

case study

Targeting Kenya's Coastal Gastronomic Market: A case study

By Anthony Pepela and Robert M. O'Halloran

Introduction

In Kenya, research on local foods relating to sustaining the local populace's nutritive needs have been conducted (Kabuye & Ngugi, 2001; Maundu, 2001) and several menu cook-books, denoting some of the local signature foods and also their link to the local agricultural practices, (Kinyua, 2004) exist. However, there is little focus on how these foods can be used to position the country as a gastronomic hub. There is a need to diversify the variety of local dishes and increase market differentiation (Fukushima et al., 2010). The link between cuisine and place often assumes the form of geographical indications (Bowen 2010). Proximity to urban areas is also important in developing local food tourism. Consequently, communities will find that where there is some pre-existing tourism infrastructure, local food tourism is easier and more cost-effective to develop (Dougherty, Brown & Green 2013).

The Kenya government's focus on tourism is to increase the number of tourist arrivals per annum and tourist expenditures (Obonyo et al, 2013). The development of gastro-tourism and other food-related tourism has focused typically on cultural aspects of food such as how, when, why and where food is prepared and consumed (Gillespie, 2002). Additionally, gastronomic studies reveal a constant need for authentic tourism products and or unique culinary experience by food oriented tourists (Obonyo et al, 2013). However in western Kenya, for example, gastro-tourism is not well promoted or developed in the Western Tourists Circuit (Obonyo, 2013). The Kenyan Coastal Circuit has a variety of local dishes prepared in designate outlets though no promotional materials or positioning strategies are in place. Product suppliers need to provide a range of goods and services that will distinguish it from other destinations in order to attract a steady stream of visitors and be successful (Hashimoto and Telfer, 2006). With the intent to better develop Kenya Coastal food tourism.

The Kenyan coastal region, which covers a 400 kilometer coastal strip, and constitutes the Mijikenda, Bajuni, Orma, Sagala, and Swahili ethnic communities has to date, 70 species of indigenous; wild fruits, vegetables tubers and other related groups (Pakia, 2001). The area also boasts of a record 731 fish species. These food types however, are seasonal and most of them are only consumed during drought and food shortage periods (NEMA), 2010). The introduction of a wide range of exotic food types, is a result of the attraction of a multiplicity of ethnic and racial groups

(Indians, Pakistanis, Italians, Britons and Arabs) who have influenced the use of spices and cooking styles in the region. This has led to a diminished knowledge of preparation and utilisation of indigenous foods. This mixture of cuisines has created a variety of signature foods. The Kenya Coast is also the busiest tourist hub in the country (Akama & Kieti, 2007).

Regrettably, not all destinations, including Kenya, capitalize on the potential opportunity gastronomy provides (Opole, 2001). Many destinations have not tried to use gastronomy as part of their marketing activities or have not done so effectively (Richards, 2005). However, in 2012, M. Ndegwa, Managing Director of the Kenya Tourism Board stated that "We are keen on diversifying tourism products and Kenya's rich cuisine is an ideal platform to support this effort". Previously, the government had emphasized sports and culture tourism. Currently, plans are in top gear to promote culinary tourism (Xinhua News, 2012). In a Business Daily Africa article, Fayo (2012) pointed out that the Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) has been spearheading the promotion of culinary tourism in the country and seeing it launch a Chefs Delight Award. At the inaugural Chefs Delight Award in Nairobi Kenya Tourism Board (KTB) Managing Director Muriithi Ndegwa, termed the award scheme as 'an ideal platform' for promoting culinary tourism in the country (Fayo, 2012). The new tourism portfolio is set to put Kenya on the global map amongst the countries known for their local cuisine such as India, China and Thailand. This effort has also created a number of well-known chefs. For example, Kenyan born and an internationally trained chef, Kiran Jethwa indicated that "Kenya has a chance to gain from culinary tourism by attracting both the domestic and international tourist" and that "Kenya has incredible ingredients that attract international tourism and it is a step forward to promote the cuisine market" (Fayo, 2012).

