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PUBLICATIONS

**Sustainable Tourism  
Governance and  
Management in Coastal  
Areas of Africa**



# Sustainable Tourism Governance and Management in Coastal Areas of Africa

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**Sustainable Tourism Governance and Management in Coastal Areas of Africa**

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This report has been prepared for UNWTO by Dr Richard Denman, consultant with The Tourism Company, United Kingdom, who also undertook the studies in The Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, Tanzania and Seychelles. The studies in Cameroon and Senegal were undertaken by Lionel Bécherel and in Mozambique by Jeremy Gottwals. The valuable input of the COAST project focal points, demo site coordinators, national experts appointed to assist with this study and everyone consulted during the course of the work is also gratefully acknowledged.





## Foreword

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In the past years, tourism has been one of the most resilient sectors supporting economic recovery and growth. In 2012, total international tourist arrivals reached the astounding milestone of 1 billion, more than double the figure for 1990. UNWTO expects this number to rise further to a staggering 1.8 billion by 2030. An important trend in international tourism development of the last decade has been the growth of emerging economy destinations. Today, nearly half of the 1 billion international tourist arrivals in the world are to emerging and developing economies. UNWTO expects tourist arrivals in emerging economies to grow at double the pace of advanced ones over the coming 20 years (4.4% versus 2.2%), and foresees an even higher average growth of 5% for Africa.

Whereas the growth of international tourism has become an important foreign exchange earner for many developing countries, it offers at the same time unique opportunities to contribute to the preservation of the natural and cultural environment, and the alleviation of poverty in tourist destinations. By paying ample attention to sustainability in the tourism sector, 1 billion tourist arrivals worldwide means 1 billion opportunities for tourists to buy local goods, preserve heritage or respect local culture.

Tourism is increasingly receiving the recognition it deserves as a driver for sustainability by those shaping the path to sustained and fair recovery. World leaders meeting at two major summits in 2012, the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) and the G20, agreed that tourism can make an important contribution to many of the world's most pressing challenges. The UNEP *Green Economy Report* identified tourism as one of ten sectors that are vital to greening the global economy. With the right investment and guidance, tourism can be a lead change agent in the move to a Green Economy by driving economic growth and job creation while simultaneously improving resource efficiency, minimizing environmental degradation and raising environmental awareness among travellers.

Throughout history, coastal environments have had a strong appeal to tourists, and many coastal areas, including in Sub-Sahara Africa, have developed into thriving tourism destinations. Coastal environments are often sensitive and fragile, containing important habitats and rich biodiversity, whereas land, water and other natural resource can be relatively scarce. Developing tourism in a sustainable manner in coastal areas in Africa is of utmost importance to preserve the environment and the well-being of host communities, and should receive a high priority in governance and management processes at local and national level.

In the past five years, UNWTO, UNIDO and UNEP have actively collaborated to address sustainable tourism development in coastal areas in Africa, through the Global Environment Facility (GEF) funded project, titled "Collaborative Actions for Sustainable Tourism (COAST)", covering nine Sub-Saharan African countries (Cameroon, the Gambia, Ghana, Kenya, Mozambique, Nigeria, Senegal, Seychelles and Tanzania). The project developed best practices on reef and marine recreation management, environmental management systems and eco-tourism, and undertook a desk study and field research in the nine countries to identify national and local mechanisms for sustainable tourism governance and management.

*Sustainable Tourism Governance and Management in Coastal Areas of Africa* presents the results of the research carried out within the framework of the COAST project. It builds on the UNWTO and UNEP publication *Making Tourism More Sustainable – A Guide for Policy Makers*, by assessing how to apply sustainability principles and policy instruments for coastal tourism development in Africa. Detailed recommendations are provided to strengthen governance and management to ensure that tourism serves as a positive force in coastal areas, helping to conserve environments and biodiversity, minimising environmental impact and contributing to the wellbeing of local communities. While

the field research was conducted in the nine COAST project countries, the study also has a generic relevance and can provide guidance for sustainable coastal tourism in other countries, especially in Africa and the developing world.

We highly appreciate the support of the COAST project to disseminate the research findings to a wider audience, and hope this publication will find its way to many organizations and individuals dealing with, and interested in, sustainable tourism development in coastal areas.

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## Introduction

This study of development and implementation mechanisms for sustainable tourism governance and management in coastal areas of Africa, undertaken by the World Tourism Organization, is part of the Collaborative Actions for Sustainable Tourism (COAST) project<sup>1</sup>. This Global Environment Facility funded project has the aim of supporting and enhancing the conservation of globally significant coastal and marine ecosystems and associated biodiversity in sub-Saharan Africa, through the reduction of the negative environmental impacts which may be caused as a result of coastal tourism.

Nine countries have been involved in the project: Cameroon, Gambia, Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal (in West Africa), and Kenya, Mozambique, Seychelles and Tanzania (in East Africa). There are COAST project demo sites in each country (except for Seychelles where priority is given to lesson and experience sharing only), where the context of sustainable tourism on the ground can be more clearly understood and the impact of various policies, structures and actions can be observed and tested. These demo sites tend to be based on relatively small local districts or collections of communities. A list of them is provided in section 3.2.

From the beginning of the COAST project, all participating countries identified the need for a more integrated approach to planning for coastal tourism, with appreciation of the need to protect biodiversity alongside socio-economic and cultural priorities, with policies, strategies, regulations and other measures to ensure the long term sustainability of the tourism sector.

This study of governance and management relates to the Outcome 2 of the COAST project revised log frame after the Mid-term Evaluation in 2012, “National and local mechanisms supporting sustainable tourism governance and management identified and enhanced to facilitate uptake of BAPs/BATs”.

The purpose of this study is:

- to determine whether the nine countries’ policies facilitate the long term sustainability of tourism and identify gaps, needs and options for sustainable tourism governance and management;
- to provide a vision and recommendations for the most appropriate type of mechanisms for sustainable tourism governance and management, generally for coastal areas and specifically for each country and demo site;
- to provide guidance for key stakeholders in the nine countries on the reform of sustainable tourism governance and management as it relates to coastal tourism.

This report provides an overview across all the countries<sup>2</sup>, identifying the range of situations found there. Based on the full set of comparable experiences, it identifies key issues and approaches of general relevance to sustainable coastal tourism in Africa and draws overall conclusions. While this comparative and generic approach is of relevance to international agencies and pan-African interests, it is also of relevance to the individual countries and demo sites in helping them to reflect further on their own situation in the light of the wider context and experience of others.

Coastal tourism is a broad subject. This study concentrates on mechanisms of governance and management for sustainable tourism which is in turn a complex and multifaceted topic. The study

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1 Information on the COAST project can be found at <http://coast.iwlearn.org>.

2 Nine individual reports have also been prepared, one for each country, which look in detail at the policy context, governance structures and management processes relating to coastal tourism and at the experiences and needs in the demo sites. These country reports contain recommendations for the country as a whole and for the demo sites.

has taken its approach and direction partly from the UNWTO and UNEP publication *Making Tourism More Sustainable – A Guide for Policy Makers* (UNEP/UNWTO, 2005) which contains guidelines on governance structures, sustainability aims and management instruments relevant to all types of destination.

The study is based primarily on a series of missions to each of the nine COAST partner countries in 2011, lasting approximately seven days and involving time in the capital city consulting with government and other national level bodies, and in the demo sites consulting with local stakeholders and observing the situation on the ground. In all cases the views of both tourism and environment ministries and agencies were obtained, together with those of private sector representatives, relevant NGOs and community groups. Policy documents, legislative frameworks and other background material were also studied in each country.

Further evidence was obtained from additional missions in Ghana and Tanzania in 2012 and Kenya in 2013, which particularly addressed the use of economic incentives for sustainable tourism governance and management. A specific paper on this topic can be downloaded from the COAST project website at <<http://coast.iwlearn.org/en/baps-and-bats/Project-Formats>>. The results of a workshop in Nairobi in 2013, involving project stakeholders from Kenya, Mozambique, Seychelles and Tanzania, have also been used to verify and amend the findings and recommendations.

The publication has the following structure:

Chapters 2–3 provide a context covering:

- global understanding of coastal tourism and of governance and management for sustainability;
- the coastal tourism product and performance in the nine countries.

Chapters 4–5 cover policies and governance, addressing:

- policy frameworks, including strategies for tourism, the environment and sustainable development;
- governance structures at a national and local level, including links between tourism and the environment, and between public and private sectors.

Chapters 6–10 cover five key aspects of tourism management:

- planning the coastal zone for sustainable tourism;
- influencing coastal tourism development;
- influencing the operation of coastal tourism enterprises;
- managing the coastal environment for tourism;
- supporting community livelihood and initiatives in coastal tourism.

Chapter 11 provides the conclusions from the study and indicates priorities to address for the future.

# A Global Perspective on Coastal Tourism Management

This chapter considers the global context of this report. The chapter looks first at trends and issues in coastal tourism. Next, it considers approaches to policy, governance and management for sustainable tourism. Finally, it looks more specifically at approaches to coastal tourism management.

The information presented here is partly informed by a consideration of literature on coastal and sustainable tourism, which is briefly summarised in the Literature Review at the end of this publication.

## 2.1 Coastal Tourism Trends and Issues

Global tourism has seen massive growth in the past twenty years. In 2012, total international arrivals were 1,035 million, more than double the figure for 1990. Between 2005 and 2012, average annual growth in arrivals was 3.6%. However, this masks some significant regional differences. Countries with developing and emerging economies have seen the highest growth in tourism, including sub-Saharan Africa which has witnessed an average annual increase in arrivals of 7.1% during this period.

Tourism has demonstrated a strong ability to recover from short term setbacks. While 2009 saw a decline in global arrivals as a result of the global economic recession, 2010 recorded notably strong growth. Despite possible future fluctuations, UNWTO has maintained its forecast of overall growth in arrivals averaging 3.3% per annum to 2030, with an even higher average forecast for Africa (5%).

There are no figures available for the size or growth of coastal tourism globally. There is no reason to believe that coastal tourism, in general, should not be subject to growth trends similar to those observed and forecasted for tourism as a whole. Demand studies have indicated that the seaside remains a destination of choice for leisure holidays and breaks.

There have been some changes in the nature of the coastal tourism demand. While rest and relaxation, based on sun, sea and sand, remains a strong draw, there has been significant growth in the range of experiences that tourists are seeking. Some apparent trends include:

- Demand for a range of marine and coastal recreational activities – including snorkelling, diving, windsurfing, boating and other activities;
- more awareness of the quality of the environment and demand for clean and unspoiled locations;
- demand for higher quality facilities, including food and catering;
- greater interest in nature and wildlife watching;
- greater interest in cultural attributes;
- greater interest in combining coastal opportunities with other experiences through excursions or multi-centred holidays;
- growth in popularity and expectation of all-inclusive offers and facilities;
- growth in cruise tourism.

In some countries, there has been a change in the mix of source markets for coastal tourism, partly reflecting the growth in emerging markets such as Russia, eastern Europe and the Far East, and partly a strengthening of domestic markets and short breaks.

The relatively importance of tourism on the coast is widely accepted. In many countries, coastal areas provide the main tourism resource, with the greatest concentration of tourism investment and facilities.

One of the main reasons why coasts are so important for tourism is that visitors are strongly attracted by coastal environments (beaches, fine landscapes, coral reefs, birds, fish, marine mammals and other wildlife) and by associated cultural interest (coastal towns, villages, historic sites, ports, fishing fleets and markets and other aspects of maritime life). At the same time, this special environment is sensitive and fragile. Many coasts contain important habitats and have a very rich biodiversity. Land, water and other natural resources are often scarce on the coast, partly as a result of the focus and pressure of development and activity in these areas.

Some of the benefits of coastal tourism for the economy, society and the environment are set out below.

- **Revenue generation and international receipts**

Fundamentally, coastal tourism can provide a major source of revenue for the countries and local areas in which it occurs. In developing countries, it can be a primary source of hard currency earnings.

- **Local jobs and prosperity**

Many coastal areas have fragile economies, sometimes due to their peripheral location. Tourism enterprises can provide an important direct source of both skilled and unskilled jobs. Spending by tourists on miscellaneous purchases and the development of local supply chains can generate further employment and income in the area and support other economic sectors.

- **Infrastructure and community facilities**

Tourism investment can support the provision of infrastructure, such as transport, telecommunications, energy and water supply, that may otherwise not be available in some coastal areas and communities. Leisure facilities and amenities provided for tourists may also be available to local people.

- **Increasing awareness of the need for conservation**

The dependency of tourism on attractive coastal environments and culture can lead to a greater awareness of their value amongst local communities, government and other stakeholders, leading to more commitment and support for their conservation. More generally, it can provide a motivation for keeping areas clean and well maintained.

- **Investment in the environment and cultural heritage**

Some forms of tourism investment can directly benefit the natural and cultural heritage. Sensitive developments have included restoration of coastal habitats and historic sites and support for cultural traditions. Tourism businesses and visitors may provide financial and practical support for conservation.

- **Sustainable community livelihoods**

Tourism can provide an alternative source of livelihood for local communities, which may be more sustainable than their previous activities.

To set against these positive benefits, the tourism and environment literature has identified many issues and challenges for coastal tourism. The main ones are summarised below:

- **Physical destruction and loss of amenity**

Poorly sited new development and sprawling urbanisation can destroy natural beauty and amenity. The construction process of coastal hotels and resorts can be very destructive if not well managed, causing erosion, silting of coastal water and other damage.

- **Loss of habitat and biodiversity**

Tourism development can lead to removal and fragmentation of important habitats, including sand dunes, coral reefs, wetlands and mangroves. Tourism activities, such as diving, boat anchoring

and some beach activities, can cause damage to marine and terrestrial habitats and disturbance to wildlife.

- **Pollution**

Pollution can arise from sewerage discharge, gaseous emissions, solid waste, noise, light and other sources, generated by the operation of tourism businesses and the activities of tourists. This can have social and environmental consequences, both terrestrial and marine.

- **Resource consumption and competition**

Coastal tourism can be a major user of local natural and non-renewable resources, including water, land, minerals and living species, including fish and crustaceans. Some developments are major energy users. As well as causing general depletion of resources, competition for what is available can affect local community livelihoods and wellbeing. Tourism use can prevent access to the coast by local people. Tourism can also impact negatively on cultural resources.

- **Climate change**

Coastal areas are very susceptible to the impacts of climate change, including sea level rise, unpredictable climate, storm surges, changing temperatures and flooding. This can affect the physical integrity of coasts and hasten erosion as well as damaging property and influencing demand patterns. It has particular implications for the location and design of future developments.

- **Limited community engagement and benefit**

In some coastal areas there has been little involvement of local communities in the planning of tourism development and insufficient consideration of the impact on their livelihoods. While economic advantages may be gained by some people, opportunities to maximise and spread local benefits may not be pursued.

- **Property development patterns and motives**

In many areas the nature of tourism-related investment has been changing. There is an increasing trend towards projects which involve an element of residential property development, in the form of second homes and condominiums. This may affect land prices and availability, and the level of tourism benefit left in the local area. Some developments may be driven in part by property speculation. Some developers may have little long term commitment to the area.

- **Seasonality and sensitivity of demand**

Coastal tourism can sometimes have only a very short season, often owing to climate conditions. This can limit the profitability of enterprises, the quality of jobs available and the benefit to local communities. Coasts can also be quite vulnerable to certain factors that cause market fluctuations, such as natural disasters, security issues, etc.

## 2.2 Sustainable Tourism Governance and Management

The issues and challenges identified above underline the need for implementing policies and actions in coastal areas that deliver sustainable tourism. This means tourism that 'takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities' (UNWTO, 2005).

UNWTO and UNEP have identified 12 aims for sustainable tourism, which are set out in box 2.1. These aims should provide the basis for tourism policy that embraces sustainability. This may be expressed in specific tourism policies but also in policies relating more broadly to sustainable development and the environment.

### **Box 2.1 Twelve Aims for Sustainable Tourism**

**1. Economic Viability**

To ensure the viability and competitiveness of tourism destinations and enterprises, so that they are able to continue to prosper and deliver benefits in the long term.

**2. Local Prosperity**

To maximize the contribution of tourism to the economic prosperity of the host destination, including the proportion of visitor spending that is retained locally.

**3. Employment Quality**

To strengthen the number and quality of local jobs created and supported by tourism, including the level of pay, conditions of service and availability to all without discrimination by gender, race, disability or in other ways.

**4. Social Equity**

To seek a widespread and fair distribution of economic and social benefits from tourism throughout the recipient community, including improving opportunities, income and services available to the poor.

**5. Visitor Fulfillment**

To provide a safe, satisfying and fulfilling experience for visitors, available to all without discrimination by gender, race, disability or in other ways.

**6. Local Control**

To engage and empower local communities in planning and decision making about the management and future development of tourism in their area, in consultation with other stakeholders.

**7. Community Wellbeing**

To maintain and strengthen the quality of life in local communities, including social structures and access to resources, amenities and life support systems, avoiding any form of social degradation or exploitation.

**8. Cultural Richness**

To respect and enhance the historic heritage, authentic culture, traditions and distinctiveness of host communities.

**9. Physical Integrity**

To maintain and enhance the quality of landscapes, both urban and rural, and avoid the physical and visual degradation of the environment.

**10. Biological Diversity**

To support the conservation of natural areas, habitats and wildlife, and minimize damage to them.

**11. Resource Efficiency**

To minimize the use of scarce and non-renewable resources in the development and operation of tourism facilities and services.

**12. Environmental Purity**

To minimize the pollution of air, water and land and the generation of waste by tourism enterprises and visitors.

Source: UNEP/UNWTO, 2005.

In the context of coastal tourism and the focus of the COAST project on biodiversity and communities, those aims most relevant to this study concern environmental impacts (Biological Diversity; Physical Integrity, Environmental Quality) and sustainable livelihoods (Local Prosperity, Local Control, Social Equity and Community Wellbeing).

The fundamental requirement of governance for sustainable tourism is that there is effective engagement of the key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions can affect the impact of tourism. These may include:

- national tourism ministries and agencies;
- other government ministries and agencies, notably those relating to the environment and sustainable development;
- representatives of private sector enterprises, e.g. tourism trade associations;
- other supporting bodies with social, environmental and community interests and expertise – including NGOs, educational institutes and other representative bodies;
- representatives of traditional authorities.

Engagement, coordination and liaison between these interests may be assisted by one or more dedicated multi-stakeholder structures, such as forums, partnerships and working groups.

Sustainable tourism governance also requires engagement and coordination of tourism, environment, community and wider development interests at a local level. It is at this level that much of the necessary planning, networking, capacity building and information delivery occurs and where tourism needs to be effectively integrated into local sustainable development. A particular issue is how national policies and governance process are reflected and implemented at a local level, which may be influenced by decentralization and devolution policies and actions as well as local governance capacity and community engagement structures.

Based on effective governance structures, the pursuit of sustainable tourism requires a process for shaping and steering the development and management of tourism.

Increasingly, it is recognized that this can most effectively occur at a local destination level, based on the pursuit of agreed strategies and action plans. A key requirement is that there should be good links between such sustainable tourism strategies, wider development strategies and physical spatial and land use plans.

The management of tourism impacts at all levels can be effected by a range of tools. UNWTO and UNEP have set out a framework of management instruments, grouped under five headings (UNEP/UNWTO, 2005):

1. **Measurement instruments** – used to determine levels of tourism and impact, and to keep abreast of existing or potential changes: indicators and monitoring.
2. **Command and control instruments** – enabling governments to exert strict control over certain aspects of development and operation, backed by legislation: legislation, regulation and licensing; land use planning and development control.
3. **Economic instruments** – influencing behaviour and impact through financial means and sending signals via the market: taxes and charges; financial incentives.
4. **Voluntary instruments** – providing frameworks or processes that encourage voluntary adherence of stakeholders to sustainable approaches and practices: guidelines and codes of conduct; reporting and auditing; voluntary certification.
5. **Supporting instruments** – through which governments can, directly and indirectly, influence and support enterprises and tourists in making their operations and activities more sustainable: infrastructure provision; capacity building; marketing and information.

Each of these types of instrument can be employed to varying degrees in carrying out the main management functions of planning for tourism, controlling and affecting development, influencing tourism operations, managing the resource and working with communities.

## 2.3 Approaches to Coastal Tourism Management

Experience from around the world suggests that really effective management of tourism on the coast is hard to achieve. Many western countries have failed to plan their coastal tourism well. Damage from over exploitation, poorly controlled development and inadequate concern for communities and resource management has been a feature of tourism in parts of the Mediterranean, for example. The need to address coastal tourism governance and management is by no means confined to Africa.

The basic elements of sustainable tourism governance and management outlined above are clearly relevant to addressing the challenges presented by coastal tourism in order to achieve the potential benefits. In many ways, there is little that is different about coastal tourism as such that would suggest that it requires an alternative approach. This is largely confirmed by the literature. The most telling aspect of coastal tourism is one of intensity and degree – coasts tend to be places where there is a concentration of tourism and a strong degree of environmental and community sensitivity to tourism. Essentially, coasts are locations where the need to apply accepted sustainable tourism principles is particularly strong.

The literature and general experience suggests that the following requirements of sustainable tourism governance and management are particularly relevant on coasts:

- **Integrated planning.** This is arguably the area where there is greatest differentiation of a coastal approach, primarily through the promotion of the concept of Integrated Coastal Zone Management. This underlines the need for cooperation between stakeholders and translation of broad resource planning into more specific zoning and land use planning. The need for effective planning on the coast is further underlined by work on climate change.
- **Decentralised governance.** Coastal communities tend to have their own needs and identity. Centrally determined approaches to tourism development on the coast have proved to be inappropriate. Recent emphasis on destination-level governance and management is very relevant to coasts.
- **Multi-stakeholder engagement.** There is a particular need for coordinated engagement of both the public and private sectors. Coastal areas often have many issues with infrastructure and conservation which must involve public authorities. In parallel, the private sector is often relatively strong and influential in coastal destinations.
- **Community engagement and benefits.** A significant section of the literature on sustainable tourism in the last fifteen years has focussed on ecotourism and community-based tourism products. This has included consideration of coastal areas, especially with respect to resource competition and impacts on livelihoods. A move towards greater concern for sustainability, including community benefits, in the more mainstream and mass tourism sectors is also relevant for coasts.
- **Deployment of management tools.** Most management tools are considered to be equally relevant to coasts as to other areas. If there is a difference, it is perhaps in the particular weight given to tools related to development control, in line with the emphasis on planning and land use, including the application of Strategic Impact Assessments and more specifically of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA).

Reflecting this experience, the above aspects of governance and management have been especially born in mind in conducting this study.

# Coastal Tourism Compared in Nine Countries

Individual countries and destinations in Africa are at different stages in the development of coastal tourism, but many of the challenges they face are similar. This chapter considers the situation in the nine sub-Saharan countries that are the partners in the COAST project. It starts by comparing the scale and relative importance of tourism to their economies and the extent to which this may be coastal. It then considers their coastal products and markets. The local demonstration sites in each country are briefly described. Finally some common sustainability issues are identified as a precursor to the chapters that follow.

### 3.1 The Scale and Nature of Coastal Tourism

There are significant differences between the nine countries in the scale of tourism and its relative contribution to the national economy. Some key figures are provided in table 3.1. The three columns showing the direct contribution of the tourism sector to the GDP, the tourism income as a percentage of the total export of services, and the number of international arrivals are based on statistics from the World Tourism Organization. They enable a comparison to be made of the importance of tourism in the nine countries.

**Table 3.1 Tourism, relative scale**

	Tourism % GDP direct	Tourism %, export of services	International tourist arrivals (× 1000)
Seychelles	44.3 (2009)	61.5 (2011)	194 (2011)
The Gambia	7.8 (2008)	66.8 (2011)	106 (2011)
Senegal	3.6 (2010)	44.3 (2010)	1,001 (2011)
Kenya	4.2 (2010)	37.6 (2009)	1,470 (2010)
Tanzania	6.6 (2005)	62.9 (2011)	795 (2011)
Mozambique	2.3 (2007)	35.7 (2010)	1,718 (2010)
Ghana	2.2 (2010)	47.8 (2010)	931 (2010)
Cameroon	1.3 (2006)	14.8 (2010)	573 (2010)
Nigeria	0.4 (2010)	20.3 (2011)	715 (2011)

Source: UNWTO.

Some key points from these figures are:

- Tourism is very important to the economy of all the countries. Even in Nigeria, a 0.4% contribution to total GDP is significant for an individual sector and, in this case, amounts to a large total value, given the size of the country and the number of international arrivals.
- There is a lack of correlation between total arrivals and contribution to GDP, mainly due to the considerable difference in size between the countries. The volume of tourism in Mozambique reflects the land border with neighbouring South Africa.
- Seychelles stands out as a small country with a very significant dependency on tourism.

The relative importance of coastal tourism to the total tourism performance in the countries cannot be quantified. However, in Seychelles and The Gambia the tourism sector is almost entirely made up of leisure-based coastal tourism. Coastal tourism also dominates in Senegal and Mozambique and accounts to a significant proportion of tourism in Cameroon. In Ghana and Nigeria, the proportion of tourism that occurs on the coast will be high, partly owing to the coastal location of Accra and Lagos, even though coastal tourism as a product is not highly developed in these countries.

Kenya and Tanzania are rather different, owing to a long established tradition of safari tourism. In both countries, however, there is a significant and developed coastal tourism product.

