Research Trends and Perspectives on Domestic Tourism in Kenya: A Review

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Abstract

The quantity and quality of research output available on the subject of domestic tourism in Kenya is yet to be sufficiently documented. This review evaluates trends in the studies carried out on this subject and establishes perspectives revealed in these studies' findings. Methodologically, this is a conceptual review of integrative nature in which the reviewer summarized the findings of other studies conducted on domestic tourism in different parts of Kenya. Both published and unpublished works addressing domestic tourism in Kenya, and authored in the English language from January 1990 to August 2020 have been considered in the review. The reviewer used keywords to search relevant databases, arriving at thirty two pieces of work that were reviewed. The analysis focuses on themes covered by previous studies, methodologies used, and perspectives revealed in key findings. The review established a gap in existing literature in terms of quantity, quality, and scope, as discussed in the document. Recommendations are highlighted on ways to improve future research on domestic tourism in Kenya. This review will inform future approaches to research on domestic tourism in Kenya, for better policies and practice.

Keywords: Domestic tourism, perspectives, research trends, policy, Kenya

Introduction

Before the Coronavirus disease of 2019 (COVID 19), the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) had predicted the number of international tourists to reach 2.3 million by 2027 and could generate US $3.4 billion (Oxford Business Group, 2020). Tourism is either domestic or foreign, but many African countries have either ignored or underestimated domestic tourism (Kabote, Mamimine & Muranda, 2019). The reason for this scenario is partly because international tourism generates the much needed foreign exchange (Kihima, 2015). However, this is slowly changing with increasing recognition of the role that domestic tourism plays to the economy and its contribution. Consequently, tourism statistics are now highlighting domestic tourism performance. Domestic tourism is regarded as more stable in many developing nations that have adopted it, for it is not as sensitive to international interruptions of terrorism, global financial crisis, and politics as foreign tourism is (Mazhande, Basera, Chikuta, Tapfuma, Ncube & Baipai, 2020). This form of tourism is important for job creation,
creation of business opportunities, poverty alleviation; it provides a reliable market throughout the year, stimulates infrastructure development, and contributes to gross domestic product (Makhaola & Proches, 2017).

More often, the positive economic impacts make most governments, business organisations and individuals to involve themselves in tourism development (Kumar & Hussain, 2014). Jago (2012) has introduced the positive economic impacts of the travel and tourism sector, including revenue generation, job creation, and infrastructure development. Other than economic benefits, environmental motivations associated with tourism development come from the enhancement of conservation of natural resources, and preservation of cultural and heritage factors that serve as tourism attractions (Skanavis & Sakellari, 2011). Socio-culturally, tourism has been touted as a path for fostering peace and understanding among communities, in addition to boosting international relations. Across Africa, tourism is targeted for its potential as a lucrative earner of foreign-exchange and a means of attracting foreign investment (Simpson, 2001).

Globally, a significant proportion of people staying in hotels and using tourism facilities are domestic tourists (Kabote et al., 2017). Studies have shown that African countries have the potential for domestic tourism. An example is South Africa, with 60% of it’s the overall visitor numbers to conservation areas being residents and 20% of its visitors originating from other African countries. Lilieholm and Romney (2000) records that 40% and 80% of the visitors to Mauritius and Nigeria’s national parks respectively are residents. In the Kenyan case, the Domestic Tourism Council was formed in 1984 to encourage local travel among Kenyan residents, especially during the season of low international arrivals. This was aimed at reducing seasonality and ensuring that tourism-related jobs are available all year round. However, it is only recently that evidence of significant growth in domestic tourism was realized (Oxford Business Group, 2020).

