Africa’s Capital Cities: Tourism Research in Search of Capitalness

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Abstract

Although African cities are significant tourism destinations scholarship on African tourism is rural biased. This paper centres on one aspect of the neglected urban tourism research agenda of Africa, namely the state of tourism research in Africa’s national capital cities. A review of extant research is conducted on tourism in Africa’s capital cities. It pinpoints an upturn of research over the past decade with a concentration of scholarly contributions on a small group of cities and with many capitals lacking any research on aspects of the local tourism industry. Prominent thematic foci in research on capital cities are tourism and planning related issues and the development and impacts of various forms of niche tourism, most commonly of heritage and culture. Only minimally represented in Africa literature is investigations of the role of ‘capitalness’ in defining and impacting the character of capital city tourism. Arguably, therefore, Africa’s capital cities provide the setting for examining a variety of issues in tourism and hospitality research albeit that ‘capital city tourism’ is scarcely evident in contemporary scholarship about urban Africa.

Keywords: Capital cities, capitalness, urban tourism, Africa

Introduction

Research concerning tourism development in Africa traditionally concentrates upon the region’s big 5 wildlife products, its iconic attractions of natural beauty (e.g. Victoria Falls) as well as the newer growth points in the landscape of African tourism scholarship such as cultural heritage, adventure tourism or volunteer tourism (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2018; Senbeto, Köseoglu & King, 2021). To this list of established topics on the tourism agenda of Africa now must be added since 2020 the devastation wrought by COVID-19 for tourism development (Rogerson & Baum, 2020; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2020a, 2020b; Adinolfi, Harilal & Giddy, 2021; Makoni & Tichaawa, 2021; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021a, 2021b; Rogerson, 2021; Rogerson, Lekgau, Mashapa & Rogerson, 2021; Suchera n, 2021a, 2021b). With certain exceptions the geographical locations for the vast majority of the continent’s core tourism attractions are in rural areas such that the mainstream of African tourism scholarship focuses on interrogating a range of issues concerning the impacts of tourism development for local communities in rural environments (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2011; Novelli, 2015). This said, what is overlooked is that many cities in Africa are important and vibrant tourism destinations. Indeed, for several African countries, particularly those where leisure travel remains undeveloped, cities are the core tourism destinations (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021c). Arguably
therefore, research relating to urban tourism in sub-Saharan Africa is the poor cousin of scholarship about the continent because of the overwhelming academic concentration evidenced for the past decade upon tourism in rural areas (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2011; Rogerson & Visser, 2014; Novelli, 2015; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2018; Novelli, Adu-Ampong & Ribeiro, 2021).

This paper directs the focus at one theme on the neglected urban tourism research agenda of Africa. The aim is to investigate the state of tourism research in a distinctive sub-set of urban destinations, namely Africa’s national capital cities. Capital city tourism in Africa represents a special case of urban tourism, a theme which has received some attention in the context of the global North. Currently, however, capital city tourism is only poorly represented in research concerning the urban global South (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021d). It will be argued here that Africa’s capital cities provide the setting for examining a variety of issues in tourism and hospitality research but that ‘capital city tourism’ is at present only minimally represented in the corpus of contemporary scholarship on Africa. Two sections of material are presented. These relate to international research on capital city tourism and capitalness followed by an analysis and overview of tourism research across capital cities of Africa.

**Capital city tourism and capitalness**

Among others Van der Wusten (2018: 244) points out that the expression ‘capital city’ has classical roots. The study of capital cities represents a field of study best described as in its incubation phase (Rossman, 2018). As a whole Rossman (2018) laments that capital cities are a poorly understood class of cities for urban researchers. Capital cities exhibit many specific features in their development, architecture and urban form which often is dominated by meaning and symbolism (Pearce, 1998). Diekmann & Cloquet (2012: 19) point out many capital cities are leading tourism destinations and that they “are places of power displayed through urban spatial development and often through heritage sites”. In one of the pioneer contributions to developing international tourism scholarship on capital cities Hall (2002) contended that the capital city function confers enormous benefits for heritage and cultural tourism as well as business travel. Accordingly, it was concluded that “the capital city function deserves greater recognition in the urban tourism literature than what has hitherto been the case” (Hall, 2002: 235).

During the 2000s the tempo of scholarly writings has risen slowly such that Huang & Lee (2009) could declare capital city tourism was an emerging topic in tourism research. It must be understood that a capital’s status placed above other cities in any given national territory derives “from a hierarchical order that is delimited by national frontiers and regulated by a national sovereign state” (Saidi, 2012: 76). That said, in a globalised world some observers maintain that capital cities are only one element of many in a new globalised urban landscape in which supra-national organisations such as UNESCO play an increasingly significant role “in diversifying and complexifying ‘capitalness’ by awarding newly conceived titles such as cultural, tourism or sport capital to cities that were in no way capitals beforehand” (Saidi, 2012: 77). Among recent African examples is the award made in 2019 to Overstrand, South Africa of the title of UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2021e).