There are considerable differences in the nature of the tourism product and the market in the nine countries:

- **Seychelles** offers outstanding coastal beauty with a rich and accessible biodiversity, together with luxurious and exclusive accommodation, although it is possible to stay more simply. The market is particularly characterised by special-occasion tourism.
- **Kenya** and **Tanzania** have a relatively long established beach tourism product, complementing safari visits. In Kenya the product is extensive, with many quite sizeable resorts partly catering for a mass market. Mainland Tanzania is less developed, particularly in the south which is opening up owing to new road building. The market around Dar es Salaam is mainly domestic- and conference-based with a weaker international leisure demand in contrast to neighbouring Zanzibar.
- **Mozambique** offers a primarily beach product but with links to parks and protected areas. Many parts are still emerging in tourism. Small- and medium-sized independent hotels make up much of the product, often run by incomers without experience in the industry. Holidays and breaks by South Africans are a key part of the market.
- **The Gambia** and **Senegal** developed coastal tourism early – starting in the 1960s and 70s. Much of the product is mass market beach based, very dependent on tour operators from the United Kingdom, France and other European markets. Senegal also has a tradition of village- and community-based tourism and there are aspects of this in The Gambia.
- **Ghana** and **Cameroon** have a mixed product, with some beach related accommodation but also a strong element of cultural tourism, including key coastal historic sites in Ghana and mountain and rainforest experiences in Cameroon. The market is mixed – international, VFR<sup>1</sup> and domestic tourism from the main cities.
- **Nigeria** has less leisure-based coastal tourism but does offer some beach- and heritage-based interest. Lagos dominates the product in the west, with a mixed market of business tourism, VFR and domestic breaks.

Patterns of tourism growth have also varied between the nine countries. Many saw visitor numbers affected negatively in 2009, reflecting the global economic crisis and an overall fall in tourism arrivals around the world. Leaving this to one side and considering trends over the last five to ten years as a whole, the fortunes of the different countries have been mixed.

- Seychelles has shown strong consistent growth.
- In Kenya and Tanzania performance has fluctuated. Kenya saw a major decline in 2008 owing to political unrest but has recovered strongly. Performance on the coast may not have matched that elsewhere. Occupancy levels in mainland coastal Tanzania can be low.
- The Gambia has seen significant swings in tourism demand and has been vulnerable to tour operators withdrawing their programmes. Senegal has seen an annual increase in arrivals since 2009, while Nigeria saw a significant decline in 2011. Arrivals in Cameroon had been stagnating, but grew in 2009.
- Mozambique and Ghana have seen significant growth in arrivals in the last five years.

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1 Visits to Friends and Relatives.

## 3.2 The COAST Demo Sites

Demo sites were established in each country as a key aspect of the COAST project. Their purpose has been to enable sustainability issues in coastal tourism to be understood more clearly at a local level and to provide a focus for action supported by the project. A short description of the initial fifteen demo sites is given in table 3.2. This illustrates the considerable variety between them. During the course of the project the number of demo sites was reduced to one per country (indicated by \* in the table).

**Table 3.2 The demo sites**

Country	Demo site	Sustainable tourism context
Cameroon	Kribi*	The prime leisure tourism destination in Cameroon. 150 km of attractive beaches and natural and cultural heritage interest, including rainforest occupied by Pygmy tribes. Significant tourism provision with 60 hotels. Considerable industrial development. Tourism not well coordinated at the moment.
The Gambia	Kartong*	Small village of 2,000 inhabitants in least developed part of the coast. Community group committed to responsible tourism has been pursuing various small projects and seeks to do more to benefit the community and environment.
	Denton Bridge	Accessible location close to coastal resorts. Association of 120 boaters and fishermen taking trips into the mangrove swamps and wanting to grow their business from a small base.
	Tumani Tenda	Traditional rural village on a coastal creek. A small accommodation operation is community run and supports local welfare. Need and opportunity to strengthen the market.
Ghana	Ada-Foah*	Town of ca. 8,000 inhabitants quite accessible from Accra and close to transit route. Location on Volta River estuary and Ramsar site provides opportunities for nature-based excursions. Limited current tourism, not yet organised in the area.
Kenya	Watamu*	Well established small resort town of ca. 20,000 inhabitants with a number of significant coastal hotels and activity providers. Good beaches and community tourism activity around lagoon/forest. Active coastal management stakeholder group with hotels, community associations, NGOs and link to Marine Park.
Mozambique	Inhambane Cty – Tofo-Barra-Tofinho (TBT) area*	Small city with surrounding area with a population of ca. 70,000 has become the focal point for coastal tourism in Mozambique. Many small tourism businesses providing hotels and other facilities. Governance, planning and management challenges, partly reflected in need to strengthen public-private partnership.
Senegal	Saly*	The main leisure tourism destination in Senegal. Fine white beaches. 17 hotels and 32 apartment enterprises. Managed by government development company SAPCO in conjunction with local authority and private sector.
	Nagasobil	Community-based tourism initiative on land owned and managed by the church. Strong environmental interest. Provision of excursions and other activity. Conservation programme.
Nigeria	Badagry*	Large coastal town and linked communities (270,000) on the outskirts of Lagos. Pleasant location on a creek. Strong historic heritage linked to slave trade and also cultural events. Small set of visitor attractions. Limited accommodation and little current tourism but community interested in doing more.
Seychelles	Ephelia Resort	Link between a single up-market and sizeable resort, a local NGO and the local community. Project involves information, education and infrastructure to conserve and interpret mangroves to visitors, staff and community.
	Denis Island	Exclusive private island with its own hotel working with an NGO to strengthen visitors' and employees' understanding and support for conservation.

Country	Demo site	Sustainable tourism context
Tanzania	Bagamoyo*	Small town with fine beaches and significant heritage 50 km north of Dar es Salaam – established tourism product based on coastal hotels but declining demand. Community groups and guides associations seeking tourism income. Coastal management plan.
	Kinondoni	District of Dar es Salaam stretching into rural areas to the north. Coastal hotels catering for city business market. Local coastal communities involved in beach management. Marine Parks Unit manages offshore islands working with community groups.
	Mafia Island	Island off the southern coast, with attractive environment and reef. Relatively difficult to get to. Marine Park relating to individual tourism enterprises.

\*) Demo sites continuing in 2013.

### 3.3 Common Issues and Challenges in the Nine Countries

Taking the group of countries as a whole, some common issues are apparent in the relationship between tourism, the environment and communities on the coast. Each of the issues described below is not necessarily apparent in all the countries but is found in a majority of them.

All countries have been seeing a degree of **new development for tourism** on the coast. The pressure is particularly strong in Seychelles. Elsewhere, the situation is more varied. It is generally not easy to obtain a clear picture of the extent of existing and proposed tourism development, nor is it possible, at first impression, to be clear about the impact and threat that this development may constitute. Tourism projects may involve a mix of hotels, resorts, apartments and activities. In many countries, there is a general spread and pressure of urbanisation of the coast which can be a threat to the environment and to the amenity of the coastline for tourism. In some countries, coastal areas are seeing the development of industrial activity, include hydrocarbon and energy projects for example. Fundamentally, most countries suffer from a lack of effective planning of the coastal resources to guide development.

Tourism operations can be a source of **marine and terrestrial pollution** on the coast in all the countries. The extent of this will vary considerably from one enterprise to another. In general, there appears to be very little data on the actual levels of coastal pollution attributable to the tourism sector in the nine countries. Hotels and resorts are often quite heavy users of water and energy but the extent will depend on their size, nature and management. The seriousness of the impact of this depends on the circumstances of the location but, generally, there is a need to improve efficiency of resource use in the interests of local communities, the environment and operational cost saving.

**Poverty** is widespread on the African coast, notably in fishing communities. The tourism sector does already contribute significantly to income flowing into the coastal areas but, in all of the countries, more could be done to strengthen the linkages to the local economy and reduce the leakages. Supply chains appear largely not to have been addressed. Sometimes, there are challenges with the recruitment of labour from within the local communities. The availability of training within the local coastal areas is generally weak, which may be one reason for inconsistent service skills in the hospitality sector.

There are many **community-based tourism projects** in the demo sites and elsewhere. Their performance and access to markets can be quite weak, but they are often fulfilling an important function in linking communities to visitors and conservation. A particular dimension of the relationship between some communities and visitors is the high volume of informal trading on the beach and elsewhere, often involving harassment of tourists – this applies particularly in The Gambia and Kenya but also elsewhere.

**Coastal erosion** is a threat to coastal integrity, livelihoods and tourism, notably in West Africa but also to some coastal environments in the East. **Damage to ecosystems and habitats**, such as through the cutting of mangroves, is occurring quite extensively. Some of the coasts are suffering from poor solid waste management and are dirty and insanitary. Tourism appears in the main not to be a major direct cause of

these problems, which mainly result from the activities of local communities over time. However, there are situations where tourism is harmful to biodiversity, such as through disturbance of turtle nesting sites on beaches. In all countries, the presence of protected areas under different forms of designation is important for both conservation and tourism, with the latter being seen as an increasingly important source of income for these areas which are largely under funded.

In all the countries there are policies, governance structures and management processes in place which are relevant to addressing the above issues. However, they exhibit and face many weaknesses and challenges. These include insufficient stakeholder engagement, a lack of data, and a lack of resources and capacity to deliver effective planning, monitoring and enforcement.

### 3.4 Requirements of Coastal Tourism Governance and Management

The above context provides a basis for determining priority areas for coastal tourism governance and management, which is the subject of this study.

An overall aim can be stated:

*Strengthen governance and management to ensure that tourism serves as a positive force on the coasts of Africa, helping to conserve coastal environments and biodiversity, minimising environmental impacts and contributing to the wellbeing of local communities.*

In seeking to achieve this aim, a two way relationship is recognised between tourism on the one hand and the local environment and communities on the other. Successful tourism depends on having destinations that are attractive and welcoming.

Government and management requirements for achieving the aim include having in place:

- policies that are relevant and coherent across government, in the overall areas of sustainable development, tourism and the environment;
- clear and supportive governance structures at all levels that involve and benefit from engagement of the private sector and other stakeholders;
- sound planning and integrated management of coasts, including coastal tourism;
- effective processes to assess and influence new tourism development;
- tourism operations that pursue sound environmental management practices and seek to benefit local communities;
- tourism related actions to improve the attractiveness and conservation of coastal environments;
- actions to deliver more benefit to local communities from tourism.

Each of these requirements in turn forms the basis of the next seven chapters of this report.



# Policies for Sustainable Tourism

This chapter considers the policy context for pursuing sustainable tourism on the coasts of the nine partner countries. It considers whether existing policies are setting a clear direction. First, it looks at the primary policies for development and the extent to which tourism and environmental opportunities and issues are covered within them. Next, it considers the tourism policies and, finally, it looks at the environmental policy framework.

## 4.1 Development Policies

In most developing countries, government policies in different sectors are strongly influenced by top level policies on development and poverty reduction. The coverage and balance of these policies provides an indication of the relative importance placed on different sectors of the economy, the role they should play and, sometimes, the direction they should take. Development policies may also contain reference to the environment as a topic that affects and is affected by development. In the main, they are based on sustainability principles at the outset. In this regard, progress towards achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, which contain a balance of economic, social and environmental priorities, often sets a context for the policies.

All nine countries set out their development aspirations and policies in a Vision framework or a Poverty Reduction Strategy and frequently both, with the latter providing a roadmap for achieving the vision. These policies tend to be updated on three to five yearly cycles. In all the countries, the aspirations for accelerated development are significant, with the majority of them looking to become at least middle income economies in the next ten to twenty years.

A common emphasis in the development policies is placed on good governance. This is seen as critical for development. Issues of fairness and transparency are referred to in varying measure. One purpose of good governance is seen as providing an enabling environment for businesses. A positive relationship between the public and private sectors is universally underlined. In many of the countries there is an emphasis on community engagement in governance and for business expansion to bring opportunities for local people. More formally, the policies are often providing a basis for decentralisation programmes, placing more power and responsibility in the hands of local government, in some cases democratised, with recognition of a parallel need for institutional strengthening and capacity building.

### Treatment of tourism and the environment in development policies

Tourism is referred to clearly and specifically in the development policies of all nine countries. A common line is for it to be identified as a key economic sector, with statements sometimes going beyond this such as referring to it as one of the few sectors with the ability to drive growth. Where growth targets are mentioned they can be quite ambitious. For example in Nigeria, where currently the relative contribution of tourism is the lowest of the nine countries, the Vision seeks to increase this to 10% of GDP.

The references to tourism in the development policy documents vary in length. Sometimes, they are quite detailed and may be afforded a full chapter. Sometimes, they urge the implementation of existing tourism master plans. Where a direction is given, this tends to refer to the need to improve product quality, diversify the offer, strengthen tourism clusters, provide capacity building and strengthen the

market, especially taking account of domestic tourism. There is some variation in the extent to which the sustainability of tourism is emphasised in the development policies: in Seychelles, The Gambia and Ghana, in particular, they underline that tourism must be sustainable and responsible, safeguarding the natural and social environment.

Turning to the treatment of the environment as such in development policies, there is less consistency between the countries. While there may be reference to poor environmental conditions, pressure on resources and climate change, these may not be brought out as leading issues, though the need to tackle them is recognised, partly in their own right and partly to enable successful development.

### **Separate policies for sustainable development**

In a few countries, separate sustainable development policies exist or are being prepared, with environmental and societal priorities and challenges placed centre stage as the context for development. In Mozambique, the Sustainable Development Strategy, 2007 is based on Agenda 21 and has a strong environmental and community focus. Ghana has a Sustainable Development Action Plan which includes a section on tourism which sets out clearly sustainability principles and approach. In Seychelles, the Sustainable Development Strategy 2011–2020 is a key document shaping development with significant and integrated sections on tourism, environmental issues and coastal management and a committee structure and secretariat to ensure effective implementation and follow up of all action plans.

In general, there is very little, if any, mention of the coast in the overarching development policies, either in the context of general development, tourism or the environment.

## **4.2 Tourism Policies**

All the nine countries have specific tourism policies. However, in many cases they are quite old, frequently dating from around or a little before 2005. This does not necessarily mean that they are not still fit for purpose and most are still recognised as current. The policies are quite general in nature, setting out the aims for tourism in the country, the priorities and lines of approach.

All the tourism policies are seeking significant growth in tourism volumes and revenue, in line with the development policies mentioned above. Targets tend to be ambitious. Where earlier tourism policies or strategies had shown targets for the volume or value of tourism, the actual growth achieved has tended to fall short of them. Some countries have maintained the targets but simply put back the dates by which they should be achieved.

### **Reflecting sustainability in tourism policies**

Sustainable development principles are reflected in all of the tourism policies. In some, the pillars of sustainability – economic, social and environmental – provide a framework for the policies. In a few cases, strategies and specific actions to address sustainability issues are spelt out in some detail. For example, the Seychelles policy has a chapter on integrating tourism and environmental sustainability, which sets out implications for development. It is the more recent tourism policies that are the most likely to underline a sustainable and responsible approach. An example is the tourism policy for Kenya, some key elements of which are very relevant to the objectives of the COAST project, as described in box 4.1.

#### **Box 4.1 Enhancing sustainable tourism in Kenya, 2010 – Sessional Paper No.1**

This tourism policy underlines the great potential of tourism and the opportunity to double its contribution to GDP, while also highlighting a shift to a greater emphasis on the sustainability of tourism. The document starts with a statement about the importance of the environment and natural assets for the people's livelihoods and the tourism industry. It calls for a shift of focus from traditional tourism products to those that "deliver environmentally sustainable and socially responsible tourism", recognising that Kenya's tourism industry is 'closely linked to the ecologically sustainable development of the country's natural and heritage resources'. A justification for the new policy is stated as "harmonizing conflicting policies in key sectors such as environment, forestry, wildlife, water, fisheries, agriculture and infrastructure-related sectors with tourism policy, with a view to enhancing inter-sectoral linkages".

The policy also contains some functional priorities and actions, in line with the above philosophy, that are particularly relevant to the objectives of the COAST Project. These include:

- developing products that enhance economic growth, environmental sustainability and heritage;
- establishing carrying capacities for each tourism area;
- revising the system for standards and classification;
- encouraging tourism operators and communities to form umbrella associations with codes of practice that enhance self-regulation;
- ensuring that all tourism areas implement integrated tourism area plans, developed through a participatory process (and strengthening mechanisms for coordinating and harmonising such plans);
- ensure that all tourist establishments put in place formal Environmental Management Systems (EMS) to enable them to detect and address adverse economic, environmental and social impacts;
- establish inter-ministerial committees on tourism and enhancing coordination among tourism and lead agencies.

An interesting approach adopted in The Gambia and in Senegal was to set out and then formally adopt principles of responsible or sustainable tourism as a separate commitment upon which subsequent tourism policies are then based, see box 4.2.

An advantage of producing and publicising such principles is that they can be disseminated quite widely, taken up in the media and used as a basis for stimulating adherence to sustainable and responsible tourism by other stakeholders beyond government. They can also provide a basis for reporting action. However, there may be a danger that they are taken to be something separate from the main tourism policy and are not fully integrated and maintained.

#### **Box 4.2 Promoting responsible tourism principles as a basis for policy**

**The Responsible Tourism Policy for The Gambia** was prepared in 2004 jointly by the Ministry of Tourism, Tourist Authority, and representatives of the private sector and small businesses. It was based on the principles of the Cape Town Declaration on Responsible Tourism. It calls for: community engagement in planning and decision making; securing positive interaction between visitors and locals; strengthening economic linkages and reducing leakages; undertaking sound planning that recognises the natural environment as a vital resource; and encouraging the use of environmental assessment and management processes. It seeks a partnership approach to

governance, involving government, communities, local businesses and tour operating companies. The policy was supposed to form the basis for agreed targets and annual programmes but this has not been maintained.

**La Charte Sénégalaise du Tourisme** was produced in 2003. It was strongly influenced by and based on UNWTO's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism. The fundamental principles that form the backbone of the Charter are: ensuring the sustainability of the resources and of the sector; social equity and benefits for the Senegalese population; and synergy between State activities and private sector activities. The Charter defines the responsibilities and tasks of the ministry responsible for tourism and of the Private Sector Organisations and stipulates that the local population must be involved in tourism activities. A subsequent tourism development strategy reflects the Charter.

### Tourism Master Plans

Five of the nine countries have Tourism Master Plans or equivalent sector development plans or structure plans. These are detailed documents based on analysis of resources, markets, opportunities and the various challenges facing the delivery of tourism policy. Most are quite old, dating from around 2005, but as with the tourism policies they are all still seen as relevant to the tourism needs and opportunities in the countries.

A common approach of the Tourism Master Plans is to take a geographical perspective of the country in question and to identify tourism zones or priority development areas, which may sometimes be defined through, or linked by, itineraries or circuits. In each country, a number of coastal tourism zones have been identified in this way. The plans then provide an indication of future tourism development opportunities suitable in these zones, including the kinds of product that may be most suited to the location and assets of the zone, bearing in mind the current and future markets.

The Tourism Master Plans all recognise the need to embrace social and environmental sustainability. However, sometimes this may not be fully integrated in the proposals put forward. When referring to opportunities in the different zones, environmental circumstances are considered in general, and in some cases this influences proposals for the scale and nature of possible development. However, these are not intended to be land use plans or to take specific local issues into consideration. Therefore, the Tourism Master Plans are best placed to provide ideas and guidance on appropriate development concepts and opportunities rather than to provide a basis for determining decisions on development in particular locations.

In 2011 work on the Tourism Master Plan for the Seychelles recognised the need to be rather more conscious of resource constraints, including environmental constraints, than earlier master plans in other countries. Auditing of current bedspace volumes, occupancy levels and new developments in the pipeline has been set against consideration of available natural resources, such as water, and more specific assessment of carrying capacity in different locations may take place.

Most of the master plans point to considerable weaknesses in capacity to plan and deliver. They underline the need for effective regulations, professionalism and transparency, calling for measures such as objective Environmental Impact Assessment for tourism development and better land use planning. They also emphasise the need for good governance and engagement of the private sector, with reform of agencies such as tourism authorities, where necessary.

The main problem with the tourism master plans is to find necessary funds for their implementation and to a lesser extent the slow procedures for implementation. This may reflect a lack of commitment and political will or associated procedural holdups. For example, in 2011, the Gambia Tourism Master Plan had not officially been gazetted even though it had been prepared in 2006, though it was being used nevertheless. However, the reason for limited implementation most frequently cited is lack of financial resources. This points to a need for greater coordination between the master plan, private sector investors and international assistance agencies.

## Destination level tourism policies and strategies

An important observation from most of the countries is the relative lack of tourism policies, strategies, master plans or action plans at a sub-national level. The increasing emphasis globally as well as in some African countries on destinations, and on development and management programmes for them, based on multi-stakeholder engagement, suggests that this is a significant weakness. It is noted that the need for destination tourism strategies and action plans has been recognised in Kenya (see box 4.1 above) and in Ghana, where it is intended that District Tourism Committees should prepare plans based on national guidance through a template. Ghana also has the precedent of a Destination Management Plan prepared at a regional level for the West Coast. This theme is taken up in paragraph 6.3 of the report.

## Tourism legislation

As well as tourism policies and plans, specific tourism legislation exists in all the countries in the form of Tourism Acts or equivalent statutes. Primarily, these do not set out a direction for tourism but rather provide the legal basis for governance, such as specifying the powers of responsibilities of tourism agencies. They also provide the legal context for some management functions such as licensing of operators, covered later in this report. Tourism legislation of this kind can be important in cementing some aspects of sustainability. For example, it could require that a tourism agency addresses environmental criteria in its work. However, other areas of legislation, such as in the field of planning and environment, are probably more significant in influencing the impact of tourism development and operations.

## 4.3 Environment Policies

The establishment and evolution of national environment policies has been influenced by the international context, notably the enhanced understanding and profile of environmental issues and commitments made following the Earth Summit in Rio in 1992. Almost all of the nine partner countries have overarching environment policies, which are important in identifying priorities and providing a basis and direction for legislation, regulations and actions on environmental improvement and management.

In general, the policies have environmental management aims, to reduce or repair degradation, control pollution, manage waste, address resource consumption and prevent loss of biodiversity. Some policies emphasise the importance of these aims for the quality of life of citizens. In a few, e.g. Ghana, the need for a good quality environment as a basis for enterprise and development, notably tourism, is spelt out.

Some current environmental policies stem from the mid 1990s. These tend to put a focus on awareness raising and making sure that other government policies and ministries take account of the environment, e.g. Tanzania, see box 4.3.

### Box 4.3 Tanzania – National Environment Policy

The policy sets out the country's environmental challenges in the broad areas of sustainability and conservation of natural and man made heritage, while identifying the link to development, community livelihoods and poverty alleviation. It calls for greater awareness, education and participation in environmental management. It identifies the importance of land tenure, stating that integrated land use planning, secure access to land resources and the right to participate in decisions relating to their management shall be ensured.

An important aspect of the policy is the recognition that it must be reflected in the policies and actions of each sector. Short sections make separate reference to each of them, including tourism. The latter stipulates that:

*“Tourism development will be promoted based on careful assessment of the carrying capacity and prior Environmental Impact Assessment application. Environmentally friendly tourism and diversification of tourism activities will be promoted, e.g. conservation and promotion of cultural heritage sites, in order to decrease pressure on heavily impacted areas. Financial benefits from tourism activities shall accrue in part to the local community to motivate them in conservation of tourism resources”.*

As well as the ministry responsible for environment, the policy places emphasis on sector ministries for implementation. It also places a significant responsibility on local authorities, which are described as the most powerful tier of government and the most accessible channel for people to express concerns and take action. Local government is charged with overseeing planning processes and establishing local environmental policies and regulations.

The coverage of tourism in general environment policy is quite patchy and varies between the countries. These may, variously, point to the need for the environmental impacts of tourism to be minimised and to gain conservation benefits from the opportunities brought by tourism as a generator of revenue and community livelihood. Little detail is provided, however on how this may be implemented.

Most environment policies make some reference to the coast, ranging from simply underlining its importance and sensitivity to a more specific commitment to improving coastal zone management.

During the missions in 2011, it was found that five of the nine countries had environment policies that had been published in the last two years or were in the course of preparation. These tended to place more emphasis on strengthening the knowledge base, the capacity to implement policy and the processes of regulation and enforcement, e.g. Senegal, see box 4.4.

#### **Box 4.4 Senegal – Environmental and Natural Resources Strategy 2009–2015**

The strategy seeks to promote ‘the rational management of the environment and of national resources to contribute to the reduction of poverty in a sustainable perspective’. To formulate the strategy a comprehensive study about the state of the environment in Senegal was carried out. As well as identifying key environmental issues, analysis noted a number of management constraints to address:

- **Institutional obstacles:** These include poor synergy in taking responsibility for environmental problems due mainly to a lack of communication, information and awareness about the respective roles of stakeholders. Other constraints include the shortage of human resources and indifference of issues concerning environmental and natural resources in other sectors.
- **Legal obstacles:** These are linked to the lack of knowledge and visibility of environmental, forest and hunting laws, and weak rules governing domestic waste, industrial waste and dangerous waste.
- **Financial constraints:** These include financing environmental policy; applying effective polluter-pays principles, particularly in relation to atmospheric pollution; weak coordination of activities between technical and financial partner institutions; and ineffective transfer of competences relating to environmental protection and management to local authorities as well as financial resources.

The policy consequently has three strategic aims to:

- **Improve the knowledge base about the environment and natural resources:** This will be achieved by collecting, regularly updating and sharing basic information on the environment and natural resources; linking and interconnecting information systems on the environment and natural resources; and research, studies and development.

- **Intensify the fight against environmental and natural resources degradation respecting international conventions:** This will involve the fight against deforestation and soil degradation; biodiversity conservation and management of humid zones; management of chemical products and waste material in an ecological manner, and prevention of pollution and environmental damage; tackling coastal erosion; adapting to climate change and promoting sustainable modes of production and consumption; and rehabilitation and recovery of degraded physical environments.
- **Strengthen the institutional and technical capacities of actors implementing environmental and natural resources conservation actions:** This will be achieved by strengthening technical training and environmental education and retraining; developing agro-silvo-pastoral activities; and promoting private investment.