Local cuisine is one of the most enjoyable activities that tourists undertake while on holiday (Getz, 2000). As such, many residents in source markets may be familiar with, and indeed develop quite a fondness for indigenous cuisine (Richards, 2005). As a result, food currently plays an important role in differentiating destinations because cuisines are branded by nationality (Boniface, 2006). Africa's social life in general centers on good wholesome food. One key component of the relationship between food and tourism is that of the promotion of traditional foods. In Kenya, tourists mainly come for the wildlife safari and beach tourism attractions. The Kenyan tourism industry needs to diversify their products and include more cultural tourism based on components of which food and drink is especially important (Okech, 2014). Food tourism has

Anthony Pepela is affiliated with Pwani University. **Robert A. O'Halloran** is affiliated with East Carolina University.

been hailed as a vehicle for regional development, strengthening local production through backward linkages in tourism supply-chain partnerships (Renko, Renko, & Polonijo, 2010; Telfer & Wall, 1996). This regarded as an important vehicle in delivering sustainable tourism (Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Simms, 2009; Everett & Slocum, 2013).

In Kenya, the promotion of food as a component of its destination attractiveness is in its infancy at both the international and domestic level. The context of this contribution is to underpin such developments using the rationale that, in order to maintain and enhance local economic and social vitality, creating back linkages between tourism and food production sectors can add value to an area's economy (Okech, 2014). Okech (2014) also says that beyond the famous Big Five tourism phenomena, the role of local communities in promoting culinary tourism as part of cultural heritage development needs to be developed. Given that Kenya is not a wine growing destination, it needs to develop local culinary tourism tied to cultural heritage promotion in the local communities (Okech, 2014). Kenya is a multi-ethnic nation, with 42 different communities making up a highly diverse mix of cultures all with food specialties. Kenya is currently interested in exploring a global mind set for food as a tourism attraction for local and global visitors (Fukushima et al., 2010). Recent research has linked gastronomy to Kenya's ability to create a niche market for the gastronomy guest and therefore enhance the role of authenticity in gastronomy and a guest's appreciation of the region's epicurean offerings (Pepela, 2013).

Kenyan native foods can be presented as an icon which the local population can identify as a common cultural unifying trait. Food tourism can provide Kenya with a brand more powerful than a national dress and more easily identifiable than a Massai Moran (Okech, 2014). As most cuisines are branded by nationality such as French, Italian or Spanish, the opportunity still exists for Kenya to create a positive and successful relationship between food, culture and the destination (Okech, 2014).

Case Objectives

After reading, analysing and reviewing this case and its content, students will:

- Have a working knowledge and be able to explain culinary, food or gastronomic tourism products and services on a global scale.
- Be familiar with the terminology associated with cultural and heritage tourism and its relationship to food.
- Identify target markets of visitors that may be interested in culinary tourism and their food preferences.
- Be familiar with, and have a working knowledge framework of tourism planning and development focused on food.
- Be able to develop a plan to develop culinary tourism in diverse locations.

Gastronomy and Visitors

Food and drink are a natural intersection of interests (Wolf, 2002). A unique or particularly good dining experience may not necessarily be why tourists visit a particular destination, but it can help make the visit a memorable experience. A Longwoods Survey (1994) noted that travelers experienced unique dining experiences in Denver, Colorado. In that case, signature restaurants, such as the Buckhorn Exchange, distinguished themselves by providing game foods such as Buffalo, Alligator, and Rattlesnake. This theme may have helped to create an image of food uniqueness for Denver (O'Halloran, 1996). In another example, special guests at Timberline Lodge in Oregon receive a satchel of Chukar Cherries, a bag of Mt. Hood Trail Mix, a mélange of dried Oregon cranberries, and a package of Oregon Hazelnuts when they arrive in their room (McDonald, 2003). Obviously, tourism related businesses benefit from promoting local foods and cuisine (O'Halloran and Deale, 2004).

