

**ASSESSMENT OF STATUS AND PROSPECT OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN  
SCHOOLS IN TANZANIA**

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN TOURISM OF THE  
OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**

**2017**

**CERTIFICATION**

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for the submission to The Open University of Tanzania a thesis titled: *Assessment of Status and Prospect of Domestic Tourism in Schools in Tanzania*, in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism of The Open University of Tanzania.

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.....

Date

**DEDICATION**

This study is dedicated to my family and late beloved mother and father for their love and passion to me, especially for their contribution in making me who I am today.

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**ABSTRACT**

The study explores the prospects of promoting domestic tourism by targeting schoolchildren in Tanzania. The main thrust of the argument in this study is that the inculcation of tourism values among schoolchildren will make them potential tourists thereby promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania. The study emphasizes the relationship between domestic tourism development and tourism knowledge. Education is seen as an instrument that could be used to address problems that affect the domestic tourism sector in Tanzania. The study presents possibilities of incorporating knowledge that instils in schoolchildren with tourism skills and behaviour. The research methodology utilized a mixed research design which allows for both qualitative and quantitative designs to be used concurrently. Questionnaire and documentary review were used as techniques and tools for collecting primary and secondary data respectively. The study uses empirical evidence from Vietnam, Kenya, Botswana, Malaysia and South Africa to boost domestic tourism among school stakeholders the preferred avenue for inculcating tourism values into schoolchildren in Tanzanian education system, since it allows children to grow up with tourism in their upbringing.

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

AD	Anno Domini
ADHD	Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder
BC	Before Christ
CBC	Community Based Conservation
CBT	Community Based Tourism
BTMP	Botswana Tourism Master Plan
CCSD	Canadian Council on Social Development
CPRN	Canadian Policy Research Network
CTHI	Consolidated Tourist and Hotel Investments
EATTA	East African Tourist Travel Association
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HTTI	Hotel and Tourism Training Institute
ILO	International Labour Organization
IPC	Investment Promotion Centre
MNEs	Multinational Enterprises
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
NCAA	Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
NDC	National Development Cooperation
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
PEDP	Primary Education Development Program
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Program

TAA	Tanganyika African Association
TAHI	Tanzania Hotels Investment
TAHOA	Tanzania Hunting Operators Association
TALA	Tourist Agency Licensing Authority
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks Authority
TATO	Tanzania Tourism Organization
TMP	Tourism Master Plan
TTB	Tanzania Tourism Board
TTC	Tanzania Tourist Corporation
UDSM	University of Dar es Salaam
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Culture Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children Emergency Fund
UNSTAT	United Nations Statistics
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
WMAs	Wildlife Management Areas
WTO	World Tourism Organization
ZTC	Zanzibar Tourism Commission

## CHAPTER ONE

### BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

#### 1.1 Definition of Tourism

Tourism is a global multifaceted, multidimensional economic activity encompassing several different sectors and involving travel for recreational, leisure or business purposes (Doswell, 1997). Tourism refers to the act of traveling to another destination for the purposes of recreation, leisure, or business (UNWTO, 2014). UNWTO further notices that a person who travels to a destination and stays outside of where he or she usually lives for more than 24 hours but less than one year is recognized as a tourist. UNWTO (1991) defines tourism as an activity that comprises the actions of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year and whose main purpose of travel is other than the exercise of an action remunerated from within the place visited, for leisure, business or other personal reasons. In relation to the definition, UNWTO defines an international tourist as a person who spends more than 24 hours in a country other than that in which he/she has usual residence, for a period not exceeding 12 months and whose purpose of visit is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the country visited.

In addition, the International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) defines tourism in terms of particular activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home environment, therefore, the terms; education tourism sports tourism and adventure tourism. De Groote (1995) argues that the idea of overnight stays as being a necessary part of tourism and emphasizes that tourism may or may not

involve overnight stays away from home. De Groot's knowledge integrates the concept of leisure into the meaning of tourism.

Furthermore, Rojek and Urry (1997) describe tourism as a set of business activities or movements of people, and that it is also a social phenomenon, where people travel from place to place, and so do their cultures. This clearly has an impact on the host communities and their involvement as a result of the tourism development process.

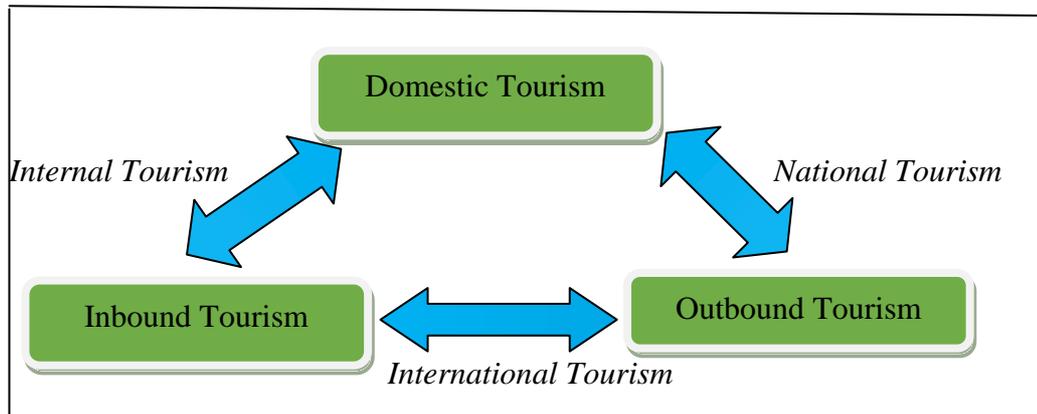
MacCannell (1996), in trying to understand tourism, supports four major important concepts including; the temporary travel or movement of people to an unusual place or destination with a clear intention of returning home within a short space of time; their motivation to travel which excludes taking up residence or employment; it is a sector of the economy or an industry; and it involves a broad system of interacting relationships of people – visitors and hosts and the travel trade meeting, the needs of those travelers.

Doswell (1997) in his study on tourism recommends that one should focus on the experiences of tourism as the main conditions of defining the concept of tourism, these include; what happens before leaving home – making the purchases, what happens on the way – the journey, departing and arriving and what happens at the destination.

Tourism can be categorized into different types depending on the reasons for travel. The main categorization is between domestic or international tourism. Domestic tourism involves residents travelling only within their country, while international

tourism is described by inbound and outbound tourism. Inbound tourism involves non-residents travelling within a country, whereas outbound tourism, involves residents travelling within another country.

The popular and most basic type of tourism is leisure tourism, family tourism, cultural tourism, religious tourism, sports tourism, and health tourism. Other types of tourism include business tourism, adventure tourism, educational and business tourism as described in the next paragraph.



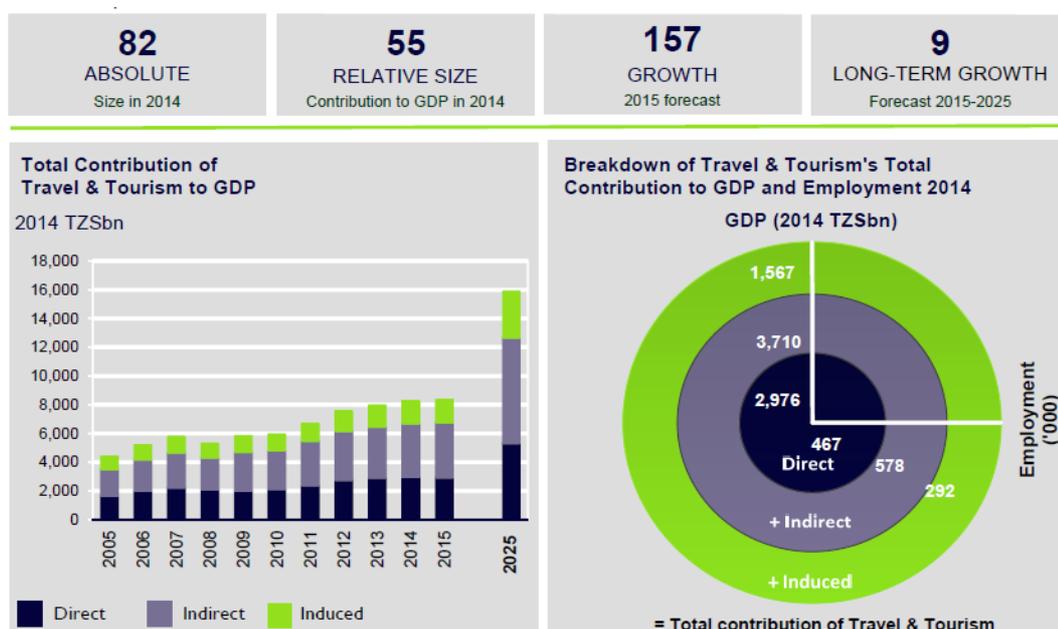
**Figure 1.1: Major Forms of Tourism**

Adapted from: Doswell (1997)

Tourism is an important aspect of the economy of many countries across the world. Tourism generates foreign exchange, something which many destinations like Tanzania may adopt (UNWTO, 2012).

Tanzania is one of the main benefactors of tourism. According to WTTC (2014), the direct contribution of tourism to GDP was TZS 2,975.6 billion (5.1% of total GDP) in 2014, and was forecasted to rise by 6.2% pa, from 2015-2025 to TZS 5,330.1 billion (4.4% of total GDP) in 2025. WTTC further notices that the total contribution of tourism to GDP was TZS 8,252.7 billion (14.0% of GDP) in 2014,

and was forecasted to rise by 6.6% pa to TZS 15,884.2 billion (13.2% of GDP) in 2025. WTTC also states that in 2014, tourism directly supported 467,000 jobs (4.3% of total employment). This is expected to be 2.3% pa to 551,000 jobs (3.7% of total employment) in 2025. While in 2014, the total contribution of tourism to employment, including jobs indirectly visitor exports generated TZS 3,365.3bn (21.9% of total exports) in 2014. This is forecast to grow by 5.8% pa to TZS 5,702.7bn in 2025 (21.1% of total). Tourism investment in 2014 was TZS 1,864.5bn, or 9.5% of total investment. It should rise by 6.5% pa over the next ten years to TZS 3,728.2bn in 2025 (9.8% of total).



**Figure 1.2: Contribution of Tourism to Tanzanian Economy**

Source: Travel and Tourism Economic Impact, (2015)

Tanzania Tourism Board (2013) noted that travel and tourism contributed 12.7 percent of Tanzania's gross domestic product and employed 11.0 percent of the country's labor force (1,189,300 jobs). International arrivals reached 1,043,000 in

2012 from 590,000 in 2005. Moreover, revenue rose from US \$1.74 billion in 2005 to US \$4.48 billion in 2012. The information provided does not show the contribution of domestic sector. Tanzania Tourism Board (2013) noted that travel and tourism contributed 12.7 percent of Tanzania's gross domestic product and employed 11.0 percent of the country's labor force (1,189,300 jobs). International arrivals reached 1,043,000 in 2013 from 590,000 in 2005.

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Despite this impressive contribution of tourism to the economy of Tanzania, as illustrated in Figure 1.1, Tanzania is still a long way to reach to attain its tourism potentiality compared to its peer countries. According to Otieno (2015), in 2013, the international tourists' arrivals for South Africa reached 9,537,000; Egypt received 9,174,000; Mozambique got 1,886,000; Kenya reached 1,434,000; and Uganda received 1,206,000, while Tanzania received 1,043,000. On the domestic tourism side, the highest recorded number of domestic tourists in Tanzania was 654,000 in the same year. Table 1.1 shows total domestic tourism trips for some selected countries including Tanzania from 2008 to 2014.

**Table 1.1: Total Domestic Tourism Trips for some Selected Countries**

Country	Total Domestic Tourism Trips						
	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Australia	214,272,000	213,264,000	223,218,000	227,264,000	242,216,000	243,125,000	244,333,000
South Africa	242,200,000	244,900,000	257,400,700	300,800,000	350,200,000	278,700,000	273,884,000
Egypt	-	17,750,605	18,190,352	16,481,153	16,724,942	19,548,564	-
Romania	-	-	40,884,000	41,004,000	53,512,692	52,410,775	50,083,855
Turkey		100,460,000	111,501,000	104,171,000	106,226,000		
Tanzania	536,341	639,749	-	654,000	-	-	-
South Korea	245,669,452	219,585,834	168,147,987	156,594,347	213,468,294	231,034,535	227,099,873

Source: OECD, (2016)

As Table 1.1 shows, the number of tourists in Tanzania is still minimal. This owes to, among other things, heavy dependence on international tourism instead of the domestic tourism (WTTC, 2014). In fact, the contribution of domestic tourism to in Tanzania's economy is almost negligible (WTTC, 2014). Very few Tanzanians participate in domestic tourism for no apparent reasons. According to OECD (2016), just about 1% of Tanzanians against the projected population of nearly 50M (NBS, 2016) visited tourist attractions. Between 2008 and 2011 – as compared to over 300,000,000 residents who made trips to local tourism attractions in South Africa while in the same year according to the researcher's personal observations, less than 1% in a group of 100 elite Tanzanians have climbed Mount Kilimanjaro.

Available information on domestic tourism is inadequate, inconsistent and is that collected at attractions which have a system of charging entry fees such as national parks and museums (BoT, 2012). TTB (2013) also acknowledges that much of the work in Tanzania has been done on the inbound tourism, including statistics and marketing ignoring the domestic tourism subsector. This inadequate visitation of Tanzanians to the local tourist attractions is a major problem in is a major setback by

considering that most countries, which perform, better in tourism sector mostly rely on domestic tourism.

According to Jafari (2000), domestic tourism industry contributed \$12.4 billion or 57% of total tourism expenditure in New Zealand in 2013. In the United States, domestic tourism accounted for 99 percent of the tourism sector in 2013. In Australia, the domestic tourism contributed 94 per cent of the tourism industry in 2013; and 80 per cent of tourism volume originated from domestic tourism and in Britain in 2013. Ashley, Boyd, and Goodwin, (2000) say that domestic tourism is a great contributor to local economic development in particular. Domestic tourism develops a local market for products produced by the poor. With this regard, it has a greater impact on local economies and local development. Domestic tourism thus redistributes domestic currency spatially within the boundaries of a destination.

Due to its income redistribution effect (from tourists to local populations) and its various multiplier effects, all throughout the value chain, domestic tourism has been an excellent tool for regional development. For example, in areas like northern China, Southern Poland, Eastern Germany, Northern France, and Wales, it was applied in transforming these countrysides by acting like places for rest and relaxation for the populations. In the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, domestic tourism helped in developing poor rural areas of the Alps in France to modern villages. It also offers a major source of new money flowing into the region in question. Moreover, the additional expenditure by domestic tourists generates business opportunities, employment, income and tax for state and local governments.

Further, domestic tourism is much less sensitive to crises and is an excellent shock absorber, especially in the case of economic crises (Pierret, 2011). For instance, during civil unrest in France in 2005, domestic tourism proved to be less sensitive to crises. Further, domestic tourism kept most economies at their level especially in Asian countries and South Africa during the global financial crises in the late 2000s.