### Environment legislation

Environment policy is given teeth through legislation. Most countries have a central Environment Act or series of Acts. These set out the responsibilities of different players and empower Environment Agencies or equivalent regulatory and enforcement bodies. They also provide the legal basis for various management instruments such as Environmental Impact Assessment and, in some cases, Coastal Zone Management, covered later in this report. In Kenya, for example, the Environmental Management and Coordination Act (EMCA), 1999 has been a high profile piece of legislation central to environmental action. In 2012 it was reviewed and updated – a process engaging a range of stakeholder interests, including tourism.

Despite the presence of central statutes of this kind, the legislative framework relating to the environment can be complex. In Cameroon, for example, in 2011 there were more than 35 laws, 45 decrees, 25 bylaws and 7 statutes in force to protect the environment. Such complexity probably works against effectiveness, which may also be compromised by inadequate texts, a lack of resources to enforce the rules and a need to build the capacity of monitoring and enforcement officers.

### Other policy areas linking tourism and the environment

In addition to overall environment policy, focussing on impact and management, all countries have other areas of policy which have a bearing on the relationship between tourism and the environment with relevance to coasts.

In most countries, policies on Wildlife, Protected Areas, Forestry and Culture normally recognise the importance of these resources for tourism and the opportunities this brings. Emphasis tends to be placed on the importance of working with local communities on conservation. There is a need to ensure that policies also recognise the role of other tourism stakeholders, including the private sector, and to encourage effective involvement of the relevant public sector agencies in tourism planning and management.

Some countries have separate policies and strategies on Climate Change, e.g. Tanzania and Seychelles amongst others. These concentrate on awareness, information and monitoring as well as the pursuit of various adaptation measures. The implications for coastal management and for tourism are identified. The policies add further weight to the need for control of development and illegal activity on the coast, sound environmental management, more resilient infrastructure and the management of coastal ecosystems. The level of influence of these policies is not clear, however. The policy in Seychelles emphasises the need to mainstream climate change considerations into the policies of all sectors.

Finally, Land Policy is very important in consideration of the impact of tourism development. This is often a complex and difficult subject. In Kenya, for example, the National Land Policy, 2009 covers the

whole area of land tenure, allocation, planning and development control that is so vital in addressing the impact of tourism and other development on the coast. It recognises the fundamental inadequacies of the system in Kenya and contains a wide range of priorities for action to try to put this right. This is a highly sensitive and emotive topic in the country. The Land Policy has been the subject of much debate and this is a changing situation. In 2012, new legislation associated with the Lands Commission was under consideration and a land use policy was being formulated.

# Governance Structures and Relationships

This chapter considers, in turn, the structures in place for the governance of tourism and of the environment at a national level. It then looks at governance at a sub-national level including structures for taking action on tourism and the environment in local destinations and communities. Principles of sustainable tourism underline the importance of stakeholder engagement. A key theme throughout the chapter is the way in which tourism engages with different areas of government. Equally, attention is paid to public-private partnership structures and relationships with other interests.

## 5.1 National Structures for Tourism Governance

### Government structures

All the nine countries have Ministries of Tourism. These are often combined with other responsibilities, such as culture, natural resources, or small business, for example, although this does not appear to make much difference to the way tourism is covered, as the functions are normally separated into different departments within the Ministries.

All the tourism ministries have responsibility for formulating and overseeing tourism policy and, in all cases there is a separate tourism agency, usually called a Tourism Board or Authority which has responsibility for marketing. In six of the countries, the ministries themselves perform functions relating to setting and checking standards, licensing enterprises and encouraging the development of the sector. In two of the countries these functions have been devolved to the tourism board or authority alongside marketing. Other state-related bodies also provide specific tourism functions in some countries, such as national tourism colleges or tourism police units. In a few countries, there are government agencies that operate semi-commercially in the development and, possibly, the operation of tourism projects<sup>1</sup>.

Patterns are changing in these national level tourism structures. A number of countries have undertaken reviews of tourism delivery which have pointed to institutional weaknesses, including duplication, inefficiency and insufficient stakeholder engagement. In general, there has been a move towards further devolution of functions towards separate agencies and away from ministries, and also to splitting marketing from product control and development. In The Gambia, for example, a separate Tourism Council now covers the product, with a Tourism Board responsible for marketing. In Ghana, the Tourism Act of 2011 established a National Tourism Authority to replace the Ghana Tourist Board. In Kenya, the 2011 Tourism Act provided a legal status to new tourism bodies and/or technical units, which should be better placed to deliver services to support the management of the sector, including research, licensing and dedicated tourism funds.

The situation in Nigeria is rather different than in the other countries owing to the federal system there. At the time of the field work in 2011 there was a Federal Ministry of Tourism and a National Tourism Development Corporation, established under a Federal level statute in 1992, which was undertaking marketing, inspections, classification and other development functions. In parallel, the Ministry of Tourism for Lagos State was undertaking all these functions in Lagos, asserting that the constitution required that federal activity should be confined to international marketing of Nigeria. Past studies have called for this situation to be resolved.

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<sup>1</sup> An example is SAPCO, the Development and Promotion Company for the coasts and tourism zones of Senegal.

### Private sector membership bodies

A strong feature of tourism in all the countries is the presence of active private sector membership bodies which help to coordinate individual tourism enterprises, communicate with them and represent their views. Each country has a hotels association or equivalent body. In most of the countries, there is a private sector tourism federation, which is made up of the membership associations of the different elements of tourism, such as hotels, tour operators, activity providers, guides, etc. An example of one of the federations is provided in box 5.1.

#### Box 5.1 Kenya Tourism Federation

The **Kenya Tourism Federation** (KTF) is the umbrella body for the sector. It brings together seven key associations. These include: the associations of Kenya Hotel Keepers and Caterers (KHCA), Pubs and Restaurants, Tour Operators, Travel Agents and Air Operators; Ecotourism Kenya; and the Mombasa and Coast Tourist Association. KTF has been actively supporting and advocating sustainability. It has been engaged in a number of issues, such as coastal water management. On occasion, it has presented the case against specific tourism developments for environmental reasons. The KTF has established a strong lobbying and engagement position at the heart of government, assisted by its participation in the Kenya Private Sector Alliance. Through this, it participates in the Prime Minister's Round Table Forum which enables it to relate tourism to the work of all sectors of government.

The national tourism federations provide a good vehicle for discussing and taking up issues, sometimes through working groups, and, generally, have shown an interest in sustainability concerns. A few examples exist of private sector bodies which have a specific purpose of supporting the sustainable development and operation of their member enterprises. Ecotourism Kenya provides one example, another is ASSET, working to support small tourism traders in The Gambia, see box 5.2.

#### Box 5.2 Private sector bodies focussing on sustainability

**Ecotourism Kenya** (EK) was founded in 1996. Its purpose is to promote responsible tourism practices within the tourism industry. Its mission is 'to effectively link communities, tourism and conservation for sustainable tourism development'. It is a membership body with over 200 members including ecolodges, hotels, tour operators and other enterprises and organisations. Activities include: education and training programmes; research; advice and consultancy; maintaining a database and resource centre; and communication through a monthly e-newsletter. It undertakes a lot of work with community-based organisations and provides them with support. It also runs a leadership and mentoring programme which attaches university students to practical projects. It runs an award scheme for tour operators and an eco-certification scheme for enterprises.

An important body for coordination and support for tourism at a local level in The Gambia, including the engagement of communities, is the **Association of Small Scale Enterprises in Tourism** (ASSET). Founded in 2000, the Association's aim is to assist and support small-scale enterprises in tourism to trade fairly and pursue sustainable/responsible tourism development which contributes to the conservation of the physical environment and the social and economic welfare of the community in The Gambia. It has over 80 members (sector associations or individual businesses) covering accommodation, craft makers, guides and many other services. It provides training, marketing, product development advice and links to funding. A Climate Care Group within ASSET addresses sustainability issues and initiatives, including instigating projects on climate awareness raising, solid waste management, community forestry and other matters. ASSET works very closely with government and has a place on the Board of the Gambia Tourism Authority.

### Intra-government and public-private structures

In most countries, there appear to be positive relationships between the ministries of tourism and other ministries and their respective agencies. In particular, tourism bodies in government frequently work alongside environment bodies on policy development. However, there is a need to build on this through effective communication and coordination of action.

There are various structures and processes that provide for joint governance and initiatives between the public and private sector. Most of the tourism boards have Boards of Directors or equivalent committees that have representation from the private sector alongside the Ministry of Tourism and sometimes other ministries. Frequently, the chairman is from the private sector.

Another way in which private sector tourism interests can engage with government is through general trade bodies, such as Chambers of Commerce or business alliances. The success of this approach in Kenya was identified in box 5.1. Similarly, in Mozambique the Confederation of Trade Associations provides a bridge to government and has a separate tourism working group.

Despite these integrated opportunities for stakeholder engagement, many of the countries have dedicated structures that facilitate multi-stakeholder engagement in tourism. These include bodies that are mainly orientated towards inter-ministerial and agency liaison, and others whose make up and aims are more focused in securing dialogue and coordination between the public and private sectors. Five examples are given in box 5.3.

While such structures can be very helpful and can provide a good platform for raising issues of tourism planning and environmental impact, it is important that they are properly supported and maintained if they are to be successful. By 2011 the Ghana PPP Forum, for example, had seen dwindling attendance and the Council in Nigeria had lost some of its influence since it ceased to be a Presidential Council. In The Gambia, the Responsible Tourism Partnership, which included the main public and private tourism bodies, had ceased to meet. In some of these cases, lack of a clearly defined legal status may be part of the problem, together with changes in personnel and, in one situation, a reliance on international funding that came to an end.

#### Box 5.3 National partnership structures in tourism governance

In **Tanzania**, liaison used to occur between the private sector confederation and the ministry on an informal basis. However, owing to a problem of lack of continuity and changing personnel, it was decided to formalise this. A MoU was signed between the two bodies and a Public-Private Partnership Forum was established in 2010. This meets two times per year. The Forum is made up of senior people who are able to take decisions, and comprises the Ministry, Tourist Board, and representatives of the national parks, national tourism college and ten private sector associations. Other Ministries, including the Environment, can be called on as appropriate. Rather than simply providing a sounding board for complaints, as in the past, the Forum considers policies and their implementation and ensures that actions agreed are followed through.

In **Cameroon**, the National Council for Tourism has 23 members including representatives of some 13 ministries, the private sector and civil society. Under the presidency of the Prime Minister, it acts as an inter-ministerial coordinating body and includes the participation of the private sector. This body meets twice a year (with more frequent meetings by specialised technical committees) and discusses all pressing tourism issues allowing the Prime Minister's Office to coordinate various government agencies, as required.

In **Ghana**, a Public-Private Partnership Forum for tourism was established for this purpose in 2006, with international assistance. It was supported by various capacity building initiatives and a number of working groups were formed to tackle important issues. Initially, it had 85 members drawn from national ministries and agencies, local government, NGOs, private sector bodies, educational establishments, civil society and international agencies. The Forum was supposed to

meet four times per year. Participation in the Forum diminished over time and its direction became unclear. However, it was officially recognised by the Tourism Act of 2011 for the purposes of interaction between the Ministry and the private sector and does still provide a potential platform for communication and coordination on tourism sustainability issues.

In **Nigeria**, coordination of tourism interests and governance was addressed many years ago by the establishment of a Presidential Council on Tourism, chaired by the President. This met a number of times a year and involved various Federal Ministries whose activities affect tourism, Federal Agencies, State Governors and private sector representatives. It addressed policy and major tourism issues. This Council has subsequently dwindled and the President is no longer involved. However, there is a National Council on Tourism which seeks to deliver a similar coordinating function and meets annually.

In **Senegal**, the National Tourism Council (Conseil National du Tourisme), which was established by the Tourism Charter to oversee and steer the activities of the government, is composed of 8 private sector members and 11 public sector members from various ministries and agencies. It meets twice a year and when special circumstances require. The chairmanship of the Council alternates each year between the private and public sector. During the field mission in 2011, it was found that this structure was working well in terms of coordinating the actions of the government with the requirements of the private sector and agreeing future direction and activities.

## 5.2 National Structures for Environmental Governance

Ministries of Environment have responsibility for establishing and overseeing environment policy. In a few countries, notably Mozambique and Tanzania, this ministerial function is diffused and is essentially one of coordination, working with and through other ministries to ensure that the environment is integrated in their policies and activities. In Tanzania, for example, the responsibility is vested in the Vice President's Office.

A key government function in implementing environment policy concerns environmental management, control and enforcement. Five of the countries have Environment Agencies, or bodies with similar titles, which fulfil this function, empowered through an Environment Act. In the other countries, this function is undertaken by a department, division or directorate of the Ministry of Environment. In Nigeria, there is a federal agency responsible for environmental standards and enforcement as well as separate State Environment Protection Agencies. Standards and approaches are supposed to be harmonised, but may not be in practice.

A few countries have a National Environment Council, or equivalent body, which plays an overseeing or coordinating role in relation to policy and the work of the agencies. This may involve other ministries, research bodies and possibly business interests. However, they are not always particularly active.

A number of other Ministries or Departments (sometimes coming under the Ministry of Environment) have direct relevance to environmental management on coasts and the relationship to tourism. These include those responsible for: land; town and country planning; local government; natural resources; fisheries; wildlife; forestry; and culture. Some of these ministries or departments may have executive agencies undertaking important management functions – such as national park services.

It is not uncommon for certain subjects, such as Climate Change or Sustainable Development, to be addressed through cross-cutting commissions and committees, either permanent or temporary.

In some of the countries, there are examples of governmental technical units and research bodies that play an important function in data gathering and furthering understanding of environmental impacts and management processes. The Centre for Environment Assessment in Senegal and the Kenya Marine and Fisheries Research Unit provide two examples.

In general, it appears that governance relating to the environment is dominated by public sector ministries and agencies. Private sector engagement in the governance structures and processes appears to be quite limited. Non-Government Organisations (NGOs) do play an important role, but may be more active at a local rather than a national level. Seychelles stands out compared with the other countries in the level of activity by NGOs in environmental planning and initiatives at a national level alongside ministries, especially where this has a bearing on tourism.

### 5.3 Decentralization and Local Governance Structures

The establishment of effective structures for delivering and managing sustainable tourism at a local level is very important for the sustainability of the sector and for tackling issues of planning, development control, enterprise engagement and community benefit.

In six of the nine countries, there have been strong recent or ongoing moves to increase decentralisation of governance in general to local authorities operating at county or district level. In Tanzania, this came about in the late 90s via their 'decentralisation through devolution' programme. Decentralisation has also occurred in Mozambique, Senegal and Ghana. In Cameroon, the National Participative Development Programme provides a basis for new structures, and in Kenya the new constitution has established democratically elected County Councils with considerable powers. The size of Seychelles means that local governance structures are less relevant, but even here there has been a move towards giving more voice to communities through locally elected district councils.

The level and nature of decentralisation and the degree of local democracy and self governance does vary between the different countries. However, the implications are similar in terms of the need for effective capacity to deliver on the responsibilities placed on local government. In most cases, land use planning, development and environmental management are or will be local government responsibilities, implementing national policy within the framework of legislation. National agencies will continue to undertake functions in the areas of standards, planning, development, inspections and assessment with appropriate presence at sub-national level. In some countries, regional or provincial bodies provide a bridge. The situation in Mozambique is given in box 5.4 which illustrates some of the issues there.

#### Box 5.4 Governance decentralization in Mozambique

The decentralization in Mozambique has been ongoing with greater or lesser success since 1994. After nearly ten years of pilot programming and knowledge gained from experiences around the country, the principal legislative framework, the Law of Local State Organs was adopted in 2003 (Law No 8/2003) and its regulation was approved in 2005 (Decree No 11/2005).

The situation in 2011 was found to be based on Districts (subordinate to the provincial governments with District Administrators appointed by them) and Municipalities (governed by Municipal Councils led by their respective Presidents who are popularly elected every five years).

Essentially, the legislation brings the responsibility for the day-to-day management of the development process down to district and municipal levels of governance. National and provincial government are responsible for setting broad priorities and guidelines at their respective levels whilst district and municipal officials are given the responsibility of local level planning, management, monitoring and execution – i.e. the 'nuts and bolts' of development processes.

Given the state of local government in post war Mozambique at the time of the first elections in 1994, enormous progress has been made in less than twenty years in terms of re-establishing a solid framework for effective local governance within Mozambique. However, there are still a great number of practical challenges faced by government at district and municipal levels. These include technical capacity in the areas of planning, ensuring adequate information flows to and from district and municipal levels, and capacity for the practical enforcement of the legal and policy framework.

While decentralization processes have tended to lead to a specific identification of responsibilities at different levels, from national to districts or municipalities, in the fields of planning and the environment, the situation with respect to tourism is often less clear.

In some countries various functions relating to tourism, including licensing of enterprises, are likely to be undertaken at a regional or provincial level. In Mozambique, for example, provincial directorates of tourism have this responsibility but have limited capacity to deliver the service over large and highly dispersed areas. This means that they have to rely on district administrations to be able to cover the basic aspects of tourism management as they relate to project development and licensing. However, in turn, there is limited knowledge and capacity at district level. In Ghana, a number of initiatives have been addressing tourism governance at different levels, see box 5.5.

### **Box 5.5 Approaches to district and regional tourism delivery in Ghana**

A new Ghana Tourism Authority (GTA) was established under the Tourism Act 817 of 2011. This Act also stipulated that offices of the GTA should be established in each region and in each district of Ghana. During the formulation of the Act, and subsequently, there has been considerable discussion about how these offices should relate to existing regional and local government and to tourism governance structures at different levels which also include the private sector.

Some valuable experience in tourism delivery structures has been gained from the Ghana West Coast project. Here, a **Destination Management Organization (DMO)** was established with the help of international agencies, based on recognised good practice in other countries. The DMO construction partly involved bringing together the main private sector enterprises (notably beach resorts) into a group. The DMO links this group with the Regional Economic Planning Office, GTA (regional Office), conservation interests, local government, community-based initiatives and local and international NGOs. The DMO covers the area of four districts and has worked on a number of marketing and product development projects, including awareness and training work in relation to coastal management (e.g. on turtle conservation).

A review of the DMO in 2011 pointed to some success. The private sector had shown growing interest and the District Assemblies had become more actively involved. It had proved necessary to establish more local level structures under the DMO to encourage engagement, partly because of the distances and travel time involved, so three Area Partnerships were established. In order to ensure that actions were implemented, the need for a small executive group was underlined. However, an ongoing challenge has been to find funding to support the work of the DMO, especially with the termination of support from the original international agencies that were behind the initiative. The roles and capacity of the GTA Regional Office, District Assemblies, private sector and community groups in delivering sound destination management and marketing require further clarification and strengthening.

The example from Ghana raises the important question of stakeholder engagement in tourism planning, development and management at a local level and how this relates to local communities and the management of natural resources. Good practice globally is tending to point to the advantages of establishing multi-stakeholder structures for tourism management at a destination level that bring together local government, private sector, NGOs, community bodies and, where appropriate, technical input and support from national or regional agencies.

Such bodies may exist at different levels for different purposes. Local destinations can be quite small areas with a clear identity and tourism potential and where it is practicable for local stakeholders to work together on management issues. They may fit within larger destinations which may be a better level to undertake certain functions, for example with respect to delivery of expertise and marketing. An example of an interesting approach can be found in the COAST demo area of Watamu in Kenya and its relationship to the wider region, see box 5.6.

### Box 5.6 Stakeholder bodies for tourism in coastal Kenya

The **Watamu Marine Association** (WMA) is a local management body that provides a vehicle for joint working between stakeholders on coastal management issues and sustainable tourism opportunities. It is a voluntary association with a mission to develop community capacity to ensure the future protection of the Watamu Marine Park and Reserves and to develop partnerships to bridge the economic gap between the tourism sector and the local community. It was established in 2008, following a local stakeholder workshop led by NGOs.

The Association has a formal constitution. It has a membership of individuals and organisations, including hotels, local trader groups, NGOs and others, who elect an Executive Committee of 15 members, structured to ensure representation of a range of types of business and interests. It was decided that public bodies would not be on the committee as this might compromise the independence of the Association and the position of the bodies concerned, making it more difficult to take a stand on key issues and influence government. However, a strong relationship has been formed with the Kenya Wildlife Service, District government, the village Chief's office and other agencies, who frequently attend meetings and are sent minutes of all proceedings. The Association seeks to be self-sustaining, supported by voluntary effort, contributions in kind from members, and donor funding for specific projects.

The main work and approach of the WMA is in stakeholder collaboration and communication, representation, conflict resolution, support for community-based initiatives and enterprises, project implementation (such as beach management) and input to planning processes and decisions.

The WMA is a member of the **Mombasa and Coast Tourist Association** (MCTA), which covers the whole coast, and has a mission to build a responsible and sustainable tourism industry there. The MCTA has over 100 members and is funded through fees from them. It is private sector led but engages closely with public sector agencies, who serve on various committees, including one on the environment. The functions of MCTA include marketing, training, advocacy and engagement in destination management. It is keen to build its position with the new county councils in Kenya, ensuring that they have supportive structures for tourism which have access to private sector experience.

A number of the demo areas in the COAST project are seeking to strengthen governance of tourism and environmental management at a very local level, involving stakeholder engagement. The Watamu example above is relevant to them. In The Gambia, the Kartong Association of Responsible Tourism works alongside the official Village Development Committee. In Cameroon, support has been given to the establishment of an Inter-Council Tourism Management Board for the demo area of Kribi, with representatives of different local and national administrations, private sector and ecotourism groups. In Nigeria, the need to bring stakeholder interests together has been recognized, building on some existing structures as illustrated in box 5.7. This example raises the important consideration of traditional chieftancy structures in some, but not all, of the countries, and ensuring that their influence is used effectively for sustainable tourism.

### Box 5.7 Issues for stakeholder engagement in Badagry, Nigeria

The COAST demo site of Badagry is a sizeable district on the edge of Lagos. Tourism development and activity is strongly influenced by the State Ministry of Tourism. The Local Government in Badagry has some responsibility for tourism as well as natural resource management, but is relatively inactive and has limited capacity. During the field mission in 2011, it was found that the State Ministry recognized the need and desirability to strengthen the capacity of Local Government in tourism and other matters. At the same time, they recognized a growing interest amongst local community groups to engage in tourism and the conservation of the area's strong local heritage

and natural resources. This was seen as providing the possibility for a more creative and dynamic structure for local action rather than relying simply on Local Government.

Particular interest was coming from local NGOs, cultural and conservation bodies and youth groups. The local branch of the Lagos Hotels Association and individual establishments also expressed an interest in working with the local destination. The State Ministry was keen to foster this local interest and encourage the formation of a stakeholder tourism group. Village communities, which are partly coordinated and empowered through Community Development Councils and Associations, would need to be involved. In addition, traditional structures, through the King of Badagry and the White Cap Chiefs, are influential and have views about development needs and opportunities and communicate with their communities through weekly meetings. It was recognized that they would need to approve and support any new arrangements.

# Planning the Coastal Zone for Sustainable Tourism

This chapter considers processes for planning and managing the coastal zone as a whole as a fundamental requirement for guiding the future development of sustainable tourism.

## 6.1 The Pursuit of Integrated Coastal Zone Management (ICZM)

Coastal zone planning requires a coordinated approach, taking account of current resources, future change and the needs of different sectors and communities in order to achieve economic, social and environmental sustainability. The different players should work together to agree and implement a coastal zone management plan, which sets out management actions as well as addressing spatial issues and guiding development.

One of the main purposes of an overarching coastal zone management plan is to consider the various pressures and opportunities for development on the coast from a range of sectors which may be competing for land and resources and whose impacts can affect other sectors as well as the integrity of the coastal environment. An example of competing pressures and implications for tourism and the environment is provided by Cameroon, see box 6.1.

### **Box 6.1 Coastal pressures and need for planning, Cameroon**

The coastal region is the most urbanised natural area in Cameroon and one of the most populated with a rate of urbanisation of 90%, nearly twice the average of 50% in Cameroon. Around 80% of the country's industrial activity and a third of Cameroon's hotel stock is located on the coast.

Tourism competes for space, especially with the industrial activities that are established along the coast or are planned in the future. In the demo site Kribi which is reputed for its beaches and with a relatively established tourism industry, space used by the tourism sector is being reduced as it is gradually being allocated for other uses. The construction of a deep water port near Grand Batanga will completely transform the area, threatening the Chute de la Lobé, an impressive waterfall which has been recognised by UNESCO and a prime tourist site in the area. Other planned industrial activities include a chemical plant near the port, the Mpolongue gas plant at Londji and the iron mining concern at Mballam. There have been reports of oil leaks from the Chad-Cameroon Pipeline. Palm oil plantations are taking over large coastal forest areas, polluting the rivers and encroaching on the living area of local Bagyeli Pygmy communities. The future of this coastal centre will be in jeopardy, if the area is not properly zoned to ensure that assets vital for tourism are protected in Kribi.

In some respects, tourism may be regarded as more environmentally benign than many other sectors. Some studies, such as a context appraisal for ICZM in Ghana, have suggested that zones should be identified for tourism to prevent future degradation from other uses. However, it is also recognised that tourism developments bring their own impacts and part of the requirement of coastal planning is to ensure that tourism developments on the coast are located and designed to be appropriate to local environmental conditions.

The need for an integrated coastal zone management process and plan is recognised in all the nine counties. In many of them, the legal basis for integrated coastal planning is provided within the main Environment Act.