In food consumption related literature, social-demographic variables are commonly used to predict food consumption patterns (Shenoy, 2005). This is because one's choice of food, the way it is presented, served and eaten, speaks volumes about who one is and one's position in a group (Richards, 2005). According to Shenoy (2005), social theorists and empiricists studying food consumption have generally looked at the influence of socioeconomic and demographic variables on dining out, frequency of eating out, and money spent on food at home and outside the home (Warde & Martens, 2000).

Food Physiological Theory (FPT) relates to the extreme traits of food neophobia and food neophilia. Food neophobia influences the initial tasting of unfamiliar food. People with this personal trait are reluctant to eat and /or avoid novel foods, food products, dishes and cuisine (Hobden & Pliner, 1995). This unfortunately then becomes a major hurdle for destinations whose purpose is to increase demand for their regionally produced foods. Neophiliacs, on the other hand, are able to discriminate food items in their taste evaluations and hedonic ratings (Ritchey, Frank, Hursti & Tuorila, 2003). They tend to seek something new as a means of increasing sensation and pleasure (Kim, Sun & Eves, 2010). Guests taking gastronomic tours seem to show neophilic tendencies, a liking for novel food flavors, and a high food-involvement (Cohen and Aveli, 2004). The two traits, neophobia and neophilia, have a likelihood of predicting future food intake and could have a significant relationship with satisfaction and loyalty of the guest (Cohen and Aveli, 2004).

To understand guests' thoughts that could closely relate to their behavior in regards to appreciating novel foods, one has to understand their intrinsic inclination. One's perception of what is exotic, inedible or palatable depends on one's personal tastes, cultural preferences and aesthetics. These perceptions are developed from childhood and may affect future consumption of novel foods. In this case, Kenyan Coastal foods are framed as novel foods for the global

visitor. In fact, Cohen and Aveli (2004), posit that tourists who appreciate and enjoy foreign food at home are more likely to experience the local food at a destination. It is therefore imperative to consider the guests physiological inclination so as to adduce their appreciation of local foods of a destination. Therefore, it can be argued that cuisine and tourism are natural partners. Visitors are interested in local and regional foods and their ties to history and culture. Regional foods could be a great addition to the tourism product mix and promoting food tourism will require coordination from all aspects of the tourism and business community. Local members of restaurant associations, tourism agencies, and chambers of commerce, plus product marketing organizations such as the producers' associations of the various product groups all have a stake in developing food as a tourism attraction that could benefit a region, and supply chain considerations can make food tourism become a reality in many places.

Tourists on Kenya's Coastal Strip

Tourism trends along beach destinations are shifting from the four S's (sun, sand, sex and surf) to an overall lifestyle that corresponds to people's daily activities (Hobson & Dietrich, 1994). Leading gastronomic destinations enjoy success stories due to carefully combining the local food resources of the region together with cultural and environmental factors and also counting on the presence of tourism partners such as restaurants, hotels and travel agencies. Guests who visit local food outlets with the sole purpose of sampling the cuisine may be referred to as gastronomic guests. According to Hall and Sharples (2003), a gastronomic tourist is someone whose primary motivation while visiting a destination is to sample local food products. They may visit a region with a primary reason to attend food festivals or secondary reason to visit restaurants to try local cuisine. This implies that the local cuisine of a destination is likely to have an impact on tourism (Richards, 2005). For example, many inbound tourists are booked in hotels where food and beverage plays an integral part of their stay. The same applies to some domestic tourists and tourists who reside in their friends or relatives homes while on vacation who end up being entertained in commercial food outlets. Along Kenya's coastal strip, some of the outlets (restaurants and kiosks) serve

the region's gastronomic cuisine and some hotels often have food theme nights where the local cuisine is served to visitors. However, it is not clear whether tourists truly seek a region for their cuisine and or whether it may be used as a niche for positioning the region as a gastronomic destination. In terms of gastronomic items, a sampling of popular signature foods of Kenya's coastal strip region include:

- Nyama ya mchuzi (Oriental Beef Stew)
- Biryani ya kuku (Chicken Biryani)
- Samaki wa kupaka (Poached Stuffed Fish)
- Pilau ya ngombe (Swahili Beef Pilaf)
- Kamba wa nazi (Prawns Cooked in Coconut Milk)
- Mbaazi ya nazi (Pigeon Peas in Coconut Milk)
- Mushakiki (Marinated and Roasted Lamb/ Goat Meat Skewers)
- Matobosha (Sweet Swahili Dumplings flavored with Cardamom and Coconut Milk).