While international tourist arrivals increased by 37.33% from 1.47 million international arrivals to 2.03 million international arrivals in 2018, generating KES 157.5 billion, domestic bed-nights increased by 9.03% to 3.98 million from 3.78 million in the previous year (Government of Kenya GoK, 2018). Domestic tourism's dismal comparative performance gives the impression that Kenya is among the countries that are more of host destinations with insignificant local tourism. This overdependence on international tourism has led to a sharp drop in tourism performance following travel advisories and global economic crisis (Kwoba, 2018). More recently, the global COVID 19 pandemic threat on foreign travel has compounded the problems associated with international tourism, making domestic tourism promotion a subject worth of consideration.

Kenya and the rest of East Africa is yet to realize sufficient relevant research support for domestic tourism. Extant literature highlight a few isolated case studies (Kihima, 2015). For this reason, data on Kenya’s domestic tourism remains scanty (Kieti, Okello & Wishitemi, 2014). From earlier studies, little seems to have been documented on domestic tourism in Kenya. As a result, a better understanding the country’s domestic tourism sector and making informed decisions toward its development could be to a large extent a gamble with uncertain chances of hit and miss. This situation raises fundamental questions with regard to research on domestic tourism in Kenya. These question are: what type of literature exists on domestic tourism in Kenya? What is the quality of research done on this subject? And what is contained in the existing literature to inform domestic tourism policy and strategy? This review sort answers to this questions by analyzing the quality and quantity of research already done, key findings, recommendations made, and documented impacts of these studies on policy and practice. The present review analyzed the studies made in the past years to establish research
trends and perspectives revealed by the studies, which can redirect future strategies in positioning the domestic tourism subsector of Kenya's economy.

**The objective of the review**

Statistics have previously indicated that Kenya's tourism sector is to a large extent (70%) determined by international tourist arrivals, with the remaining 30% being accounted for by domestic tourism (Kenya Tourism Federation, 2010). Financial constraints and insufficient tourism knowledge, and scarcity of tourism programs and packages were cited in the Kenya National Tourism Policy of 2010 as the main reasons why most Kenyan nationals shun tourism (GoK, 2010). However, little has been done to help gain insight on domestic tourism with regard to the quantity, quality and types of the literature existing, publication years, purposes of the studies, methodologies used, locations of the studies, the target populations and sample sizes, key findings, and recommendations made by the authors over time. A better understanding of these could reveal existing knowledge gaps and would inform future inquiries on the subject. This insight is critical for future policy and management decisions in Kenya's domestic tourism.

**The concept of domestic tourism**

The widely accepted definition advanced by the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) in 2005, introduces “domestic tourist” as a resident of a country, travelling to a place within their own country in which they reside, for a period not exceeding twelve months outside their usual environment. In this respect, the term domestic tourism is defined by Singh (2009) with respect to visits and journeys made within a country where a person lived. To Mapingure et al. (2019), domestic tourism are the activities undertaken by resident visitors touring places within a country of origin. According to Hall and Lew (2009), domestic tourism involves residents within a country or economic territory visiting places within their own country. Contrary to the common notion that residents should only supply tourism goods and services to international tourists at destinations, Albrecht (2011), Larsen (2011), Urry (2002), and Urry (2011) have argued that even these local residents may become tourists. They posit, happens when they take moments to enjoy what their own country provides, while at the same time interacting with foreign visitors. From this conceptualization, we could as well understand that, someone participating in a tourism activity within their community is a domestic tourist. However, such a loose conceptualization of a domestic tourist would make anybody a tourist as well as blur the definite meaning of tourism as was explicitly advanced by the UNWTO in 2008 (Kabote, Mamimine & Muranda, 2017).

On his part, Becken (2009) has defined domestic tourism with respect to return journey that cover in excess of forty kilometres. Such trips should be to places beyond the usual environment of the traveler. His definition includes both day trips and overnight trips for any given purposes of travel. While some other definitions exclude work and school from recognizable domestic tourism activities, Bhuiyan et al. (2010), and Gogoi and Balaji (2015) have observed that tourism that involves students is a widely accepted form of tourism and therefore should not be left out of the domestic tourists’ category. Finally on the definition, Caletrio’s (2012) understanding of domestic tourism in relation to the tourist’s country of residence seems to be too general. Overall, in all these definitions, the common characteristic of domestic tourism is the exclusion of foreign nationals.