Two of the countries where ICZM has been taken furthest forward are Kenya and Tanzania. The experience in each is described in boxes 6.2 and 6.3.

### **Box 6.2 Establishment of ICZM structures and a plan in Kenya**

Stakeholders have been working together in Kenya on integrated coastal zone management for some time. At the policy level, this has involved Ministries meeting twice a year. More detailed work and coordination is through a **Standing Committee on ICZM**, meeting on the coast twice every three months. The Committee involves over twenty people and includes representatives of ministries, agencies, local government, universities and research institutes. There have been some problems of low attendance, partly due to the fact that for some members this has not been allocated as a mainstream activity in their work targets. More recently, private sector business engagement in the Committee was strengthened and the Mombasa and Coast Tourism Association has become involved.

A **State of the Coast Report** was produced in 2008. This provided an assessment of coastal ecosystems, species, communities, economic activities, threats and impacts, governance and management. It recommended the establishment of an ICZM programme, improved land use planning and stronger enforcement of regulations covering development. Specific conclusions on tourism were not presented, possibly because the sector was not particularly identified as a threat to the coast any more than general urbanisation and uncontrolled development.

An **Integrated Coastal Zone Management Action Plan** was completed in 2010. Its mission is 'to conserve the coastal and marine environment and to ensure that its resources are utilised in a sustainable manner for the benefit of coastal communities and the national economy'. Following a summary situation analysis, the Plan sets out some broad strategic objectives under six themes: integrated planning and coordination; promotion of sustainable economic development; conservation of the coastal and marine environment; environmental management and risks (including climate change); capacity building, education, awareness raising and research; and institutional arrangements and legal frameworks. The Plan ends with an action matrix identifying general actions under each objective, with an indication of implicated agencies and indicative cost.

The above plan is certainly comprehensive. However, it is very general in its treatment. In the area of planning and development, it calls for a coastal physical development plan, for zone plans for various ecosystems and development areas, and for land capability and land use plans. Concerning sustainable economic development, it calls for promotion of alternative livelihood options, but these are not developed in detail. While the ICZM Plan is helpful in placing challenges and required responses in one framework, there has been a clear need to focus down on implementation. The **Kenya Coast Development Project**, with funding from the World Bank and led by the Marine Research Institute, is addressing spatial and physical planning, including development guidelines, and will also provide support for small enterprises and communities. The need to ensure that the new County Councils have ownership of the project and its outputs, to ensure follow through and long term impact, has been understood.

### Box 6.3 The Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership (TCMP)

The TCMP, established in 1997, provides a good example of national level ICZM linked to guided local implementation. It has been a joint initiative of the National Environment Management Council and the Coastal Resources Centre of the University of Rhode Island, with funding from USAID. A **National Integrated Coastal Management Steering Committee and Unit** were established to provide oversight, guidance and facilitation. The Steering Committee comprised representatives of ministries responsible for lands, fisheries, forestry, agriculture, mining, tourism and local government, together with a representative from the NEMC, the private sector, NGOs and three from coastal local authorities.

A key output was the preparation of a **National Integrated Coastal Environment Management Strategy (2003)**. It set out management challenges and needs, with strategic action areas covering: local planning; promoting sustainable economic uses; conserving and restoring habitats; addressing special areas; improving data; involving community stakeholders; and building human and institutional capacity.

A key aspect of the strategy has been to focus on local structures and delivery, with considerable emphasis placed on the preparation of **District Integrated Coastal Management Action Plans**. The process for preparing these plans was set out in a guidance document. This required the establishment of an ICM Committee and Working Group in each District. The elements of the process included initial assessment, issue identification, stakeholder participation (including at the village/community level) and action planning. The resulting action plan had to be approved by the TCMP to ensure compliance with ICZM strategic priorities and by the respective District Council. Plans were prepared in all 14 coastal districts.

Another key aspect has been the focus on sector level approaches. A specific **Coastal Tourism Working Group** was established, consisting of representatives of the Ministry of Tourism, Tanzania Tourist Board and other ministries and divisions, although it did not include the private sector. It produced some helpful practical studies and guidelines, including a Coastal Tourism Situation Analysis (which recommended clearer investment procedures, tourism plans for priority areas, and more opportunities for economic benefit for communities), a Land Use Planning Manual for Coastal Tourism Development and guidelines for potential developers.

After the USAID funding finished, the World Bank supported a follow-up Marine and Coastal Environmental Management Project which has been used to implement some specific activities at a local level initiated by the TCMP.

While some positive benefits have come from the TCMP, implementation of the strategy has been patchy. This partly reflects the lack of a specific budget from government to support action. The same problem has been found at District level – plans have been created but often not effectively implemented owing to the lack of capacity and resources. Nevertheless, the plans and materials produced are still largely relevant and some local management structures established through the TCMP still remained in 2012. Training and educational outreach carried out through TCMP has assisted overall understanding of coastal issues, although there have been changes in personnel in recent years. In 2012, the TCMP itself still existed, but had very limited financial and human resources. The ICM Select Committee was only meeting infrequently and the Coastal Tourism Working Group existed in name only. Recommendations have been made for rejuvenating these structures.

The experience in Kenya and Tanzania has illustrated some of the elements of ICZM and the issues over its delivery. ICZM should be seen as much as a process of maintaining facilitated engagement of stakeholders as the production of a plan, although clearly both are important. In both countries, bringing the stakeholders together has proved quite possible but maintaining commitment over time has been more of a challenge.

The importance of having a clear understanding at the outset of the state of the coast – the environmental and socio-economic needs and the development pressures and opportunities, is clear. In Kenya, the ICZM Plan is quite general but does provide a basis for prioritisation and identifying the roles of the main players. The challenge rests with converting this into more meaningful plans and actions on the ground. The way this was tackled in Tanzania, through providing technical guidance and frameworks or templates for local areas to follow, has merit. Much depends, however, on the commitment and capacity at a local level to follow this up. This could be strengthened by more engagement of the private sector in supporting the process.

The situation with ICZM in the other seven countries, as pertaining during the field missions in 2011, is summarised below, Some were on their way to preparing plans while in others there had been some relevant steps in the past but the future direction was less clear.

- **Senegal:** A National Land Use plan covered the coast and there had been some development plans for coastal areas. A new Loi du Littoral (law of the coast) was designed to achieve a balanced approach between the protection of the coast from climate change and from erosion caused by human activity and socio-economic development to reduce poverty by legally codifying an integrated coastal management plan. This was being preceded by a study and extensive stakeholder consultation.
- **Nigeria (Lagos):** The Ministry for Waterfront Infrastructure had indicated that consultants would be appointed to prepare a comprehensive master plan for the coast based on full consultation.
- **Cameroon:** Studies on ICZM had been carried out in Kribi and elsewhere but not implemented. The Ocean Division Development Authority had been charged to prepare a framework plan for the coast and design new management tools for local development.
- **Ghana:** A study on ICZM had been undertaken in the 1990s. Environmental sensitivity assessment led to some classification of different coastal areas. The need for an integrated coastal plan had been recognised. An internationally funded project on ICZM has subsequently been working on governance structures and planning processes in pilot coastal districts and also addressing national level structures for taking this forward.
- **Mozambique:** A Technical Committee for Inter-Institutional Integrated Management of the Coastal Zone was established in 1996. However, this had few resources and met infrequently. A draft ICZM strategy was prepared in 2001 but not adopted. There was no national level strategic framework for the coast, though there was a need for this.
- **Seychelles:** While there had been no ICZM process and plan as such, a comprehensive approach to land use planning was partly addressing this and is referred to later.

In **The Gambia** the situation was found to be rather different. The whole of the coastal belt is a Tourism Development Area, which is a longstanding designation and requires that tourism has primacy in terms of development and land use. There have been some problems however with this, arising from uncertainties over the limits of the area, lack of clarity over land use rights of coastal communities and engagement in mineral extraction without deference to tourism. Some management structures involving different ministries have been put in place, including a Coastal Working Group addressing erosion and other processes and a Land Allocation Committee addressing development applications. However, an integrated coastal zone management plan, reflecting and agreed by the different interests and providing a strategic basis for guiding development, has been lacking.

## 6.2 Land Use Plans

ICZM processes and plans tend to be quite broad in their treatment of different coastal activities and the balance between them, indicating how their competing use for resources will be addressed. They may contain a spatial element involving zoning of the coast for preferred types of use. However, in order to provide detail and also a legal basis for the spatial differentiation of land for different types of development and activity, a land use plan is needed. This might be prepared for the whole coast but would be more likely to focus on particular coastal settlements or stretches of coast.

During the field missions in 2011, it was found that some of the nine countries did have land use plans for parts of their coast, but this was quite patchy and limited. Six of the demo sites had land use plans but some of them were not being implemented. In Inhambane, Mozambique, for example a macro-zoning plan was prepared in 2004 but the lack of enforcement has meant that there been construction of inappropriate buildings in green zones and on dunes, with some members of the community no longer having direct access to the beach due to the acquisition of contiguous plots of primary beach front by private investors.

The Master Plan for Badagry, Nigeria is an example of a spatial master plan for a coastal area resulting in the zoning of areas of land for different uses, including tourism, see box 6.4. Effective implementation of plans such as this in all countries will require strong awareness, engagement and commitment amongst all local stakeholders, supported by sufficient government resources and capacity.

### Box 6.4 A Master Plan with land use zoning in Badagry, Nigeria

A Master Plan for Badagry, prepared by consultants for the Lagos Ministry of Physical Planning, was published in January 2011. It covers all aspects of development of the area, with tourism considered as just one land use. The document refers back to the national Tourism Masterplan and its identification of Badagry as a location for heritage related tourism. It sets out a concept based on sustainable tourism principles, with a series of detailed guidelines for new tourism development, concentrating on design issues and the treatment of energy, water, waste and transportation. It also establishes guidelines for community engagement. It refers to the need for excellent cultural interpretation and for a tourism marketing strategy for the area and calls for the designation of part of the area for conservation and recreation in the form of a regional park. It is positive about encouraging appropriate new investment in significant tourism facilities provided the design and execution take full account of the environment.

The approach appears to be well suited to the area. A challenge is to take it forward to fruition with the necessary stakeholders engaged. At the time of the field study mission in Nigeria there was some apparent unfamiliarity with the Master Plan amongst local stakeholders.

In Seychelles, a land use planning initiative has adopted a bottom-up approach, focussing on work in local communities, based on consultation, and then linking this up to become a national land use plan. In this way considerable detail is covered, see box 6.5.

### Box 6.5 Seychelles land use planning initiative

In Seychelles the National Land Use Plan was prepared in 1992. It indicated general zoning, such as for residential, industrial and tourism use, but proved too broad for effective use in development control. In order to address this situation a GEF funded land use planning initiative was established with the Planning Authority. This has worked at a District level as it was felt that this was best for stakeholder engagement and for creating plans of sufficient detail. The process has involved:

- discussion with the District Administrator (DA) to identify priority issues;
- detailed assessment on the ground, looking systematically at land characteristics parcel by parcel, leading to initial mapping showing suitability for different uses;
- discussion with local officials and bodies concerned with different functions and sectors, incorporating their views and making revisions; public open meetings organised by the DA at which the draft map is shown and discussed;
- final District Land Use Plans put forward for Government endorsement.

The Land Use Plans have used a large number of different use categories. One category (T1 – Tourism Area) is for specific tourism development, including larger scale, while other ‘Mixed Use’ designations allow for tourism activity at different densities interspersed with residential, etc. Particular attention has been paid to building densities (calculated according to certain formulae) and heights for guidance on allowable types of development on different land areas.

Digitisation and mapping of land ownership from cadastral records has been an important part of the project. This has enabled the planning parcels to reflect ownership boundaries. The project has included a data management component, capturing information on biodiversity and other resources. Part of the exercise has involved strengthening GIS knowledge and application.

The initiative has demonstrated how, through establishing and then combining District Land Use Plans, a whole-country plan can be created which can be presented at different levels of resolution to show general or detailed patterns of use.

### 6.3 Tourism Destination Management Plans

ICZM Plans and land use plans are both important in shaping development on the coast and identifying where it should occur. However, the delivery of successful sustainable tourism also requires another dimension of planning. This should focus specifically on tourism and provide a direction for its development based on careful assessment. Such a plan is well suited to a local destination level but should reflect any national tourism policies and master plans. Increasingly plans of this kind are referred to as ‘Destination Management Plans’ but they are equally appropriately called sustainable tourism strategies and action plans for the destination.

The key inputs to a Destination Management Plan are:

- resource assessment, including physical and cultural attributes as well as the nature, quality and performance of tourism facilities;
- market assessment, considering current markets coming to the area, ongoing trends and future opportunities, and proposing marketing activities;
- environment, social and other constraints which may determine capacity;
- structures for effective planning and coordination of tourism in the destination.

The contents of Destination Management Plans should include aims and a vision for tourism in the destination, strategic objectives and priority actions to meet them. These should cover product development, capacity building, information provision and marketing amongst other areas of activity.

Destination management plans should be informed by, and inform, wider ICZM Plans and land use plans, ensuring that both reflect tourism needs and realities.

Tourism strategies or Destination Management Plans could be helpful for the whole coast of a country and this is one level at which they should be considered. However, such plans can be most effective for specifically identified local destinations, such as resort towns and their surrounding hinterland.

In the nine countries, relatively few Destination Management Plans at this level have been forthcoming. Two particular examples were found. In Bagamoyo, Tanzania a technical report had been commissioned from an external consultant in the form of an “ecotourism plan”<sup>1</sup>. This contained all the ingredients mentioned above but had not been actively implemented in a comprehensive way. Secondly, at a larger scale, the Destination Management Plan for Ghana West Coast provides a relevant example.

Challenges for the drawing up of such plans relate in particular to human resource and financial constraints within the destinations and to a lack of data and evidence for planning.

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1 The term “ecotourism” can be unhelpful in this context as interpreted one way it presupposes an orientation to nature observation. In reality the interest lies in the whole of tourism and the need to make it more sustainable.



# Influencing Coastal Tourism Development

The extent, size, nature and location of new tourism development on the coast has a fundamental effect on the impact of the sector on coastal environments and communities. Selecting and using management tools effectively to influence development is of the utmost importance to the sustainability of coastal tourism.

This chapter looks first at Environmental Impact Assessment as a key instrument for shaping development projects and informing decisions about them. It then considers the procedures for approval of development and some other issues affecting this. Finally, it looks at economic instruments and related activities to encourage and promote appropriate new investment on the coast.

## 7.1 Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) of Coastal Tourism Projects

All the countries have a requirement that developments which are likely to have a significant environmental impact should be the subject of an Environmental Impact Assessment leading to a report or statement that is taken into account in the determination of approval of the project. It is therefore a potentially powerful instrument in ensuring tourism development that is sustainable.

### Requirements for an EIA on tourism projects

The requirement to conduct an EIA in each country is enshrined in legislation, usually as a key section of the main Environment Act. This may identify the duties of the body responsible for EIAs, which tends to be either the environment agency or a division of the ministry.

In some countries, the Act itself indicates what types of project will require an EIA; in others this may be determined and made known by the responsible body. In most of the countries, it is clear that tourism development, such as new hotels, restaurants and other services, does fall within the requirements of EIA. Most countries also have criteria on requirements for EIA depending on the sensitivity of the location, pointing to the need for EIAs to be conducted for developments on the coast.

The level of assessment required is likely to depend on the scope of the project. It is common for there to be at least three levels:

1. Where the environmental impacts are considered likely to be significant or there is uncertainty about this – requires a full EIA.
2. Where the impacts are considered to be understood and predictable and unlikely to be significant – requires a simplified EIA.
3. For some small projects and activities – may not require an EIA as such but may require listing and registering with the responsible body.

The level of EIA required should be decided through an initial screening process. However, in most countries there is a broad indication of the size and scope of projects that are likely to require different levels of assessment, although this is not always very clear.

For tourism projects, such as hotels, the main determinant used in most of the countries appears to be the size of the accommodation. On this basis, it is evident that there is a considerable variation between the nine countries in the likelihood that a full EIA will be required. In Cameroon, for example, only hotel projects proposing to build more than 100 bedrooms have to prepare full EIAs. In Ghana, the equivalent threshold is 50 bedrooms, whereas in Tanzania it is around 10 bedrooms.

In most countries, EIA requirement for small projects are unclear. It appears that proposed developments of small hotels and guest houses should be subject to a degree of environmental scrutiny. However, for certain types of project this may not occur at all. For example, this may be the case with informal bed and breakfast or residences that are used for tourism purposes. This can be a considerable problem in areas where there are a number of such enterprises on the coast, whose environmental discharges may together add up to the equivalent of a large tourism project. This situation was particularly apparent in the Ada Foah demo site in Ghana and may well apply to other areas.

For small scale tourism enterprise development, it would be helpful to clearly set out a minimum level of EIA procedure that is appropriate to the size of project and also practical to deliver. Small community-based tourism projects may also not clearly fit into an EIA framework. This situation has been looked at in Kenya, with a report produced on shaping EIAs to be suitable for community-based tourism.

### The content of EIAs

Although they are called Environmental Impact Assessments, it is common for EIAs to cover a range of potential socio-economic and cultural impacts as well. The breadth of requirement may be specified in the legislation, but usually details are set out by the responsible body in published EIA Guidelines.

In at least three of the countries specific guidelines on EIAs have been prepared for the tourism sector. In Ghana, guidelines both on the content of EIAs and the procedures were prepared in 2010 as a joint exercise between the Environment Protection Agency, Forestry Commission (Wildlife), Ministry of Tourism and Tourist Board. The comprehensive EIA content checklist for tourism development in The Gambia is summarised in box 7.1.

It appears that the elements that EIAs are required to cover are reasonably comprehensive in the nine countries and, generally, reflect international practice.

As well as an objective assessment of impacts and their significance, the studies have to identify mitigation actions which will be taken by the project. These actions will relate to the way the project is designed and developed, including the construction processes. EIAs should also address proposals for management of the enterprise, covering environmental and social issues, once it is up and running – this may include a requirement for the enterprise to have a specific environmental management system with measurements and annual reporting.

In addition to the provision of EIA guidelines, which vary in detail and in specificity to tourism between the countries, normal practice is for the particular requirements of the EIA for an individual project to be agreed during a scoping stage which leads to terms of reference for the EIA. It appears that this is broadly followed in the nine countries.

#### **Box 7.1 The Gambia – EIA guidelines for tourism development projects**

##### **Description of the project**

- Purpose and physical characteristics
- Land use requirements
- Operational features
- Alternative sites and processes considered

### **Description of the site and its environment**

- Physical and climatic features of the site (human population, landscape, hydrology, heritage significance, climate, present land use, carrying capacity with respect to proposed tourist volumes)
- Legal and policy framework (all designations, relevance to Tourism Master Plan, pertaining legislation and regulations)

### **Identification and description of the impacts**

- Impact on human beings (impacts on: public health and safety; social and cultural fabric; ethnic groups and gender; competition for local resources; local economy: employment, food producers, community participation; transportation; land values; instability should the project fail)
- Impact on flora and fauna (encroachment on and fragmentation of habitats; impact on nearby reserves, mangroves etc; loss or stress to species; creation of new ecosystem; impacts on secondary functions, e.g. stabilisation)
- Impact on the land (impacts on: land use and access to surrounding land; topography; soil pollution; aesthetic quality)
- Impact on water resources (water extraction, public water supply, groundwater, hydrological regime, water pollution)
- Impact on air quality (dust, odours, traffic emissions, climatic impacts)
- Other direct and secondary impacts (e.g. on other developments)

### **Significance of impacts**

The significance of all the impacts identified will be determined and presented. This will be considered at the national and local level. The cumulative effect of other similar projects should also be considered.

- Where standards exist in The Gambia, these can be used to show significance (applies to water quality standards; planning regulations, including those relating to protected areas, deforestation, etc.; international conventions)
- Where there are no standards, environmental and societal values will be illuminated from a range of sources (Government policy; international policies and agreements; representations made at public enquiries; reactions from persons affected by the project – local communities, tourist board, tour operators, etc.)

### **Mitigating measures: Actions to avoid, reduce or remedy impacts**

- Operational measures (minimising disturbance to habitats; proper management of wastes; erosion control plans; water management plans; construction meets local ordinances; planning to reduce traffic; ensure community representatives, and tour operators agree on visitor numbers and community use of income)
- Ecological measures (landscaping; monitoring wildlife; limiting tourist numbers/movements; guide and operator training; eco-attractions)
- Preservation cultural and historic sites
- Proposed mode of environmental reporting and in-house auditing

### Monitoring and evaluation

To provide assurance that impacts will be within limits and provide early warning of significant change. Covering: stabilisation of land surface; soil and water quality; erosion and sediment impacts; condition of protected and sensitive areas; impacts from associated recreational activities such as diving, wildlife watching; demands on resources and infrastructure; effects on local and regional society and economy.

### Stakeholder engagement and consultation

While the commissioning and responsibility for the EIA rests with the environment agency or other responsible body, the procedure should involve the engagement of a range of stakeholders. Normal practice would be for the tourism ministry and other relevant government industries and agencies to be engaged with the scoping stage and terms of reference and in considering the EIA report. Again, this appears to be being followed. The breadth of consultation and engagement may vary according to the level of EIA, with full EIAs being considered by a set of ministries and other stakeholders, together with public review, and more simplified ones being considered by a delegated panel or body.

An important issue in a number of countries is the extent of consultation with the local community. Generally, it is a requirement for communities to be consulted and for the EIA report to be made available to be read in locations accessible to them for a specified minimum period. While this requirement may be met, there is a feeling in certain countries and demo sites that the effort made to consult and engage with the community is insufficient. In Watamu, Kenya, for example, the WMA has expressed the view that community interests should be much more strongly taken into account in the planning and development process. In Seychelles, an NGO project has worked to strengthen community engagement by proposing that EIA reports, which can be very long documents, must have short summaries in the local language which are effectively disseminated, with stronger promotion of attendance at local meetings.

### Concerns about the effectiveness of EIA

While all the countries appear to have systems in place for the conducting of EIAs that reflect internationally recognised practice, the field missions in 2011 found a common view in many countries that the application of EIAs had not been fully effective. It was felt that too many tourism projects had been developed and were operational that should have been prevented or modified by the EIA. A number of apparent reasons have been suggested for this.

- A need to place EIA within a wider strategic context. There was little evidence of the conducting of wider Strategic Environmental Assessments.
- Lack of adherence and commitment to EIAs across a range of sectors. In Cameroon, for example, there was concern that EIA requirements were being ignored or addressed only cursorily in other sectors, such as palm oil production, and this had affected attitudes to the process as far as tourism development is concerned. In some countries governments may not always be providing the best example to others in the procedures applied to their own projects.
- The timing of EIAs in the process of development approval. In Kenya, for example, there was some concern that EIAs may take place too late in the cycle and the results emerge after projects have already received a degree of approval. It was also felt that if the process starts earlier then it can be more helpful in influencing the concepts and designs positively. The same situation is likely to apply in other countries as well.

- Monitoring and follow-up. The greatest and most universally recognised weakness appeared to lie with the ability of government agencies and local authorities to monitor the performance of development projects and the resulting operations to ensure that they are complying with the approach and mitigation measures that were proposed and approved through the EIA and with any specific requirements attached to the development approval. This appeared to be mainly a consequence of limited capacity, including time and skills, within the responsible bodies and especially local government. The problem could also be placed at the door of the developers themselves in failing to meet their obligations.

The EIA studies and reports are mainly carried out by external consultants. There was no indication that there was a problem with their competence. Some countries have professional membership organisations for environmental assessors and auditors, with their own standards.

There is some evidence from the demo projects and elsewhere that community engagement can make a considerable difference in encouraging robust and transparent EIAs and outcomes. In Watamu in Kenya, a considerable number of proposals for new tourism facilities had been coming forward. There was concern that development proposals which were being sanctioned through the EIA process would nevertheless be detrimental to the environment. It was felt that community views and robust environmental assessment needed to be input at an earlier stage. One particular case, of a large scale resort project, had been challenged by WMA and taken to the National Environment Tribunal which moved to stop the development.

Despite these concerns about EIAs, it is important not to conclude that they are necessarily ineffective. They clearly do make a difference to the way tourism projects are approached and to decisions that are made on them. Of the nine countries, the process appeared to be most effective and developed in Seychelles. Here, the Department of Environment could point to a number of situations where tourism development projects have not been approved or have been significantly altered as a result of the EIA. Although, even here, there appeared to be some challenges with monitoring and follow-up, the Department could also point to situations where stop orders had been placed on developments during the construction phase leading to changes being made to comply with agreed requirements.

## 7.2 Procedures and Issues Affecting Development

The EIA is just one element of the procedures leading to the approval of tourism development proposals on the coast. Some other management aspects are considered below.

### Licensing and planning approval

Although the situation varies in the nine countries, each has a pathway for developers to follow. Initial approaches may be made to a variety of bodies, including the tourist board, local authority or other government agencies. The level of coordination from here on may also vary. Some countries are clearer than others about where and how to start. For example, in Tanzania approaches are all channelled to the Tanzania Investment Centre which is a one-stop-shop for investors. This centre then brings together government ministries and agencies and facilitates contacts between them and the developer.

In general, where the procedures are clear and there is good coordination, there appear to be fewer problems with developments being given approval without complying with correct procedures and scrutiny. Difficulties can often arise where a developer may, for example, approach a local authority which then indicates approval before the right procedures are followed.