This region is inhabited by a multiplicity of ethnic communities (Mijikenda, Bajuni, Orma, Sagala and Swahili) and immigrant groups (Britons, Indians, Pakistanis, Italians and Arabs) who have greatly influenced the region's gastronomy. The majority of the in-bound guests seek accommodations from the 75 star rated hotels in the region. The majority of those living within the country reside in the 387 standard hotels found in the region and dine in any of the 411 restaurants or food outlets located at attraction sites. The tourism industry is a major source of employment at the coastal strip, creating between 9-10% or 175,700 jobs while generating an estimated 360,000 jobs in the informal sector (Republic of Kenya, 2009).

Though tourism is a major contributor to the coastal economy, its popularity appears to be slowly diminishing. The question is; can Kenyan gastronomic or food tourism be an answer to the diminishing visitor numbers? Based on a study by Pepela (2013) a breakdown of the number of food outlets sampled by segment in the study and food item popularity as rated by the respondents are presented for both the North coast and Mombasa Island in Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

Studies have also pointed out that the more one progressed in education, the higher the chances were of becoming more exposed to and appreciating a variety of novel foods of new regions. These find-

Table 1

Kenya Coast Food Outlets

	North Coast			Mombasa Island			Total
	A	B	C	A	B	C	
Total number of outlets	10	15	14	6	11	4	60
Total from each in the sample	3	5	4	2	3	1	18

A - Stands for eateries at guest attractions sites, B - Restaurants serving local cuisine,

C- Hotels with local cuisine theme day(s)

Table 2**Food Item Popularity in Kenya's coastal region**

Food items	Percentage of respondents rating this item in the top five
Biryani ya kuku (Chicken Biryani)	(62.2%)
Samaki wa kupaka (Poached Stuffed Fish)	(48.1%)
Pilau ya ngombe (Swahili Beef Pilaf)	(38.4%)
Kamba wa nazi (Prawns Cooked in Coconut Milk)	(27.5%)
Mbaazi ya nazi (Pigeon Peas in Coconut Milk)	(25.1%)
Matobosha (Small Baked Sweets)	(23.4%)

ings were in tandem with those of Verbeke and Lopez (2005) which indicated that one's level of education could affect their appreciation of wine based on their intrinsic inclination. In relation to novel foods, the Burusnukul et al (2011) study among restaurant clients in Thailand found that the level of education did not affect guests' appreciation of novel foods. However, like this study, other empirical studies have shown positive significant association between education and eating at ethnic restaurants as well as the number of places chosen for dining out (Warde & Martens, 2000; Guzmán & Cañizares, 2011).

These results suggest that, to appropriately capture the niche market for the Kenyan coastal signature foods based on the guest's socio-demographic variables, their marital status and level of education should be targeted. In terms of marital status, guests who are single should be targeted. However, the married, who take the highest representation of the population, should not be ignored. Past studies by Smallwood et al., (1991) and CAI Et AL., (1995) concur, as they posited, that the married population may also have a big impact on choice of food. This is because they take the bigger proportion of the population yet they have a higher probability of eating out.

In terms of level of education, persons with a university degree should be targeted as they are assumed to be more exposed to diverse products and willing to try new items. This is not to overlook those with less education as they constitute a considerable percentage of the population. For a product to appeal to a greater market segment, a greater target marketing effort needs to be implemented that will enable the target segments to at least appreciate local cuisine. Accordingly, to position the region's signature foods, efforts should also be made to establish the specific sensual qualities of the dishes that appeal to Kenya's target market tourists. This would help maintain or improve the appeal of the coastal signature foods and create more demand for local foods among visitors. Additionally, a focus on authenticity and quality control will help the region develop a sustainable brand for Kenyan signature foods. The Kenyan coastal strip could then be positioned as a gastronomic destination.