According to UNWTO (2012), domestic tourism engages people visiting destinations within their own country's boundaries. Domestic tourism, since time memorial, is, in fact, the first form of tourism that was practiced and today it continues to account for the most of this activity by far. It characterizes the livelihood of the tourism industry. It is estimated that out of the 4.8 billion tourists per year or 83%, corresponding to domestic tourism (UNWTO, 2016). Domestic tourism generates significant economic activity and employment.

Tanzania recognizes the importance of domestic tourism in its contribution to economic growth (MNRT, 2016). In efforts to boost domestic tourism in Tanzania, TTB in 2013 embarked on an innovative strategy to develop domestic tourism. Among the innovations were the distribution of promotional materials, such as CDs, DVDs and brochures and attracting more local tourists by promoting live musical performances. It also campaigned in schools to encourage student tours to tourist attractions. However, yet the approach has not helped to boost domestic tourism in the country. Further, it engaged mass media in local fairs such as “Karibu Travel Fair,” “Nane Nane” and “Saba Saba.” As a way of encouraging residents to visit the national parks, museums and antiquities’ entrance fees have remained low; adults pay TZS 1,500 and children pay TZS 500 to visit the parks, while for museums and

antiquities the entrance fees for adults and children are TZS 500 and TZS 200, respectively. Despite the stated efforts, the number of domestic tourists visiting local attractions remains very low compared to other countries, especially the African countries such as Kenya, Botswana, Egypt and South Africa.

The revelation suggests that the approaches adopted by these stakeholders are not working. In this backdrop, there is a need to consider another option of promoting domestic tourism. One way that the present study proposes is to boost domestic tourism among school stakeholders. The strategy is proposed against the background that domestic tourism was highly promoted among school stakeholders in the most countries where domestic tourism is performing well. For example, in the late 1980s, the Government of Republic of Peoples of China instructed all schools across China to begin teaching tourism as a subject in schools (Ghimire and Li, 2001). This change in policy proved effective as international tourists arrivals to China in 2004 amounted to 41.76 million, generating about US\$ 25.73 billion, whereas domestic tourists became 1.1 billion which brought US\$ 58.3 billion in receipts, making China the largest domestic tourism industry in the world (China National Tourist Office, 2005; Dominican Today, 2005).

In Russia, international tourism numbers have fallen since the 1980s (Albrighton, 2000). In addition, the Russian Government embarked on promoting domestic tourism, including teaching tourism in schools and encouraging citizens to holiday at home in order to maintain the struggling industry. The initiatives have made Russia to be considered as an emerging market for tourism (Leisure Tourism, 2004). Once international tourist numbers drop, therefore, as was the case in Russia, a shift in

focus towards domestic tourists becomes necessary for the sake of sustaining the country's entire tourism industry. According to Rao and Suresh (2001), in 1980s India incorporated tourism issues into education curricula at all levels. Roe *et al.* (2004) notice that due to educational intervention, India recorded 2.5 million international tourists, while domestic tourist numbers reached 135 million. Likewise, in Thailand, tourism is taught at school and has enabled domestic tourism sector to be positioned as a major economic sector. South Africa's strategy for introducing tourism subject into schools is the approach of making domestic tourism reachable to the greater population (Rogerson and Lisa, 2005).

These examples, underscore a need to promote tourism among school stakeholders to reap benefits of taking this strategy. Unfortunately, little is known about promoting domestic tourism among school stakeholders in Tanzania. On this backdrop, the present study explores the current awareness of domestic tourism among the school stakeholders in Tanzania. It assesses status and prospect of domestic tourism in schools in Tanzania. The study is intended to inform stakeholders of how to best inspire schoolchildren to develop an interest in visiting tourist attractions; educational curricula methods suitable for imparting necessary domestic tourism knowledge to children; and the prospects of incorporating tourism issues into primary and secondary education curricula.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

There are success stories of using schoolchildren in boosting domestic tourism in countries such as South Africa, China, Russia, Thailand, Vietnam, and Kenya. Empirical evidence shows that in most countries where domestic tourism is

performing well, tourism was introduced to school as a subject and taught to children. Tourism issues were inculcated into the children, thus converted into potential domestic tourists. This is a clue to Tanzania that it can use schoolchildren in boosting domestic tourism in future. The problem is that the experience is new and it is not known better. This study assesses the current knowledge and practice regarding domestic tourism in Tanzania as a springboard to introduce a sustainable school emancipation program on domestic tourism.

### **1.3 Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1 General Objective**

The main objective of this study is to assess the status and prospect of domestic tourism in schools in Tanzania.

#### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

- (i) To establish the level of awareness on domestic tourism among school stakeholders;
- (ii) To determine the extent to which the domestic tourism is promoted to school stakeholders;
- (iii) To determine the extent to which school stakeholders participate in domestic tourism;
- (iv) To assess the prospect of incorporating tourism issues into primary and secondary education curricula.

#### **1.4 Research Hypothesis**

The best strategy for the promoting domestic tourism is through creating domestic tourism awareness, domestic tourism demand, domestic tourism promotion, travel motivation among school children.

**H<sub>01</sub>:** *There is no significant association between domestic tourism awareness and domestic tourism demand among school children.*

**H<sub>02</sub>:** *There is no significant association between domestic tourism demand and domestic tourism promotion among school children.*

**H<sub>03</sub>:** *There is no significant association between domestic tourism promotion and travel motivation among school children.*

**H<sub>04</sub>:** *There is no significant relationship between travel motivation and domestic tourism growth in Tanzania.*

#### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The present study strives to answer these questions by seeking school stakeholders' knowledge, attitudes, and perceptions on domestic tourism. The study also adds up knowledge to the expanding literature regarding developing the potential of schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania. This study contributes to the expansion of research works on how to promote domestic tourism in countries with strong tourism potentials, such as Tanzania. The study also urges the policy and decision makers in Tanzania to view the paradigm of Tourism teaching as synonymous to the paradigm of vision 2025. The Vision 2025 is Tanzania's target for ensuring the country becomes middle-income economy by the year 2025. The

outcome of the study makes an important contribution by identifying gaps, suggesting key knowledge areas for intervention and methods for imparting tourism values to primary and secondary schoolchildren in Tanzania. This may be used as a strategy for promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

The study further advances the frontiers of domestic tourism knowledge thus providing a framework for further academic research for the academic community, policy makers, decision makers and tourism development stakeholders. The recommendations of the study provide a basis for Tanzania to review its domestic marketing approaches in the efforts to impart tourism values for promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

### **1.6 Scope of the Study**

This study explores to assess status and prospect of domestic tourism in schools in Tanzania. Specifically, the study establishes the level of awareness of domestic tourism among primary and secondary schoolchildren; determines the extent of domestic tourism promotion among school stakeholders; determines the extent of participation at domestic tourism in schools, and assesses the prospect of incorporating tourism issues into primary and secondary education curricula.

### **1.7 Limitations to the Study**

Limitations in research refer to conditions that may impact on results of the study (O'Leary, 2005) but are outside the control of the researcher. In this research, limitations are conceived as those situations that were outside the researcher's

control and which might have impacted upon the results of the study. The following are some of the main limitations of this study and how they were resolved.

- (i) *The rate of return of questionnaires:* By and large, the rate of return of questionnaires is dependent on the willingness of the respondents to do so. The researcher may only request but cannot force respondents to return the questionnaire. In this study, this particular limitation was overcome by the researcher going out to collect questionnaire copies from the respondents and reminding those who had not completed to fill in their copies to do so.
- (ii) *Time of completing the questionnaire:* Some respondents failed to complete the questionnaires in time. In this aspect, the researcher had to make telephone follow up and sometimes go in person to remind respondents on completion of the questionnaires.

## **1.8 Organization of the Study**

This thesis is subdivided into five chapters; the first chapter presents the background to the problem, states the research problem, objectives, research questions, scope, significance, limitations and organizations of the study. Review of the literature related to the study is presented in chapter two, focusing on theoretical, conceptual and empirical reviews of the study. Chapter three presents methodology of the study, area of the study, research design, sampling and data analysis. Chapter four presents research findings and discussion. It covers demographic data, the population of the study, the origin of respondents, the gender of respondents, the age of respondents, education of respondents, correlation and regression analyses to enable answering the research questions. The chapter further gives analysis and discussion of research

findings, while chapter five gives a review of the prospects of the study focusing on the findings, experience, observations and empirical findings of the research. The chapter is the last. It covers summary, conclusion and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents a review of study into the area of tourism with the main focus on domestic tourism. The review process, through the identification of areas of strength and weakness, regarding Tanzania's domestic tourism provides a foundation from which advances in knowledge can be made. The discipline of tourism has captured the interest of numerous scholars who have produced publications on different subjects across the industry; ranging from its origin, growth, trends, its contribution to national economies, to the interrelationships with other sectors of the economy at global, regional, national and local levels. Publications that have widely dealt with the issue of promotional strategies for the development and growth of domestic tourism, the challenges inherent in these approaches, other factors that limit effective and efficient growth, stability and sustainability of the domestic tourism sector, and the available recommendations for improving, stabilizing, enriching, and strengthening not only the development of the domestic tourism industry itself but also the strategic plans have been reviewed. These scholarly accomplishments have been thematically grouped to survey the concepts of tourism and tourism categories, tourism products, domestic tourism and their related promotional strategies, and the various peculiar characteristics that define the components of tourism and specifically domestic tourism as a sector.

The chapter is divided into three parts; firstly theoretical literature, which provides a discussion of key issues and debates concerning domestic tourism. The first part also

provides theoretical frameworks governing the study. Secondly, it provides the empirical literature, which covers practical experiences and evidence from other countries on the subject of the research. The chapter ends with a proposed conceptual framework, which guides this study.

## **2.2 Theoretical Literature Review**

This section presents a discussion of issues and debates that relate to the topic of study. The topics included in this section comprise; overview of the meaning of tourism, characteristics of tourism, and types and forms of tourism. The section also provides an overview domestic tourism, the importance of domestic tourism, domestic tourism in Africa, and domestic tourism in Tanzania.

### **2.2.1 The Forms of Tourism**

In the previous chapter, in section 1.2 and 1.3, it was presented the broad understanding of tourism and its major types. This section discusses the major forms of tourism. The forms of tourism discussed include leisure tourism, cultural tourism, religious tourism, family tourism, health tourism, sports tourism, adventure tourism, educational tourism and business tourism.

### **2.2.2 Leisure Tourism**

This type of tourism applies to tourists who travel to experience a change in climate and place and learn something new, enjoy the pleasant scenery, or to know more about the culture of a destination. This is meant for tourists, who seek a break from the stress of day-to-day life, devote their holiday to rest and relaxation, and to refresh themselves. The tourists in leisure tourism prefer to stay in some quiet and relaxed

destination preferably at a hill resort, beach resort or island resort. The leisure and tourism industries provide a variety of opportunities for people to engage in recreational, entertainment, social and business activities. The industries also provide employment opportunities covering a broad range of career options, activities are influenced by many variables, such as income, hours of work, public holidays, paid leave entitlements, retirement arrangements and the range of accommodation available.

The leisure and tourism industries are service industries and cannot survive without customers. Successful organizations in the leisure and tourism industries must make sure that their customers are satisfied with services and products, which they receive as well as seeking to develop the overall customer service experience. To ensure that they provide excellent customer service, leisure and tourism organisations need to identify and meet the needs of a variety of customers and, if possible, exceed customers' expectations. When people are on holiday or travelling for business purposes, they are not only using the experiences, services and products offered by the travel and tourism industries but also those provided by the leisure and recreation industries. They will make use of a range of organisations, amenities and facilities (GCSE, 2012).

### **2.2.3 Cultural Tourism**

This type of tourism is also called heritage tourism. Tourists travel curiously to know about new places and their cultures. Culture is one of the most important factors, which attract tourists to a destination. Cultural tourism gives insight to the way of life of the people of new places. It is the subset of tourism concerned with a country

or region's culture, particularly the lifestyle of the population in those geographical areas, the history of those people, their art, architecture, religion(s), and other elements that helped shape their way of life. Cultural tourism involves tourism in urban areas, particularly historic or the big cities and their cultural facilities such as museums and theatres. It can also include tourism in the countryside showcasing the traditions of indigenous cultural communities (i.e. festivals, rituals), and their values and lifestyle, as well as niches like industrial tourism and creative tourism. It is generally accepted that cultural tourists spend substantially more than standard tourists do.

According to OECD (2016), cultural tourism is becoming generally more popular throughout the world, and it plays a great role in regional development across the world. Cultural tourism has a long history and is also one of the forms of tourism that most policy makers seem to be betting on for the future. The European Commission in 2002, a study on the cultural consumption habits of Europeans indicated that people visited museums and galleries abroad almost as frequently as they did at home. This underlines the growing importance of cultural tourism as a source of cultural consumption.

This study tries to explore possibilities on how future generations in Tanzania can take cultural tourism more seriously in promoting domestic tourism. Much of the research undertaken by the Association for Leisure and Tourism Education (ATLAS) on the international cultural tourism market (Richards, 1996; 2001) has, in fact, underlined the high degree of continuity between consumption of culture at home and on holiday.

Globally, cultural tourism is considered as an important potential source of tourism growth by policy makers, tourist boards and cultural attraction. It is perceived that cultural tourism is 'good' tourism that attracts high spending visitors and does little damage to the environment or local culture while contributing a great deal to the economy and support of culture (UNWTO, 2015).

#### **2.2.4 Religious Tourism**

This type of tourism is synonymously called pilgrimage tourism or spiritual tourism. It is where people travel individually or in groups for pilgrimage. The most famous holy cities are Mecca, Medina, Karbala, Fátima, Jerusalem and the Vatican City. Religious tourism, also usually referred to as faith tourism, which is a type of tourism, whereby people travel individually or in groups for pilgrimage, missionary, or leisure (fellowship) purposes. This study considers religious tourism as an important aspect in promoting domestic tourism, which takes place in different attractions across Tanzania.

#### **2.2.5 Family Tourism**

This type of tourism engages the family entity and their participation in diverse forms of tourism activities. This embraces visiting one's relatives and friends for interpersonal reasons. For example, many people in Dar Es Salaam travel to their home places for visiting their friends and relatives during the end of the year festivals. Unfortunately, while visiting friends or relatives, Tanzanians do not tend to visit tourists' attractions in and around the home places. This study tries to explore possibilities of changing this norm so that visitation to tourist attractions becomes part of the annual family home visits.

Schänzel and Yeoman (2015), describe family tourism as one of the most important sectors of the tourism industry around the world accounting for about 30 per cent of the leisure travel market. Families play an imperative role in the tourism industry despite the failure of traditional family models. Families range from a minimum of two (single parent with one child) to multi- generational families (any number of adults and children) and increasingly move away from traditional family sizes and gender orientations (two heterosexual parents and two children). Holidays play a significant role in strengthening family relationships and building of social and family capital within the immediate and extended family by overcoming increasing mobility issues. Family travel and visiting of friends and relatives (VFR) are more resilient than other forms of tourism, as people will always travel to reconnect.

This research intended to explore potentials existing among schoolchildren when they grow up in consideration of the new family tourism markets, which are emerging, and traditional family markets and venturing further and becoming more adventurous. This means that the tourism industry needs to better cater to this increasing diversity of the family market in the future in the country.