In most countries, granting of approval for development will require:

- approval of the EIA report and environmental impact statement by the Ministry of Environment or responsible body, taking account of the factors covered earlier;

- approval of the development on the site by the local authority. Projects may be referred to a local development, planning or environment committee, or a combination of them. There is little information about the level of scrutiny afforded by them in the different countries or on the nature of influences that may be brought to bear. The presence of a local land use plan should be helpful and important in influencing a decision, but often there will not be such a plan or it may not be properly taken into account. Issues concerning land tenure will also affect the processing of applications and decisions at this stage;
- issuing of a license to develop and operate. This would normally be issued by the Ministry of Tourism or tourism authority. In Ghana, for example, the Ghana Tourism Authority issues the licence based on a checking procedure that all the necessary permits are in place, including a permit from the Environment Protection Agency based on the EIA. Other permits may include matters concerning fire regulations, safety, etc. In some countries, there are issues with the capacity to undertake the necessary checks in the licensing process. In Mozambique, while the licence requirements and the roles of the agencies in checking them are clear for the full range of different types of tourism development, the procedure appeared to be affected by coordination and capacity constraints at the provincial and local level.

The length of time that these procedures may take can have a bearing on the chances of securing good, sustainable development. Awareness of likely delays and hold ups can be a cause for developers to circumvent the procedures. In some countries delays can be significant, again often to do with capacity at a technical and local level. In The Gambia, for example, although there is a Land Allocation Committee that brings together the main bodies to discuss and decide on applications in the coastal Tourism Development Area, progress with projects had been regularly held back by technical delays over matters relating to land registration and physical planning, apparently hampered by limited data and computerisation, together with the lack of qualified planners in the relevant department. Evidence from elsewhere, however, suggests that the process from application to approval does not have to take a large amount of time. In Seychelles, applications were reported to be assessed within eight weeks.

### Specific site requirements for coastal development

Development on coastal sites, whether for tourism or other purposes, is affected by a number of specific factors particular to the coastal location. These should be taken into account in EIAs. However, it is helpful to clarify at the outset any general criteria and requirements that may pertain to the use of different types of site and to the form of development.

A particular issue concerns setback of buildings from the high water mark. In most countries, a minimum setback has been identified but this may not be enshrined in regulations and often appears to be surprisingly vague. There is considerable variation between the countries on the extent of setback expected (comparative figures from 2011), viz:

- The Gambia – 150 m
- Nigeria – 150 m Federal but reduced to 100 m by Lagos State
- Mozambique – 100 m, without a special a licence from the maritime authority
- Tanzania – 60 m
- Seychelles – 25 m as a broadly understood guide, depending on the topography

The need for a larger setback on the Atlantic coast compared to the Indian Ocean is understandable owing to the sea conditions and extent of erosion in West Africa. However, this is an area where greater clarity, backed up by firm evidence and taking account of climate change predictions, would be helpful.

There is evidence that these setback limits are not necessarily being met. There is also potential uncertainty, notably with respect to tourism development, on the extent to which they apply to some types of non-permanent structures and how these are defined.

Apart from the question of setback, in several countries there generally appears to be little further specification concerning forms of building and development on the coast.

All the countries have a number of protected areas that cover coastal sites. Some are special designations relating specifically to coastal landforms, ecosystems and biodiversity, including areas protected on account of their mangrove forests, wetlands, birdlife and other flora and fauna. Policies on tourism development in these areas vary from total restriction to relatively little control. In some countries there are specific criteria and procedures relating to the protected areas. For example, in Tanzania there are specific Investment and EIA Guidelines for Marine Parks and Reserves, together with a requirement for all development and activity to be in line with the management plans for these areas.

### **Availability, allocation and acquisition of land**

A complex and sensitive subject affecting the opportunity for appropriate sustainable tourism development on the coast is the availability of land. This is not only about the physical availability of suitable sites but is equally about the clarity of land tenure pertaining to them so that the rights of owners and purchasers are understood and investments made can be secure. While this is an issue affecting much of terrestrial Africa, it is particularly acutely felt in coastal areas owing to the value of coastal sites for development for residential, tourism and various other purposes.

In a number of countries, coastal areas have been affected by speculative land deals and land grabbing, partly exacerbated by the lack of land use planning but also occurring even where such plans exist. Some countries, such as Kenya, have been seeking to address this through land policies and legislation. The situation may also be complicated in some locations by chieftancy rights, as in Ghana, with the outcome of land deals being more determined by traditional processes rather than fully reflecting regulatory procedures.

In order to overcome this problem in the interests of tourism, in two or three countries tourism ministries and authorities have sought to establish land banks for tourism development. However, this has largely been unsuccessful.

## **7.3 The Use of Guidelines, Assistance and Other Economic Instruments**

Securing tourism development that is sensitive to the environment and local communities should not only require planning and control but can also be approached through a range of processes to influence the decisions and actions of developers in order to encourage the right kind of projects. Some of these processes fall into the category of economic instruments, which are defined as influencing behaviour through their impact on market signals. The design and application of such instruments may make it easier or more beneficial to developers to invest in projects which are more sustainable.

### **Provision of guidance to developers**

It is extremely important that potential developers are given the best possible advice and support, not only to secure their investment but also to help them understand the needs of the local environment and engage with local communities, in order to fulfil the sustainable tourism policies of the country.

This can partly be achieved by positive interaction at an early stage. In Seychelles, interested developers are strongly encouraged to talk through their ideas with the relevant ministries from the beginning. The requirement, but also the advantage, of addressing sustainability is explained to them at the outset and they may be given contacts with relevant NGOs if appropriate. Guidance is maintained throughout the application process and considerable effort is made to ensure that the developers fully understand all conditions that may be applied to the approval of their application and what is expected of them.

While direct personal contact may be particularly helpful, it is also very useful to provide written advice and guidelines to developers. A good example, specially designed to address coastal tourism development, was produced in Tanzania and is described in box 7.2.

### **Box 7.2 Guidelines for Coastal Tourism Development in Tanzania, 2003**

This booklet was endorsed by the Ministry of Tourism as a vital tool for ‘making our coastal tourism industry sustainable and ensuring the protection of our coastal environment’. A short introduction points out some of the opportunities for tourism investment on the coast, referring to areas of priority identified in the Tourism Master Plan. It then has a section on technical guidance for coastal tourism development, pointing out ‘how to incorporate good environmental and social practices into all facets of the development and operation of coastal tourism facilities and activities’. Through very helpful explanations and checklists, this covers:

- Site selection – including relating to any land use plans and consulting fully with the local authority and community.
- Siting and design of facilities – including setbacks and buffer zones, location of facilities and access, building heights, site densities, use of materials, etc.
- Landscape and vegetation management – including aesthetics, retention of vegetation, avoidance of non-native species, treatment of ecosystems, etc.
- Water supply, energy and waste management – including technical specifications to facilitate more sustainable operations.
- Strong community relations – during the construction and operation phases.
- Managing off-site tourist activities – including carrying capacity considerations, activities to encourage, and codes of conduct.

A final section of the guidelines sets out quite simply the steps that have to be followed in order to obtain permission to undertake a development, covering: getting started; developing the proposal; proposal review and revision; and permits and final approval. It is presented as guidance not only for investors but also ‘to assist government agencies in understanding their roles in facilitating investment’.

## **Government agencies promoting development**

The role played by some government agencies to attract and assist development can be used also to influence the shape and sustainability of that development.

All of the countries have a government backed Investment Promotion Agency (IPA) or similar body and many of these have had an engagement with tourism development. The IPAs have the responsibility generally to promote the country to investors and guide and help them in the various processes involved. This can be seen as a form of economic instrument for development, taking into account that a reduction in time delay in achieving investment approval can have a significant economic value for investors. It could be shaped to act as an economic incentive for sustainability.

In some countries, such as The Gambia, tourism is singled out by the IPA as a particular investment opportunity. The Gambia Investment and Export Promotion Agency (GIEPA) seeks to align its work, including advice and incentives, with the Tourism Master Plan and the priorities of the Gambia Tourism Authority, including the promotion of ecotourism and working with ASSET to assist small enterprises.

Some countries require a registration process for investors to receive assistance from the IPA, which may have basic criteria attached<sup>1</sup>. In general it appears that the countries have not been using any formal sustainability criteria in discriminating between projects to assist. However, in practice some IPAs may have been influential in guiding investors on the nature of their projects. In the Seychelles, sustainability issues are made clear to investors by the Seychelles Investment Board, and they often put them in touch with relevant NGOs who can provide assistance in these matters. In Tanzania, the Investment Centre has expressed considerable interest in using the *Guidelines for Coastal Tourism Development in Tanzania* more actively in future to assist and influence their client investors.

It is important to ensure that if investors receive help from the IPA the resulting process does not entail any reduction in the scrutiny of projects in terms of sustainability, and indeed that IPA involvement should ensure that procedures are followed properly while also resulting in the economic benefits brought by efficiency. There is no clear evidence either way about this from the partner countries.

Some government agencies may be more directly engaged with development, including entering into partnerships or other agreements with developers, through the provision of sites and land, venture capital, loans, etc. The National Investment Corporation of Cameroon is an example. In Senegal, SAPCO, the Development and Promotion Company for the Coasts and Tourism Zones, has a very direct engagement, providing infrastructure and finding investors in resort areas based on development plans. It has worked in partnership with the local authority in the COAST demo site in Saly. In this way, SAPCO should be well placed to ensure environmental and social sustainability are respected in investments and agreements with developers.

## Financial incentives

The provision of financial incentive to investors in the form of tax relief is common across the nine countries. In most countries this explicitly includes tourism as it is regarded as a key sector.

Incentives may typically be applied through reduction in import duties, capital investment (capital allowances) and reduction in business taxes or sales tax, usually for a specified period. For example, in Senegal tourism investment projects have been able to receive VAT and customs duty exceptions for a three year period and 40% tax credit for five years on eligible investments and on 50% of taxable profits. Some countries have rates of relief or schedules of exempt items that are particular to the tourism sector. For example in Tanzania, a particular import duty exemption has been applied to 4WD vehicles designed for tourism purposes and for hotel equipment engraved with the hotel's logo.

This kind of instrument can be designed to encourage investments that meet sustainability criteria. However, it appears that such financial instruments have essentially been used to attract investment rather than to shape it. Access to the fiscal incentives that are available for tourism investment overall has not been dependent on any comprehensive sustainability criteria.

A few situations have been found where differential tax relief has been applied in order to influence the location and impact of development, to bring greater benefit to needy areas. For example in Ghana higher levels of tax relief for certain forms of tourism investment were only available outside of Accra. In Senegal incentive levels have been linked both to location and to employment created. A five year exemption from Employers Flat Rate Contributions has been available if 200 jobs were created or if 90% of the jobs were outside Dakar.

Developers in tourism, as in other sectors, can also benefit from financial incentives applied to certain types of purchases for environmental reasons, such as low import duties for energy equipment that uses green technology. This does not apply specifically to tourism. It is important that such opportunities are made widely known to tourism investors.

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<sup>1</sup> For example, Registration with the Ghana Investment Promotion Centre requires projects to meet criteria relating to a minimum equity contribution.

A principle in the use of economic incentives for sustainability is to ensure that existing subsidies and incentives are not in fact acting contrary to the interests of sustainability and biodiversity. This needs to be checked as far as coastal tourism development is concerned. For example, a common practice is to restrict some fiscal incentives to projects over a certain level of investment, which can be quite high. This may favour larger tourism projects which in turn may sometimes pose a potentially greater threat to coastal environments than small projects.

While the use of financial incentives to encourage more sustainable tourism investment in the nine COAST countries seems to have been limited, there appears to be considerable interest in exploring this further.

### Concessions and agreements

Governments and other stakeholders can directly influence sustainable development through promotion of opportunities on land over which they have an influence. The Marine Parks and Reserves Unit in Tanzania provides an example of a conservation body that is actively seeking investment in sustainable tourism projects in and around their sites and has been promoting opportunities at various events.

While conditions can be placed on developers in any granting of approval to develop, this can be more powerful in situations where the government is in a position to grant a concession, for example for the use of a particular site that it may control. Conditions may also be strengthened through the signing of formal agreements or contracts. In Nigeria, the Lagos State Ministry of Tourism has influenced some projects by stipulating requirements for the employment of local people or for allocating a share of profits to community projects. They have also required some hotel developers to establish a Memorandum of Understanding with the local community setting out the benefits that they will gain from the project.

Developers themselves can play a key role in such agreements, partly as a way of cementing relationships with the local community to mutual benefit. A positive example from The Gambia is provided in box 7.3.

#### Box 7.3 Formal agreement with a developer in The Gambia

An important approach to management and relationships demonstrated in the demo site of Kartong is the establishment and operation of the Sandele Eco-Retreat. This has been set up by Gamspirit, a private investment company owned by a British couple with considerable experience of tourism in The Gambia and a strong commitment to sustainability. It has been designed to exceptionally high environmental standards. A direct relationship with the community was established at the outset and Gamspirit has signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) that benefits the village and its people. The key features of the MOU are:

- the Sandele Bay Eco-Retreat is on land owned by the people of Kartong;
- at the end of 25 years the land and whatever is built on it will revert to the village;
- at least 70% of all Gamspirit employees will be drawn from Kartong;
- a proportion of Gamspirit's profits will be paid to support village development activities.

In 2011 there were 23 full time local employees in Sandele (90% local) and 100 more local people benefiting indirectly. Gamspirit is actively involved with the Kartong Association for Responsible Tourism. Government bodies and NGOs are strongly in support of the initiative. The Gambia Tourism Authority promoted the relationship between the developers and the community as part of their approach to ecotourism development in the area.

# Influencing the Operation of Coastal Tourism Enterprises

Whereas the last chapter was concerned with tourism development, this chapter considers the operation of tourism facilities and services and management processes to influence their impact on coastal environments and communities. It looks first at the implementation of regulations and formal inspection processes and then the use of various forms of incentive and assistance to encourage more sustainable practice. This is followed by a wider consideration of the private sector response to sustainability and the implications for their operations.

## 8.1 Regulations and Inspection Processes

The missions in 2011 revealed that all the nine countries had some form of regulatory framework concerning the performance of tourism enterprises in managing impacts on the local environment and on the welfare of visitors, staff and local communities. This requires a pattern of auditing, reporting and inspection.

### Monitoring environmental management and impacts

The requirement that enterprises (including tourism businesses) are addressing environmental impacts in their operations is normally contained in primary environmental legislation and associated regulations. This requires that enterprises engage in a process of regular environmental reporting and inspection. In some countries the legislation links this requirement to a condition of EIAs that enterprises should have ongoing environmental management systems in place; in others the requirement of regular environmental audits is in a separate part of the statutes.

The monitoring process that is required tends to take at least one of two forms, with many countries requiring both:

1. Environmental inspection of hotels and other premises. This tends to cover issues such as environmental controls and waste management but does not extend to wider aspects of conservation and biodiversity. The frequency of required inspection varies between the countries and also may depend on whether the project or enterprise is considered high or low risk. In Ghana, for example, inspection by the Environmental Protection Agency occurs every two years, leading to the issuing of a certificate. In Tanzania the period can be five years. Inspection may also take place if there has been a complaint and there may also be an element of random or control inspections.
2. Annual self-auditing of environmental management with a report submitted to the environment agency, which is then the subject of a verification visit. This is an additional requirement in Kenya, Tanzania and The Gambia, for example. In practice, the extent of reporting appears to have been generally quite low but in some areas it was felt to be reasonable (e.g. the Kenyan coast). Verification visits have been very limited owing to lack of resources.

The inspection and verification visits referred to above take place on the premises. A further aspect of the checking on environmental impacts that may result from tourism operations is the external monitoring of water and air quality and other environmental conditions. This appears to vary quite widely between the different countries and locations. In 2011 in Lagos, for example, water quality monitoring had been stepped up owing to concerns about sewerage discharge into the lagoons, including from restaurants,

and had been combined successfully with increased inspection of premises. A successful example from The Gambia involved the detection of sewerage in a channel near one of the beaches. This was traced back to a beach hotel, which was subsequently required by the Environment Agency to install its own treatment plant. The hotel was subsequently pleased with the result as it led to operational cost saving and the ability to use processed water to irrigate the gardens.

### Other auditing and inspection activity

All the countries have annual inspection programmes of hotels and other tourism establishments carried out by the tourism authority, which is usually linked to the renewal of an annual license to operate. In some countries inspection may be more frequent (e.g. twice a year in Ghana) while in others it may not be as frequent as it should be. This tourism inspection tends to cover an inventory of facilities and services and overall quality including basic aspects of safety and hygiene, notably in kitchens. The latter may throw up issues of environmental malpractice which may then be drawn to the attention of the environment agency, though in none of the countries does there appear to be a formalised system or agreement for this to happen.

It is also common for local authorities to carry out inspections in the area of sanitation and environmental health. This is not necessarily specific to tourism and may cover all kinds of enterprises as well as residential areas. There may be some overlap with tourism agency inspections for certain types of establishment, pointing to opportunities for coordination. The local authority inspection may be particularly important for informal accommodation and catering micro business and residences used for tourism which may be outside the tourism licensing process. This has been recognised in the Ada-Foah demo site in Ghana, where this is a particular issue.

The tourism inspection and licensing process may cover a number of operational issues that are subject to regulation, such as fire prevention measures. However, these may also be addressed through separate inspection. Issues concerning employment and working conditions tend to be covered through separate legislation and regulation, which should reflect international standards from the ILO. In some countries the tourism inspection and licensing process includes some checking of basic staff welfare issues. In many of the countries, there is a degree of unionisation of labour in the hospitality sector.

### Concerns about the effectiveness of regulations and inspection

There has been little objective assessment of the effectiveness of the regulation and inspection process and the overall impact is hard to judge. In all countries, some enterprises will have changed their practices as a result. For example, in Mozambique the effect of coordinated inspection over time, with fines imposed, led to enterprises becoming more aware of what was required in anticipation of inspection and making the necessary adjustments. On the other hand, in some countries there are still many concerns about awareness, enforcement and ongoing impacts. In Cameroon, for example, the hotel association was unclear about programmes to oblige operators to treat and dispose of solid and liquid waste and at the demo site there it was reported that some accommodation providers and catering outlets throw their waste products out to sea.

A number of common areas of weakness in the regulatory and inspection process have emerged:

- Requirements may not be well known. Some enterprises and bodies appear to be not fully aware of what actions they need to be taking, pointing to a need to strengthen simple communication. There is also a general lack of clarity of expected minimum standards.
- Criteria and procedures used in inspections may be too insubstantial. Feedback from enterprises in some countries suggested that the official inspections were rather haphazard and lacking in depth. This may be an issue of the construction of the procedure and the checklists used. It could also reflect the knowledge and skills of inspection teams.

- Social aspects are often missing. Inspections tend to focus more on environmental aspects and quality of the products/services offered, while impact on the community is hardly covered.
- Monitoring and inspections may be too infrequent. The required frequency of tourism and environmental inspections referred to above are sometimes not met. Also, the extent and frequency of regular external monitoring of environmental conditions in tourist areas can be limited.
- The process is fragmented. The various aspects of the operation of enterprises are often covered by different agencies and inspection cycles.
- Some enterprises and activities are not inspected. This applies particularly to the smaller enterprises and to some operations outside the accommodation sphere.

In general, both environmental and tourism bodies in almost all the countries pointed to a problem with a lack of financial and human resources to fulfil the inspection requirements and ensure effective enforcement of the regulations.

A further common problem affecting the compliance of enterprises with regulations concerns the availability of public infrastructure and waste management services, such as a lack of waste treatment centres and landfill sites.

### Opportunities for collaboration and joint inspection

In the light of the capacity constraints affecting inspection processes, there could be benefits from strengthened collaboration between the agencies and inspectors. The possibility has been raised in a number of countries and there is considerable interest in it.

In most countries, inspection by the tourism authorities related to the granting of an annual licence to operate is the most frequent inspection, occurring more often than inspection by environment agencies. A particular opportunity may rest with extending the scope and coverage of the tourism inspection to make sure that it is better placed to pick up any major violations or weaknesses concerning environmental management or staff and community relations. Concern has been expressed from some environment ministries, e.g. in Lagos, that tourism inspectors would not have the necessary skills – this could be addressed by some training but also by designing the approach to be just an initial warning system with skilled inspectors being brought in if there is any doubt. A key requirement would be for the relationship between agencies and the procedures to be clarified and formalised.

In Kenya, the 2011 Tourism Act established a new regulatory authority for tourism. It requires that auditing should in future take account of impact on environmental resources, but it remains to be worked out what this will cover.

A further opportunity may arise from holding more joint inspections, with inspectors from the different disciplines working together. This could be less disruptive than having multiple inspections and can also foster more coordination and sharing of skills. In Seychelles, for example a team from the Seychelles Tourism Board (STB), Department of Environment, Fire service, Public Health and the Licensing Authority carry out inspections. If some members cannot attend, then their functions can be covered by others. The STB have emphasised that they see the inspection process as educational and informative for the enterprises rather than merely regulatory. Minimum requirements for tourism operations have been the subject of review in Seychelles

A team approach has also been taken in Mozambique, including labour and maritime representatives as well as those from tourism, health, etc. In order to streamline this further, make it even more efficient and prevent businesses being overwhelmed by a big team, the government of Mozambique has been looking to reform the procedures through a national level agency dedicated to inspection.

## 8.2 Encouraging Tourism Enterprises to Be More Sustainable

In addition to regulations and inspection, a variety of other approaches can be used to influence the operation of tourism enterprises. Most of these function through informing enterprises and consumers, partly through market signals, and so relate directly or indirectly to economic instruments.

### Voluntary certification of sustainable tourism enterprises

Mandatory government inspection tends to cover a relatively small number of key impacts that are reflected in regulations, such as waste management and pollution control. Wider sustainable tourism issues are not covered. Internationally in the tourism sector these issues are covered by voluntary certification schemes offered by bodies operating globally or at a national level. These schemes tend to be run by NGOs or semi-commercial organizations with a varying degree of government support and backing. An initiative to coordinate and accredit the many certification schemes has been pursued by the Global Sustainable Tourism Council, based on ISO principles.

The Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria prepared by the Council cover:

- demonstrating effective sustainability management;
- maximizing social and economic benefits to the local community and minimizing negative impacts;
- maximizing benefits to cultural heritage and minimizing negative impacts;
- maximizing benefits to the environment and minimize negative impacts – conserving resources, reducing pollution and conserving biodiversity, ecosystems and landscapes.

Within the nine countries there is relatively little voluntary sustainability certification. A few tourism enterprises may participate in global schemes or be independently ISO certified. In 2012, two of the countries had their own national schemes with two more in the pipeline.

- In Kenya, the Ecotourism Kenya Eco-rating Scheme had 120 certified enterprises in 2012 (up from just 27 two years previously), although only a few of these were on the coast. The scheme covers a broad range of sustainability requirements. Ecotourism Kenya is liaising with National Environment Management Authority on the relationship between the scheme, the national inspection processes and compliance with regulations. Action has also been pursued on extending the Eco-rating Scheme to cover non-accommodation enterprises and community-based tourism.
- In Seychelles, a Seychelles Sustainable Tourism Label was launched in 2011, see box 8.1. This was introduced partly because, although many of the individual top level hotels and resorts were actively pursuing some aspects of sustainable tourism, they were not doing so comprehensively and may have been ignoring certain aspects.
- In Tanzania, Responsible Tourism Tanzania is an NGO based initiative which is designed to offer a range of services to businesses, including policy development and advice as well as auditing against an established sustainability standard.
- In Ghana, a rather different approach has been pursued. The Environment Protection Agency has established an Environment Performance Rating and Disclosure Programme for the hospitality sector, commencing in 2013. This focusses on environmental management (e.g. waste, energy, water) but with some social issues included for the highest rating. While it is being introduced as voluntary certification, its relationship with regulatory requirements and inspection processes is under consideration.

### **Box 8.1 The Seychelles Sustainable Tourism Label**

This label, launched in 2011, has been developed by Seychelles Tourism Board together with the GEF funded Mainstreaming Biodiversity Project. The standard, scoring and inspection process is set out in a manual prepared by international consultants and has been aligned with the Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria. The manual contains a preamble with helpful material on the benefits of the scheme, how to approach the work and the communication of results. The components of the standard, set out in the second half of the manual, cover: management; waste; water; energy; staff; conservation; community; and guests. There are some minimum obligatory criteria and others that are optional and enable enterprises to score points, reflected in the award.

The label is voluntary. Targets were set for 15 awards by 2013. An officer was appointed by STB to market the scheme and training of inspectors has taken place. Much will depend on how effectively the trade get behind it. The Seychelles Hotels and Tourism Association has been involved and is supportive. It is recognised that the scheme needs to be very actively managed and promoted.

Voluntary certification has advantages in addressing a full range of sustainability issues. However, many enterprises, who take it up, are likely to be well motivated towards the environment and local communities already. It has been shown to be a good tool in encouraging them to be more comprehensive in their approach and to go further. The weakness lies in the inability to reach the majority of businesses, including those less predisposed towards sustainability. Existing schemes have only been taken up by a small percentage of enterprises.

### **Voluntary codes for particular activities**

The use of guidelines and codes of practice can be applied to specific types of tourism enterprise and activity, with or without being subject to monitoring. In the area of coastal tourism, they may be particularly appropriate to certain marine activities. Codes may be promoted by government, NGOs or groups of operators themselves. A small number of examples of different approaches are apparent in various of the countries.

- In Seychelles, tourism policies have been prepared for different sectors, including boat charters and diving. These policies set out the need for operators to follow sound environmental practice, for example with respect to activities on reefs, and to provide clear guidance to their clients on how they should behave.
- Ecotourism Kenya has been working with boat operators on environmental management and codes of good practice.
- In Denton Bridge, The Gambia, the Boating and Fishing Association has a code of conduct bearing the motto “responsible tourism for posterity” that requires all members to abide by all laws and regulations, as well as having clauses on collective responsibility, cleaning, illegal fishing, mangrove protection, car parking, negligence of duty and dispute resolution.
- In Badagry, Nigeria, the boat operators have an informal, verbal code between them covering issues of safety and concern for the environment.