According to WTTC (2018), domestic travel is the main driving force of the travel & tourism in major economies. Before the COVID-19 outbreak, the globally domestic tourism average was impressively over 75% of the global tourism market (Demunter & Dimitrakopoulou, 2011; Ghimire, 2013; Yap & Allen, 2011). In its analysis of 2018 of the total
travel & tourism spending, the WTTC ranked Brazil first with 94% of her tourism spending coming from domestic tourists. Next to her were by China, India, Argentina and Germany each with 87%. Other countries that recorded higher levels of domestic spending at over 80%, were Japan, Mexico, the UK and the US. The expanding or already sizeable middle-class population, accounts for this increase in domestic tourism in recent years, especially in developing countries, thanks to the rise in spending power among domestic consumers (WTTC, 2018). There are strong arguments supporting the development of domestic tourism especially in developing countries, most of which corresponding to the advantages associated with international tourism (Hudson & Ritchie, 2002; Manono & Rotich, 2013).

Domestic tourism promotion in Kenya
In recent years, the Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) has developed strategic marketing campaigns targeting the domestic tourism market alongside foreign tourism marketing. The board started by initiating the campaign with #MagicalKenya followed by one with the #TembeaKenya hashtags. They both were meant to motivate domestic visits to the various diverse attractions in the country. In January 2016, this marketing body also initiated a $300,000 short message service (SMS) marketing campaign. The campaign was part of the recovery strategy for the tourism sector in Kenya, which the government began developing in 2014. Its aim was to draw more Kenyans to major tourist attractions (Kieti et al., 2014). In this campaigns, wildlife parks in the Mount Kenya, the Maasai Mara, the Tsavo and the Amboseli areas have been emphasized. Further to these initiatives, there have been efforts to introduce and implement subsidies on rates charged for domestic tourists during the low tourist season through campaigns requiring tour operators and hotels to comply (Kihima, 2015). Therefore, looking at these trends, it is either not clear or too early to conclude whether the country’s domestic tourism promotion and performance is on the right trajectory. This calls for well-focused studies that have the potential for yielding in-depth and extensive scientific research information and data. Such quality research output would aid in formulating policies and informing strategic decisions for vibrant domestic tourism in Kenya.

Method
This review is a result of analyzing and compiling information from secondary sources. Both published and unpublished research works were reviewed. The reviewer targeted documents in the category of journal articles, masters and doctoral theses, conference proceedings, and technical reports written in the English language. The reviewer obtained these articles from electronic databases, including the following: Science Direct, Google Scholar and local university websites and repositories. Various keywords including ‘Domestic tourism’, ‘Kenya domestic tourism’, ‘Kenya coast tourism’, 'local tourism in Kenya', and 'Kenya tourism’ were useful in this search. Internet search (using keywords) and document analysis were the appropriate methodology for this work. The reviewed articles are the ones produced from January 1990 to August 2020. As a conceptual offering, the review aimed at establishing trends in research studies carried out on domestic tourism in Kenya, and the different perspectives among researchers on this form of tourism in Kenya as documented in the existing literature. The work is based on documented findings on opinions, perceptions, and standpoints of different researchers and authors on this subject. Hence, the review analysed existing literature relating to domestic tourism in Kenya.