More importantly, the tourism industry also requires better understandings of the complex purchasing decisions as families are becoming more democratic and destination choice and holiday activities are discussed among all family members, including children. Nevertheless, children cannot be considered as a homogenous group and age can be a big differentiator as toddlers have very different requirements to teenagers. This study explores potentials of the young generation in promoting domestic tourism by leading to more creative and innovative marketing campaigns

that engage the young tourists at their appropriate ages, especially as they are the next generation of tourists.

Schänzel and Yeoman (2015) on their study on trends in family tourism, discovered that investing into the schoolchildren of today will shape the future of domestic tourism. The authors further add that if the tourism industry gets it right and minimizes inconveniences and conflicts for families through better planning, success will follow, as the family market is economically substantial and predicted to grow in the future. The future of family tourism then lies in capturing the diverse needs of children and adults of different ages, from diverse ethnic backgrounds and with diverse family structures. The trends then point towards increasing heterogeneity, fluidity and mobility in families who travel in the future.

### **2.2.6 Health Tourism**

Since time in memorial, many people have been travelling for health check-up and medication. For instance, some people in Tanzania travel great distances in the country and abroad in search of medical treatment and care. Medical tourism is an age-old concept that has gained popularity in the recent times. India, for example, is emerging as hot medical tourism destinations capitalizing on low-cost advantages. It refers to people traveling to their country to obtain medical treatment. In the past, this usually referred to those who traveled from least-developed countries to major medical centers in highly developed countries for treatment unavailable at home. However, in recent years it may equally refer to those from developed countries who travel to third-world countries for lower priced medical treatments. The motivation may be for medical services unavailable or illegal in the countries of origin.

### **2.2.7 Sports Tourism**

This type of tourism refers to travel, which involves either viewing or participating in a sporting event staying apart from their usual environment. Sports tourism is one of the fast growing sectors of the global travel industry. Sports tourism refers to people travelling to participate in competitive sports events such as Olympic Games or FIFA World Cup. Sports tourism refers to travel, which involves either observing or participating in a sporting event staying. According to FIFA (2016), sports tourism is a fast-growing sector of the global travel industry and equates to \$7.68 billion annually. According to Gammon and Robinson (2010), sports tourism is divided into three types, which are discussed in the next section.

### **2.2.8 Hard Sports Tourism**

Hard sports tourism refers to the quantity of people participating at a competitive sports event. Usually, these kinds of events are the motivation that attracts visitors to visit the events. Examples include Olympic Games, FIFA World Cup, F1 Grand Prix and regional events such as NASCAR Sprint Cup Series could be described as hard sports tourism.

### **2.2.9 Soft Sports Tourism**

Soft sports tourism is when the tourist travels to participate in recreational sporting or signing up for leisure interests. Examples include hiking, skiing and canoeing. The most common form of soft sports tourism involves golf in countries in Europe and the United States, where a large number of people are interested in playing some of the world's greatest and highest ranked courses, and take great pride in checking those destinations off of their list of places to visit.

### **2.2.10 Sports Event Tourism**

Sports event tourism refers to the visitors who visit towns and cities to watch events. Examples of the events that attract the most tourists world-widely are the Olympics and the FIFA World Cup. These events are held once every four years, in different cities across the world. Freedom torch races that happen annually in Tanzania may be categorized as sports tourism.

### **2.2.11 Adventure Tourism**

The Adventure Travel Trade Association (2016) defines adventure tourism as a trip that includes at least two of the following three elements: physical activity, natural environment, and cultural immersion. Adventure tourism is a kind of niche tourism involving exploration or travel to remote areas, where the traveler should expect the unexpected. Adventure tourism can be domestic or international, and like all trips, it must include an overnight stay, but not last longer than one year.

According to UNWTO (2014) adventure tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism sector in the world, attracting high-value customers, supporting local economies, and encouraging sustainable practices. Therefore, the continued growth of this sector creates net positive impacts not only on tourism, but also for destination economies, their people, and their environment.

### **2.2.12 Educational Tourism**

This focuses on the visitation to another place or country to learn about the culture, including student exchange programs and study tours, organizing specialized lectures of the eminent personalities and for research purposes. Educational tourism is also

one of the fastest growing areas of the travel and tourism and one that is too often overlooked by tourism professionals and marketers.

For instance, most meetings, seminars and conventions have either an educational component to them or serve their members by being educational instruments. Educational tourism often comes in a wide variety of arrangements, yet despite the differences, all forms of educational tourism have some points in common. Among these are, the idea that travel is as much about self-improvement as it is about relaxation, that learning can be fun, and that learning is for people of all ages. Some of the opportunities for Tanzania to exercise educational tourism are discussed in the next sections.

**(i) School trips**

These are usually arranged by schools in collaboration with parents. School trips help to promote domestic tourism product in two ways; firstly children may in future go back or bring their parents back to the attractions for a longer visit and; secondly children aid the local businesses such as restaurants, shops, and other businesses.

**(ii) Seminar Vacations and Senior seminars**

These types of travel experience provide citizens with everything from a chance to learn about nature, arts to sciences. They are conducted at camps and on campuses in many countries including Tanzania. Another form of seminar vacations is “hands-on enhanced experience” vacations. For instance, each year some people especially international tourists travel to the Olduvai Gorge at Ngorongoro Crater in Tanzania and others travel to Israel to learn something about an archeological dig and then pay

to participate in such activities. This study intends to explore potentials existing among schoolchildren for future increased involvement in such tourism activities.

**(iii) Skill enhancement vacations**

These are trips that range from learning how to build houses to how to protect the ecology. Countries like Costa Rica have been extremely successful with eco-tourism in which they combine lessons on how to protect the world's ecology with the travel experience. Findings of this study intended to explore ways on how Scouts Association and other youth organizations in Tanzania might learn from the Costa Rica's experiences for promoting domestic tourism.

**(iv) Develop an educational tourism inventory**

This can be possible through working with local schools, colleges and universities to know what is of educational interest to visitors, especially domestic tourists. Whilst historical sites and monuments are important parts of educational tourism, other aspects such as culture should not be ignored. For instance, to find local skilled people who would be willing to teach others a skill or impart some form of knowledge. Such skilled people become local tourist attractions, and the domestic tourism sector can help them to earn extra money at the same time.

**2.2.13 Business Tourism**

This refers to the person's main motive for travel is work. Tourists visit a particular destination for various reasons about one's work such as attending a business meeting, conferences, conventions selling products, meeting clients. Business tourism is a more limited and focused subset of regular tourism (Garrod,

2012). During business tourism, usually, individuals continue working and being paid, but are doing so away from both their workplace and home. Garrod (2012) noted that primary business tourism activities include meetings, and attending conferences and exhibitions. The Author added that despite the term business in business tourism, when individuals from the government or non-profit organizations engage in similar activities, this is still categorized as business tourism.

In comparison to regular tourism, business tourism involves a smaller section of the population, with different motivations, and additional freedom-of-choice limiting constraints imposed through the business aspects (Lennon, 2003). Lennon adds that destinations of business tourism are much more likely to be areas significantly developed for business purposes (cities, industrial regions, etc.). An average business tourist is wealthier than an average leisure tourist and is expected to spend more money (Sharma, 2004).

Business tourism is divided into primary and secondary activities. Primary business tourism is business (work) related, and involve activities such as consultations, inspections, and attending meetings. Secondary business tourism is related to tourism (leisure) and includes activities such as dining out, recreation, shopping, sightseeing, meeting others for recreational activities, and so on (Lennon, 2003). While the primary business tourism is seen as more important, the secondary business tourism is nonetheless often described as substantial (Weber and Chon, 2002).

Business tourism involves individual and small group travel, and destinations can include small to larger meetings, including conventions and conferences, trade fairs,

and exhibitions (Lennon, 2003). Understanding different types of business tourism is relevant to this study which tries to examine ways for promoting tourism through the involvement of potential future domestic tourists; the schoolchildren.

#### **2.2.14 Characteristics of Tourism**

Middleton (2001) pinpoints four striking aspects of tourism that make it unique including; the product is invisible and cannot be tried out before purchase, as a result of the intangibility nature of the product, it is consumed where and when it is produced, bringing in the idea of inseparability of the product; the place and people where it is produced are part and parcel of the product, and demand for the product fluctuates between seasons of the year.

Page and Connell (2009) establish that tourism development causes a deterioration of environmental quality, the environment being the natural and social worlds. This calls for a need for inculcating tourism knowledge to schoolchildren to play a distinctive role in appreciating and ensuring that tourism is practiced sustainably. Krippendorff (1987) acknowledges that following the complexity, sensitivity and diversity of players involved with the tourist experience, the economic, environmental, cultural, spiritual and aesthetic values of the destinations need to be carefully monitored, and an optimum balance created between economic growth, sustainable development, environmental conservation and protection.

Tourism is thus a global, vibrant economic activity encompassing many different sectors involving travel for recreational, leisure, education or business purposes. Despite, visitors inevitably gain a fulfilling experience through tourism, and the

operators maximize on their equity returns, what is lacking is a guarantee to the local population to take the lead in visiting their domestic tourism attractions. It seems that inculcating tourism education to schoolchildren will provide an answer to ensuring vibrant and sustainable domestic tourism development in the country.

### **2.2.15 Travel Determinants in Tourism**

According to Page and Connell (2006), travel determinants in tourism refer to exogenous or external factors that shape the general demand for tourism within society or a specific population but referred to personal factors affecting an individual's desires and choices as motivations for travel.

This study treats both determinants and motivations as determinants since both determine whether an individual travels to an attraction or not, and when travel occurs the same factors play significant roles in determining the extent to which travel occurs (Vanhove, 2012). General factors listed by Cooper (1993), Richards (1996), and Vanhove (2012) as directly affecting travel in tourism constitute income, occupation, gender, education, marital status, place of domicile, infrastructures and access to information.

#### **2.2.15.1 Disposable Income**

Vanhove (2012) observes that the main important group of factors that drive travel in tourism is the economic factors, and the key to these factors is the income and specifically the disposal income of a population. The author further added that the relationship between disposable income and outbound tourism demand as having an income-elasticity relationship whereby once disposal income increases by 1 percent, demand outbound tourism increases by more than 1 percent.

Previous studies of visitors visiting museums in Europe established that tourism travel rates are much greater in high socioeconomic groups and professionals with results from Merriman's analysis in 1991 show that whereas the proportion of French population in the high socioeconomic communities visiting museums had increased since the early 1970s, the proportion of working class visitors had decreased (Richards, 1996).

The level of disposal income ranks people into economic classes, which together with educational attainment of individuals determine the type and nature of tourism products demanded. Richards (1996) noted that those likely to travel to cultural tourism attractions are members of a population that are most likely highly educated in social sciences, particularly in cultures and at the same time are probably high-income earners.

#### **2.2.15.2 Education**

Richards (1996) in his study on travel determinants discovered that those likely to travel to cultural tourism attractions are members of a population that are most likely highly educated in social sciences, particularly in cultures. Moreover, Schuster (1993) argues that "the difference in travel rates across educational levels is greater than across income levels, indicating that education is a better predictor of an individual's probability of travel than income."

Torkildsen (2012) describes the significance of education on demand for tourism products thus; "education broadens horizons and stimulates the desire to travel. The

author adds that the better educated the individual, the higher the awareness of travel opportunities, and exposure to information, media, advertising and sales promotion.

According to Musai (2011) in the study conducted in Iran, it was found that increasing public education on domestic tourism increases tourism demand. Moreover, Ingram (2012) notes that tourism awareness is an end goal, but it can also serve as a catalyst for further demand growth. Both authors conclude that tourism awareness is crucial to differentiating destinations attractions from other similar destinations and competitors. Tourism awareness refers to how familiar tourists and potential tourists are sentient of destinations' attractions and their services. Jalan *et al.* (2009) confirm that lack of awareness about adverse health effects of environmental pollution keeps the demand for environmental quality low. He also observed that there is a robust and comparable effect of awareness attainment on demand for environmental quality. The same author states that there is evidence which shows that awareness of health risks raises the demand for environmental quality.

According to the market power model, advertising is viewed as a means of persuasion and is postulated to lead to increased product differentiation that decreases perceived substitutability among competing alternatives (Bain 1956; Comanor and Wilson 1979). The approach is based on the theory of economics of information due to Stiglar (1961) and Telser (1964), postulates that responsiveness to demand is a function of consumer awareness of qualitative knowledge about close substitutes. According to this school of thought, promotion provides information

about alternatives and, therefore, increases tourism demand (Nelson, 1974). However, some authors have found supporting evidence for the view that promotion decreases tourism demand (Comanor and Wilson, 1974; Kshishnamurthi and Raj, 1985; Moriarty, 1983), have found evidence supporting the predictions of the information theory.

According to the studies conducted in Japan, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States of America on effects of promotion on tourism demand, it was found that tourism promotion is statistically significant in all countries, implying that it has some economic effect on tourism demand (Divisekera and Kulendran, 2010). In order to have successful tourism promotion, targeting the right audience is crucial to strong demand (Ingram, 2012).

### **2.2.15.3 Place of domicile**

Vanhove (2012) discovered that place of domicile, demographic and geographic factors are determinants of tourism travel for an individual. According to a couple of scholars such as Cooper (1993), Page and Connell (2006), and Vanhove (2012), a place of domicile is a determinant of travel in tourism. Vanhove (2012) observes that in the 21<sup>st</sup>-century cities and towns are the propellers for modern stay day visits and at the same time the cities are the centres for attractions.

Place of domicile has also been noted to influence people's attitude towards certain tourism products. For instance, as Vanhove (2012) demonstrates, people from northern climates believe that lying on beaches have therapeutic properties whereas

most visitors from other climatic regions believe that the ozone layer depletion has increased the incidences of skin cancer, so they avoid sunbathing at the beaches.

#### **2.2.15.4 Gender**

Page and Connell (2006) observed that although gender is an important determinant of travel in tourism, it is a topic that has not been studied or examined, mentioning that the time gender feature in the tourism discussions is when products of tourism such as sex tourism are being examined. According to the authors (2006), the role of gender as a determinant of travel in tourism goes back to the basic relationship between individuals - which is mainly gender based. The other level identified by the authors is in the role of sex especially at household level where in most cases women have the responsibility of the household organization and child care whereby the decision making on whether or not to travel, where to travel and the tourism product to buy tend to be the responsibility of men. As an example from a motivational angle, Page and Connell (2006) argue that a woman may not be motivated to consider opting for a self-catering holiday, as the product may not provide a means of escape from the home environment.

#### **2.2.15.5 Means of Travel**

Torkildsen (2012) discovered that the means by which an individual can move from the place of domicile to travel destination relates greatly on whether or not the individual will prefer to travel. Vanhove (2012), further adds that in areas with poor transport systems for example with poor roads, inability to easily access airports and air strips, lack of modern rails greatly hinder the ability not only for foreign visitors to visit remote tourism sites but also discourages citizens from visiting their local

tourism attractions. Page and Connell (2006) elucidate that since a tourism product is an entire experience that begins at the onset of the journey to the experience received from tour guides, mean of travel plays a central role in determining whether a tourist would visit a particular destination or not.

Tourists with access to cars either by renting or private vehicles participate significantly higher in domestic tourism than those who do not have immediate access to vehicles (Cooper, 1993). This can be readily acceptable when requirements by most tourism destinations especially those of national parks and game reserves require visitors to be in vehicles before entering the protected areas.