Further examples of the use of codes of behaviour with respect to beach management are given in later chapters.

### Using other supportive measures, including economic instruments

Various other activities can encourage and assist tourism businesses to be more sustainable in their operations and examples of them can be found in a number of the COAST countries. These activities can occur independently from the application of certification schemes or be supportive of them.

Many enterprises can benefit from raising awareness about sustainability issues and the performance of their operations and from the provision of advice and guidance. Capacity building on environmental management systems forms a component of the COAST project and has been carried out with specific businesses in a number of countries from 2012. This has followed a systematic approach embracing five tools: Cleaner Production Assessment; Environmental Management Accounting; Environmental Management Systems; Environmentally Sound Technology; and Corporate Social Responsibility. An important aspect of the approach has been to help the businesses to fully understand the savings that can be made from better environmental management and to improve their monitoring systems.

Financial incentives can be used to influence operations as well as development. An aspect of this is the pricing of resources and services used by tourism businesses. Relatively little evidence appears to be available on pricing policy and impact in this sector in the nine countries and could benefit from further assessment. One example of the use of financial incentives strategically to influence tourism patterns was found in The Gambia where relief on taxes and charges is offered to tour operators, airlines, hotels and ground handlers aimed at increasing tourism traffic during the low season (May to October) when it is badly needed. This is in the form of a 50% discount on aircraft handling and landing fees and a 50% discount on sales tax.

A broader form of economic instrument is the discretionary provision of economic benefits to more sustainable tourism businesses. This could be direct, through targeted fiscal benefits, or indirect through providing other commercial advantages. Giving greater exposure to certain types of business in marketing campaigns is an example of the latter. Certification schemes can provide a sound basis for this – for example, holders of the Seychelles Sustainable Tourism Label benefit from promotion of the scheme on the destination website. Another example is the promotion of community-based tourism products through the cultural tourism programme of the Tanzania Tourist Board.

## 8.3 Private Sector Response and Performance Issues

For management practices to be successful in influencing the operation of tourism businesses it is important to understand the position and response of the business community and work with them on solutions.

In general, the level of awareness and interest concerning environmental and community impacts amongst trade associations and individual businesses contacted during this study has been quite high. Some of the hotels associations and other bodies are engaged directly in working on these issues.

### Position on sustainability regulations and inspections

The overall impression from the missions in the nine countries is that private sector tourism businesses and their representative bodies largely recognise and accept the need for regulation and inspection. Rather than reducing this, the call has been for:

- trade bodies to be involved and consulted in the development and implementation of policies and actions to address sustainability;
- requirements and standards to be clear, justified and well communicated;

- administrative burdens to be kept to a minimum, requiring efficient processes that are fair and transparent. In particular there was a call for minimising any duplication – seen as a particular issue in Lagos, for example, where there is overlapping State and Federal inspection;
- universal application of regulations so that they fall equally and fairly on everyone.

Increasingly, many hotels and resorts have their own quite strict sustainability policies and targets which may exceed those stipulated in regulations. These are found in individual companies as well as in international chains. Some relate directly to company Corporate Social Responsibility policies.

In addition to their own policies, providers of accommodation, catering and recreational activities are heavily influenced by the standards set down by the international tour operators who are contracting with them. These may relate especially to customer safety, but international operators are increasingly taking note of environmental and community impact and building this into their own CSR policies and into their brand positioning and communication. International tour operators are themselves influenced by certification, such as the Travel Life scheme supported by the Association of British Travel Agents and other European tour operator associations. The influence of tour operators is particularly strong in The Gambia, Senegal and Kenya where the travel trade accounts for much of the market.

The situation outlined above underlines the fact that the greatest challenge in the future in seeing the adoption of sound practice may rest with smaller enterprises. Such enterprises, however, can benefit from being formally licensed, especially where this brings marketing advantage, but in turn they need to comply with requirements. In The Gambia an interesting position is being taken by ASSET, the representative body of small and community based tourism operators, which is encouraging licensing and compliance while at the same time seeking to ensure that the interpretation of regulations and the inspection processes is adjusted to reflect the circumstances of small businesses.

### Interest in voluntary processes and capacity building

During the consultations carried out for this study, tourism trade associations and businesses were asked about their interest in receiving more information about environmental management and working with communities. This included reference to capacity building and training pursued as an element of the COAST project. In general, the reaction was positive. The approach taken was that helpful, practical suggestions would be well received. In particular, it was stressed that the promotion of training should point out the business advantages, such as from cost saving.

The level of interest in voluntary certification schemes was more limited, but the concept is not well developed in some countries. The business case for engagement in certification needs to be well made. This includes meeting targets that can lead to cost saving. Growth in consumer and trade awareness and take up of certification schemes, such as TravelLife mentioned above, should lead to them becoming more potent in influencing the market place, assisted by strong promotion.

The opportunity to influence enterprises through the provision of advice and assistance should be underlined. This can go beyond internal environmental management. In Seychelles, an initiative, funded through GEF and linked to the COAST project, has provided grant assistance for private sector operators to work in partnership with local conservation NGOs on biodiversity related projects. Tax relief is also available for such work. Projects include direct conservation activity and also interpretation and awareness raising amongst tourists and the local community.

### Recognising economic sustainability issues

Finally, it is important to appreciate that many individual businesses understandably place highest priority on their own economic sustainability. This needs to be appreciated when approaching them about matters of environmental and community impact. In turn, unless the businesses remain profitable they cannot deliver environmental and community benefits.

In many of the coastal areas covered in this study the level of occupancy and business performance is quite weak. Three particular areas of concern commonly raised by businesses are:

- **Rising costs.** In particular the extremely high price of energy is affecting tourism enterprises in many of the countries. This may have a bearing on projects seeking to encourage alternative energy sources, but in many places there are practical and economic challenges involved in making the necessary changes.
- **Seasonality of demand.** This is a particular issue in coastal areas. It not only affects profitability but can be very disruptive for society with impacts on job quality and security and other aspects of sustainability. In Watamu, Kenya the local authority has stressed that seasonality of employment is the biggest sustainability issue. Here and elsewhere there were strong calls for more effective and creative marketing of coastal destinations, including diversifying the product and marketing message to attract more year round business.
- **Resource availability.** The erratic supply of energy is frequently mentioned as an issue in many countries, alongside costs. Water shortage is a major threat to the operation of some enterprises.

# Managing Coastal Environments Linked to Tourism

The impacts of tourism on the environment but also of the latter on tourism are often interrelated. This chapter considers some direct measures taken to maintain the quality of the coastal environment in its own right but also as an essential resource for tourism. The chapter looks at a number of specific challenges in turn and considers the management responses adopted. The topics include: solid waste management; coastal erosion; and conserving ecosystems and biodiversity, including reef and marine management.

## 9.1 Managing Solid Waste in Coastal Environments

The presence of strewn waste on and behind beaches and in other locations on the coast is a major problem in most of the countries and seriously degrades their appeal for tourism as well as being generally unsanitary and polluting the environment. The waste is usually locally generated, accumulating over time. Some may come from tourism activity or be washed up from the sea. A number of initiatives to address the problem have been pursued in different countries, each illustrating alternative management approaches and concepts.

- In Lagos, **Nigeria**, there is a separate Waste Management Authority which employs a sizeable team of staff and contractors to regularly clean the beaches in the city and transport the rubbish in lorries for disposal, with a degree of success. However, it is unable to cover the whole area of Lagos State, so new approaches are needed in the demo site of Badagry. Local NGOs are working there on educational programmes in schools and the wider communities to seek to address the problem at source.
- In **Ghana**, a government backed initiative called Zoom Lion coordinates brigades of youths to clean the beaches, including in the demo site of Ada-Foah. Unfortunately the beaches still remain rather dirty. A problem is the poor disposal of collected rubbish which is dug into shallow pits only to be exposed over time by the elements. The lack of proper transportation and treatment illustrates the need for comprehensive management solutions.
- In **Tanzania**, an initiative was introduced through the Marine and Coastal Environment Management Project to establish Beach Management Units in coastal communities. Beach cleaning and solid waste management is just one part of their activities, which also includes a degree of surveillance and monitoring at its lowest level. This is an interesting model of empowering a section of the local community that has a traditional link to the coast and maritime activity, to look after their own resource. Details are provided in box 9.1.
- In **Mozambique**, an initiative in the demo site of Inhambane has involved a partnership between the City Council and a community group, which is a good example of different interests coordinating their ideas, abilities and resources. It is illustrated in box 9.2 (see later).

Holding specific beach cleaning events on a number of days each year, which may involve local businesses, community groups and tourists, has proved quite popular and successful in some countries, such as The Gambia.

### Box 9.1 Beach Management Units in Tanzania

An important initiative to stimulate and organise management and conservation activity within local communities in coastal Tanzania is the establishment of Beach Management Units (BMUs). This has been an initiative of the Fisheries Division within Central Government. A BMU is defined as 'a community management organisation composed of stakeholders in a coastal community whose main functions are geared towards sustainable management, conservation and protection of marine and coastal resources in their locality in collaboration with the Government'. The initiative is aimed directly at fishing communities in villages and landing areas, and is primarily about achieving more sustainable fishing through co-management arrangements. However, the wider role of the BMUs in coastal management and in seeking alternative livelihoods for the communities makes them very relevant to tourism. The BMUs have an identified role in the enforcement of legislation (including land use), ensuring beach sanitation, environmental education, security, preparing economic projects, and undertaking monitoring, control and surveillance.

Guidelines on the establishment of BMUs were prepared in 2009. These spell out in detail the steps to take in setting them up and the required governance structures and management procedures. Simple tips on good governance and leadership are provided. The BMUs must contain at least ten active members. They are supported by training programmes and through links to District Council officers' services and national coordination. They have been set up throughout Tanzania. There has been considerable interest in this from fishing/coastal communities, partly because people can see the sense of working together and understand the need for better management. There is some financial incentive – 30% of marine related taxes are returned to participants and the Unit is also able to retain 30% of any fines for illegal activity detected by them.

## 9.2 Addressing Coastal Erosion

Erosion of beaches is a major issue, especially in West Africa, which is threatening both the short and long term appeal of the coast for tourism as well as physical integrity of coastal areas with various consequences for communities and the environment. In Senegal, Saint-Louis has been identified as the African city most vulnerable to climate change on account of this process.

The erosion of beaches is primarily the result of maritime processes but it is also exacerbated by sand mining in certain locations. This is affecting beaches in a number of countries, even though it is legally controlled. Regulations relating to this activity appear to be hard to enforce.

The serious threat posed by erosion has caused many countries to give priority to understanding the processes more clearly and plan and implement adaptation measures. This has been helped by international funding from various sources. In Senegal, for example, at least five programmes addressing coastal change, adaptation and protection could be identified in 2011, some as part of regional and multi-national projects.

Hotels and resorts located on the beach are often the most seriously affected enterprises. They should be seen as key stakeholders in any actions taken to combat erosion and sometimes they are the initiators of action. Any intervention, however, needs very careful consideration and planning along whole lengths of coastline as action taken in one place can have serious consequences elsewhere and over time. There is, therefore a strong need for collaboration between the stakeholders and especially between the hotels and the responsible public authorities. Inhambane, Mozambique provides an example of the difficulties in securing partnership action, underlining the importance of effective mutual engagement in management processes, see box 9.2.

In The Gambia the Coastal Working Group has provided a basis for coordinated action, bringing together the National Environment Agency, Ministry of Tourism, GTA and many other ministries and agencies. It has worked closely with individual hotels on the coast. Systematic inspection of different stretches of

beach by the NEA's Coastal Unit identifies priority areas for action which are drawn to the attention of the Working Group and addressed in an integrated way.

### **Box 9.2 Challenges of partnership working on coastal management**

Inhambane, Mozambique has had both positive and negative experiences of trying to pursue partnership working to tackle coastal management.

On the positive side, solid waste management has been tackled through the formation of an Association for Cleaning and Environment (ALMA) instigated by local residents and working with the City Council. ALMA started a business which provides residents with income from recycling of plastic and glass and includes the development of artisanal products from waste, which can be sold to tourists. A private sector sponsored waste collection service was created by ALMA and the Council, the former managing the service while the latter contributes vehicles and personnel. Despite this, some businesses complain about paying for what they consider should be a government service.

Collaboration on coastal erosion, which is seriously affecting the dune system, has been a problem in Inhambane. An integrated solution is required in order for any measures taken to be effective in the long term. A concept to tackle the issue was presented by the Municipal Council to the individual tourism operators and residential properties on the coast but they were reluctant to commit financial support to it without a detailed plan. In turn, the Council could not provide such a plan without an idea of likely available resources. Mutual agreement could not be reached, resulting in the Council building a retaining wall on the area of public land and the individual private sector stakeholders developing their own solutions on their properties.

A further example of the difficulties of working together is provided by a proposal by the Municipal Council to use its powers to raise a tourism tax in order to fund management services. A feasibility study by consultants found that private sector tourism businesses believed that such a tax would damage the competitiveness of the destination and they had no confidence that the Council would use the resulting revenue effectively. Lack of mutual trust had led to an inability to work together strategically to tackle the management problems resulting from or affecting tourism.

## **9.3 Conserving Coastal Ecosystems and Biodiversity**

Coastal ecosystems, including habitats, landscapes and a rich marine and terrestrial biodiversity are very important to tourism, which itself can provide a motivation and source of revenue to support their conservation. A number of examples of situations where ecosystems are threatened, requiring management solutions, and of direct action to support conservation related to tourism, can be found in the nine countries and in the demo sites.

The cutting of mangroves and other trees on the coastal belt is a serious problem in most of the countries. The damage appears to be mainly caused by local people extracting the timber for firewood and other purposes but may also relate to illegal trading, land clearance and development.

The demo site of Kartong in The Gambia provides an illustration of the management challenges associated with this activity. It underlines the need for clarity of responsibility, taking quick action and having resources for enforcement but also pursuing opportunities for strengthening community commitment to conservation of forests related to tourism. A second example, from the demo site of Ada-Foah in Ghana, illustrates a process of working with local communities and pursuing simple educational and communication programmes, see box 9.3 for both examples.

### Box 9.3 Management responses to tree cutting in The Gambia and Ghana

The demo site of Kartong is in an area designated for potential ecotourism interest as it is the greenest and least exploited part of the Gambian coast. However the coastal forest is under threat and sporadic felling of trees is occurring. One incident in 2011 involved tree cutting apparently by people purporting to have a permit signed by the Akalo, the local chief. Except under very particular circumstances, tree cutting is illegal – a position reinforced by Presidential announcements. A number of governance and management issues are illustrated by the incident, concerning:

- lack of clarity about which ministry or agency is actually responsible for issuing any permits and who needs to sign them;
- the balance of power nationally (ministries) and locally (Akalo);
- the need for clear emergency reporting procedures (to whom) and speed of response;
- lack of community engagement with, and benefit from, the protection of their own resources;
- insufficient police presence to intervene and prevent illegal action.

One approach suggested in Kartong is for KART (the responsible tourism association) to work with the village council and ministries to designate the main forest area as a Community Forest and develop trails and activities for visitors there.

In Ada-Foah, Ghana, the COAST demo coordinator, who is also warden for the RAMSAR site, has been working with communities to support them in tree planting schemes, including re-establishing areas of mangrove woodland. To underpin this work he is seeking to bring benefit from tourism to these communities, through some guided excursions, so they can see a return from the improved environment. In parallel, an education programme has been maintained with schools and the wider community on biodiversity and environmental management. There are also some good examples of where simple awareness raising of particular issues using local media has made a difference. One mangrove site close to the town has been the subject of a conservation agreement with the owner. Simply promoting this fact and spelling out what people can and cannot do in the mangroves, through involving the local Radio Ada, has proved effective.

In East Africa a separate element of the COAST project concerns reef and marine Recreation Management (RMRM) aimed at reducing pollution and loss of biodiversity and ensuring participatory planning, management and monitoring of the reef. Work in the demo sites is broadly in three areas: survey of the condition of the reef and assessing issues; awareness raising and capacity building of stakeholders; and the preparation of a reef management plan. Discussions within the countries and demo sites on governance and management issues relating to reefs have revealed a number of key points including:

- the need to clarify regulations and to strengthen their enforcement;
- the need for awareness raising to embrace the whole community, including schools;
- the importance of working with different stakeholder groups, including different types of user, and of bringing them together. Practical codes of conduct can be helpful, as outlined in the previous chapter;
- the ongoing impact of illegal fishing practices, such as ring netting and dynamite fishing, which is seriously damaging the quality of reefs as a resource for tourism based on diving and snorkelling;
- the need for reef management plans to link to wider terrestrial management plans, bearing in mind the effect of certain on-shore activities on the reefs.

The presence of designated protected areas on the coast, in the form of terrestrial and marine parks and reserves or other designations, is very important both for conservation and for tourism. Some countries

are seeking to increase the proportion of coast protected by parks and reserves. The role of such areas is undermined in many cases by lack of resources for conservation, management and enforcement of their protection. Tourism can play a part as a source of support for protected areas. An important economic instrument to use in this regard is the application of charges for use of the protected areas, which may be in the form of admission fees, charges for certain activities such as diving, and rental income from concessions. Income gained from such charges may be used directly as a source of revenue for conservation and management, especially if the budget is retained locally. Income from tourism can support communities within and around the areas, encouraging and enabling them to support conservation..

In addition to compulsory charges, a further approach is to establish and promote opportunities for tourism businesses and visitors to sponsor conservation activity and make donations. Seeking voluntary contributions is often more successful if related to specific campaigns tackling practical issues. There appears to be a lack of such initiatives to support coastal conservation in the nine countries.

A key aspect of work to conserve coastal ecosystems and biodiversity must be the collaboration with local communities to establish alternative livelihoods which respect conservation. The role of tourism in this is covered in the next chapter.

A number of relevant examples of management approaches can be found from the nine countries and the demo sites.

- In Tanzania, the Marine Park and Reserves Unit has been working with local communities on conservation, surveillance and management. Trails, interpretation and other services are provided for tourists, who in turn provide a source of revenue through admission fees. Visitors are encouraged to behave responsibly in the protected areas. An example is the promotion of codes of conduct for use of the reef for diving and mooring.
- In Watamu, Kenya, the Arabuko-Sokoke Forest management team, under the Kenya Forest Service (KFS), is increasingly able to take localised management decisions and benefit from them. It has negotiated for 20% of revenue earned from admissions and concessions from an ecolodge investor to be passed back from KFS central to provide a cash fund for small projects to benefit the forest. Local people have been trained as guides, volunteer guards and monitors. This raises awareness of the forest and supports conservation.
- In Seychelles, there are a number of examples of the support for protected areas and their management that has been linked very directly to tourism, see box 9.4

#### **Box 9.4 Tourism and conservation linkages in Seychelles**

In Seychelles, the National Parks, Marine Parks and Reserves have had state budgets reduced under financial measures and have become dependent on other sources of income, including from tourism. This will lead to further measures to raise money from admissions, concessions etc. A project to extend protected areas, including on and around some of the smaller islands, was underway in 2011, supported by UNDP. This addresses new models of governance and management with more engagement of the private sector tourism enterprises and NGOs.

There are a number of interesting examples in Seychelles of how tourism income can be used directly to support conservation:

- Some individual hotels have been active in this regard. Banyan Tree, for example, has funded conservation projects, board walks and interpretation and raised income from visitors towards this.

- Cousin Island is a special reserve run by the NGO Nature Seychelles. It provides day visits under tightly controlled conditions with high quality guiding and a special experience of birds in close proximity. Income from the visitors is critical in supporting conservation on the island together with their work of introducing certain endemic bird species from Cousin to other small islands where they have become extinct. This has often been done in conjunction with other NGOs and the private owners operating exclusive hotels on these islands.
- On Praslin, the Vallee de Mai UNESCO World Heritage Site, home of the Coco de Mer and many other endemic palms, receives over 300,000 visitors per year. 50% of the income from the relatively high admission charge is used to fund conservation work on the other World Heritage Site in Seychelles, Aldabra Atoll, which is very inaccessible to visitors.
- Many projects in Seychelles are working with local communities on conservation activity with small grant assistance. Some have been educational, working with children on understanding conservation priorities and undertaking simple actions, including working with them on visitor guides. There are examples of projects where tourists have been involved directly in conservation work.

# Supporting Community Livelihoods

A key requirement for sustainable coastal tourism is for the local communities along the coast to gain benefit from the industry, thereby helping to alleviate poverty, improve livelihoods and encourage better management and conservation practices by the communities. Supporting alternative livelihoods is regarded as a strategic approach within the broad application of economic instruments to promote sustainable development and resource use.

This chapter considers experiences with four issues which predominated during the course of the study: the employment of local people in tourism enterprises; engagement of local communities in supply chains; the management of informal traders on or near the beach; and the development of community based tourism initiatives. The chapter ends by looking at the overall conditions for positive community benefit in destinations, linking back to issues of local stakeholder engagement.

Within the COAST project, much of the work in community livelihoods in the countries and demo sites has been supported by the Ecotourism component of the project. This has required initial analysis of local value chains, based on surveys of tourism businesses and tourists, followed by the preparation of an action plan and its implementation.

## 10.1 Strengthening Local Employment and Supply Chains

### Employing more local people in tourism enterprises

It is recognised that employment in the tourism enterprises, especially hotels and resorts, is one of the main ways in which local people living on the coast can gain benefit from tourism. It is through direct employment that the largest volume of local people will be reached. However, the conditions need to be right for this to happen and it is clear that in many coastal areas this is a question of both demand and supply.

Opportunities for strengthening employment depend partly on the level of growth in the tourism sector. Market seasonality also greatly affects the pattern of demand for labour. Therefore actions to strengthen the overall performance of the destination, notably through marketing, are important in underpinning the employment base.

In some countries, there is a government policy orientation to strengthen the level of engagement of local people in tourism enterprises. In Seychelles, for example, a high priority is being given to encouraging Seychellois to work in the sector at all levels, including in management.

Consultation with the private sector in most of the countries suggests that there is generally a willingness to employ local people, partly as it makes sense in terms of cost and housing. Most coastal areas have a reasonable population level and hence a potential pool of labour. In some areas, however, problems exist with a low level of awareness and interest in such employment within the community and low levels of skill and aptitude. This situation can be found even in areas where hotels have been established for many years, such as the coastal destination of Bagamoyo in Tanzania.

An institutional weakness in some countries, which if overcome could help to address this situation, is the lack of provision of skills training in the hospitality sector that is provided actually within coastal destinations. Ideally, this should be available through working with any existing colleges to provide courses. However, more flexible approaches may be possible. For example, in the light of a serious

problem with the quality of service for local staff in Inhambane, Mozambique, catering skills training was provided through the use of a mobile facility.

An interesting proposal in Ghana to raise awareness of tourism in local communities was the Tourism Cadet scheme. The concept involved recruiting a small group of young people in individual local destinations to engage with the District Assemblies in basic tourism management activity, including data gathering and generally helping with communications between the sector and the community. It was seen partly as a way of providing those involved with an entry into the world of tourism.

### Strengthening local supply chains

In most of the coastal areas, there has been little, if any, attention to the opportunity to channel more economic benefit to local communities and reduce leakages by strengthening the local supply chains to the hotels and resorts. On the other hand the opportunity to do so does exist in many places. Some of the coastal areas are low lying and relatively fertile, with an established local agriculture.

Some of the countries have taken initial steps to identify possible future action to strengthen supply chains. A study in Seychelles in 2010 aimed at prioritising ways of retaining tourism spending and income within local communities focussed on promoting the use of local produce in hotels. Recommended action included building strong links between the tourism and agriculture trade bodies and networks and generally increasing levels of information on sources of supply.

By far the most significant initiative to address the supply chain opportunity is the Gambia is Good project which is described in box 10.1. This has based its approach on understanding and then meeting the needs of the customers – the hotels – which is a fundamental requirement of success in this field.

#### **Box 10.1 Enabling local farmers to feed into a reliable supply chain**

The food supply chain initiative 'Gambia is Good', linking coastal hotels with small local farmers, was established through donor funding in 2005 and involved two British NGOs, Concern Universal and the Travel Foundation. It is often quoted internationally as an example of good practice. A key aspect of the project is how it has addressed the issue of giving hotels confidence that the produce supplied will be of a good quality and reliably available. This has involved providing a central farm (employing local people) and also a trading arm, enabling some produce to be grown or purchased in bulk in addition to that supplied by the individual local farmers. In 2011 the scheme was supplying 17 hotels. It initially involved 800 – 1,000 small farmers, but not all were able to meet the requirements and this number has reduced and been consolidated. An issue that arose over the government's position regarding the scheme's landholding illustrates the need to ensure full policy and political commitment to initiatives of this kind.

The experience in The Gambia and elsewhere underlines the importance of delivering the right quality, quantity and continuity when trying to strengthen local supply chains. Hotels often prefer buying agricultural products from one supplier (as this is easier for their bookkeeping) and it can be useful if local people can establish linkages with these suppliers.

A particular opportunity relating to the supply chain in coastal locations is the supply of fish and seafood to local hotels and restaurants. This potentially offers an opportunity for these two fundamental economic sectors on the coast to support each other. Many fishing communities are very poor and artisanal fishing is under threat in some areas. Traditional fishing boats and markets provide a colourful and distinctive experience for visitors to Africa's coast.

Tourism enterprises consulted during the course of this study generally tended to source their fish locally. However, at least one community, in Tanzania, was visited that had been trying to persuade the neighbouring resort to purchase fish directly from them but without success. Other neighbouring

communities were happy to sell through local traders who, in turn, supplied the hotels in Dar es Salaam, so even there the picture was not entirely clear.