Review process
In the database search process for this review, the reviewer identified documents in the English language with titles matching the search topic. All the documents found in this search were
identified and listed. After the identification and listing of the titles, elimination of duplicates was done and screening of the remaining titles. Then all the abstracts were read and those that had promising titles were selected. The reviewer read through their respective abstracts to ensure that the studies focused on domestic tourism in Kenya and that they were of the period January 1990 to August 2020. The resulting pool of papers were then subjected to full text screening. The full texts screening process yielded data for the reviewer, with the reference lists of the chosen papers being checked for other eligible papers. In total, the analysis included a total of thirty two (32) papers. The pieces of information picked, noted and analysed from all the identified papers included: number and types of the literature, publication years, purposes of the studies, the methodology used, locations of the studies, the target population and sample sizes, key findings, and recommendations made by the authors. On these bases, common as well as divergent patterns of information and opinions were identified and discussed in detail. Finally, the reviewer made conclusions and recommendations.

### Analysis and results of the review

#### Numbers and types of documents reviewed

A total of thirty two (32) studies were found featuring domestic tourism in Kenya. The review revealed that it was until recently that the studies on domestic tourism in Kenya began to pick momentum. In the between 1990 and 2007, only two articles directly address this topic (Gakuru, 1993; Sindiga, 1996). The years that followed 2007 witnessed a sluggish increase in the number of studies on domestic tourism in Kenya. Articles in the most crucial peer-reviewed category were relatively few, a paltry 18, while studies in the Doctoral (Ph.D) theses category were four. Master's theses were nine in number (Table 1).

#### Table 1: Year, number, and type of documents analysed

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Source: Author’s analysis

#### Themes of studies in the studies reviewed

This review identified twelve (12) major themes in the studies carried out, with some of the studies covering more than one of these themes. However, the distribution of these studies...
across the identified themes was not uniform (Figure 1). Of the thirty two (32) papers reviewed, fifteen (47%) of them attempted to investigate the factors influencing motivation or choice of attractions or destinations by domestic tourists in Kenya (Kangu, Katuta & Mutinda, 2019; Kifworo, Okello & Mapelu 2020; Manono & Rotich, 2013; Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Ndivo, 2009; Ngari, 2017; Mawoo, 2015; Njagi, Ndivo & Manyara, 2017; Okello, Kenana & Kieti 2012; Omare, Kiage, Akama & Sulo, 2019; Omolo, 2008; Omondi, 2017; Wanjala, 2015). This predominant theme was followed by three (9%) of the studies which featured the status of attractions or destinations as assessed from the domestic tourists’ point of view (Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Ndivo, 2009; Ndivo et al., 2012). There were two studies (6%) that determined the efficacy of tourism appeal enhancers for domestic tourists (Maingi, 2014; Ndivo et al., 2012) and other eight (25%) studied the marketing mix or promotional strategies and their effect on destination or accommodation choice by domestic tourists (Chelagat & Otiso, 2012; Gakuru, 1993; Gichuhi, 2012; Kamau, Waweru, Lewa & Misiko, 2015; Kangu et al., 2019; Karoki, 2011; Ndung’u, 2010; Nyagaka, 2009).

The rest of the identified themes were each represented by one study. They are as follows: an investigation of the “nature and practice of domestic tourism” in Kenya and how “domestic tourism fits into the standardized international tourism model” (Kihima, 2015), to investigate “the economic significance and opportunities for promoting domestic tourism in Kenya” (Kwoba, 2018), to establish the “influence of place identity on the competitiveness of a tourist destination” (Barak, Maingi & Ndubi, 2019), to assess “the factors that hinder domestic tourism” (Omare, 2016), and to understand perception of Kenyans’ perceptions towards local tourism (Wanjala, 2015).

Other studies featured hotel guests’ perceptions and satisfaction (Mbuthia, Muthoni & Muchina, 2013); domestic tourism product attributes and positioning (Odudoh, 2010), how communication strategies influence domestic tourism in Nairobi National Park (Maiko, 2013), and lastly, examining the variability of the concept of domestic tourism (Sindiga, 1996). Therefore, it is evident that the research appeared to be overwhelmingly biased toward the...
theme of “investigating the factors influencing motivation/choice of attractions/destinations by local tourists in Kenya,” being represented by 15 (47%) of the studies.