#### **2.2.15.6 Other Determinants for Travel**

According to Cooper (1993), Page and Connell (2006), Vanhove (2012), and Torkildsen (2012), there are different other socioeconomic factors that influence whether or not individuals participate in domestic tourism, and these include demographic factors such as age, population size, religious beliefs, climatic conditions, and government policy issues like requiring employers to provide paid holidays to their employees. These factors, which were mentioned by the authors, determine the individual's decision for travel to tourist attraction or not.

These factors when considered together should inform tourism stakeholders in Tanzania on the viable education policies, legislative agenda, marketing and tourism promotion approaches that can be applied to transform and develop domestic tourism sector in the country.

### **2.2.16 Domestic Tourism**

Doswell (1997) defines domestic tourism as an activity that involves residents visiting destinations within their own country, but not staying for more than six months in the place visited. Domestic tourism all over the world is a powerful but invisible portion of total tourism activity (Eijgelaar *et al.*, 2008). Domestic tourism is a significant contributor to the growth of the tourism economy and provides the foundation for sustainable tourism growth and development; more particularly in era of worldwide uncertainties, as such the development of the domestic portfolio is as vital as that of the international portfolio for the growth of tourism in Tanzania (RSA, 2012).

According to Doswell (1997), domestic tourism involves residents visiting in their own country, but not staying for more than six months in the place visited. Inbound tourism, on the other hand, it encompasses non-residents visiting a country other than their own and outbound tourism, residents visiting other countries. Internal tourism comprises domestic and inbound tourism, whilst a combination of domestic and outbound tourism comprises national tourism and a combination of inbound and outbound tourism results in international tourism.

Jafari (2003) defines domestic tourism as the tourism activities practiced by the residents of a particular country within their own country. Domestic tourism is debatably one of the oldest forms of tourism on the planet given that international tourism could only be effective with the advent of transportation technologies for long distance travel. Sharbrooke and Horner (2007) pointed out that the desire to travel in the earlier times was particularly driven by the religious obligations such as

the pilgrimage journeys in Judaism and Islam. Sharpley and Telfer (2008) reported that “tourism can be described as the largest peaceful movement of people across cultural boundaries in the history of the world.” Lett (1989) stated that it is evident that such early forms of tourism could only be to a large extent, domestic tourism.

Domestic tourism as a sector has for a long time been a spontaneous phenomenon without proper planning and management. The United Nation’s Manila Declaration of 1981 on world tourism helped in the acceleration of interest by most governments recognize the importance of domestic tourism in their national economies. Cooper and Hall (2005) reported that in Australia over 75 percent of tourism activity is dominated by domestic tourism.

Cooper *et al.* (1998), observes that all travellers can be categorized on the one hand into visitors and on the other hand, non-visitors who include soldiers on manoeuvre, migrants, and those people going to special missions. The visitors can further be divided into excursionists, who are visiting for less than a day and not using accommodation, and tourists, who overnight and use either private or commercial accommodation in the place visited.

However, such a strategy requires re-orientation of internal policy and institutional approaches to serving the purpose of the current perspectives. Impliedly, a range of factors determines the potentiality of schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism. These aspects are critically examined in this chapter. The main focus is placed on revealing knowledge gaps, which according to this study; act as a brake towards

promoting domestic tourism. The chapter shares knowledge with various developing destinations on how domestic tourism can be promoted in different forms.

Becken and Hay (2007) give insightful figures of the ratio of domestic tourism to total tourism activity in top ten countries. Listing China, India, USA, UK, Brazil, Germany, Indonesia, Canada, France and Japan as the top ten countries in the world in total tourism activity, the percentage of domestic tourism out of the total tourism activity in these countries is all above 75 percent except for Germany that has 48 percent. With the exception of India, Brazil and Indonesia, the countries listed come from the industrialized countries.

These countries benefit from mass domestic travel where people travel in millions within their countries. Annually, it is estimated that 644 million Chinese travel domestically, while in domestic tourists are around 320 million, Brazil 176 million and UK 134 million (Becken and Hay, 2007). According to Wen and Tisdell (2001), China's experience is remarkable since domestic tourism was not given much attention at first before introducing tourism as a subject into schools. The authors add that the introduction of tourism as a subject into schools resulted in developing the domestic tourism sector.

#### **2.2.16.1 Characteristics of Domestic Tourism**

Pierret (2011), states that domestic tourism when compared to international tourism, has several characteristics namely; domestic tourists know the destination, its language, its customs, its laws, its climate, its cultural context. Domestic tourism is practiced more in a sedentary (staying in the same place) than a nomadic manner, the

latter being more suited for more distant destinations. Domestic destinations are nearer; visits are more frequent and there are more repeat stays, notably with family and especially in the rural region of the provenance of many urban residents, and; land transport is predominantly used: 88% compared to 51% for international tourism.

Neardestination and land transport, lower the cost of trips. Domestic tourism involves all social strata, from the richest to persons with modest (but stable) incomes. Domestic tourism is less geographically concentrated and is relatively better distributed throughout the national territory, with a strong presence in the region of the provenance of families. Also in domestic tourism unit expenditure is markedly lower than in international tourism, especially inter-regional tourism, but the overall volume of expenses is markedly higher.

#### **2.2.16.2 Importance of Domestic Tourism**

According to Pierret (2011), domestic tourism has several impacts on the economy. Domestic tourism is much less sensitive to crises, especially economic crisis, for instance the global financial crisis in 2008, natural, health or political such the civil unrest in France in 2005. It is consequently an excellent crisis shock-absorber, especially in the case of economic crises. Due to its income redistribution effect (from tourists to local populations) and its various multiplier effects all throughout the value chain, it is an outstanding tool for territorial development, for example for zones under redevelopment in northern China, southern Poland, eastern Germany, northern France, and Wales. Another example mountain regions (in France, extremely poor regions in the Alps at the start of the 20th century). Domestic tourism

is an excellent instrument for easing social tensions: by allowing social categories of modest income to gain access to holidays and rest; and by preventing situations where the same people (from the same countries) are always the tourists and with the same people receiving them. It can serve to launch a destination, for example, some of the oldest resorts of European tourism; the very new resort of Mazagan, Morocco, launched in October 2009 for the domestic market.

Also from the macroeconomic point of view, it makes it possible to amortize national spending on international tourism through; physical investments including transport, accommodation, development and protection of public spaces, for instance, Languedoc, Costa del Sol, and Chinese seashore resorts. In addition, domestic tourism creates a platform for tourism businesses to become export ready by underpinning the international offering and providing year round cash flow. This has the effect of stimulating product and infrastructure development.

Sharpley and Telfer (2008) point out that although domestic tourism has taken a well-built establishment in the developed world, the developing countries are yet to obtain the benefits associated with investing in the sector. The authors further stated that domestic tourism can reduce the negative economics of international tourism that allows profits to be channelled back to the source countries (most tourism related businesses e.g. five-star hotels and tour operator companies are owned by the foreign investors) by allowing nationally owned tour businesses to be controlled locally. Murphy (1985) reported that the issue that significant amount of generated tourism revenue from tourism in developing countries are being returned directly to the tourist-source countries has been supported by studies of national economies.

Many scholars have acknowledged the importance of domestic tourism and have at the same time pointed out that international tourism has, over the years, taken precedence in terms of management and promotional strategies. Pearce (1995) stated that the scale and volume of domestic tourism worldwide exceeds that of international tourism though being viewed as a poorer partner in the compilation of statistics. Page (2002) notes that most statistics tend to underestimate the scale and volume of flows since certain aspects of domestic tourist travels are sometimes ignored in official sources.

Walton (2005) reported that domestic tourism has been considered as having the advantage of being less dependent on foreign political situations and that it provides a rare area where nationals can exercise some control since it can be influenced by its own people and by its own leadership. The author also views domestic tourism to be worth more than that of international tourism both in terms of volume and value. Sharpley and Tefler (2008) also mentioned that domestic tourism provides many of the benefits of international tourism such as employment, income, new business development and economic diversification.

Sindiga (2000), Rogerson and Visser (2007) observed that the policy development and planning for the growth of domestic tourism have thus become issues of growing significance for many developing countries, including Tanzania. Rogerson and Visser (2007) further added that the promotion of domestic tourism will oblige some turnaround of the established policy biased towards the attraction of international tourism, which is evident in national tourism planning as pursued by many African countries, Tanzania included.

Domestic tourism offers important support to tourism operators in several areas of industry performance:

- (i) **Seasonality:** A vibrant domestic tourism industry can generate visitor spending during off season months.
- (ii) **Regional dispersal:** Domestic visitors can be vital in providing an even greater level of spending in rural areas i.e. smaller, remote or less developed areas of tourism.
- (iii) **Increased spending domestically:** A compelling domestic tourism offering can motivate some tribes to holiday in local tourism attractions rather than their home places. It can also encourage them to direct more of their discretionary shillings into attractions areas.

Countries with a weak domestic tourism sector are less able to withstand the impact of major crises in international markets, e.g. economic depression, terrorist attack, natural disaster. Conversely, countries with a strong domestic tourism sector are generally better equipped to withstand fluctuations in international demand.

Success in the domestic visitor market provides businesses and communities with the opportunity to develop their product or experience so that it is of interest to the international visitor. While most businesses target both domestic and international markets, very few businesses or communities can rely solely on international visitors for commercial success. Domestic tourism creates a platform for tourism businesses to become export ready by underpinning the international offering and providing year round cash flow. This has the effect of stimulating product and infrastructure development.

### **2.2.16.3 Strategies for Promoting Domestic Tourism**

The Sri Lanka Tourism Bureau (2017) notes that despite the fact that domestic tourism does not generate foreign exchange earnings as in the case of international tourism, it is far better than international tourism. There are several reasons for promoting domestic tourism, including; producing social and cultural benefits for the local population who might not otherwise be able to experience the cultural and natural richness of their own countries.

In addition, domestic tourism enables residents who have growing disposable incomes and their leisure time to participate in productive and satisfying experiences. As leisure time, disposable incomes and higher levels of education increase so does the need for a broader array of leisure experiences. Domestic tourism is a potential contributor to the quality of life of resident populations if it is carefully planned and properly delivered.

Moreover, gradually introducing the domestic travel sector organizations to the critical management requirements needed to compete effectively in the international market place. Domestic tourism can as well encourage public and private travel organizations to create the receptive, accommodation, attraction and entertainment facilitates need to compete in key domestic markets at home and abroad. Domestic tourism is helpful in retaining the hard currency that might otherwise leave the country in the form of outbound travel expenditure in travel to foreign destinations. Without implementing potentially regressive deterrents to the outbound travel sector, foreign exchange is thus saved by encouraging the spending by the affluent local population in travel to the domestic locations. It helps in re-distributing wealth

within the nation's boundaries. This redistribution can be targeted to encourage the transfer of currency and other physical and human resources from relatively affluent portions of the country to economically less prosperous regions, through the strategically focused domestic tourism program. In addition, domestic tourism is useful in spreading development opportunities into the developing regions through the use of local resources that are natural and human suited to the domestic market as opposed to the international markets. By encouraging the regions to develop events, attractions and services that are suited to the domestic travellers and local, political, social and business institutions to gain an opportunity to hone their organizational and program delivery skills - many of which are suited to application in a wide variety of development settings.

Furthermore, domestic tourism stabilizes the frequently cyclical and seasonal flows of inbound tourism. By encouraging domestic tourism to occur during the traditionally slow “off peak” demand periods that is usually associated with international tourism; opportunities exist to fortify the tourism facility and program utilization levels. This strategy can potentially lead to a more stable and also sustain a level of employment and revenue generation in the domestic destination regions.

#### **2.2.16.4 Domestic Tourism in Africa**

According to the New Partnership for Africa’s Development (2001), one of the goals for Africa’s tourism industry is the provision of the African people with the capacity to be actively involved in sustainable tourism projects at the community level and increase regional coordination and inter-regional demand for tourism activities.

Encouraging Africans to participate in domestic and regional tourism is part of developing sustainability in the continent's tourism industry. Dieke (2000) notes that intra-African tourist development is still a problem due to the relative lack of indigenous African tourists. He adds that the perception of travel for leisure purposes is still considered to be wastefulness in many African countries, even for members of the middle-class who are more likely to have the time and resources to travel. Dieke further points out that more often than not, Africa's middle classes either possess little or no surplus capital for leisure or when they do, they tend to travel to Europe rather than risk the potential hazards of visiting their neighbouring African countries.

This "dollar-dependent" pattern in Africa is a key impediment to the development of domestic tourism and has several negative economic implications. Poirier (2000) argues that lack of resources and significant financial, cultural and infrastructural obstacles also hamper efforts aimed at promoting domestic and intra-African tourism, which would lead to a self-sustaining industry.

On the other hand, economic hardships throughout Africa often stop short the potential for the continent's middle-class to participate in leisure activities; however, countries that are in the process of rebuilding or those that have opportunities for growth, are finding themselves with a more willing and able market segment of the population. Mustapha (2001) pointed out that in Nigeria, the country's middle-class suffered the hardships of an economic downfall in the 1980s, which still echoes today and has left them more concerned with survival than leisure. By comparison, a country like Tanzania which witnesses the recent emergence of a new middle-class

with a more disposable income requires a definite strategy for promoting domestic tourism.

The importance of domestic tourism in other African countries has also been recognized. A country like Ghana, having realized the potential of a promoting domestic tourism sector, is trying to capture this market. The president of the Ghana Tourism Federation (GHATOF), in 2005 appealed to the media to educate the public on the importance of the tourism industry to the country, stating that “the media plays a major role in the growth, development and promotion of tourism by creating the right mental images of Ghana as a tourism destination for the prospective tourist both domestic and foreign” (Hatsu, 2005). An ‘Eat Ghana, Drink Ghana, Sing Ghana, Dance Ghana’ cultural festival was held in October 2005, to promote Ghana’s tourism image, and was targeting mainly domestic market (Hatsu, 2005).

#### **2.2.16.5 Domestic Tourism in Tanzania**

UNWTO (2008) states that historically domestic tourism is the first form of tourism that was practiced and today continues to account for the most of this activity by far. Globally, it is estimated that out of the 4.8 billion tourist arrivals per year (2008 figure), 4 billion, or 83%, corresponding to domestic tourism. Conversely, the UNWTO estimates that at the global level domestic tourism represents: 73% of total overnights, 74% of arrivals and 69% of overnights at hotels and 89% of arrivals and 75% of overnights in other (non-hotel) accommodations. Tanzania’s tourism marketing strategy targets foreign market and puts little emphasis on the domestic potential. Based on the findings of the Visitor Exit Survey, Web Survey and Focus Groups (2006), 10 international target markets were developed. The target markets

included UK (8.1% of all arrivals in 2006), USA (6.8% of all arrivals in 2006), Germany (3% of all visits in 2006), Netherlands (2.5% of all visits in 2006), South Africa (4.5% of all visits in 2006), Italy (7.7% of all visits in 2006), Spain (1.8% of all visits in 2006), Switzerland (0.8% of all visits in 2006), Norway (0.8% of all visits in 2006), and Japan (0.7% of all visits in 2006). The report also pointed out China, India and Middle East as emerging markets. Unfortunately, the strategy excludes the domestic market potential. Basing on this, this study intends to bridge this gap by exploring potentials the domestic tourism provides by ensuring Tanzanian children grow up with tourism in their minds.