Food Tourism Business Challenge

To effectively understand the actual behavior of guests in regards to their appreciation of a region's gastronomy and identify its niche, one has to understand a guest's socio-demographic profile. According to Shenoy (2005), the socio-demographic indicators that influence what guests consume include; education, employment, type of job, household income, age, gender and marital status. By the mid 1990's, Kenya had emerged as a key tourism destination in Africa receiving 6% of the total tourists on the continent, hence making it one of the major foreign money earners in Africa (Akama & Kieti, 2007). However, this could not be sustained despite the government's effort in encouraging more tourists to visit the country. In comparison to neighboring destinations that offer similar tourist attractions (Zimbabwe, Botswana, Swaziland, Tanzania, Uganda and South Africa), Kenya currently seems to be in a disadvantaged position.

For example, in Kenya, one tourist earns the destination an average of \$316, U.S. dollars (USD) or 23,700 Kenya shillings (KSH) per trip compared to an average Seychelles tourist of USD \$1352, Maruritius; USD \$1027 and Tanzania: USD \$889 (Republic of Kenya (GoK), 2009). Additionally, one tourist in Tanzania earns the country more than twice what a tourist earns for Kenya. This situation has occurred despite the fact that Kenya currently accounts for 4.5% of the total International arrivals in Africa and contributes 10.47% of the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). This implies that the relative tourist numbers have reduced by 1.5% in the last 15 years. Interestingly 60% of the total tourist inflow is in Kenya's Coastal strip (Akama, 2007). In order for local economies to earn commercial value from Kenyan coastal gastronomy, there is need to develop an integrated tourism model that can be used to explore possibilities of positioning the region's gastronomy by improving its quality and branding it so that it can attract a greater local and international market. In fact, gastronomy plays an important role in differentiating destinations nowadays given that cuisines are branded by their regions or nationality of origin (Boniface, 2003).

It is clear that food/ gastronomic tourism though limited and not

well developed in some parts of the world, is an important activity. The issue for Kenya is how to develop, position and market gastronomic tourism. The premise is that there is a relationship between the visitor's food choices and their socio-demographic characteristics. More precisely, a guests' marital status and their educational levels could be used to predict a visitor's interest and appreciation of Kenyan coastal cuisine. Culinary or food tourism is a concept whose time has come and is a potentially lucrative niche that holds strong potential for economic growth (Wolf, 2002). Increasing numbers of travelers are stating that food is a key aspect of the travel experience and that they believe experiencing a country's food is essential to understand its culture (Conde Nast Publications, 2001). Additionally, a careful analysis of the sensual appeal, authenticity and quality of the food could assist in decision making that will help tourism businesses meet the guests' needs when positioning the region's signature foods within the overall tourism strategy. This may help establish the Kenyan coastal strip as a gastronomic destination. For tourism planners and managers who are promoting area products, it should be noted that the best way to achieve a competitive advantage is to develop unique merchandise or customer service offerings. Kenya's objective is to establish the gastronomic identity of the coastal strip.

Your charge as a tourism consultant is to develop a model and strategy for developing a gastronomic tourism plan for the Kenyan Coast. You will need to develop a regional food tourism strategy and identify supply chain members to include tourism organizations and allied businesses that can assist and partner in this process with Kenya Tourism. These organizations will come from the public and the private sector and could include federal, state, regional and local tourism organizations; tourism businesses such as lodging and food service operations; as well as tour and travel companies, and retail and information distribution organizations (Deale and Stynes, 1987). You have been asked to make recommendations for developing food tourism on the Kenyan coast to include; product definition, signature items, defining a competitive set, identification of target market segments and the channels that you would recommend to promote this aspect of the Kenya tourism product.