Study areas, targeted population and samples
While all the thirty two studies reviewed targeted domestic tourists, a whopping twenty three (72%) of these were carried out wholly or partially in Nairobi County. This is the county where the country’s capital city is found and it goes by the same name, Nairobi. The other two different study areas were Kisii town (Kangu et al., 2019) and Machakos County (Barak et al., 2019). The towns of Nakuru, Mombasa, and Malindi formed part of the clusters for some of the studies, and were the next most preferred areas of study after Nairobi. Nairobi, therefore, remains the most preferred area of sampling for studies carried on domestic tourism in Kenya.

The targeted populations and samples varied among the studies reviewed as follows: youth in Nairobi (Njagi et al., 2017), tourism and hospitality operators (Gakuru, 1993; Gichuhi, 2012; Kwoba, 2018; Oduoho, 2010), and adult residents (Gakuru, 1993; Barak et al., 2019; Kamau et al., 2015; Kifworo et al., 2020; Maingi, 2014; Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012; Ndivo et al., 2012; Ndivo, 2009; Njagi et al., 2017; Okello et al., 2012; Omare, 2016; Omare et al., 2019; Wanjala, 2015). One of the studies compared samples of domestic tourists and non-tourists (Kifworo et al., 2020), and the other four mainly analyzed secondary data (Sindiga, 1996; Kihima, 2015; Karoki, 2011; Chelagat & Otiso, 2012). Two of the studies were carried out in more than one locality/city (Kamau et al., 2015; Omare, 2016; Omare et al., 2019), with Nakuru and Mombasa the preferred areas of study after Nairobi. A significant proportion of the studies carried out in Nairobi was done at shopping malls (Mutinda & Mayaka, 2012; Kifworo et al., 2020; Ndivo, 2009; Nyagaka, 2009). Three studies targeted middle-income employees (Omolo, 2008; Ngari, 2017; Oduoho, 2010), and four reached to Government officers and private sector players (Gakuru, 1993; Maiko, 2013; Manono & Rotich, 2013).
Methodologies adopted by the reviewed studies

88% of the studies (28 out of 32) applied descriptive cross-sectional survey design, with 16% of them applying mixed-method (qualitative and quantitative). 4 (12.5%) of the studies deviated from these approaches and used secondary data. In the predominant descriptive cross-sectional survey design approach, quantitative data was collected from samples by questionnaires. Only a few (4) of the studies tested a model or theory.

Findings and outcome of the reviewed studies

This section summarizes the key findings and outcomes from the studies that were reviewed on the subject, featuring the subject of domestic tourism in Kenya. The review indicates a significant number of noteworthy trends and findings. First, the majority (47%) of the studies focused on factors influencing the choice of attractions or destinations. Of these, the highest proportion of it (31%) were listing and ranking these factors in the orders of their significance (Barak et al., 2019; Kamau et al., 2015; Kwoba, 2018; Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Ndivo, 2009; Njagi et al., 2017; Okello et al., 2012; Omare, 2016; Omare et al., 2019; Wanjala, 2015). Secondly, it is apparent from the review that domestic tourism in Kenya is mostly influenced and affected by socio-economic factors. Regarding this, one of these studies (Ndivo, 2009) went further to note that that interest factors were significantly different among different domestic tourists. The third aspect pertained to marketing and promotion of domestic tourism in Kenya, where a lesser proportion (22%) of the studies reviewed emphasized the need for enhancing the quantity and quality of the general information and promotional information about domestic tourist attractions and destinations (Barak et al., 2019; Kihima, 2015; Kwoba, 2018; Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Ndivo et al., 2012; Omare, 2016; Wanjala, 2015). Mass media was noted to be the dominant channel used in marketing and promotion of domestic tourism. However, on the same issue of promotion, there was no single account of social media marketing being harnessed for this purpose. Most of the promotional messages assessed in the articles were biased towards targeting foreign tourists, family groups, and corporates. These groups formed the key target segments of the market.