Tanzania possesses a rich storehouse of biological diversity. Since the mid-1980s, following major reforms in foreign tourism policies, Tanzania has experienced tremendous growth in nature-based tourism. Little information, however, has been published as to recent developments in Tanzanian tourism, and the tourism product. This article is a compilation of such information. Due to the ideology of socialism, the government originally controlled the tourism industry. The Tanzania Tourist Corporation (TTC) built, owned and managed 15 properties and hotels. The development of tourism, it was argued, would not contribute to the Ujamaa policy of self-reliance, and would, in fact, promote a dependency upon the developed world (Freisen, 1995).

Therefore, the government invested few funds into tourism infrastructural works and discouraged private and foreign investment. Despite this lack of initiative, tourist numbers increased within the country during the 1960s and 1970s. With an increasing economic crisis and subsequent political reforms, the Tanzanian

government belatedly had a change of heart, and re-opened the Kenyan border in 1985 and began to invest in the tourism industry. Tourist visitation began to rise again. Subsequently, the TTC was disbanded and the Tanzania Hotels and Investments Corporation (TAHI) and the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) were formed. In addition, some private and foreign companies began to invest in Tanzania and provide some hotels of international standard. Despite the efforts, there was no strategy for promoting domestic tourism, such as involving young generation in their tourism industry in the sense that the future begins today (MNRT, 2012).

**(i) Domestic Tourism Attractions in Tanzania**

According to TTB (2014), despite the rich endowments Tanzania is blessed with, experience shows that the majority of Tanzanians do not have a tendency of visiting them. For example, the beach, safari and mountain trekking or climbing market segments are the most important attractions for both domestic and international tourists, but unfortunately, very few Tanzanians have been able to take advantage of their availability. These attractions continue to be important for Tanzania in terms of volume and value and will continue to be for the foreseeable future. The existing attractions for domestic tourists include:

***Beach:*** Tanzania captures an estimated 20%-25% of the sub-Saharan beach tourism market. Demand for long haul beach holidays is strong, as will combination beach holidays, whereby the beach is combined with another holiday activity. Kenya, South Africa and Mozambique are the key competing destinations in sub-Saharan Africa, although there are other significant destinations that offer considerable competition, including Mauritius, the Seychelles, Maldives, and Thailand. Whilst Zanzibar offers

a world-class beach product, accommodation, infrastructure (in particular the airport and flight connections) and the quality of service is considerably below the standard of most of its competitors. On the mainland, there is the considerable scope for development along the coast (TTB, 2014).

**Wildlife Safaris:** TTB (2014) asserts that Tanzania captures around 15% of the sub-Saharan wildlife safari market. There is strong growth in safari holidays and this is expected to continue for at least the next decade. In particular, there is greater demand for luxury safaris, with tourists placing greater emphasis on comfort.

According to TTB (2014) Kenya, South Africa and Botswana are the key competing destinations in sub-Saharan Africa. In terms of competitiveness, Tanzania tends to be an expensive safari destination, in part driven by high park fees (typically 100% higher than those in Botswana and South Africa) and high concession fees for operators of accommodation in the parks. However, it has an excellent natural product that can be considered unique. In particular, each circuit in Tanzania offers a distinctly different product, and therefore attracts a different type of consumers.

**Mountain Climbing:** In Sub-Saharan Africa, Tanzania captures over 90% of all mountain climbing and serious trekking tourists, with Mt. Kilimanjaro being the key attraction. Demand for mountain climbing and trekking above 4,000 metres is growing rapidly in popularity, although environmental concerns at some of the most popular destinations across the globe are constraining growth. Kilimanjaro has effectively reached capacity during the peak periods, only leaving scope for growth during less favourable seasons (TTB, 2014).

## **(ii) Niche Tourist Domestic Market in Tanzania**

Hutchinson (1957) defines a niche as a region in a multidimensional space characterized by environmental factors that affect the welfare of the species. The author further notes that, the niche refers to an optimum location, which an organism can exploit in terms of resources in the presence of its competitors. Lambkin and Day (1989) describe a niche as part of a wider usage of biological or ecological metaphors that inform business theory and practice. On the other hand, niche tourism refers to how a specific tourism product can be tailored to meet the needs of a particular audience/market segment. Locations with specific niche products can establish and position themselves, as niche tourism destinations. Tanzania has seven distinct niche markets as summarized below:

***Bird Watching:*** In Sub-Saharan market for bird watching, Tanzania accounts for around 10%. Bird watching is a rapidly growing pastime, in particular in America and the United Kingdom. Key competing destinations are South Africa, Uganda, Kenya and Botswana. However, Tanzania has a bird list of over 1,000 species – the third largest in Africa. This segment has considerable scope for growth (UNWTO, 2014).

***Diving:*** According to UNWTO (2014), Tanzania accounts for around 20% of the sub-Saharan market for diving. Growth in diving holidays has slowed in recent years and is growing at only around 2.5% per annum at present; however, there is considerable growth within the family market. South Africa, Kenya and Mozambique are the key competing destinations, although Tanzania has a good product, with Mafia increasing in popularity and being revered within diving circles.

An increase in the number of PADI 5-Star Gold Palm Rated dive companies would help competitiveness (currently only 9 out of the 25 registered dive companies in Tanzania have this certificate). Consequently, there is scope for growth in this market.

***Sports Fishing:*** In the Sub-Sahara, Tanzania has around 8% of the market for sports fishing. Worldwide, interest in the fishery seems to have stagnated however the number of people participating in the fishery holidays appear to be increasing. Tanzania's main competitors include South Africa, Kenya, Namibia and Mozambique. However the country does have excellent diversity from deep-sea fishing for game fish, to lake fishing (Tanganyika and Victoria in particular) for tiger fish and Nile perch respectively. Overall the product appears to be under-utilized and there is considerable scope for developing this segment (UNWTO, 2014).

***Adventure:*** According to UNWTO (2014), Tanzania has around 5% of the Sub-Sahara market for adventure tourism. This segment has considerable potential for growth as there is currently significant interest in adventure tourism, in particular for the family market and the filter elements of the 55+ market. The main competing destinations are South Africa, Zambia and Uganda, all of which have developed an adventure product to various levels.

***Cultural Tourism:*** UNWTO (2014), over the market for cultural tourism in Sub-Sahara, Tanzania accounts for around 15%. Interest in cultural trips is expanding significantly worldwide and tends to be pursued by well-educated, high-income tourists. Competing destinations in sub-Sahara Africa include Ethiopia, Kenya and South Africa. Tanzania has considerable scope to develop its tourism product. Stone

Town in Zanzibar has tremendous potential, as do other sites on the mainland, such as Bagamoyo. However, these sites need to be improved (cleaned up, signposted, development of trails, etc.) to make them more appealing to the tourist.

**Ecotourism:** UNWTO (2014) notices that Tanzania accounts for around 5% of the Sub-Sahara market for eco-tourism. According to some industry sources, ecotourism is the fastest growing segment of the tourism industry, and it is expected to grow by at least 20% per annum over the coming years. Tanzania's key African competitors are Kenya, Madagascar, South Africa and Botswana, all of which have embraced the eco-tourism concept in various ways (for example through eco-grading accommodation schemes). Tanzania has considerable scope to develop an eco-tourism product given the type of tourism that is prevalent in the country (wildlife, birdlife, and so on), whilst at the same time generating positive publicity about the ways it is conserving the environment.

**Hunting Safaris:** In terms of hunting safaris, Tanzania ranges between 8%-10% of the Sub-Sahara market for hunting safaris. Interest in hunting appears to have reached a plateau, partly due to environmental concerns and pressure groups. However, this segment of the market does not need large numbers to generate considerable revenues due to its high-speed nature. Competing destinations include South Africa, which is by far the market leader, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Namibia. Tanzania is considered to be one of the most expensive hunting destinations in the world, in part due to the high trophy fees. However, it does have an excellent product and great diversity of wildlife, although ethical hunting (hunting on foot with bows and arrows) is not as widely offered as in South Africa or Namibia. Similarly,

hunting observer safaris (tourists watching the hunt) are also not widely available in Tanzania (UNWTO (2014)).

### **(iii) Domestic Tourism Legislation in Tanzania**

According to TTB (2012), there are four relevant pieces of legislation governing tourism industry in Tanzania. The first is the Tanzania National Tourist Board (Amendment) Act 1992, which stipulated the creation of the Tanzania Tourism Board. According to the legislation, research and the development of amenities necessary for promoting domestic tourism are to be part of the funding program. However, no such activities are taking place, due to severe budget restraint in recent years.

The Hotels Act of 1963 provided for the creation of a Hotel Board to be in charge of licensing, inspection, classification of hotels, and the creation and enforcement of industry standards. The Tourist Agents (Licensing) Act 1969 is in operation and provides the legal basis for the licensing of tourist agents and hunters. The Hotel Levy Act 1972 stated that hotels must pay a levy on accommodation and food charges received from guests. Unfortunately, none of the Acts provides an opportunity for residents to pay special rates upon using these services during the visitation of the attractions. This study finds it relevant to review such challenges to come up with a strategy geared to promoting domestic tourism through young generation while they are in their education cycles.

The Tourism Division, found within the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), is the main governmental body responsible for tourism within Tanzania

There are two main sections reporting to the Director: Travel and Facilitation, and Hospitality and Development. Responsibilities of the Travel and Facilitation Section include industry and public relations, finance, licensing, policy/planning, tourism statistics and research, and the Tourist Agency Licensing Authority (TALA). The Hospitality and Development Section is responsible for hotel licensing, inspection, classification, and standards, and the Hotels Board (CHL Consulting Group, 1996). As can be seen above, the Division is also responsible for the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) established under the Tourist Board Act of 1992, for the development and marketing of all aspects of the tourism industry to and in Tanzania (TTB, 1996), and the Hotel and Tourism Training Institute (HTTI).

Following the disbandment of the Tanzania Tourism Council in 1992, each of the hotels was required to operate on a commercial basis under their own boards of directors as limited liability companies (CHL Consulting Group, 1996). Tanzania Hotels Investment Co. Ltd. (TAHI), a parastatal, was also formed in order to maintain state ownership in certain hotels such as the Seronera Wildlife Lodge, Lobo Wildlife Lodge, and Mt. Meru Hotels. However, the government is considering selling majority ownership and maintaining a minority shareholder status within the corporation. Currently, TAHI has entered into joint ventures on some of their estates with international companies, such as Novotel in Arusha.

The presence of the private sector has increased over the past few years within Tanzanian tourism. While numerous small-scale safari operations have entered the market, a few international standard restaurants have recently been established in Dar es Salaam and Arusha. In addition, a number of high-quality hotels have also been

constructed, such as the Zanzibar Serena, and Tarangire Sopa. With the development of the private sector has come the subsequent mobilization of a few relevant trade organizations.

According to MNRT (2014), most predominant organizations include; the Tanzania Tour Operators Association, the African Association of Tour Operators, the Tanzania Travel Agents Association and the Hotel Keepers Association of Tanzania. Again, all these national efforts ignore the role of domestic tourism in the development of the entire tourism industry. The efforts continue to demonstrate the country's overreliance on international tourism. This study intends to reverse the trend, by involving schoolchildren so that the tourism industries in countries like Tanzania depend on their domestic tourism sectors.

### **2.3 Theoretical Framework**

Matthews and Ritcher (1991) noted that tourism is a multidisciplinary phenomenon whereby it cannot be studied using a single discipline. Tourism scholars adapt theories from other disciplines such as psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics and so on (Sheldon, 1991). Borrowing theories from other disciplines are common in the tourism domain. In this study, various theories have been employed to understand the potentials for inculcating tourism values into schoolchildren for promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania as presented in the next section.

The strategies for promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania by targeting schoolchildren as the potential market segment was conceived and developed in the foundation of six important theoretical frameworks. Firstly, the Personal Construct Theory by George Kelly was relied upon to provide insight on factors that stem from

personalities, attitudes, motivation, perceptions, and lifestyles of the Tanzanians in respect to domestic tourism. Secondly, promotion of the new and old tourism products and destinations within Tanzania based on the concepts of Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) by *Petty and Cacioppo (1986)* for behaviour change modelling. Thirdly, the philosophy and principle of the Growth Pole Theory by *Perroux (1950)* was suggested as an appropriate model for transforming the domestic tourism sector in Tanzania. Fourthly, Lee's push-pull theory, which suggests that people travel because they are 'pushed' by internal and 'pulled' by external forces.

The theory describes how individuals are pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how they are pulled or attracted by the destination area (*Uysal and Hagan, 1993*). Lee's push-pull theory is relevant to the study in the context that once tourism knowledge is imparted to schoolchildren will in future become a push factor to visiting local tourism attractions in Tanzania.

### **2.3.1 Personal Construct Theory**

The Personal Construct Theory (PCT) is a social psychological theory of personality concerned with the way individuals construct the meaning of events. The theory was compounded by *Kelly (1955)*. The theory hypothesizes that "an individual's processes are psychologically channelized by how he/she anticipates events" (*Partington, 2002*). According to *Kelly (1955)*, a construct is a way in which two things are alike and by the same token different from a third. In terms of structure, PCT proposes that meaning is a question of the construct; that "an individual attributes meaning to an event not only by constructing what it is but also by differentiating it from what it is not" (*Craighead and Nemeroff, 2004*). At a broader

sense, Craighead and Nemeroff (2004) describe that individuals, social groups, and whole cultures orient themselves according to shared constructs which provide a basis for self-definition and social interaction.

Craig and Nemeroff (2004) stated the application of PCT in psychotherapy as the first part where it was applied by the founder. Through PCT, George Kelly developed a tool known as *Repertory Grid Technique* to help in collecting information from patients. Since its inception, the tool has been applied in a wide variety of disciplines such as education, negotiation, arbitration, interpersonal relationships, and business as a knowledge acquisition technique to provide information for experts (Jonassen, 1999). Dacko (2008) adds that PCT is useful in the evaluation of consumer perceptions of travel destinations. It helps to provide a tourism promotion with both theoretical skills and research methodology to understand better the nature of individual's meaning and perceptions of a marketer's offerings, including that of travel destinations

### **2.3.2 Elaboration Likelihood Model**

Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM) was compounded by Cacioppo in early 1980s for understanding how attitudes towards something are developed and transformed. According to Hansen (2007), the model differentiates between two routes of persuasion specifically the central route and the peripheral route, each route being determined by motivation and level of elaboration employed when making choices. Witte, Meyer and Montell (2001) explained that ELM focuses on how information is processed and the relationship between information processing and behaviour change, where, according to Larson (2009), elaboration in ELM refers to the

conscience analysis of available information in making an evaluative decision and required both the motivation and ability to process information.

Once an individual has sufficient knowledge and information regarding available choices and is highly motivated to evaluate the information, this individual decides on for the central route (Larson 2009); whereas little interest, ability, and/or motivation to think about a message, the person tends to make choices peripherally (Witte *et al.*, 2001). According to the authors, the central route has been revealed to be related to permanent changes in consumer behaviour because the final decision is based on informed choices. Nonetheless, the peripheral route has been widely used in promotion campaigns given a individual's tendency to apply mental shortcuts when making most of the individual buying decisions.