Taking the nine countries together, there appears to have been little priority given to understanding the relationship between fishing and tourism, including positive supply chain opportunities as well as identifying any problems, for instance from demands from tourism threatening supplies and stocks of certain species. This should be an area for further research.

## 10.2 Managing Informal Beach Trading

Harassment of tourists on Africa's beaches has long been a problem for tourism and has resulted in some visitors not returning. Yet, informal trading on the beaches and around the hotels and resort areas backing on to them has provided a source of income for local people. Many people attracted to beach selling come from the poorer communities. The situation creates a considerable management challenge.

Harassment from beach trading is primarily a problem in The Gambia and Kenya but also occurs elsewhere. There has been some progress towards addressing the problem in both countries, through a combination of dialogue, zoning, licensing, infrastructure provision and capacity building. The need to back up such an approach with clear and fair regulations has also been emphasised. The experience in The Gambia is described in box 10.2.

### Box 10.2 Addressing beach trading issues in The Gambia

Historically the early reaction of the government to the harassment of tourists was to try to remove the beach sellers on the grounds that they were illegal traders but this was not successful. It was also apparent that this trading was providing an important source of livelihood to many poor families. The approach adopted by ASSET has been to provide a formal framework within which traders can operate and raise their quality, involving:

- strengthening existing associations of operators or forming new ones, covering a number of different categories;
- providing training for them and some assistance;
- licensing them with Gambia Tourist Authority;
- providing uniforms or badges to identify them.

The traders associations cover tourist guides, fruit sellers, juicers, taxi operators, craft sellers and other services. The concept has been that the formally identified sellers will not hassle tourists so much and will deter others. This has worked quite well but there is still a degree of hassling. One problem has been the emergence of groups outside the system who create their own uniforms and badges.

Other aspects of the approach have included:

- the provision of some infrastructure by government – notably, craft market areas for producers and sellers, backing on to the beach;
- strengthening governance with the trader groups, through chairs and committees;
- keeping numbers down to balance supply and demand – e.g. only a fixed number of guides are trained and licensed.

In Kenya, a Beach Management Plan has been pursued for the Mombassa area which contains elements similar to the Gambian approach, including registering traders, zoning sales areas, and facilitating positive interaction between traders and visitors. Initial results have pointed to a more friendly atmosphere with less harassment and also increases in sales. More locally, in the demo site of Watamu, the approach has centred heavily on dialogue, with beach trader representatives and hotels being brought together to strengthen mutual understanding and to work out an approach. An important tool has been the preparation of agreed codes of conduct for visitors, for hotels and for beach operators, so that they are much clearer about how to treat each other and have a basis for identifying, monitoring, self-policing and rectifying bad practice. Specific management measures have been taken to help local traders, including the opportunity to sell products within certain hotels. The result has been a considerably improved situation.

### 10.3 Supporting and Promoting Community-based Tourism

In all the countries, there are examples of coastal communities who are providing a community-based tourism experience. This is often called ecotourism, but this term can be confusing and misused. Essentially, the form of community-based tourism (CBT) that is provided involves a visitor experience supplied by members of a local community, acting cooperatively, including elements of interpretation of local biodiversity, culture or village life, with some personal guiding, provision of simple catering and occasionally some accommodation. Within the COAST project, the demo sites in six of the nine countries include this kind of experience, which has either been established or is being developed or proposed.

In most of the countries CBT has been around for some time. Many of them have established networks of CBT providers or supporting organisations. These include:

- the many networks and supporting bodies for CBT in Senegal, where the approach started back in the 1970s;
- the Cultural Tourism Programme in Tanzania;
- the GREET agency in Ghana;
- the various NGOs and bodies supporting CBT in Kenya (linked together in a Federation);
- the Mount Cameroon Inter-Communal Ecotourism Board in Cameroon;
- the Association of Small Scale Enterprises in Tourism in The Gambia.

Each of these organisations can provide experience of CBT in their own country and should be in a position to advise new initiatives on the coast. It is important to make use of this knowledge.

The evidence gained during this study, from the demo sites and elsewhere, suggests that some of the key management issues to consider include the following:

- Understanding needs, scales and capacities. Some CBT operations are very small scale and receive only very low visitor numbers. This can still be a positive result for some communities, while others may need more to be satisfied and sustainable.
- Ensuring effective market access. This can be critical for success. A location accessible from a main population or tourist centre can make a major difference. In some areas, building a relationship with one or more tour operators can be important but also complex, requiring careful negotiation. Links to hotels and other mainstream enterprises can be very important.
- Avoiding an over-supply of providers chasing a limited market. For example, in Bagamoyo, Tanzania there were found to be at least three competing networks of local guides competing for very few visitors.

- Developing products and services that complement the offer of existing tour operators and hotels, rather than competing directly with them, as this provides a better basis for securing their collaboration.
- Addressing issues of standards and public safety. A particular issue for some of the community groups on the coast concerns standards relating to the provision of boat trips. This has implications for regulation, licensing, insurance and capital costs. Security concerns may limit the willingness of tour operators and hotels to collaborate with community groups. Groups often require advice on these matters.
- Developing appealing itineraries. Some sites and products are very small but can create a worthwhile visitor experience if combined together creatively through itineraries.
- Managing the handling and sharing of income within the community transparently and equitably. This should ensure that individual community members are rewarded for the time they personally devote to the activity, with the use of remaining surpluses decided by a suitably constituted committee.
- Working in partnership with NGOs, public agencies or private enterprises who can supply support and advice. The role of the above in providing some long term stability for CBT operations is very important.
- Learning from CBT operations elsewhere that have been well established and successful.

An example of a community-based tourism experience which meets many of the right conditions for success is in Kinondoni, Tanzania, see box 10.3.

### **Box 10.3 Community-based tourism on Bongoyo Island, Tanzania**

This small, uninhabited island is one of a chain off Dar es Salaam that is part of the Marine Reserve managed by the Marine Parks and Reserves Unit (MPRU). It has beautiful sandy beaches and a forested interior. It is highly accessible from Dar es Salaam, taking around 30 minutes by open boats. The MPRU has restricted development of the island but has enabled a community group from Kinondoni to work there during the day.

The relationship between the MPRU and the community group appears to be very positive and the result is successful, with benefits seen by all stakeholders. The group members were former fishermen and beach traders working on the mainland. They now come to the island each day. Their functions are to physically manage the island, keep it clean, undertake conservation work in the forest, engage in coral replanting, and provide surveillance against illegal activities in the surrounding waters. They also provide guiding in the interior and on the shore for visitors, maintain the trails, sell some souvenirs and rent out snorkelling equipment. An important facility is the provision of catering for visitors – primarily grilled fish – in a simple open sided building made from local materials. Visitors arrive from the mainland in hired boats, on trips with operators or from the hotels, amounting to an average of around 100 per week (5,000 per annum).

There are 16 members in the group. They have been designated as Honorary Wardens by the MPRU and provided with identity cards. They collect admission fees from visitors on behalf of the MPRU. The group earns income that is allocated both collectively and into individual accounts of participants. Total income is quite limited but the group is wishing to expand their activities. The MPRU has been keen to encourage the group to make their own decisions and investment – the restaurant building was expanded through the group's own initiative. Future aspirations are for better equipment to store fish and keep it cool and obtaining diving equipment and a boat. The group was trained in basic guiding, coral management, sea rescue and cooking. They would like more training in guiding and English.

Conservation benefits have been strong. Degradation of the island's ecosystem has stopped and illegal fishing is better controlled. The group appears happy with their involvement. The quality of the visitor experience is high, with the opportunity to experience a beautiful, well maintained environment and enjoy simple services. The proximity to Dar es Salaam, with a ready source of visitors, is clearly a key factor in current and future success.

## 10.4 Stakeholder Engagement to Deliver Community Benefit

The above examples of management issues relating to generating community benefit from coastal tourism are rather piecemeal. It is important to remember that a key requirement of effective work with communities is to have the right governance structures in place and to ensure effective community engagement.

A good working relationship between local authorities, private sector enterprises, local NGOs and community groups is a key to successful sustainable coastal tourism.

A great deal can be achieved by individual private sector enterprises who are committed to supporting the community. Turtle Bay Hotel, in the demo site of Watamu, Kenya, provides a good example of what can be achieved. A key to their approach is to bring their visitors directly into the picture, linking them to the community, garnering their support and thereby also giving them a special experience and a lifelong commitment to the destination. The hotel has also addressed many of the other issues covered in this chapter, see box 10.4.

### Box 10.4 A tourism enterprise committed to the community

Turtle Bay is an upmarket all-inclusive resort hotel in Watamu. It provides a good example of an enterprise's involvement with sustainable tourism and the local community.

When the hotel was converted to a club the owners were concerned about the image locally and with their guests, as they felt that it might come across as an enterprise that was somehow excluding and not well integrated with the local area. In order to put the brand in a good light they decided to support community projects. A Community Officer was appointed to identify projects and to build relationships with guests, raising support from them and stimulating their interest and engagement with the projects. Assistance has been given to over 60 projects in the last four years, including schools, water schemes, conservation, etc. The Watamu Marine Association has helped with making linkages. The results have been highly beneficial to the hotel, with many guests returning primarily because of the personal contact they have with their projects. Their engagement has been celebrated through displays and name plaques in the hotel and its grounds. The initiative has been championed by the Directors as a flagship of the company's CSR policy.

Turtle Bay has followed a comprehensive sustainability agenda. They have a silver award in the Kenya Eco-rating scheme. Considerable cost saving have been achieved through energy, water and waste management. All staff are engaged with this. Employee loyalty has been strong. An annual training programme is offered to people drawn from the local community, leading to a certificate at the end so that those that cannot be employed in the hotel have a qualification they can use. The hotel has been sourcing more foodstuffs locally, including fresh vegetables and fish. Relationships with beach operators are now positive, and the hotel invites their representatives to the welcome cocktail reception to meet newly arriving guests. Handicraft producers are allowed to sell their products once a week in the hotel compound. The hotel is increasingly promoting local excursions to community initiatives, being more confident now about their quality and safety owing to their involvement with the WMA.

# Conclusions and Recommendations for Better Governance and Management

The conclusions and recommendations that follow are based on the analysis of the situation in the nine COAST partner countries presented in previous chapters. As well as being written for the nine countries as a group, they also have generic relevance and may be taken as guidance on governance and management of sustainable coastal tourism by other countries, notably in Africa and the developing world, that exhibit similar characteristics.

The recommendations address the following aim that was presented in chapter 3.4:

*Strengthen governance and management to ensure that tourism serves as a positive force in coastal areas, helping to conserve environments and biodiversity, minimising environmental impacts and contributing to the wellbeing of local communities.*

This chapter provides a general action framework. More detailed coverage of the topics, including ideas and approaches illustrated by practice in the different countries, can be found in the subject chapters in the main part of this publication.

## 11.1 Improving Governance – Policies and Structures

Effective governance of sustainable coastal tourism requires there to be a coherent policy framework to guide and drive action and appropriate bodies to see that the policies are implemented.

### Strengthening policy frameworks for sustainable coastal tourism

The areas of policy most directly concerned with sustainable coastal tourism include those covering development, tourism and the environment.

#### Ensure development policies accurately identify the role of sustainable tourism

The prominence given to tourism in overarching development policies is important in influencing all of government to take the sector seriously. While tourism does feature significantly in the development policies of all the nine partner countries, this could be further strengthened. Aspects to address in future include:

- making accurate and realistic claims and targets for tourism which can be delivered;
- recognising the interrelationship between tourism and other sectors and processes, including on the coast;
- underlining at this high level the dependence on the environment and the need for coordinated management;
- making concerted efforts to include sustainable tourism in development programmes of main donors in the country (e.g. UNDAF, EU programme and bilateral donors).

### **Mainstream sustainability aims in updated tourism policies**

Tourism policies should set a direction and approach to tourism in each country. National tourism policies, while relevant, are rather old in some of the partner countries and these need to be updated.

Tourism policies should embrace sustainability aims at the outset. Sustainability should be seen as an objective for all tourism and not be the subject of a separate policy arena (such as for ecotourism). The 12 Aims for Sustainable Tourism prepared by UNWTO, set out in chapter 2 (box 2.1) of this document, provide a guideline for a comprehensive approach to sustainability which can be helpful in policy formulation.

The role of key players in delivering sustainable tourism should be spelt out, identifying responsibilities at different levels of governance.

### **Clarify coastal tourism opportunities and challenges in national tourism policies, strategies and master plans**

Tourism policies should identify the relative importance and position of coastal tourism within the wider context of national tourism aims and directions.

A more detailed roadmap for coastal tourism should be provided. This may be contained in elaborated policies or within a national tourism strategy or master plan. Some of the partner countries have tourism master plans, of varying age, which contain directions for coastal tourism. The approach should involve:

- reviewing and updating the coastal components of existing tourism strategies and master plans, and if necessary providing a new tourism strategy and plan for the coast, within the context of integrated coastal zone planning – see section 11.3 later;
- placing an emphasis on ensuring implementation of the strategies and master plans, which has been the main weakness in a number of countries.

### **Support destination-level sustainable tourism planning and action**

A weakness in all the partner countries is a relative lack of tourism strategies and plans at a sub-national level. A new emphasis, reflecting international practice, should be placed on preparing such plans through stakeholder participation at a local level, including in identified destinations on the coast. These should reflect national tourism, environment and sustainable development policies, which, in turn, should support this destination approach. Again, this is taken up in 11.3 later.

### **Ensure all policies related to the environment and natural resources consistently recognise tourism impacts, needs and opportunities**

There is considerable variation within and between the partner countries in the extent to which tourism is reflected in policies related to the environment and natural resources. More consistency is required to ensure that tourism is properly controlled, but also used positively for environmental benefit.

In all cases, policies should recognise:

- the impact of tourism on the environment, directly and indirectly, including through the impact on local community livelihoods;
- the importance for tourism of maintaining an intact, clean and attractive environment and biodiversity;
- the particular sensitivities and opportunities of coastal environments in this respect, including possibilities to generate support for coastal biodiversity conservation through tourism.

Relevant policies include those relating to environmental protection, resource use, wildlife, forestry, protected areas and cultural heritage. Policies relating to climate change, which may stand alone or be reflected in risk management strategies within more general policies, should take account of implications for tourism, particularly on coasts.

### **Pursue wider policies and legislation to support transparent land use planning and development processes**

The studies in the nine countries have shown clearly that the sustainability of coastal tourism development is strongly affected by general governance and management processes relating to land ownership, use, planning and development. Policies and legislation to regulate these processes and ensure that they are fair and transparent are highly relevant in this context.

### **Providing effective governance structures for sustainable coastal tourism**

A primary requirement for governance structures for sustainable coastal tourism is for the effective engagement of different stakeholder interests at all levels from national to local, while clarifying roles and responsibilities and ensuring sufficient capacity to deliver on them.

### **Maintain strong liaison and coordination between government ministries, departments and agencies on tourism and environment issues**

Sustainable coastal tourism is influenced by the actions of a range of government ministries, departments and agencies. In particular, these include those responsible for tourism, the environment, natural resources, land, planning and fisheries. Policies, priorities and actions of different ministries affecting the coast can sometimes be conflicting. Some countries have established inter-ministerial liaison mechanisms and these should be used to address tourism sustainability and coastal issues. One-to-one liaison should also be used to address specific issues swiftly and flexibly as required. Coordination should seek to minimise duplication and encourage sharing of knowledge and resources.

A tendency for governments to devolve responsibilities for tourism and other spheres to quasi-independent agencies can be positive for stakeholder engagement. However, it is important that such agencies are strongly integrated with work to deliver sustainable coastal tourism. For example, tourist boards responsible for marketing should address the needs of promoting coastal tourism and sustainable businesses.

### **Support tourism private sector membership and representative bodies and encourage their engagement with sustainability**

The presence in most of the partner countries of active private sector tourism bodies, both federations and sector groupings (such as hotel associations), is a particular strength. Most of these bodies already have a degree of interest in addressing environmental and social sustainability, especially where this can be shown to be to the benefit of enterprise, and this should be further encouraged. The ability of these bodies to embrace and influence a full range of type and size of business should be strengthened. Some countries have bodies specially geared to representing and assisting small and community-based tourism enterprises, which may be relevant elsewhere as well. In some countries, local trade bodies or branches of national bodies exist on the coast and these can have a particularly important role to play in promoting sustainable coastal tourism.

### **Strengthen national public-private coordination bodies in tourism and stakeholder involvement in them**

Half of the partner countries have formal liaison structures bringing together public and private sector tourism interests. Some are more recent than others and in some cases the outreach and effectiveness of the bodies has declined. Such structures can be helpful in strengthening stakeholder engagement and coordination. The approach should include:

- seeking to establish such bodies or forums where they do not exist;
- clarifying and strengthening the status of these bodies;
- widening participation to include conservation and community interests, for example through involving relevant NGOs;
- using them to address issues relevant to sustainability and coastal tourism.

### **Clarify and support the roles of national, regional and local government in the delivery of coastal planning and sustainable tourism**

Decentralisation of many aspects of governance has been a common theme in the nine partner countries. This offers important opportunities for strengthening the management of coastal tourism, provided it is well handled. Currently, problems of potential duplication and weak institutional capacity are quite widespread. Particular requirements include:

- setting standards and guidelines for sustainable tourism and for the performance of management processes for different levels of government to follow;
- clarifying the roles and responsibilities of national government ministries and departments, including their regional and local offices, as against those of local government at a regional, provincial and local level, in the fields of planning, development control, environmental management and tourism;
- identifying the resource and skill requirements of each level of government in meeting its responsibilities and working to strengthen their capacity to meet these requirements.

### **Support the development and operation of multi-stakeholder destination management bodies at different levels**

The establishment of effective multi-stakeholder structures at a local level, to work in conjunction with local government, should be seen as a key to effective sustainable tourism governance and management on the coast. This is in line with international best practice, based on the concept of Destination Management Organizations (DMOs). A few examples of such multi-stakeholder bodies at a local level are found in the nine partner countries and this approach is being pursued in a number of the demo sites.

These multi-stakeholder bodies should embrace:

- private sector tourism enterprises in the local area, to enable them to provide essential knowledge and expertise, to understand their needs and to influence their actions;
- local government and other public bodies responsible for tourism and relevant functions including planning and environmental management;
- local NGOs representing environmental and social interests and initiatives;
- community representatives, including any active traditional structures.

These bodies should have clear aims and constitutions, but may be loose partnerships or more formalised organisations. They will require different levels of support and capacity building according to their membership and local circumstances. Governance and management functions to be pursued by them can be various and may include:

- data gathering and monitoring;
- preparation and implementation of local development plans and tourism strategies;
- organising business and stakeholder training and capacity building;
- coastal management activities;
- information provision and marketing.

The geographic location and coverage of these bodies should reflect local circumstances on different coasts. They may exist at different levels, performing different functions, e.g.:

- local areas which have their own clear identity, such as coastal towns or defined landscape or heritage areas, where it is natural and easy for the stakeholders to work together, focussing more on local development and management issues and initiatives;
- wider areas, for example whole coastal regions, operating more strategically on integrated coastal planning and marketing.

It is important that destination management bodies communicate clearly with a wide range of stakeholders. This may be helped by holding open meetings, perhaps biannually, to report on actions and identify and discuss local issues and needs.

## 11.2 Deploying a Balanced Range of Management Tools

Before drawing conclusions and making recommendations about specific management actions to address coastal tourism impacts, which are presented later, this section takes a cross-cutting look at the management process. It takes a range of possible management instruments, identifies how much they are being used in the nine partner countries in influencing coastal tourism, and considers their possible future relevance and applicability. The instruments are those referred to in chapter 2, taken from the UNEP and UNWTO publication *Making Tourism More Sustainable – A Guide for Policy Makers* (UNEP/UNWTO, 2005). The conclusions are set out in table 11.1 below. This consideration of the range of available tools is reflected in the conclusions and recommendations relating to different management functions presented later in section 11.3.

It is important to appreciate that the categorisation of the instruments into five types as shown in the table is not meant to be precise and the groups do overlap. For example, some instruments that have been categorised as supporting instruments (assisting businesses to be more sustainable) could be seen as economic instruments. Also, the instruments can often be mutually supporting and more effective if applied together.

The main points arising from table 11.1 can be summarised as follows:

- A range of tools are available but some are little used. A better balance between them should be sought.
- There is a strong reliance on regulation and control but this is weakened by poor enforcement. While this may be improved through increased resources and better procedures, there is also a need to supplement this approach with other instruments.
- In general there is too little measurement and monitoring of tourism performance, impact and environmental quality.

- Economic instruments could be applied more actively linked to sustainability criteria.
- There is potential to provide clearer information and guidance on sustainable tourism development and operation, supported by local capacity building programmes, infrastructure provision and marketing.

**Table 11.1 Management Instruments and their Application**

Instruments	Processes	Current use in the nine countries	Potential for future application
<p><b>Measurement instruments</b> to determine levels of tourism and impact and to keep abreast of existing or potential changes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Identification of sustainability indicators</li> <li>• Monitoring of performance against these indicators</li> <li>• Identification of limits to capacity and acceptable change</li> </ul>	<p>Data collection and monitoring is, in general, a weakness in all countries, including basic data on tourism product, performance and investment projects. Monitoring of environmental conditions may often be irregular and incomplete.</p>	<p>Costly monitoring exercises may not be feasible on a regular basis. Basic indicators on tourism performance and impact could be agreed at a destination level (and possibly for the whole coast), covering visitor flows, hotel occupancy, sourcing of employment and supplies, development proposals, and aspects of environmental quality (waste levels, water quality, biodiversity conditions, etc.). Practical monitoring should involve observation and inputs from stakeholders as well as surveys. Limits to acceptable change could be identified.</p>
<p><b>Command and control instruments</b> to enable governments to exert strict control over certain aspects of development and operation, backed by legislation</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Legislation, regulations, inspection and licensing</li> <li>• Land use planning and development control</li> </ul>	<p>These are the main types of management instruments used in the nine countries. Each has legislation and inspection processes relating to new development and operation of tourism enterprises. However, in most countries there are significant problems with coverage, enforcement and follow-up, mainly due to lack of capacity and resources.</p>	<p>It is important to maintain a basic system of regulation and control, backed by legislation. There is a need to make this more efficient and effective, while recognising financial and resource constraints on delivery. This could be helped by simplifying and clarifying procedures, securing more support from the private sector and other stakeholders, and streamlining and harmonising inspection processes. Extending the coverage of land use plans on the coast is important.</p>
<p><b>Economic instruments</b> to influence behaviour and impact through financial means and send signals via the market</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Taxes and charges to discourage and penalise certain actions and to raise revenue for conservation and management</li> <li>• Financial incentives (grants, tax relief, etc.) to encourage sustainable development and operations</li> </ul>	<p>These instruments have been relatively little used to influence tourism sustainability. Development incentives, such as tax concessions tend to be aimed to encourage investment rather than influence its shape. Some direct income from tourists, such as from admission charges to parks, is partly raised and used to support conservation.</p>	<p>There is potential to use financial incentives, such as conditional tax relief, to influence both the development and operation of tourism businesses, and there is interest in pursuing this further in the countries. Economic instruments can also be used effectively to back up other instruments, such as voluntary certification. Pricing of services such as energy, water and waste needs further investigation to explore its potential use as an instrument to encourage sustainable development and operations. Revenue raised from charges, such as admission and concessions, should be more clearly channelled to local conservation and livelihood initiatives.</p>

Instruments	Processes	Current use in the nine countries	Potential for future application
<b>Voluntary instruments</b> to encourage, guide and identify voluntary adherence by stakeholders to sustainable approaches and practices	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dissemination of guidelines and codes of conduct</li> <li>Sustainability reporting by tourism enterprises and destinations</li> <li>Voluntary sustainability assessment and certification</li> </ul>	There are a few good practical examples of guidelines for coastal tourism projects and codes for certain activities but the application of these approaches has been very patchy. Reporting on sustainability by larger enterprises is growing, based round CSR. Some countries have voluntary certification for sustainable tourism but percentage take up is small.	There is significant potential for further use of clear guidelines and codes, provided these are well disseminated and supported. Individual enterprises could be encouraged to step up their reporting, perhaps through peer and supply-chain pressure. The results achieved by enterprises from adopting a sustainable approach should be described and disseminated in order to encourage others. Certification should be supported but not relied upon to affect the whole sector.
<b>Supporting instruments</b> to provide services and support within destinations which encourage and facilitate the pursuit of sustainability by enterprises, tourists and other stakeholders	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Provision of infrastructure and services, such as recycling and waste management, renewable energy sources, etc.</li> <li>Capacity building, including advice and training on sustainability</li> <li>Awareness raising of good practice and sustainable products through information provision and marketing</li> </ul>	Relevant infrastructure and services available in coastal destinations is at best patchy and can be inadequate. Capacity building initiatives have taken place but again tend to be sporadic. Identifying sustainable approaches in marketing tends to be confined mainly to the private sector.	Improvement in services to support sustainability (e.g. energy and water supply and management, waste treatment) is necessary and should be pursued over time. There is considerable need, potential and interest in more capacity building and opportunities to step up information provision and awareness amongst businesses, tourists and communities, including disseminating results as mentioned above. Discretionary marketing of sustainable tourism products can be helpful in encouraging and supporting good practice.

### 11.3 Strengthening Coastal Tourism Planning and Management

This study has looked in detail at actions relating to five key areas of planning and management aimed at strengthening the sustainability of coastal tourism and influencing the impact on local environments and communities, namely: planning the coastal zone for sustainable tourism, influencing development, influencing the operation of enterprises, managing coastal environments and supporting community livelihoods. This section outlines conclusions and recommendations relating to each of them.