Among the reviewed studies were those that noted a lack of proper segmentation in the domestic market, absence of niche markets, and a narrow diversity of products and services in their other major findings on domestic tourism in Kenya (Barak et al., 2019; Kifworo et al., 2020; Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Okello et al., 2012). Two sets of the authors (Mutinda & Mayaka 2012; Okello et al., 2012) reiterated the common, and long-held notion concerning the general state of tourism in the country. This is with regard to many of the tourist in Kenya, both domestic and foreign having a preference for the Kenyan beaches at the coast and for few selected wildlife parks as their destinations of choice. The northern part of Kenya largely seems to be neglected. One of the articles reviewed (Kihima, 2015) made six key observations that were not made by the others. First, he made an attempt of profiling the Kenyan domestic tourists. He also observed a lack of implementation of existing promotional strategies, and pointed to the minimal research done on domestic tourism in Kenya. The same author further recommended the need to offer incentives to promoters of domestic tourism in Kenya. His writings also advised against too much regulation and licensing of domestic tourism. He, too, is the sole author who appreciated that there were relatively insignificant visits to Kenya's heritage sites by domestic tourists.

Discussion of results

The present review has revealed a wide gap in scientific knowledge about domestic tourism in Kenya. This is indicated by the small number of studies (32) previously carried out on this subject area in the last 30 years. Of all these works reviewed, eighteen (18) of them were peer-
reviewed articles, while the rest were predominantly unpublished academic theses. This could be a clear pointer to the infancy stage in which research on the subject of domestic tourism in the country. The situation appears to be more wanting when further analyzed with regard to special forms of domestic tourism, for example, domestic tourism by regions, domestic ecotourism, domestic heritage tourism, and domestic sports tourism, among other sub-categories. Apparently, there was no literature existing on such topics making the deficiency in relevant literature even more manifest.

One area that was much common with the researchers was the topic of factors influencing the choice of attractions or destinations by domestic tourists. Possibly, this is because researchers found it relatively less cumbersome to design their studies around this subject of factors influencing choice. Thus, this subject accounted for a whopping 15 out of 32 (47%) of studies touching on this theme. It should be noted that there are other wide-ranging areas of interest in domestic tourism studies that researchers should explore. In this review, the methodological approach to research in domestic tourism was predominantly limited to cross-sectional sample surveys, where self-administered semi-structured questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data. For enhanced comprehensiveness of research in this field, it could be better to have more diverse and more robust methodologies adopted. This should include applying existing theories or models in the studies. Concerning the use of theories, only two of the reviewed studies considered a model in their approach (Kifworo et al., 2020; Ndivo, 2009). A few others (25%) of the studies used samples of government tourism officers to investigate policies and strategies formulated towards improving domestic tourism in Kenya. It appeared that crucial information found from government authorities seemed to be limited or missing in the previous studies. It may also be difficult to generalize the findings of most of the reviewed studies because of biased sampling. A few of them appear to be sufficiently objective in the sampling done to allow for generalization.

It was clear that most of the researchers on domestic tourism preferred carrying out their studies in Nairobi, the country’s capital city. Probably this is because it could be relatively cost-efficient and convenient for them, given the high metropolitan population and the central location of Nairobi. However, this trend is grossly biased considering the need for coverage of the whole country as the area of interest for domestic tourism. The problem of limited information being available for active and potential domestic tourists was evident. This is in spite of several decades of multi-agency tourism promotional campaigns in Kenya. Results in some of the reviewed studies ranked ‘marketing information’ as the least significant sources that persuaded domestic tourists to visit their attractions or destinations. This calls for more targeted and more quality information to be strategically and more specifically communicated to domestic tourists, if promoters want to effectively influence the domestic market. To achieve this, marketers should reconsider their communication strategies for this segment, which seems not to be sufficiently reached. Alternatively, this could as well be an indication that the promotional information alone is not enough to persuade a population whose motivations, perceptions, attitudes, and domestic travel intentions are negative. Researchers should consider conducting studies that will focus on these innate personal attributes to effectively explore and address this scenario. Findings of which could appropriately inform future promotional efforts that could address this attributes, resulting in successful subsequent marketing communications.