To sensitize and ultimately mobilize Tanzanians to domestic tourism, both central and peripheral routes to information processing and ultimate decision making must be exploited to persuade the citizens to participate in domestic tourism activities and ensure sustainability of this internal travel to attractions for future generations. Therefore, ELM offers a critical philosophy for modelling domestic tourism promotional strategies in this study.

### **2.3.3 Growth Pole Theory**

Growth Pole Theory (GPT) was postulated by Francois Perroux. According to Gove (1984), the theory developed to help in identifying the characteristics of propulsive units and their growth inducement mechanisms. The theory suggests that a unit of economic growth; for example a firm that has the capacity to induce the growth of

another firm. Wen and Tisdell (2001) stated that the growth pole is a set that can induce the growth of another set. That is, as Parroux hypothesized in his study, which is cited by Gove (1984), growth pole is “*a propulsive unit in a given environment.*” In industrial conditions, growth pole is the industry that drives the growth of another industry.

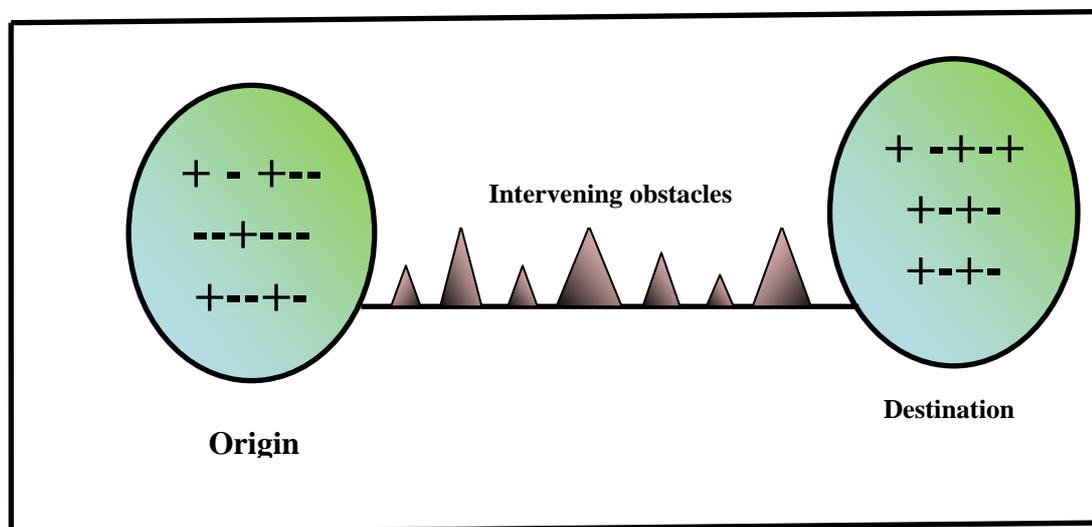
The main industry that boosts the growth of other industries has been known as the lead industry, the propulsive industry, leading industry, or master industry. Wen and Tisdell (2001) observed that the industry that makes poles of growth and centres of innovative change, which are called regions and a periphery, may be defined by its relationship of dependency to the core. House (1978) noted that economic growth does not appear everywhere at the same time, rather, it is manifest in points of growth poles and expands in the different channel with variable intensity throughout the economy.

Wen and Tisdell (2001) and Gove (1984) pointed out that tourism as an industry is considered as an appropriate growth pole industry as an effective pole for economic growth given its multiplier effect. Strategies for funding particular products or areas can also be developed on the foundation of growth pole concept. The theory of growth pole simply recognizes the contribution of propulsive units of economic growth to other units of growth. Murphy (2004) in her study on pace based organizations discovered that the Convention and Visitor Bureau (CVB) was an organization that identified the benefits of combining resources at key locations, particularly expertise and skills from a cross-section of industries and sectors. In addition, The concept of resource allocation at key areas of development for Local

Enterprise and Development (LEAD) was based on the fundamental principle of growth pole, whereby LEAD provides government grants and a supporting tourism framework for the development of ‘lead’ businesses in ‘growth pole’ areas, so that those areas attract additional investments and generate sustainable tourism growth.

### 2.3.4 Lee’s Push-Pull Theory

This theory proposes that people travel because they are ‘pushed’ by internal and ‘pulled’ by external forces. In other words, these forces describe how individuals are pushed by motivational variables into making a travel decision and how they are pulled or attracted by the destination area (Uysal and Hagan, 1993).



**Figure 2.1: Lee's Push-Pull Theory**

Source: Based on Lee (1966)

According to Klenosky (2002), the push factors are the needs and wants of the traveler, are the reasons why people want to get away from their regular place of residence, whilst pull factors are reasons for going to particular destinations. The author further notes that the push and pull factors have been generally characterized

as relating two separate decisions made at two separate points in time. Push factors focus on whether to go and the pull deals with where to go. People travel because they are pushed by their own internal forces and simultaneously pulled by the external forces of a destination and its attributes (Uysal and Jurowski, 1994).

The authors further note that people travel because they are ‘pushed or pulled’ by the forces of motivations. Push factors are referred to as the socio-psychological constructs of the tourists and their environment that predispose the individual to travel or to participate in leisure activities, thus affecting travel decisions and demand. On the other hand, given the meaning of push factors, they seem to be more stable and do not vary as much across destinations. In this context, the ‘push’ deals with tourist motivation per se. The ‘pull’ represents the specific attributes of the destination.

Therefore, push factors are the ones that predispose individuals to travel, while pull factors help contribute to the formation of travel experiences and destination selection decisions. Education, occupation and many others are some of the push factors of the destination (Table 2.1). Building on the discoveries made by Uysal and Jurowski (1994), this research intended to explore if at all there is any potential in schoolchildren if at all are taught tourism education will push them towards loving travelling when they grow up thus promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

Similar closer examinations of push factors of travel motivations used multiple regression analyses to establish the direction and magnitude of the relationship. Some other studies combined a multitude of statistical techniques including logic regression, ANOVA, or multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to analyze the

push factors of motivation. This study has applied cross tabulation, chi-square, ANOVA, frequencies and percentages to establish the direction and magnitude of the relationship among selected push factors of travel motivation.

**Table 2.1: Push and Pull Factors of Destination**

<b>ORIGIN</b>	<b>DESTINATION</b>
<b>Push Factors</b>	<b>Pull Factors</b>
<i>Motivation</i>	<i>Destination attributes and type of facilities</i>
Escape, Rest and Relaxation, Self-esteem, Prestige, Health and fitness, Adventure, Social interaction, Benefits, Interests	Accessibility, Maintenance factors, situational factors Safety, Security, Seasonality Market Image For me negative/positive, destination images, Quality of services, Quality of facilities
<i>Economic and Demographic factors</i>	
gender, income, education, family life-cycle and size, race/ethnic group, occupation, second income, ownership	

Source: Uysal and Hagan (1993)

The exploration of push and pull motivation studies also found that the number of pull factors included in the studies seems to be larger than the number of push factors. This finding may be attributed to the fact that pull factors could have much importance in determining travel motivation when compared to push factors. This discovery is in line with the study objective of inculcating tourism issues to school will make them potential domestic tourist when they grow up.

### **2.3.5 Values Based Motivation Theory**

Personal values have been applied comprehensively in consumer behavior literature for market segmentation purposes (Ekinici and Chen, 2002). The authors state personal values such as religion, nature, tourism, education; ecological awareness, ethical practice and many others are determinants of attitudes and future behavior

and hence provide a stable and inner-oriented understanding of consumers (Kamakura & Novak 1992). Kamakura and Novak further found that these personal values have also been used for tourist market segmentation purposes.

Pitts and Woodside (1986) used personal values based on the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) to identify travel motivation segments, Skidmore and Pyszka (1987) used the Values and Lifestyles (VALS) to segment to US domestic motivation travel market, Madrigal and Kahle (1994) used the List of Values (LOV) value-system segmentation to predict vacation activity preferences, Ekinici and Chen (2002) used List of Values (LOV) in an attempt to detect segments in British holidaymakers within United Kingdom. Value approach such as RVS, VALS and LOV are preferred to single values for predicting future behavior and identifying segments (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). This study attempted to adopt both VALS and LOV theories to determine existing potentials among schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

Even though theoretical in nature, valid and reliable measures for personal values have been widely adopted in predicting the population's further travel trend. One of the mainly frequently used of these measures is the Rokeach Value Survey comprising of 18 instrumental values (ideal modes of behavior) and 18 terminal values (ideal end-states of existence) (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994). In spite of the widespread use of the Rokeach Value Survey (RVS) mainly in the North American context, two other measures were developed in response to criticisms of the RVS: the Values and Lifestyles (VALS) (Mitchell, 1983) and the List of Values (LOV) (Kahle and Kennedy 1989). The LOV scale is an abbreviated version of Rokeach's personal

value scale but is also based on the work on values and Maslow's (1954) study of motivation and personality (Kahle, 1986).

In a comparative analysis of VALS and LOV, mixed support is indicated for both of these measures (Novak and MacEvoy, 1990). Additional contemporary literature shows that the LOV is now used more frequently than VALS due to its advantages about its consistency and strength (Daghfous, Petrof and Pons, 1999; Daghfous *et al.*, 1999) and its cost-cutting (Madrigal and Kahle, 1994; Madrigal, 1995). An acknowledged feature of the VALS typology is its foundation in social value rather than personal value, which is useful in developing and implementing promoting messages serving the intrinsic motivations of the domestic tourism market (Ekinci and Chen, 2002).

### **2.3.6 Expectancy Theory**

The Expectancy Theory was propounded by V.H. Vroom in 1964. Expectancy theory of tourist motivation emphasizes the relationship between motivation, preference and choice (Vroom, 1964). The theory is fundamentally a needs-based model than a values-based model of tourist motivation that then looks at awareness, promotion, attractiveness, instrumentality and expectations of outcomes as well as the influencing factors of knowledge of tourist product characteristics and other limiting factors (barriers or constraints).

According to Witt and Wright (1992), predicting the impacts of motivation on behavior also needs an understanding of the processes whereby requirements are transformed into motivated behaviour and, especially, of the way people's expectations give motivated behaviour its direction. The theoretical level expectancy

theory allows many of the existing concepts in the study of tourist motivation to be integrated within a single theoretical framework that is, need theories such as Maslow and Murray; emotional aspects of tourist motivation – the needs which instigate the desire to travel in the first place – with the cognitive aspect – the decision making involved in choosing whether to do on holiday and, if so, where (Witt and Wright, 1992). The authors further claim that inculcation of tourism values and destination promotions seem to have the greatest relevance to domestic tourist motivation. This also helps to keep momentum on this research on exploring potentiality of schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism after being subjected to tourism issues while in schools.

In addition, Witt and Wright (1992) proposed an expectancy model of holiday preference and choice, which includes needs, attractiveness (valence) of holiday attributes, relative preference of different holidays, and the influencing factors of knowledge of holiday destination characteristics; limiting factors such as cost, others' preferences etcetera; expectations; and instrumentality of holidays for providing attributes. The authors note that all of these will be further influenced by a variety of sources including classroom based learning, brochures, guide books and other people's experience, and also by the individual's own experience of previous holidays of the same or a similar type; hence the feedback loops built into the model.

All of these also result in a theoretical choice of the holiday which acknowledges the role of both push and pull factors (Witt and Wright, 1992). This survey tries to apply the expectancy theory as was propounded by Witt and Wright in 1992 to establish

whether schoolchildren are potential domestic tourists if at all they are introduced to tourism issues while in school.

## **2.4 Empirical Review**

This section provides an overview of the practical experiences and evidence of domestic tourism from other countries. Further, the section presents complementary insights from other scholars related to promoting domestic tourism by targeting schoolchildren as a potential market segment in other countries.

### **2.4.1 Practical Experiences of Domestic Tourism from other Countries**

This section provides a review of how other countries have been able to transform their domestic tourism sectors by investing in the young generation, especially schoolchildren. The section also discusses various approaches the countries used in ensuring that domestic tourism sectors contribute significantly in developing their tourism industry.

#### **2.4.1.1 New Zealand Ministry of Tourism**

The Government identified eight market segments in the tourism industry in the country. The segments were ranging in size from 8% to 22% of the children and adult population (aged 5 years+). This number provided a balance between simplicity and detail. This experience clearly demonstrates that the number of segments is always context specific with a typical range from three to ten. Each of the eight segments is significantly different, with its own flavor and distinguishing characteristics and potential susceptibility to a differing marketing mix. Although each individual is unique, the aim of segmentation in this research is to focus on how

schoolchildren are alike rather than each person's individual circumstances so that may develop strategies for starting inculcating tourism into them. In so doing, marketing efforts can be productively directed to the schoolchildren right from school time until they become adults (New Zealand Ministry of Tourism, 2010).

#### **2.4.1.2 Malaysia Tourism Board**

Domestic tourism in Malaysia is influenced by seasonal (for example public holidays and school holidays) and the organization of large-scale events. On an average, 46.8 per cent of Malaysian residents aged 15 years and above made domestic tourism trips in 2010. The number of domestic visitors increased 54.6 per cent from 74.7 million in 2009 to 115.5 million visitors in 2010. Domestic visitors from the urban areas continue to increase as compared to those from the rural areas. Out of the total, 68.0 per cent or 78.5 million were visitors from the urban areas while only 32.0 per cent or 37.0 million were from the rural areas. The percentage of visitors from the urban and rural areas increased 56.7 per cent and 50.4 per cent respectively as against 2009. Population in Malaysia is 30, 073,353 (CIA, 2014).

Domestic tourism is becoming increasingly popular as local destinations are more affordable compared to travelling abroad. Low-cost carriers have further lowered the cost of travelling within the country for domestic tourists, with a growing number of people flying more often from one state to another for weekend holidays or short breaks. For example, it is now easier for people to fly from their home states to Kuala Lumpur for shopping or Penang for sightseeing. The evolution of low-cost carriers and competitive prices has indeed opened up more opportunities for travel,

even for lower income consumers, while increasing travel frequency for avid travellers.

#### **2.4.1.3 South African Tourism Board**

The Government found that developing a domestic portfolio is as important as that of the international portfolio for the growth of tourism in South African. Domestic tourism is an essential contributor to the growth of the tourism economy and provides a foundation for sustainable tourism growth and development, more especially in times of global uncertainties.

The majority of adult South Africans have not had an opportunity to undertake holiday trip within the country, for various reasons. This resulted in the current lack of a travel culture amongst most South Africans (particularly amongst black Africans), with the percentage of adult South Africans that travel still at 44% of the total adult population. In 2010 the number of trips was 29.7 million. Population in South Africa is 48,375,645 (CIA, 2014).

Consistent efforts by the South African government to foster a culture of travel and tourism in the country are slowly beginning to pay dividends, which can be seen in the general increase in the number of domestic trips which are being taken by South Africans. The number of domestic tourism trips taken in South Africa increased by 9% during 2012, rising to 34.4 million by the end of the year. The rising awareness of the travelling options which are open to South African people was the main driver of this growth in the number of domestic tourism trips being taken throughout the country.