Maitland (2012a: 1) avers that a time of increasing competition for urban tourism “national capitals are at the forefront of efforts to gain competitive advantage for themselves and their nation, to project a distinctive and positive image and to score well in global city league tables”. Arguably, an enhanced understanding of the specific qualities of capitals and of what ‘capitalness’ brings to tourism is therefore essential for advancing urban tourism research (Maitland & Ritchie, 2010a; Diekmann & Cloquet, 2012; Maitland, 2012b). As focal points for national political power capitals have considerable advantages for the attraction of
business tourism as well as conferences (Maitland & Ritchie, 2010b). Capitalness can attract tourism and often is represented in the form of monuments and symbols (Shoval, 2018). National capitals are settings for a country’s culture and history and where the past is highlighted (Hall, 2002). In addition, they have important symbolic roles and are places “where the collective memory is incarnated and periodically revisited through commemorative and ceremonial activities that celebrate the birth and unity of the nation” (Saidi, 2012: 77). Capital status therefore can enhance the competitiveness of cities in order to attract tourism as well as to reinforce and highlight their status as national capitals. Nevertheless, within an increasingly competitive environment for urban tourism “capital cities must put in even more effort to remain different and maintain a certain symbolic primacy” (Saidi, 2012: 76).

Although capital cities exhibit many shared qualities and assets for tourism development it must be acknowledged with Maitland & Ritchie (2010b) that they are also highly heterogeneous. This diversity has led to several attempts to evolve classification typologies (Hall, 2002; Pearce, 2007; Maitland, 2012b; Rozite & Klepers, 2012). From a tourism perspective the most useful is perhaps that which was proposed by Maitland & Ritchie (2010a). Four categories are put forward. First, are planned and political capitals which have been designed or shaped to represent the nation to itself and the world. As Maitland (2012b: 7) observes this “provides a legacy of buildings, monuments and spaces and cultural resources that attract tourists”. Global and multifunctional capitals constitute the second category. Being political capitals with strong economic and commercial functions these usually dominate their nation with dominance reflected in a concentration of cultural and heritage resources. Maitland & Ritchie (2010a: 18) aver that their strong economic role also “makes them significant in business tourism and a focus for mobilities”. Third, are the class of historic and former capitals which would be cities that previously enjoyed capital city status or remain as historic capitals of smaller states. Sometimes these cities evidence a legacy of heritage and cultural assets which is disproportionate to their current status so making them attractive to cultural tourists (Maitland, 2012b). Finally, the category of (re) emerging capitals are those cities which have either gained or reclaimed capital status as states have achieved independence sometimes as a consequence of the end of empires or because of processes of devolution (Maitland & Ritchie, 2010a).

Overall, within the surge of scholarship that has occurred around urban tourism (especially since 2000) there has been only a relatively small number of research investigations that have interrogated the role of capitalness for tourism development. It is observed that the majority of extant studies on capital city tourism have taken place in the global North with research reported from North America, Australasia and several European cities (Hall, 2002; Pearce, 2007; Huang & Lee, 2009; Maitland & Ritchie, 2010a; Diekmann & Cloquet, 2012; Smith & Ebejer, 2012; Smith & Puczko, 2012). Only limited writings so far have appeared on capital city tourism in the global South (Heath & Kruger, 2010; Jolliffe & Bui, 2010; Saidi, 2012; Du Preez, 2018).

Tourism research in Africa’s capital cities
A review of the state of existing literature on tourism in African capital cities is the focus of attention in this section of material. The discussion is organised into two sub-sections which relate respectively to study Methods and Results. The findings present an overview of the growth of research on African capital cities, its uneven geography, thematic focus and relationship to international capital city tourism.
Methods
A data base was developed of research publications focused on tourism in capital cities of Africa. The criteria that guided inclusion in our data base was that a publication must be a book/chapter, journal or proceedings article in which a substantive focus is on tourism in a specific African capital city. The identification process for relevant publications for inclusion involved the use of Google Scholar, the largest accessible bibliographic metadata data base. As an additional step we searched “related items” or references found in papers in order to assess whether they met our inclusion criteria for our review and analysis of tourism research on Africa’s capital cities. The terms searched for were “tourism” and “name of capital city”. A secondary search was conducted for “hotels” and “name of capital city”. The focus was on the political or administrative capitals of nation states. Excluded from the study were dependent territories (such as St Helena), states with limited recognition (such as Sahrawi Arab Democratic Republic or Somaliland) or overseas regions of France (such as Reunion). Former capital cities such as Blantyre, Lagos or Dar es Salaam also were not included in the study. In total therefore 54 searches were undertaken for the capital cities of both African continental and island sovereign states. The capital cities under scrutiny varied in population size from less than 50 000 in the case of Victoria, Seychelles to over 10 million for Cairo, Egypt or Kinshasa, Democratic Republic of Congo. A limitation of the research was that it was able to capture only English-language publications so that an under-representation may occur with the exclusion of articles in French, Portuguese or Spanish language publications.