### Integrating planning for tourism in a wider coastal management context

The planning of tourism on the coast should involve a number of different strategies and plans which support and relate to each other. The relationship is summarised in the figure below.



National government departments responsible for economic and physical planning and for the environment should take the strategic lead in coastal planning and management, with a strong input from the national ministry and agencies responsible for tourism who, in turn, should ensure good industry engagement. In some countries, regional bodies covering the coast also need to play an active role.

Planning at a local destination level on the coast should involve local government, following procedures established nationally and with support from national bodies. Local stakeholder bodies or networks, including tourism, community and conservation interests and NGOs, should be closely involved with this. The establishment of multi-stakeholder destination management bodies was covered in section 11.1.

### Complete ICZM structures and plans with a strong strategic tourism input

The nine partner countries are in different stages of pursuing ICZM, as described in section 6.1. This should be variously refreshed or completed. The process should be strongly informed by knowledge of tourism opportunities, needs and impacts in the following ways:

- Involving tourism interests from the public and private sector (including service providers and tour operators) in ICZM coordination and planning bodies and meetings;
- undertaking or refreshing a comprehensive study of coastal conditions, sensitivities and pressures, which should include an audit and assessment of tourism facilities and resources;
- preparing an ICZM Plan for the whole coast and covering all relevant sectors;
- preparing a framework coastal tourism strategy in parallel with, and feeding into, the ICZM Plan. This should be based closely on national tourism policies and any existing tourism master plan. It should consider current tourism performance, trends, markets, resources, product strengths and weaknesses and competitive positioning. It should contain a spatial consideration of different parts of the coast in terms of tourism opportunities and issues.

Particular attention should be paid to maintaining the level of engagement in the ICZM coordination body over time. Consistent commitment to the process should be demonstrated by Government, including providing a budget for implementation rather than simply relying on international funding.

### Prepare and implement Destination Management Plans for coastal locations

More detailed and specific Destination Management Plans, which are equivalent to local tourism strategies/action plans, should be prepared for specific destinations on the coast, including those with

most potential and those most under pressure from development. Reflecting coverage in section 6.3, these Destination Management Plans should:

- be based on close consultation with existing local stakeholders and the wider community;
- involve a basic assessment of products, markets and resources, including constraints and issues to address;
- include a vision and objectives;
- set out an action plan, including work on capacity building, product development, infrastructure and marketing, all aimed at strengthening both the performance and the sustainability of existing and future tourism;
- relate closely to any overall strategic tourism framework for the coast (see above) and to national policies/ master plans for tourism, the environment and sustainable development;
- include a gathering of data on performance and impact, set up some basic sustainability indicators, and include actions covering simple observation and monitoring.

These Destination Management Plans can be best drawn up by local tourism stakeholders working together with local government, informed by the necessary expertise. Knowledge and experience from local initiatives to strengthen the relationship between tourism, communities and conservation on the coast, such as those pursued in the COAST project demo sites, should feed into this process.

### **Prepare and implement local land use plans (or master plans) showing locations for appropriate tourism development and activity**

Land use plans should be prepared in a systematic way at a local level. They should reflect the tourism vision, potential and challenges identified in the Destination Management Plan, while considering the particular constraints of individual sites. They should also relate to the wider ICZM Plan. Particular attention should be paid to conservation of habitats and biodiversity as well as landscape and cultural values and community needs in determining appropriate uses and levels of development in different zones and sites. The plans should be based on effective local consultation and should be widely disseminated, with a strong commitment by stakeholders towards compliance.

### **Strengthening assessment and handling of tourism development projects**

All the nine countries have procedures in place for the assessment and control of development on the coast but this could be significantly strengthened to make the process more effective while also encouraging positive sustainable tourism development outcomes.

The main responsibility for action rests with national government departments and agencies responsible for planning and environmental assessment, working together with departments and agencies responsible for development promotion, with strong input from tourism ministries and agencies. It is very important that local government is fully engaged with the strengthening of procedures, in conjunction with local stakeholders.

### **Strengthen effective application of EIAs for coastal tourism developments**

EIA requirements exist in all countries and present the most readily available vehicle for influencing development. This study has revealed a number of weaknesses and concerns about how EIAs are being applied to coastal tourism development. In each country this should be reviewed in more detail, which may point to the need for generic changes in EIA procedures or to more specific tightening with respect to their application to tourism. Particular requirements to address include:

- ensuring that all tourism development proposals on the coast are subject to an appropriate degree of environmental scrutiny that is fair and appropriate to the size and circumstances of the project and the sensitivity of the area;
- clarifying and being consistent about types of project to be subject to full EIA, and the procedures at the scoping stage for determining the required approach;
- reviewing EIA requirements and procedures to reflect the circumstances of small projects, so that applicants are prepared and able to meet these requirements rather than seeking to avoid them;
- ensuring that EIAs are carried out objectively and transparently by skilled and impartial experts;
- reviewing the required scope and content of EIAs, including appropriate coverage of social as well as environmental impacts;
- strengthening community consultation and engagement in EIAs;
- adjusting the timing of EIA reporting so it is early enough to be fully influential;
- strengthening enforcement of requirements, with improved reporting, monitoring and follow-up.

### **Review and improve the process of handling and approving projects**

Most countries have quite an extended process for handling and approving development projects requiring input by both local government and national agencies. On the one hand, this is positive in that it should ensure that national and local stakeholder interests are reflected. However it can lead to inconsistency and delay. There is considerable variation between the countries in the length of time required to handle applications. Capacity constraints within planning offices and other administrative departments is often a major issue. In general, there is a need to review and streamline procedures, to improve efficiency and objectivity.

### **Provide clear guidelines on coastal tourism development**

Much could be achieved by setting out clear guidelines for potential developers of coastal tourism projects. These should cover:

- an outline of coastal tourism opportunities, as identified in policies and plans;
- a clear description of the stages that have to be followed in submitting proposals and applying for approval, including the information needed at each stage;
- specification of regulations and legal requirements regarding coastal development. These in turn may require greater clarity, notably with respect to the critical issue of coastal setbacks which are not clearly specified in some countries;
- information on any zoning or land use plans in place, which are steering development;
- practical guidelines on the kinds of development considered most suitable to particular types of location, including guidance on design, materials, etc. this should address issues of density, height, impact on biodiversity, energy, water and waste management;
- practical guidelines on relating to local communities and shaping developments and operations to deliver local benefit.

These guidelines should be drawn up by tourism ministries or agencies in conjunction with planning, environment and development promotion departments. The guidelines should serve not only to influence developers but also as a reference point for all national and local government bodies and other parties involved in handling and commenting on proposals.

### **Exert influence on development through providing advice and assistance**

While clear guidelines can provide a good basis for making sure that projects that come forward address sustainability issues, this can be stimulated more proactively in a number of ways, notably through the work of government agencies for development and promotion of tourism in their contact with developers:

- providing developers with a single point of contact that can help guide the procedure and provide advice on requirements – in some countries government investment promotion agencies (IPAs) can fulfil this function;
- ensuring that IPAs and any other contact points are fully aware of tourism sustainability issues on the coast and are reflecting this in their work;
- encouraging early dialogue with local government, other public bodies, relevant NGOs and local communities.

### **Strengthen the use of economic instruments to shape development**

Greater use could be made of financial incentives and other forms of commercial inducement and arrangements, linked to sustainability conditions, to encourage and support more sustainable tourism development on the coast. Relevant approaches include:

- Reviewing current tax relief or other incentives to ensure that they are not favouring unsustainable forms of tourism development.
- Pursuing the use of conditional tax relief or other financial incentives for developments that meet sustainability requirements.
- Extending tax relief or grant assistance to certain specific investments and purchases, including relevant technology.
- Ensuring that any relevant financial incentives are clearly promoted and easy to obtain.
- Reviewing and adjusting policies and practice on the granting of rights and concessions for the pursuit of tourism activities, and linking this to sustainability requirements, backed by agreement.

### **Improving monitoring and management of tourism enterprises**

The impact of the operation of tourism enterprises on local environments and communities can be addressed by a combination of regulation enforced through official inspection and by voluntary and support measures to encourage and recognise good management practice.

Responsibility for action rests with the tourism ministry or agency together with ministries or agencies covering environmental management and other aspects of enterprise operation. Private sector tourism trade bodies must be fully involved in the design of initiatives and in their effective communication to businesses. This should also involve local government and tourism stakeholder bodies who should support implementation at a local level.

### **Strengthen the reach and potency of inspection processes**

All the nine countries carry out inspection of tourism enterprises which includes a check on environmental management against basic standards. However, in most cases there are problems in covering all businesses, due to lack of capacity in the inspectorate, and inspections may not address adequately the full range of sustainability issues in business operations. In particular, smaller tourism

businesses, which may be more likely to have weak environmental management owing to a lack of corporate standards, have proved hard to reach.

A number of actions can be pursued to strengthen the reach and effectiveness of the inspection process, including:

- making sure that all tourism enterprises are aware of environmental regulations and standards and what is expected of them;
- reviewing the scope of different inspections to ensure that basic environmental and social (e.g. labour standards, community impact) issues are covered;
- pursuing coordination of different inspections – notably between tourist authority, environment agency and local health/sanitation inspectorate;
- strengthening monitoring of the state of the environment (e.g. water quality, air quality, habitats, etc.) in areas with a significant presence of tourism enterprises and relating changes back to source;
- strengthening follow up and enforcement of required improvements;
- tightening up on requirements for enterprises to report annually on environmental management and following up on lack of compliance;
- working with specific types of enterprise on codes of practice for particular activities;
- looking at aligning standards and inspection across boundaries (including state borders) when this affects a common maritime resource.

### **Encourage good practice in the management and sustainability of tourism operations, through advice, support and recognition**

In all the countries there is potential to work directly with private sector enterprises to encourage and assist them in strengthening their environmental management, including their local social impact. Although the level of awareness of these issues varies considerably between areas and individual enterprises, the study found sufficient interest in all countries upon which to build. The challenge is to spread response from those already committed to others who most need to make changes. A key is to underline and demonstrate the business advantages of being more sustainable. Relevant action to pursue includes:

- engaging with and winning support from tourism associations and trade bodies;
- working with private sector bodies to design and deliver relevant training in local coastal destinations;
- publicising information on cost savings and other benefits achieved by enterprises;
- strengthening linkages between private enterprises and local environmental and social NGOs who can provide advice, expertise and links to local community and biodiversity projects;
- promoting voluntary certification schemes, in order to stimulate a more comprehensive approach to sustainability in certain enterprises and identify and recognise good practice;
- encouraging tour operators to place sustainability requirements on their service suppliers.

An important element of support for tourism enterprises in their environmental management is the improvement of relevant infrastructure and services in the destination, such as recycling and waste management facilities.

### **Use economic instruments to stimulate sustainability of tourism operations**

Economic instruments can also be used to influence business decisions and to support good practice. Actions include:

- reviewing the pricing and charging of utilities and services (energy, water, waste handling, etc.) to tourism business to encourage more sustainable sourcing and practices;
- reviewing, introducing and promoting relevant financial incentives, such as tax relief or subsidies on purchases that support sustainable management practices and use of green technology;
- providing increased exposure to sustainable tourism businesses (including certification schemes) in marketing campaigns.

It is important also to recognise the commercial needs of tourism businesses on the coast to ensure their economic sustainability, helping them to achieve profitable year round business such as through appropriate destination marketing.

### **Tackling coastal management issues affecting tourism**

The study revealed a number of aspects of environmental quality and change which have a strong bearing on the future of coastal tourism in destinations. In particular, these include cleanliness and solid waste management, coastal erosion and the conservation of landscapes, habitats and biodiversity, including reef and marine management.

Specific action to address these issues is best taken at a local level, engaging tourism, community and conservation interests together with local authorities, which may involve coordinated destination management structures as identified in section 11.1. Local NGOs are seen as having a particularly important role to play in facilitating actions. Central Government and international agencies should encourage and support local initiatives.

### **Monitor environmental change and coordinate response**

A systematic approach is required to keep abreast of change, ensure effective response and achieve continual improvement. Actions should include:

- maintaining a programme to monitor the state of the environment, including physical processes, habitat loss, waste and pollution, using basic indicators and observation;
- identifying clear lines of responsibility between the different local agencies and stakeholders in reporting and responding to change and taking action;
- setting up and implementing specific programmes and joint initiatives between local stakeholders.

### **Improve the planning and management of recreational and other uses of the coastal terrestrial and marine resource**

Many areas require a more systematic approach to the management of coastal environments, supported by plans, regulation and positive engagement of users. This includes use for tourism and recreation as well as for other purposes such as fishing that will affect tourism. Relevant actions include:

- working with tourism stakeholders to improve knowledge of impacts, preventive actions and application of codes of conduct;
- preparing reef and marine management plans, linked to wider coastal and destination planning, including zoning for different uses if appropriate;

- clarifying, communicating and enforcing regulations on different uses and practices;
- extending the coverage of protected areas where appropriate and sustainable.

### **Raise awareness and facilitate community engagement in conservation and management**

There are a number of examples of involving local communities in conservation and management initiatives in the nine countries, including in the COAST demo sites. Relevant actions to pursue include:

- establishing community-based conservation or management groups or units (such as beach management units), facilitated through training, tools and materials;
- running education programmes in schools;
- working with local media to put over conservation messages;
- linking conservation and management initiatives with tourism projects and income generation (see later);
- encouraging tourism employees and managers of small tourism enterprises to act as champions for conservation in their communities;
- organising beach cleans or other similar events to raise awareness, encourage participation and achieve direct environmental benefit.

### **Generate resources from tourism to support conservation and management**

Income from tourists and support from tourism enterprises can provide a direct source of funding for management and conservation. Particular opportunities to pursue include:

- using a proportion of income derived from admissions to protected areas and sites and from concessions with tourism operators directly on conservation in the locations concerned or in other locations with particular needs;
- encouraging tourism businesses to establish or support conservation initiatives;
- pursuing donation schemes or other forms of gifting;
- using income raised from fines and penalties to support conservation.

### **Pursuing greater benefits for local communities**

The delivery of benefits to local communities from tourism should be seen as an important sustainability goal in its own right. However, the potential benefit for conservation from engaging communities in tourism-related activities which in turn depend on an intact environment should be recognised. This related objective should influence how initiatives are shaped and promoted.

Actions to engage and benefit local communities are best developed and executed at a local destination level. A fundamental requirement is to actively involve private sector enterprises, who may work with NGOs, public bodies and other stakeholder interests, directly or through local destination management bodies. At a national level, tourism agencies and trade bodies can help community initiatives through their policies and actions, such as enterprise support and marketing.

It is important to clarify at the outset how tourism is currently benefitting livelihoods in coastal communities, through a simple value chain analysis which involves asking questions of businesses and tourists and building up a picture of the flow and use of visitor spending. It is also important to

clarify social and environmental needs and objectives and how they are linked, so actions can be well directed. Various mechanisms for poverty alleviation through tourism have been identified by UNWTO<sup>1</sup> and they should be reflected in actions.

### **Strengthen supply and demand conditions for growing local employment**

The employment of local people directly in the tourism sector is a primary way of generating local benefit. The priority given to local recruitment is quite patchy in the nine countries. Actions to strengthen this include:

- obtaining information and views from enterprises about sources of employment and issues affecting local recruitment;
- strengthening tourism awareness and skills in the destination through communication, education and training provision;
- increasing the demand for year round jobs through increased marketing aimed especially at generating off-season business;
- encouraging private sector businesses to recruit locally and provide long term career prospects for local people;
- extending and improving the provision of skills training available locally in coastal destinations.

### **Build and maintain local supply chains**

Opportunities to strengthen food and craft supply chains exist in most countries, with considerable variation in the extent to which this has been addressed. Initiatives involving local stakeholder groups and perhaps executed by NGOs, could include actions such as:

- providing a framework for enterprises to audit their current supplies;
- researching and pursuing the practicability of a coordinated agricultural supply system linking small producers together and with hotels;
- investigating and strengthening links between local fishermen, tourism enterprises and tourists;
- strengthening links between hotels and local craftsmen/artists, to give them a chance to sell products and services to and within the hotels.

### **Manage informal local trading**

The selling of goods and services to tourists on beaches and the areas around hotels is a particular phenomenon of coastal tourism, creating problems through harassment as well as being a source of income for poor communities. Some progress has been made in tackling this in some countries, through dialogue, regulation, licensing, networking, training and support mechanisms. Codes of conduct for traders, tourism enterprises and tourists have proved helpful. These approaches, illustrated in chapter 10, should be further developed and pursued.

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1 UNWTO, 2004 and 2009.

### **Foster community-based initiatives that meet conditions for sustainability and success**

Most of the countries have initiatives involving the provision of experiences to tourists by local communities. Many involve visits to villages and natural sites. Some coastal communities also offer boat trips and marine activities or have an interest in doing so. There is often there is a direct relationship between these initiatives and conservation activity. For this reason these opportunities should be fostered. However, delivering significant income to communities and maintaining their interest in the process has proved challenging. The approach should involve:

- encouraging and fostering those initiatives that meet conditions necessary for sustainability and success, related to market access, quality, safety and other matters as outlined in section 10.3;
- seeking assistance and support from agencies and NGOs experienced in community-based tourism, which are present in most countries;
- encouraging tourists and tourism businesses to support community projects, including general social projects as well as tourism initiatives.

## **11.4 Responsibility and Capacity to Deliver**

The actions outlined in this chapter provide a comprehensive framework for improving governance and management for more sustainable coastal tourism in Africa. The delivery of these actions remains a fundamental challenge. This final section presents a few general conclusions, based on experience across the nine countries, about the responsibility and capacity of four key types of player to bring about the necessary change.

### **The public sector**

Overall responsibility for the conservation of coastal environments and the wellbeing of coastal communities should rest with government, who should provide the legislative framework for protection and sustainable development and ensure that effective management processes are in place. However, many questions remain about the ability of governments to deliver, owing to limited financial and human capacity. Decentralisation and the passing of responsibility for management to local government and public sector bodies is presenting opportunities for extending outreach and tackling issues where they occur, but this in turn is often affected by lack of skills, knowledge and capacity at the local level.

In many countries, while control and management procedures are set out, there is considerable concern about lack of transparency and objectivity in the way in which they are executed.

These issues underline the need to:

- build capacity at all levels of government;
- open up procedures to effective scrutiny, involving communities and other stakeholders;
- coordinate tasks and work in partnership across government and between stakeholders, in ways outlined in this report.

### **The private sector**

The resource and capacity issues in government point to a fundamental requirement that private sector tourism enterprises should commit to acting responsibly towards the environment and communities and back this up with appropriate action. Many enterprises already have or can acquire the necessary capacity to deliver sound management. International companies, including tour operators and providers

of tourism services such as hotels and resorts, are increasingly embracing sustainability in their CSR policies, projecting this in their brands and marketing, and requiring (and sometimes helping) their local suppliers to meet sustainability and CSR criteria. There are also examples of individual owners and operators across Africa who are dedicated to supporting communities and conservation. The challenge is to spread this approach more widely within the private sector.

Spreading responsibility in the private sector underlines the need to:

- strengthen enterprise networking and engagement with each other and wider stakeholders at all levels and especially within destinations;
- understand business needs, provide relevant advice and training and recognise and promote good practice;
- encourage business to business influence on suppliers at all levels.

### **NGOs and civil society bodies**

The 'third sector' has potentially a very important role to play in the area of facilitation and capacity building. A key opportunity is the involvement of local NGOs (some of which may link to international NGOs) in destinations to bring together the different interests and provide assistance and expertise. Academic and research bodies, training institutions and local consultants can also provide highly valuable knowledge and services. NGOs can be used as effective channels for delivery of external support and funding.

This potential underlines the need to:

- ensure full involvement of NGOs and civil society bodies in coastal planning and in tourism destination management partnerships;
- strengthen tourism knowledge of NGOs alongside their community development and conservation experience;
- encourage tourism enterprises (or networks) to work with NGOs and civil society bodies in strengthening their management and outreach, and vice versa.

### **International assistance agencies**

International agencies supporting multi or bi-lateral programmes of funding and technical assistance should continue to help African nations in the planning and management of tourism on their coasts. They should recognise tourism as a key issue linking the economy and the environment, relevant to international programmes in both these fields while requiring specialist attention in its own right. International assistance can help both through funding and through enabling the sharing of experience and knowledge between countries. However, there is a clear requirement to ensure that future assistance is well focussed from the outset and is fully valued by recipient countries and used by them to maximum effect.

Maximising local ownership and value points to a need to:

- design programmes closely around the requirements of recipient countries and local stakeholders and with their full involvement;
- encourage recipient countries to work out their own priorities and actions from the advice given;
- support necessary capacity building at all levels to enable public, private and third sectors stakeholders to fulfil their roles with skill and confidence.



## List of Acronyms

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ALMA	Association for Cleaning and Environment (Mozambique)
ASSET	Association of Small Scale Enterprises in Tourism (The Gambia)
BMU	Beach Management Unit
CBD	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBT	Community-based tourism
COAST	Collaborative Actions for Sustainable Tourism
CSR	Corporate social responsibility
DMO	Destination Management Organization
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EMCA	Environmental Management and Coordination Act (Kenya)
EMS	Environment Management System
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEF	Global Environment Facility
GIEPA	Gambia Investment and Export Promotion Agency
GIS	Geographic Information System
GTA	Gambia Tourism Authority
GTB	Ghana Tourist Board
ICM	Integrated Coastal Management
ICZM	Integrated Coastal Zone Management
KFS	Kenya Forest Service
KTF	Kenya Tourism Federation
MCTA	Mombasa and Coast Tourist Association
MOU	Memorandum of Understanding
MPRU	Marine Parks and Reserves Unit (Tanzania)
NEA	National Environment Agency (The Gambia)
NEMC	National Environment Management Council (Tanzania)
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
SAPCO	Development and Promotion Company for coast/tourism zones (Senegal)
STB	Seychelles Tourism Board

TCMP	Tanzania Coastal Management Partnership
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNIDO	United Nations Industrial Development Organization
UNWTO	World Tourism Organization
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VAT	Value Added Tax
VFR	Visits to Friends and Relatives
WMA	Watamu Marine Association

## Literature Review

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This part of the publication provides a very brief review of some existing literature on coastal and sustainable tourism that relates to the context of this study and report.

A few publications have addressed coastal tourism impacts and management over the last ten years, but the volume and range is not extensive. A particularly relevant international report specifically on coastal tourism management is the UNEP publication *Sustainable Coastal Tourism – An Integrated Planning and Management Approach* (UNEP, 2009). A small number of other reports and textbooks cover the general topic of coastal tourism, such as a report on trends and impacts for WWF (CESD, 2007) and a compendium of articles on coastal tourism development and issues round the world (Dowling and Pforr, 2009). Some other text books have addressed more specific aspects of coastal tourism such as marine ecotourism (Cater and Cater, 2007) and mass tourism development on the coast (Bramwell, 2004).

Turning to academic journals, *Tourism in Marine Environments* is a journal that focusses specifically on marine and coastal tourism. Many of the articles in this journal focus on tourist profiles and behaviour and on specific aspects of marine tourism such as diving and whale watching. A few of the articles have covered more general governance and management issues, such as work on the legal and human rights context in South Africa (Vrancken, 2011), on stakeholder perspectives of regulations (Haase et al., 2007) and on management of marine protected areas (Harriott, 2004).

A small number of articles on aspects of coastal tourism have been published in wider academic journals. These appear in both tourism and environmental journals. A few have covered coastal destination governance and management issues (e.g. Caffyn and Jobbins, 2003; Powell et al., 2009). More frequently, articles have focussed on specific topics, such as climate change and coastal tourism (Becken and Moreno, 2004), shoreline management (Jennings, 2004) and physical processes (e.g. Darby, 2003). A number of articles have addressed specific coastal tourism development sites and projects and their impacts (e.g. Brunnschweiler, 2010; Sullivan-Sealey, 2009). These references are purely indicative and not comprehensive.

Leaving aside coastal tourism *per se*, the general body of knowledge on sustainable tourism and on its governance and management is equally important in elucidating the context of this study. A significant and extensive literature has built up on this subject in the last ten years or so. It is not possible to summarise this in this document. Many of the issues, including references to more specific literature, are covered in a range of earlier UNWTO publications, some in partnership with others. The UNEP and UNWTO report *Making Tourism More Sustainable – A Guide for Policy Makers* (UNEP/UNWTO, 2005) provides a comprehensive framework covering policies, structures and management instruments. UNWTO has also produced relevant publications on destination management (UNWTO, 2007), on collaborative governance approaches (UNWTO, 2010b), on sustainability indicators (UNWTO, 2004) and on practical approaches to tourism and poverty alleviation (UNWTO, 2004b, 2006, 2010c).

A number of publications provide guidance on environmental impacts and management of tourism, covering topics relevant to coasts. These include good practice guides on tourism and protected area management (Eagles et al., 2002; UNEP, 2005) and managing tourism and biodiversity (UNWTO, 2011; CBD, 2007). There is considerable recent literature on tourism and climate change, covering both mitigation and adaptation approaches (e.g. Simpson et al., 2008). Various publications also exist on environmental management for tourism operators (e.g. UNEP, 2005b).

Looking beyond tourism, much environmental management literature covers establishing and strengthening governance for environmental protection and use of scarce resources in countries in

different stages of development. This field is too wide to summarise. More specifically on coastal management, a significant number of textbooks and journal articles address the theory and practice of integrated coastal zone management. They often include consideration of the governance issues, from legislation and modelling to community engagement approaches, for successful implementation of ICZM. Brown et al. (2002) and Anilkumar et al. (2010) provide just two of many examples.

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