There is still a commonly held perception among sections of the South African community who were previously highly disadvantaged that tourism is only for affluent people due to its high cost. However, the numbers of domestic trips being taken in South Africa is slowly increasing as this perception shifts due to the heightened marketing campaigns being conducted by various key stakeholders within South Africa's travel and tourism industry.

#### **2.4.1.4 Botswana Tourism Organization**

The Government launched a national marketing campaign, which was held between November 2011 and end-January 2012. The campaign was called "*Explore your Botswana*," the campaign targeted at educating the domestic market and promoting domestic travel both for the upcoming festive season and in the future. The campaign was featured in various media including Botswana Television (BTV). BTO also produced various adverts to market the four tourism regions in Botswana. Selected local radio stations carried live interviews on the various tourism destinations and products in the country. Public interactive campaigns were held at the Game City and River Walk shopping malls in Gaborone.

Botswana tourism continues to promote and increase tourism awareness through various platforms such as TV adverts, outdoor media and using different media campaigns to reach out to the domestic market. The rationale of these campaigns is to be forever present in the minds of the local travellers and to remind them of some of the beautiful local destinations waiting for the traveller to explore with confidence and full knowledge of the destination.

#### **2.4.1.5 Kenya Tourism Board**

Kenya Tourism Board stepped up its domestic marketing campaigns to target locals, as it aimed to generate more tourism revenue growth, in line with the country's strategic plan for economic development, the Kenya Vision, 2030. For instance, amongst all the bed nights spent by East African tourists within Kenyan hotels in 2012, 95% were accounted for by Kenyans.

Business Daily (2007) reported that the promotion of tourism got a top notch when the Domestic Tourism Council of Kenya was launched in 2007. The Council is mandated for creating awareness and educate Kenyans on the facilities available in the country and to counter negative impacts like poor booking habits by Kenyans, high airfares and accommodation rates especially for groups or families and to launch media campaigns to advertise other destinations other than Nakuru and Mombasa. In Kenya domestic tourism offers a paradigm shift from the traditional safari and coast tourism products that were part of the anachronistic colonial model designed to meet the needs of an elite ex-metropolitan European clientele.

In 2004, the United Nations Trade and Development Agencies helped Kenya to initiate e-tourism for promoting domestic tourism online. Some institutions and tour firms have adopted this as an effective marketing tool. For instance, the leisure and travel guide has a web site; *www.goplaceskenya.com* that facilitates bookings and payments online. Mills (2005) stated that experiences show that if the needs of online travel agencies and online travel suppliers can find a way to meet the needs of customers exactly then the web can be a superior method for creating a base for lead generation and sales.

Otieno (2015) reported that another most popular strategy adopted by Kenya is the “*Tembea Kenya*” initiative that encourages conference tourism or incentive tourism for corporate or individuals. This initiative has been implemented at some hotels in Kenya such as the White Sands beach hotel at the northern Kenyan coast. This niche market sub sector is also popular in many smaller hotels where it has proved to be positively impacting on the demand for domestic tourism.

Blades (2000) observed that ecotourism is a new concept that is being explored by local travellers in Kenya. Nature lovers or scientists visit the nature trails such as the Haller Park in Mombasa has successfully contributed to the conservation of its environment without compromising its natural beauty. The site is popular for educational trips and offers reasonable rates for tours in groups, especially schoolchildren and college students. In some areas, some local people are worried about the encroachment of their natural habitats by tourism such as the Kayas, traditional shrines for the Mijikenda people. Blades (2000) noted that the people often expect adverse impacts of this process will be overcome by the positive ones before they welcome tourism. Jones (2005) reported that the prospects of alleviating poverty in local communities through domestic tourism have been cited in Kenya Economic Recovery Strategy for wealth and employment creation. Further to the anticipation of revenue, Ecotourism can be used as a tool for wealth distribution and national integration in developing countries such as Kenya (Jones, 2005).

Conversely, Kenya acknowledges that domestic tourism “indirectly impacts and potential benefits its local communities (Marshall, 2004). For instance, during the low tourism season in Kenya (from April to August) when many tourism workers

have to be laid off, a strong domestic tourism sector may reduce this threat as the seasonality of tourist expenditure would become less defined and workers could keep their jobs all year round (Sindiga, 1995; Marshall, 2004). Domestic tourism leads to an understanding of what one's country has to offer and this can benefit the people to a great extent. In discussing the situation in Kenya, Marshall (2004) underscores that such lessons will empower Kenyans and equip them for future national and regional decisions.

#### **2.4.1.6 Practical Insights from other Scholars**

This section examines studies conducted by other scholars in relation to the prospects for promoting tourism through schoolchildren as potential market segments in other countries. It should be noted, a majority of micro-level oriented previous investigations have focused on the broader picture of tourism, specifically the determinant of destination choice among international adventure tourists (Shogo, 2012); the role of tourism in poverty alleviation in Tanzania (Luvanga and Shitundu, 2003) but this study might be the first of its kind to explore prospects of promoting domestic tourism by targeting schoolchildren as a potential market segment in Tanzania.

##### **(i) Musai *et al.* (2011)**

The study was conducted in Iran aiming to understand tourism awareness and how familiar tourists and potential tourists are sentient of destinations' attractions and their services. The study revealed that tourism awareness is crucial to differentiating destinations attractions from other similar destinations and competitors. It was found that increasing public education on tourism increased tourism demand in Iran.

**(ii) Ingram (2012)**

Ingram conducted a study on developing hospitality properties and facilities in the UK. The study discovered that tourism awareness is an end goal, but it can also serve as a catalyst for further demand growth. The study concluded that in order to have successful tourism promotion, targeting the right audience is crucial to successful demand.

**(iii) Jalan *et al.* (2009)**

Jalan *et al.* conducted research on awareness and the demand for environmental quality focusing on drinking water in urban India. The study found that awareness on environmental pollution keeps *among people* leads to demand for environmental quality. The study further noted that there is a strong and comparable effect of awareness attainment on demand for environmental quality. Evidence from this study show that awareness of health risks raises the demand for environmental quality.

**(iv) Divisekera and Kulendran (2006)**

These investigated the quantity of long-term effects of advertising on tourism demand. The study was conducted in Japan, New Zealand, United Kingdom and the United States of America on effects of promotion on tourism demand; it was found that tourism promotion is statistically significant in all countries, implying that it has some economic effect on tourism demand.

**(iv) Nelson (1974)**

Nelson researched on advertising as information. The study discovered that promotion provides information about alternatives and, therefore, increases tourism demand.

**(v) Bogari *et al.* (2003)**

They studied the push–pull factors of travel behaviour variables to understand travel motivations for Saudi Arabian tourists. The authors found that 36 push items of motivation for pleasure travel were identified and 40 pull items of the attractiveness of a destination were selected. The authors subjected the 36 push and 40 pull motivation items to factor analysis. 9 of 36 push factors were identified including cultural value, utilitarian, education/knowledge, social, economic, family togetherness, interest, relaxation, and convenience of facilities) and nine pull factors were derived (safety, activity, beach sports/activities, nature/outdoor, historical/cultural, religious, budget, leisure, and upscale). Moreover, the authors, used correlation and regression analysis to examine the nature of the relationship between push and pull factors for pleasure tourism. The results proved that there existed significant relationships between the push and the pull factors. These results provide a basis for this study to explore existing potentials among schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

**(vii) Hanqin and Lam (1999)**

Applied the push and pull model motivation as a conceptual framework to identify motivations of Chinese travellers visiting Hong Kong. The authors identified 22 push motivation items and 26 pull items were factor analysed. The analysis described 5 push factors, including education/knowledge, prestige, enhancement of human relationship, relaxation, and novelty and 6 pull factors comprising a hi-tech image, expenditure, accessibility, service quality and attitude, sightseeing variety, and cultural links. The results of factor analysis for both push and pull factors propose

that the conceptual framework of push and pull factors in the literature was generally supported and people's travel behaviour; and is also driven by internal and external factors (push and pull factors).

**(viii) Jang and Cai (2002)**

Conducted a study which attempted to uncover the underlying push and pull factors of motivation associated with British outbound pleasure travellers as well as to identify key motivational factors that have significant effects on destination choice. This was after observing that people's awareness on travel destination plays a critical role in predicting future travel patterns.

They identified 22 push items and 19 pull items. Factor analyses of the push and pull items resulted in 6 push factors comprising novel experience, escape, education/knowledge, fun and excitement, rest and relaxation, and family and friend togetherness and 5 pull factors including natural and historic environment, cleanliness and safety, easy-to-access and economical deal, outdoor activities, and sunny and exotic atmosphere. The findings showed the push factors significantly determine future destination choice.

**(ix) Saarinen (2010)**

Conducted a study on local tourism awareness with a focus on community views in Katutura and King Nehale in Namibia. The author discovered that domestic tourism exists in the form of the multiple linear regression relationships of "no awareness – no demand - no promotion – no travel motivation - no domestic tourism." The study concludes that creating local tourism awareness helps local communities and people to become real agents in tourism development instead of objects.

## 2.5 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for promoting domestic tourism by targeting schoolchildren in Tanzania applied in this study is in line with Saarinen (2010) new school of thought that domestic tourism exists in the form of the multiple linear regression relationships of “*no awareness – no demand - no promotion – no travel motivation - no domestic tourism*”. According to Saarinen (2010), creating local tourism awareness helps local communities and people to become real agents in tourism development instead of objects.

The proposed conceptual model is made up of interdependent componential part (school curriculum) and dependent componential parts (tourism awareness, promotion, travel motivation and domestic tourism). The framework begins with the input process, where tourism values are integrated into a primary and secondary school curricula. The curriculum is interdependent in the model. In turn, the curricula at primary school level provide a structured platform, which gives every child an equal opportunity to acquire knowledge, while at secondary school level; the children’s development becomes more focused and rampant. Schoolchildren’s knowledge is dependent on the curriculum. The framework further includes several other variables namely dependent and independent variables. This framework proposes that tourism awareness is an independent variable that affects tourism demand, which is a dependent variable.

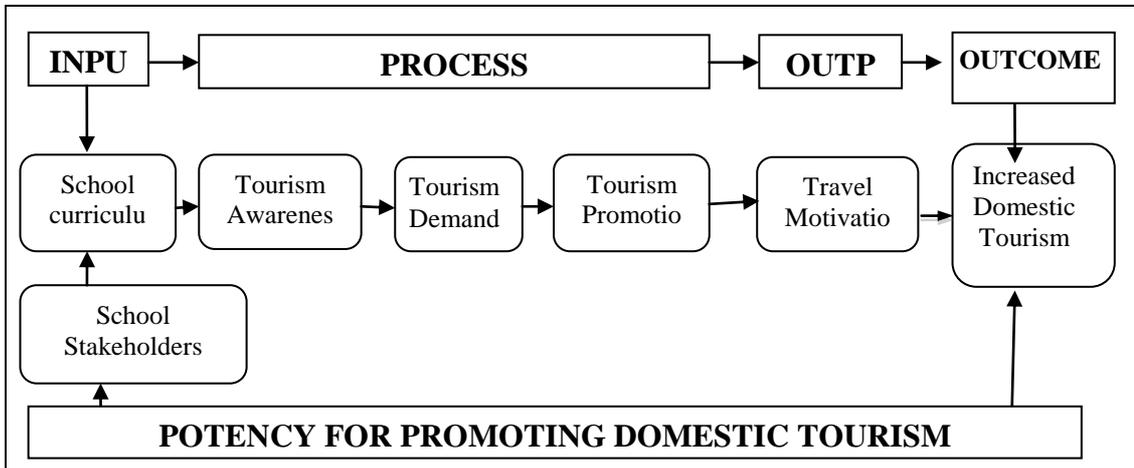
At the same time, the framework proposes that tourism demand predicts tourism promotion, which later affects travel motivation. The framework concludes that domestic tourism is affected by travel motivation. Also from this framework, tourism

demand may act as a mediator between the relationship of tourism awareness and tourism promotion. At the same, tourism promotion mediates the relationship between tourism demand and travel motivation. The framework further predicts that travel motivation mediates the relationship between tourism promotion and domestic tourism. The study is line with Daly (2014) on Steady-State Economy school of thought, whereby in an economic state the aggregate of an economy is constant, but individual components of inputs and outputs are allowed to vary according to existing market conditions.

The framework considered the current needs of resource users (domestic tourists' constructs) and future generations (schoolchildren)' needs to promote domestic tourism. Domestic tourism has been identified as the sector dedicated to making a low impact on the environment and local culture while helping to generate income and employment for local people. Domestic tourism in Tanzania is being seen as an effective tool to both sustain the tourism sector and provide the avenues for efficient management of local resources, meeting the needs of the local tourists, and creating a stable source of national income for economic stability.

The tourism industry in this research was identified as comprising of both domestic and international tourism. The products of tourism such as age, sex, wildlife, culture, museums, monuments, historical sites, conferencing, beach tourism, sea tourism, and sports tourism among others were considered as most appropriate for developing domestic tourism and proposed to be marketed in accordance with Elaboration Likelihood Model. People's construct and the effect of tourism awareness, demand, promotion, and travel motivation construed from the constructs were considered to

have impacts on domestic tourism growth issues that in themselves also contributed to the nature and extent of domestic tourism sector.



**Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework**

Source: Researcher (2017)

## 2.6 Research Gap

Despite the decision for the government to lower tourism attractions entrance fees, it is not exactly known why this intervention failed to motivate Tanzanians to visit local tourism attractions. Moreover, despite promotional efforts carried out by the government and other stakeholders to promote domestic tourism in the country, the response has remained very poor and the reasons for this are not well stated. Some studies have established that the reasons behind this apparent low response by local populations to tourist attractions that it is found in poor marketing strategies especially in the lack of proper and sustainable marketing and promotional strategy that targets poor performance of the domestic sector, thus badly affecting the country's tourism specifically identified existing and potential market segments.

In view of the literature reviewed in this study, there is an important aspect that has not been well considered; it is that of looking at schoolchildren as a potential future

tourist. This calls for appropriate measures to be adopted to ensure that schoolchildren are prepared and acquire knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviour that are opposite to the development of domestic tourism. Hence, this study intends to establish measures for preparing schoolchildren in order for them to acquire appropriate attributes required for future development of domestic tourism.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents descriptions of the research design adopted, the population of the study, study areas, sampling frame and sampling techniques employed during the study, sources of data, and data tools used for analysis.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

Marsden and Wright (2010) the research method employs standardized approaches to collecting information on respondents through interviewing systematically a study sample. Therefore, the research design for this study was the survey research method. Couper *et al.* (1999) pointed out that computer assisted survey information collection should be considered during data collection and analysis. The authors further provided broad principles whereby; firstly, a population of interest is defined to which the survey results will be generalized. Secondly, a sampling frame of the population members is constructed. Thirdly, probability methods are used to select a sample from the frame of the appropriate size to reach reliable conclusions about the population. Fourthly, a carefully designed and pre-tested questionnaire (instrument) is prepared to contain the questions to be asked of the sampled respondents. Fifthly, largely successful efforts are made to complete all relevant items of the questionnaire with each sampled respondent under relatively comparable conditions of statistical theory to infer conclusions about the defined population.

This research adopted the descriptive and exploratory research methodology, which included definition and description of the study population, sampling frame,

sampling procedure, questionnaire type and the administrative procedure, and the data collection criteria (Hakim, 2000). The methodology as well outlined the process and methods of monitoring data collection, data cleaning process and tools, and the data analysis and the analytical tools used (Fink, 2005).