Results
In total the search generated 112 scholarly publications on tourism in African capital cities. The majority of the captured publications – 79.5 percent (n =89) - were recorded as journal articles, the remainder were books, book chapters or proceedings contributions. Over the past decade as the African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure has emerged as one of the leading outlets for African tourism and hospitality research it is not surprising that the journal accounts for the largest individual share of published journal articles concerning tourism issues in Africa’s capital cities. Other notable serials for publishing research on African capital cities are Development Southern Africa and GeoJournal of Tourism and GeoSites. Nevertheless, it is observed that a considerable number of research studies on tourism in Africa’s capital cities appear in journals which are not dedicated to tourism studies.

Table 1: Tourism research on African capital cities: Year of publication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year of Research Publication</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-2000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000-2009</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010-2019</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>69.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2020 – 2021</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors

Table 1 reveals the date of publication of those research contributions captured on African capital cities. Although no date limitation was imposed for the search for relevant publications it is evident that the overwhelming majority of searched items were recorded for the post-2010 period. Only 9.8 percent of research outputs concerning tourism in African capital cities appeared prior to 2010. The concentration of research in the post-2010 period can be interpreted as a general reflection of the growth of African tourism scholarship as a whole during this period as well as the appearance and expansion of greater publication opportunities linked to the burst of the production of new open access online journals (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2013, 2019; Senbeto et al., 2021).
### Table 2: Tourism research on African capital cities: Geography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Capital City</th>
<th>Number of publications</th>
<th>Research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abuja, Nigeria</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ofobraku &amp; Bheabunike, 2013; Ezenagu, Diminy &amp; Olabinjo, 2019; Majebi, 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addis Ababa, Ethiopia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ogato, 2014; Berhanu, Raghuvarshani &amp; Suryabagavan, 2017; Mesgebe, 2020; Lammm, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algiers, Algeria</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Perkins, 2013; Beghadbane, 2019; Souiher &amp; Rezzaz, 2020; Allou-Ami Moussa, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antananarivo, Madagascar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gossling, Schumacher, Morelle, Berger &amp; Heck, 2004; Boswell, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bamako, Mali</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Bruno, Yang, Tian, Xie, &amp; Shao, 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cairo, Egypt</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nasser, 2007; Kawzy, 2010; Al-Saadi &amp; Ababneh, 2017; Yasin, Abdelmaboud, Saad, &amp; Qoura, 2019; El-Sherif &amp; Afifi, 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conakry, Guinea</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Szajneder, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dakar, Senegal</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Bortolot, 1999; Murphy, 2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaborone, Botswana</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Mbaiwa, Toteng &amp; Moswete, 2007; Mahachi-Chatibura, 2015; Sigwele, Prinsloo &amp; Pelser, 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kampala, Uganda</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Emmanuel, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kigali, Rwanda</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gatinsini &amp; Donaldson, 2010; Sharpley &amp; Friedrich, 2016; Masaki, John &amp; Abel, 2021; Musango &amp; Rusbana, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Libreville, Gabon</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Othy &amp; Swart, 2016; Swart, Tichaawa, Othy &amp; Daniels, 2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilongwe, Malawi</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Khonje, Simatele &amp; Musavengane, 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luanda, Angola</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Assaf &amp; Barros, 2011; Van-Dunem, Coelho &amp; Bairroda, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lusaka, Zambia</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Nyirenda, Simadulaala &amp; Kaula, 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maputo, Mozambique</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Vignati &amp; Laumans, 2010; Laranjeira &amp; Laranjeira, 2017; Wong, 2020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maseru, Lesotho</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rogerson &amp; Letsie, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Niamey, Niger</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Gafarou, 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Traoré &amp; Salles, 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Port Louis, Mauritius</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Dabedooal, Dindoyal, Allam &amp; Jones, 2019; Nunkoo &amp; Ramkisson, 2010; Ramkisson &amp; Nunkoo, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretoria (Tshwane), South Africa</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>Otto &amp; Heath, 2009; Heath &amp; Kruger, 2010; Acha-Anyi, 2012, Sifilo, Maimela &amp; Tiadi, 2014; Acha-Anyi, 2015a, 2015b; Shai, Kleyhans &amp; Roeffzhe, 2016; Tshipala, Boukamba &amp; Coetzez, 2016; Anyumba, 2017; Acha-Anyi, 2018; Du Preez, 2018; Ngcwangu, Vibetti &amp; Robertson, 2018; Henama, Sifolo &amp; Molefe, 2019; Van der Merwe &amp; Rogerson, 2019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rabat, Morocco</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Belhaj, Bahl &amp; Akhssas, 2016; Benghadbain, 2019; Wagner &amp; Minca, 2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tripoli, Libya</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Rghei &amp; Nelson, 1994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunis, Tunisia</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Escher &amp; Schepers, 2008; Saidi, 2012; Sarmento, 2017; Coslett, 2019</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Windhoek, Namibia 5  Saarinen, 2010; Buning & Grunau, 2014; Saarinen, 2016; Steinbrink, Buning, Legant, & Schauwinhold., 2016; Woyo, 2021
Yaoundé, Cameroon 1  Tichaawa, 2017
Source: Authors. Note: In one case an article covered more than one capital city.