Apart from using aggressive marketing communication to increase domestic tourism in Kenya, industry players need to diversify tourism products and to open up remote and less-visited destinations for domestic visits (Ndivo et al., 2012). The country is endowed with diverse natural, economic and cultural resources suitable for developing custom-designed tourism products and packages. Success in attracting domestic tourists to pristine destinations
and to unfamiliar attractions will create an opportunity for a wider impact of domestic tourism in the country. In the long run, enhanced domestic tourism performance in non-traditional destinations stands a chance of roping in international tourists. It is at this point that such visits will sustain vibrant tourism activity with far-reaching, desirable social, economic and cultural multiplier effects.

**Conclusion and recommendations**

This review sort to reveal the existing research trends and perspectives on domestic tourism in Kenya. Evidently, there is a wide gap in scientific knowledge about this form of tourism in Kenya. This scenario calls for more studies to be carried out on this subject. Future studies should especially be done outside Nairobi. Similarly, the theme of “factors influencing the choice of attractions/destinations by domestic tourists” is relatively over-researched, as far as this review shows. Therefore, it is imperative for researchers to identify more diverse areas of interest to be investigated on domestic tourism in Kenya. On the same note, more diverse and more robust methodologies should be widely adopted and be used, and should involve applying existing theories and models in the studies. This will improve the quality of research output on this subject. The revelation that a few studies have included the opinions of government officials points to the fact that, in future more studies should target government tourism officers when sampling respondents to assess the government’s policies and strategies towards improving domestic tourism. Little can done with regard to promoting and enhancing this form of tourism in Kenya if the position of the government as a stakeholder is sidelined. Further, it seems difficult to generalize most of the reviewed studies’ findings because of the apparent bias in sampling. Therefore, future studies should adopt more robust and less biased sampling techniques. This could include applying mixed methods, picking samples from a wider population, and applying more advanced methods of statistical analysis.

The reviewed studies pointed to a lack of quality marketing information for domestic tourists, calling for more targeted promotional information. This information should be strategically and more specifically communicated by domestic tourism promoters to effectively win the domestic market. In this regard, marketers should reconsider their communication strategies for the domestic tourism market segment. Currently, this segment seem not to be sufficiently reached. Perhaps, future research focusing on motivations, perceptions, attitudes, and domestic tourists’ domestic travel intentions and behaviours could come in handy. Such focused studies could effectively reveal the domestic tourists' psychographic and psychological status and inclinations. Thorough knowledge of this will facilitate communicating to them more effectively and efficiently in future promotions.

Another important understanding from this review is a narrow range of tourism products on offer of domestic tourists in Kenya. This needs to be widened by product developers through diversification by innovation and creativity on their product and service offers. Alongside this, the government of Kenya at both the national level and the county level, and other tourism industry players need to work towards opening up remote and less-visited destinations and attractions. Domestic visits in the country could be enhanced by, among other measures, providing the necessary infrastructure, security, and an enabling safe environment. The realization and achievement of a vibrant and robust domestic tourism in Kenya, stands a chance of ultimately open up many of the country's destinations for increased foreign tourism. Hence, a double blessing.

In the wake of the prevailing COVID 19 pandemic situation, international tourism stands restricted and unpredictable, at least in the foreseeable future. It therefore appears that domestic tourism could be the only sure way to redeem the tourism industry and keep it afloat as international markets await the possibility of safer long haul travel. Since Kenya appears to
have sufficient natural and cultural resources for tourism development, the country could do well to exploit every existing opportunities to reap the maximum benefits that come with developing the domestic tourism sub-sector.

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