara region? (Tick)

i. Uniform visa format and information systems ii. Simplified of procedures iii. Less bureaucracy iv. Reduce number of days for visa application (specify) ii. multiple entry visa

b) Does the EAC common visa policy apply to tourists flow in Serengeti Mara? Yes/No.

6. Is there an EAC website or advertisement mechanism for tourism sites where information is availed to tourist at all times? Yes/No

C. Tourism Infrastructure

1. Are there regional norms/rules for land practices and tourism facility development in the Serengeti Mara ecosystem? Yes or No

a) If yes, list land use practices that is a hindrance to wildlife conservation in SMME.

a)__________________ b) ___________________ c)__________________________

b) Do you think some land use practices result into any of the following in SMME?

a) Blocked wildlife migratory paths/routes b) human-wildlife conflict c) decline in wildlife

c) According to you, what factors lead to incompatible land uses in SMME?

____

2. How can you describe tourism development facilities within Serengeti Mara ecosystem?

i. controlled ii. Uncontrolled iii. Don't know

a) Is there EAC tourism policy that guides the development of tourism facilities in SMME? Yes/No

b) Is it applied in SMME? Yes/No

3. Which of the following transport links exist between your protected area and the other one?

None, road, marked road, track, rail, other __________________________

a) Do you think lack of interlinked roads/air is a hindrance to tourist flow within SMME? Yes or No

b) Which of the following factors is a challenge to interlinked roads/air lines in Serengeti/Mara?

Lack of funds, political interests, economical interests, lack of EAC regional open air policy

Objective 3: Informal Institutional Contributions to Ecotourism Development in Serengeti-Mara Ecosystem

Appendix Three: Questionnaire for Small Businesses/Tour operators/Group Ranches/WMA and CNRMGs and NGOs

1 Which of the following reasons made you to come together?

a) A government mandates b) An existing EAC treaty or legal authority c) to coordinate tourism activities for economic benefit

2 a) Did you come together due to economic and environmental concerns? Yes or No

b) Did you include your Tanzania or Kenyan counterparts in the initial meetings?

c) Did you come together with a common understanding of the problem and the transboundary nature of this problem? Yes/No

e) Is there a long-term commitment from all parties? Yes or No

3. a) Who funds the effort?

b) Is funding a limiting factor?

c) Do you shared information across the border.

d) What are your organization's main activities?

4. Was the national border a barrier to working together?

a) How did you work through this difficulty?

b) Is there local support for this effort? Regional? National?

c) Is there bi-national support or is the majority of your support from one nation?

5. a) Is there opposition to this effort?

   b) Is there local opposition for this effort? Regional? National?

   c) Is there opposition in both nations, or is the majority of the opposition from only one side of the border?

6. Are there cross border organization of events and festivals? Yes or No

   If yes, give examples ____

7. Do you think joint organization of events and festivals offsets sectoral imbalances by holding events in the shoulder and off seasons? Yes/No

Appendix Seven: Work Plan

	Proposal Development	Proposal development	Field	Field	Data analysis	Submission for examination
June						
July						
August						
September						
October						
November						
December						
January						
Feb						
March						
April						
May						

Appendix Eight: Budget

No	Item and details	Price(kshs)
1	Typesetting, Stationery and printing (proposal)	100,000.00
2	Typesetting, Stationary and printing (Findings)	130,000.00
3	Typesetting, Stationary and printing (Thesis for examination)	130,000.00
2	DSA for researcher and his assistants	150,000.00
4	Internet services	30,000.00
5	Transport and accommodation	60,000.00
6	Material and other costs	50,000.00
	Grand total	730,000.00