References

- Akama, J. S. & Kieti, D. (2007). Tourism and Socio-economic development in developing countries: A case study of Mombasa resort in Kenya. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 15 (6): 735 – 748.
- Boniface, P. (2003). *Tasting Tourism: Travelling for Food and Drink*. Aldershot: Ashgate Publishing Ltd.
- Boniface, P. (2006). *Dynamic Tourism; Journeying with Change*. Clevedon: Channel View Publishing Ltd.
- Bowen, S. (2010). Embedding local places in global spaces: Geographical indications as a territorial development strategy, *Rural Sociology*, 75, 2, 209–243.
- Burusnukul, P., Binkley, M. & Sukalakamala, P. (2011). Understanding tourist patronage of Thailand food service establishments: An exploratory decisional attribute approach." *British Food Journal*, 113 (8): 965-981.
- Cai, L.A., Hong G.-S., and Morrison, A.M. (1995). Household expenditure partners for tourism products and Services, *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 4(4): 15-40.
- Cohen, E. & Aveli, N. (2004). Food in tourism attraction and impediment, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(4): 755 – 778.
- Conde Nast Publications, Inc and Plog Research (2001). *Gourmet Travel Study*, In Deneault, M., "Acquiring a Taste for Cuisine Tourism: A Product Development Strategy", Canadian Tourism Commission, Cuisine and Product Coordinator, 2002.
- Deale-O'Halloran, C. and Stynes, D., *Tourism planning: Tourism information series No. 2*, Cooperative Extension Service, Michigan State University, Extension Bulletin E-2004, 1987.
- Dougherty, M.L., Brown, L.E. & Green, G.P. (2013). The social architecture of local food tourism: Challenges and opportunities for community economic development, *Journal of Rural Social Sciences*, 28, 2, 1-27.
- Everett, S. & Aitchison, C. (2008). The role of food tourism in sustaining regional identity: A case study of Cornwall, South West England, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16, 2, 150–167.
- Everett, S. & Slocum, S. (2013). Food and tourism: An effective partnership? UK-based review, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21, 6, 789-809.
- Fukushima, T., Marimoto, Y., Maundu, P., Kahindi, B. & Fondo, J. (2010). Local preference of indigenous fruit trees in Coast Province, *African Journal of Environmental Science and Technology*, 4(12), 872 – 885.
- Getz, D. (2000). *Explore wine tourism: Management, development and destinations*, Cognizant Communication Corporation. New York.
- Gillespie C. (2002). *European gastronomy into the 21st Century*, Oxford, Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Guzmán, T.L. & Cañizares, S.S. (2011). *Gastronomy, tourism and destination differentiation: A case study in Spain.* Review of Economics & Finance. Submitted on 2th September 2011. Article ID: 1923-7529-2012-01-63-10, 63.
- Hall, C. M., Sharples L., Mitchell R., Macionis, N. and Cambourne, B. (2003). *Food Tourism Around the World*, Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hall, C. M., & Sharples, L. (2003). The consumption of experience or the experience of consumption?: An introduction to the tourism of taste." In *Food Tourism Around the World: Development Management and Markets*, (1) (1-24). Oxford: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Hashimoto, A., & Telfer, D. (2006). Selling Canadian culinary tourism: Branding the global and the regional product, *Tourism Geographies*, 8(1), 31-55.
- Hobden, K. & Pilner, P. (1995). Effect of a model on food neophobia in humans, *Appetite*, 25:101-114.
- Hobson, J.S.P., & Dietrich, U.C. (1994). Tourism health and quality of life: Challenging the responsibility of using the traditional tenets of sun, sea, sand and sex in tourism marketing, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 3(4): 21-38.
- Kabuye, C.S. & Ngugi, G.W. (2001). Nutritional and medical importance of indigenous food plants. National museums of Kenya, The potential of indigenous wild foods workshop proceedings, (57 60). Nairobi: (USAID/ OFDA).
- Kim, Y., Sun, B., & Eves, A. (2010). The relationship between food - related personality traits, satisfaction, and loyalty among visitors attending food events and festivals, *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29: 216-226.
- Kinyua, J. (2004). Towards achieving food security in Kenya. Assuring food and nutrition security in Africa by 2020. Prioritizing action, strengthening actors, and facilitating partnership. A paper presented by Kenya's Permanent Secretary of Agriculture during the IFPRI Conference; 1 – 3rd April 2004,