Table 2 shows the location for research publications pertaining to aspects of tourism in Africa’s capital cities. Several points must be noted. First, the analysis captured relevant studies for 31 (57.4 percent) of the 54 capital cities in Africa. Second, there is an uneven geographical spread of research works across the continent. Overall, a total of 77 of the 112 research publications (68.8 percent) concentrate in only ten capital cities. It is evident that five cities – namely Accra, Cairo, Harare, Nairobi and Pretoria/Tshwane - are responsible for almost half of the total research produced on African capital cities. Beyond this group of cities the next most important capital cities for tourism research are Windhoek (Namibia) followed by Addis Ababa (Ethiopia), Algiers (Algeria), Kigali (Rwanda) and Tunis (Tunisia). Three, for 23 of Africa’s capital cities no records could be traced of specific tourism-focused research publications. The most striking omission is, perhaps, Kinshasa (DR Congo), the second largest African capital city in terms of population size. Other examples of capital cities with no (English-language) publications on tourism are the following destinations all with populations exceeding one million inhabitants - Brazzaville (Congo), Freetown (Sierra Leone), Lomé (Togo), Mogadishu (Somalia), Monrovia (Liberia), N’Djamena (Chad), and Nouakchott (Mauritania). Four, of note is that whereas some of Africa’s newer capital cities, such as Abuja (Nigeria) and Lilongwe (Malawi), have attracted research attention from tourism scholars, others have not most notably Dodoma (Tanzania) and Yamoussoukro (Côte d’Ivoire). Indeed, whilst the capital of Côte d’Ivoire merits considerable attention in terms of air transport writings because of the significance of the Yamoussoukro declaration seemingly there has been minimal research focus specifically for tourism per se occurring in the nation’s capital.

Table 3: Tourism research on African capital cities: Major themes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Publications</th>
<th>Theme</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Planning (Tourism/Urban)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Culture/heritage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Sustainability; Technology; slum tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Hotels environmental management; environmental risks; festivals/events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ecotourism; business tourism; resident perceptions; tourism and hospitality work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Destination image; hotel management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Capitalness; Marketing; Branding; sports tourism; tour operators; informality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Walking tours; place identity; domestic tourism; leisure tourism; terrorism; social media; tourism history</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Others (x8)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Authors. Note: For most publications more than one theme was identified.