- Kampala, Uganda.
- Longwoods Survey (1994), A Report on the Status of Tourism in the Denver Metro Area with Recommendations and Strategies for Future Planning and Development, Denver Metro Convention & Visitor's Bureau, Denver, Colorado.
- Maundu, P. (2001). Indigenous wild food plants: Their future in Kenya. The potential of indigenous wild foods workshop proceedings (pp. 61 – 62). Nairobi: USAID/ OFDA.
- McDonald, S., "Tourism Officials Seek to Promote Oregon's Delights, The Register Guard, Eugene, Oregon, www.registerguard.com, exlibris.lib.memphis.edu, [Accessed December 11, 2003].
- NEMA (National Environmental Management Authority), (2010). November, 21 Reasons to support local foods, <http://www.nema.go.ke:Joomla> [Accessed November 19, 2010].
- Obonyo, G.O., Ayieko, M.A., Kambona, O.Q. (2013). An importance –performance analysis of food service attributes in gastro-tourism development in Western Tourist Circuit, Kenya. *Tourism and Hospitality Research* (2013). Sage Publications, DOI 10 1177/1467358413491132, [Accessed 8-16-16].
- O'Halloran, R.M. and Deale, C.S. (2004). Food Tourism Supply Chain Management, ASAC Conference, June, Quebec City, Quebec, Canada.
- O'Halloran, R. (1996). Principal Investigator, A Report on the status of tourism in the Denver metro area with recommendations and strategies for future planning and development, Denver, Colorado, Denver Metro Convention & Visitor's Bureau, 1996.
- Opole, M. (2001). Experience with indigenous vegetables: Conservation through use CIKSA. The potential of indigenous wild foods workshop proceedings (pp. 63 – 65). Nairobi: USAID/ OFDA.
- Pepela, A. (2013) Positioning the gastronomic identity of Kenya's coastal strip: Perspectives of guests on the region's signature foods, T130/21168/2010, A Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the School of Hospitality and Tourism of Kenyatta University. December.
- Renko, S., Renko, N., & Polonijo, T. (2010). Understanding the role of food in rural tourism development in a recovering economy, *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 16, 3, 309–324.
- Republic of Kenya. (2009). Economic Survey July 2008. Nairobi: Government Printers.
- Richards, G. (2005). Gastronomy: An essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption, In *Tourism and Gastronomy*. A. H. Richards. London: Routledge Taylor & Group, 3-20.
- Ritchey, P.N., Frank, R.A., Hursti, U.K. & Tuorila, H. (2003). Validation and cross national comparison of the food neophobia scale (FNS) using confirmatory factor analysis." *Appetite*, 40: 163-173.
- Shenoy, S. (2005). Food Tourism and the Culinary Tourist. Unpublished PhD thesis presented to the graduate school of Clemson University.
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17, 3, 321–336.
- Smallwood, D., Blisard, N. and Blaylock, J. (1991). Food spending in American households, 1980-88, Economic Research Service, May: U.S. Department of Agriculture, Statistical Bulletin No. 824: 98.
- Telfer, D. & Wall, G. (1996). Linkages between tourism and food production, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23, 3, 635–653.
- Verbeke, W., & Lopez, G. (2005). Ethnic food attitudes and behavior among Belgians and Hispanics living In Belgium, *British Food Journal*, 107(11): 823-840.
- Warde, A. M. and Martens, L. (2000). Eating Out: Social Differentiation, Consumption and Pleasure, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wolf, E. (2002). Culinary Tourism: A Tasty Economic Proposition, Portland Oregon, International Culinary Tourism Task Force, August.