Table 3 shows the thematic foci which are evident concerning tourism research on Africa’s capital cities. Questions relating to tourism strategy and urban planning head the list of most common research issues under review and arguably are a reflection of the broader policy trend in African tourism research as a whole. Of note is that nearly 40 percent of research studies centre upon some type of ‘niche tourism’ development in capital cities which mirrors an observed trend for urban tourism research for the global South (Roberson & Roberson, 2021d). Among the many niches that have been investigated in African capital cities are dark tourism (Sharpley & Friedrich, 2016), ecotourism (Okello et al., 2012; Mbatia & Owuor, 2014; Ogato, 2014), sports tourism (Othy & Swart, 2016) and, suburban tourism (Sznajder, 2016). By far the most numerous are, however, works relating to culture/heritage or ‘slum’ or poverty tourism. It is observed that heritage tourism is most strongly represented in North African capital cities such as Algiers (Benghadbane, 2019), Cairo (Nasser, 2007), Rabat (Wagner &
Minca, 2014), Tripoli (Rgei & Nelson, 1994) and Tunis (Escher & Schepers, 2008; Sarmento, 2017; Coslett, 2019) whereas in capital cities in West, East and Southern Africa often there is greater emphasis upon culture (see eg Bruner & Kirschenblatt-Gimblett, 1994; Murphy, 2016; Larankeira & Laranjeira, 2017; Mwangi et al. 2020). The topic of ‘slum tourism’ attracts attention in Cairo (Mekawy, 2012), Accra (Aseye et al., 2015) and Nairobi (Chege & Waweru, 2014) as well as Windhoek (Steinbrink et al., 2016) and Pretoria/Tshwane (Anyumba, 2017) where the term ‘township tourism’ usually is preferred. Sustainability and the promotion of sustainable urban tourism emerges as a cross-cutting thread in many investigations. The role of new technologies to support tourism enterprises as well as tourism planning is also well-represented (Kiprutto et al., 2014; Sifolo et al., 2014; Ali, 2020).

Threats to the sustainable development of urban tourism are another vital international research theme (Panasiuk, 2020, 2021). In research on capital cities in Africa examples of such work relate almost exclusively to exogenous threats such as environmental risks, climate change, or natural disasters including floods (see eg. Sagoe-Addy & Addo, 2013; Musavengane et al., 2020; Atanga & Tichaawa, 2021) rather than endogenous threats such as ‘overtourism’. This said, host or resident attitudes towards tourism development have been shown to be a crucial determinant of the level of support for the tourism industry (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010; Ramkissoon & Nunkoo, 2011). For hotels in several of Africa’s capital cities a rich vein of studies investigates environmental management practices (eg. Mensah, 2006, 2007; Mensah & Blankson, 2013; Lamm, 2021); in addition, a number of studies are exploring the often neglected issues around work in tourism and hospitality enterprises (Kamau & Waudo, 2012; Zengeni & Zengeni, 2012; Deri et al., 2021). Although capital cities enjoy a competitive advantage for business tourism only a small number of studies touch upon questions pertaining to business tourism (eg. Rogerson & Letsie, 2013; Tichaawa, 2017; Gafarou, 2021). Historical studies are also sparse in the extant literature with the exception of rich works on Algiers (Perkins, 2013) as well as Cairo (Nasser, 2007).

An array of other themes are present in the current literature dealing with tourism in African capital cities. These include for example, branding, destination image, informality, place identity and walking tours (see Table 3). What is particularly striking is the existence of only a handful of studies that address ‘capitalness’ and of how the capital city function impacts the specific character of tourism which takes place in African capital cities. For Tshwane two useful contributions have appeared. Heath & Kruger (2010) highlight that capital city status does not necessarily constitute a motivation for tourism and what is important is branding and positioning. It was stressed that for South Africa’s capital city branding offers a unique destination marketing challenge and that it is necessary to carefully manage “often-contrasting associated images and perceptions” surrounding the capital city (Heath & Kruger, 2010: 63). In a parallel analysis Du Preez (2018) probes how Tshwane uses existing resources to address negative perceptions of the capital city being viewed as a ‘dull’ or ‘uninteresting’ environment for tourism development. In Tunis Saidi (2012) examines the heritagisation and touristification processes that are transforming this capital city into what is styled as “an open air museum”. Heritage tourism practices include efforts to revive and strengthen the nation’s memory by heritagising and idealising historical figures, objects and places, most importantly in the Old City. Saidi (2012: 84) documents a range of activities to remind people of Tunis status as capital and that a participatory rhetoric is adopted in which foreign and local tourists are invited to discover “capitalness through performances that incorporate both spatial and temporal elements”.
Conclusion
The study of tourism and capital cities is a special category of urban tourism. In Africa urban tourism is a field of research which is relatively overlooked particularly as compared to tourism in rural environs. This paper has reviewed extant writings on tourism in African capital cities. The analysis points to an upturn of research over the past decade albeit with a concentration of scholarly contributions on a small group of cities and many capitals lacking any research on aspects of the local tourism industry. Prominent thematic foci in research on capital cities are tourism and planning related issues and the development and impacts of particular forms of niche tourism, the most significant being heritage and culture. As yet only minimally represented in Africa literature is the role of ‘capitalness’ in defining and impacting the character of capital city tourism. With capital cities projected to be among the leading foci for expanding rates of urban growth across the African continent the case exists both for a more extended research agenda on tourism in Africa’s capital cities and of the impact of capitalness on tourism development, past and present.

References