The descriptive and exploratory research methodology was selected for this study as it has been observed as useful in revealing associations (Goodwin and Goodwin, 1996). While the variables that were collected through the instrument of a structured questionnaire were both quantitative and qualitative, therefore Descriptive Statistics, Pearson's Chi-Square, ANOVA, and Regression Analysis were used as the analytical tools to both enlighten underlying associations between variables and quantify the strengths of those associations.

### **3.3 Sampling size and Sampling Frame**

Areas for sampling were purposively identified as Arusha, Manyara, Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar West regions, being the places that have Tanzanians from diverse communities represented, and were assumed to contribute significantly to domestic tourism activities in the country. The regions were also selected based on the assumptions that the preferred snow bowl sampling technique would work best in these places.

The sampling frame for this study included 4 districts (clusters) covered by the survey in 4 regions in Arusha, Manyara, Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar West region. The sample was randomly selected from the 4 clusters as indicated in Table 3.1. Therefore, the sampling methodology is "*Probability Proportional to Size*" (PPS).

This method is used to ensure a statistically significant sample at population level while accounting for the heterogeneity in the size of the clusters.

In this study, a sample size of 698 was reasonably sampled conveniently. A total of 720 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents; only 698 were retained for analysis because according to the researcher these questionnaires were properly completed. Other studies related to the objective of this study that employed the purposive sampling technique include that of Mlozi (2011), who investigated destination choice among international adventure tourists in Tanzania. Using a purposive sampling technique, the researcher managed to get 504 usable questionnaires for analysis out of the 700 questionnaires that were filled out.

Moreover, Wang *et al.* (2009), who investigated the antecedents (perceived quality, tourist expectations, perceived value, and destination image) and consequences of tourist satisfaction. Using a purposive sampling technique, the researchers obtained 608 usable questionnaires for analysis out of the 800 questionnaires that were filled out. Bosque and Martin (2008) in their study presented a model to evaluate factors contributing to the expectations of a tourist destination. The four factors were experience, external communication, destination image, and word of mouth. Applying purposive sampling and quota techniques, the researchers managed to have 298 usable questionnaires for data analysis.

In addition, Esu and Arrey (2009) investigated the relationship between tourists' overall satisfaction and cultural festival attributes, used convenience sampling technique. The researchers got 416 usable questionnaires for analysis out of the 500

questionnaires they distributed. Basing on the experiences from these scholars, this study undoubtedly has an adequate sample for analysis.

### **3.4 Sample Size Calculation**

The proportion ( $p$ ) of respondents who participated in the study, it is estimated  $p = 0.25$  (25%) which is the proportion in the calculation of sample size for a single sample cross sectional survey. This is estimated from the total number of respondents reached by the study per ward across the three regions. The absolute error ( $\mathcal{E}$ ) is estimated to be 5% at the level of 95% confidence interval and the design effect (*DEFF*) of 2 (Kaiser *et al.*, 2006). *DEFF* is the ratio that shows loss of effectiveness by the use of cluster sampling (due to intra-cluster similarities between respondents), instead of simple random sampling and other human errors. The design effect accounts for the loss in randomness that occurs when cluster sampling is used (as is the case here). The size of the design effect is the ratio of variance under cluster sampling to the variance under random sampling. A design effect of 2 means that it is believed that the variance was going to be twice as high as it would be if one did random sampling.

Therefore, the survey had twice as many respondents in the clusters that have been selected than it would survey if the sampling was completely random, in order to account for the likelihood that respondents in Community X are more similar to one another than people from different communities. Given the large number of clusters, large population size and that the main stratification in the sample is regional (Arusha, Manyara, Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar West), it is thought that a *DEFF* of 2 was realistic and it would give precise estimates.

According to 2012 census report, the four study districts from the four regions had a population of approximately 2,241,417 (Table 3.1). To arrive at the sample size from this population, Kaiser *et al.* (2006) were consulted, who provided a formula that takes into account sampling error, non-response bias and the extent to which subgroups in the sample are analyzed. The sample size formula suggested by Kaiser *et al.* (2006) is as follows:

Therefore the minimum sample size will be 
$$n = \frac{Z_{\alpha/2}^2 p(1-p)(DEFF)}{d^2}$$

Sample size therefore is 
$$n = \frac{1.96^2 \times 0.25 \times (1-0.25)(2)}{0.05^2} = 720$$

The minimum sample size was 720 respondents. The sample was randomly drawn from the districts (clusters) as shown in the table below. The respondents were randomly selected using the list of beneficiaries in each ward using a random number generator in Microsoft Excel.

**Table 3.1: Number of Respondents Selected from Each Districts**

Region	District	Population	Sample Size	Ratio
Arusha	Arusha	323,198	132	0.12
Manyara	Simanjiro	178,693	100	0.10
Dar Es Salaam	Temeke	1,368,881	354	0.65
Zanzibar	Magharibi	370,645	134	0.13
<b>Total</b>		<b>2,241,417</b>	<b>720</b>	<b>1.0</b>

### 3.5 Data Collection and Analysis

During the survey, several tools were used to collect the necessary information on the perceptions, causes, incidences as well as existing efforts toward the eventual promotion of domestic tourism. The survey collected data through the Child

Questionnaires and Teachers' Questionnaire, and the Knowledge, Attitudes, and Practices (KAP) survey tools.

The KAP survey tools were used in order to gather quantifiable data which shall provide information about subjects taught at school, number of lessons per day, whether tourism is taught at school, and awareness level on domestic tourism. FGDs with respondents provided additional nuance to the picture of domestic tourism in the community. The data gathered were processed and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Quantitative data were processed and analyzed by using SPSS for Windows to capture percentages, ratios, frequencies and tabulations of results.

### **3.6 Data Collection**

Primary data was collected by interviewing 576 respondents from the four districts of sample collection. The interviews were conducted by administering a structured questionnaire aimed at soliciting information on the interviewees' perception and attitudes on domestic tourism, their participation in domestic tourism, their contribution to domestic tourism in form of imparting necessary knowledge and skills to the children, and the constraints they face that hinders them from fully participation in domestic tourism. The collected data was recorded by enumerators on the questionnaires to minimise errors associated with data recording.

### **3.7 Data Collection Monitoring and Evaluation**

The researcher together travelled to Arusha, Manyara, Temeke in Dar Es Salaam and Zanzibar to collect the data, attended to difficulties arising, and also guided the research enumerators accordingly. The research enumerators included some primary

school teachers and OUT students. As the lead researcher, there were constant consultations on issues that required my input.

### **3.8 Data Analysis**

The collected data was first and foremost cleaned for analysis. Cleaning involved removing undesired respondents from the list. For example, those interviewees who gave not more than three quarters of the total responses and those whose responses contained grievous contradictions were not included in the final analysis. Nonetheless, those whose responses arrived after the deadline were carefully evaluated before being included in the analysis.

The analysis involved entering data in Ms Excel 2003 for pre-analysis (that is data exploration and minor descriptions) then transferred to SPSS version 22 for Windows for proper descriptions and comparative analysis. Analysis followed systematic steps, including Pearson's Chi-Square that was used to detect relationships in trends; Differences in categories was tested by use of ANOVA (F-test); Regression Analysis was used to reveal the determinants of domestic tourism; all the analyses were conducted at 95 percent confidence level; and the output data from these analyses have been presented in form of charts, graphs, and tables in this study.

### **3.9 Study Area**

The study was undertaken in four regions, namely of Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Manyara and Zanzibar West (Table 3.1). The regions were identified based on the fact that they are the main tourist attractions. With regard to Arusha and Manyara

regions, the regions have potential tourism attractions including Ngorongoro Conservation, Manyara National Park and many other wildlife protected areas, archaeological and Palaeoanthropological sites where there are evidences of evolution of humankind, physically and culturally dating about 2 to 4 million years ago. Dar es Salaam has the international airport, railway station, bus terminals, museums, urban tourism, bird watching and nature walk (UDSM, Pugu forest, Kazimzumbwi forest, etc), water sports, cultural tourism and marine parks. While, Zanzibar West has tourism attractions including cultural tourism, water sports, Jozan forest, Stone Town, festivals (e.g. Zanzibar film festivals, Sauti za Busara, etc), spice tourism and shopping.

### **3.10 Data Sources and Data Collection Techniques**

#### **3.10.1 Data Sources**

This study utilized both primary and secondary data obtained from various sources as it is described in sections 3.6.1.1 and 3.6.1.2. Collection of secondary data was done prior to the collection of primary data to avoid duplication of effort in collecting information whose data is already available at national level.

#### **3.10.2 Primary Data Sources**

Primary data were collected by using structured questionnaires to seek responses from schoolchildren, and teachers on the potential of schoolchildren in promoting domestic tourism in future. In depth interviews with stakeholders from the Tanzania Tourist Board, Zanzibar Commission for Tourism, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism were

conducted. Timing for data collection especially for schoolchildren and teachers was important to ensure adequate number of respondents. The pilot study was done in February 2014, while the main study was conducted from March through June 2014 and repeated in February through April 2017.

### **3.10.3 Secondary Data Sources**

Secondary data were obtained from Tanzania Tourist Board, Zanzibar Commission for Tourism, Ministry of Education and Vocational Training and Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. Library and archival research was synonymous to obtaining information from secondary sources. It is scientifically established knowledge from a variety of literature on the subject matter of interest. Thus, this study used books, various documents including policy papers, technical reports from the government and academic works. Other sources of information included case studies on domestic tourism development and journals related to advancement of domestic tourism. All these helped the researcher to establish knowledge gaps related to promoting domestic tourism through schoolchildren in Tanzania.

### **3.10.4 Data Collection Techniques**

A variety of methods were used to collect data for this study. The process entailed respondents filling out semi-structured questionnaires after the researcher had sought consent from them and later explained the aim of the study. Most of the respondents, especially schoolchildren, and teachers were found at schools, while education officers, policy and decision makers were found at their work places. Similar studies related to the objective of this study that employed the self-administered

questionnaire method include those of Yoon and Uysal (2005), who investigated “the effect of motivation and satisfaction on destination loyalty”. In that study, data were collected from tourists staying in most well-known hotels in Cyprus. Also in another study which was carried out by Lepp and Gibson (2008), investigating “sensation seeking and tourism: tourist role, perception of risk and destination choice”. The researchers collected data from American children in schools.

#### **3.10.5 Questionnaire Design**

The questionnaire design was adopted from a conceptual model of factors affecting the recreational and leisure participation of school-aged children (King *et al.*, 2003). In effect, this model was a mini-theory about how the child, family and environmental factors we measured would operate together to influence the intensity of children’s participation in recreational and leisure activities.

The study had four (4) categories of respondents including schoolchildren, and teachers. Each category of respondents had its questionnaires with specific questions related to that particular group. The questionnaires constituted both open- and closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions were intended to test respondents’ understanding of tourism issues. The open-ended questions require the respondents to think and reflect on tourism issues in their surroundings. The questions also allowed respondents an opportunity to give opinions and feelings on tourism issues. Moreover, the open ended questions aimed at finding out more about a respondent, their wants, needs, problems, and so on as far as tourism in concerned. The questionnaire for schoolchildren meant to explore schoolchildren’s understanding

and awareness on domestic tourism issues. The questionnaire sought schoolchildren's opinions and feelings on tourism issues. Moreover, the questionnaire aimed to find out more about schoolchildren, their wants, needs, problems, and so on as far as tourism education is concerned. The questionnaire aimed to explore education officers' understanding and awareness on domestic tourism issues. It had questions that intended to probe them on their travel motivations and hear their views regarding domestic tourism promotion in Tanzania. As well, the questionnaire intended to gather the teachers' views on the idea of introducing tourism subject in schools. The questionnaire sought the respondents' opinions and feelings on tourism issues.

Moreover, the study conducted focus group discussions (FGDs) to complement the meanings of survey findings that could not be explained statistically, the range of opinions, views and to gather a wide variety of local terms in the study area. In bridging research and policy, FGD was useful in providing an insight into different opinions among different study groups involved, therefore enabled the process to be managed more smoothly (Morgan, 1988).

### **3.10.6 Data Analysis Procedure**

This involved raw data collected from schoolchildren, and teachers on domestic tourism in their communities. According to Rwegoshora (2006), data analysis involves the ordering of data into constituent parts in order to obtain answers to research questions. After data collection, the data need to be pre-recorded. This process was followed by creating a data file in the computer in which the data were

entered. Given the nature of the study which combined both qualitative and quantitative data collection techniques it was necessary to go over the data for the purpose of organizing and categorizing it into themes and sub-themes. This is what Glaser (1995) termed as constant comparative analysis.

In this study, raw data from the questionnaires were classified, coded and entered into the computer using Social Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows. The data were analyzed using both analytical and descriptive methods.

The analytical methods employed various techniques in the analysis of data. In meeting the objectives of the study, different variables were cross tabulated. Establishment of the relationships variables, cross tabulation was carried out. Tables were used to summarize single or pairs of cross-tabulated variables of the study. Cross tabulation was necessary in determining temporal and spatial variations in domestic tourism. Chi- square test was used to determine the significance association between two cross tabulation factors particularly to assess if there was significant association between tourism awareness and demand for domestic tourism in relation to education attainment and occupation.

Descriptive analysis was employed to describe the characteristics of schoolchildren, and teachers related to their participation and experience in domestic tourism activities. This provided frequencies and percentages. Responses from schoolchildren, and teachers on domestic tourism were compiled. Their performance assessments were done in the field by different participants rating their responses a score sheet. The triangulation of data in this study was possible through the rating of the responses from the respondents.

The focus group discussion (FGD) from the two categories of respondents namely schoolchildren and teachers discussed on the various problems relating to domestic tourism in Tanzania. Again, the responses were used to triangulate other sources of information also enriching descriptive analysis to strengthen the validity of study.

### **3.10.7 Ethical Considerations**

The following ethical issues were put into place during the research:

- (i) The dignity and wellbeing of schoolchildren, and teachers were protected at all times.
- (ii) The research data remained confidential throughout the study and the researcher obtained permission from teachers to interview schoolchildren at school

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents and discusses the data of the research. It is divided into five parts. The first part describes demographic information of the respondents, including regional distribution, gender and education attainment. Part two presents and discusses respondents' awareness on domestic tourism issues. The third part presents and discusses issues regarding participation at domestic tourism, while the fourth part discusses on issues related to domestic tourism promotion, and the fifth part focuses on issues regarding the prospect of incorporating tourism issues into primary and secondary education curricula.

#### **4.2 Demographic Information**

##### **4.2.1 Characteristics of Respondents**

In this section, the biographic and background information of the respondents were presented and assessed in order to show the distribution of the respondents by their origin, gender, age and education. This information was important to the study because it helps the reader to understand some pertinent issues that may have a bearing on the analysis; for instance, how the biographic information relates to the schoolchildren. The data were presented in both tabular and text forms.

Part A of the questionnaire was concerned with demographic information. The purpose of this part was to ascertain the respondents that were visited and returned the questionnaire. This part consists of three (3) questions.

#### **4.2.1.1 Respondents' Place of Residence**

The first (1<sup>st</sup>) demographic question asked about the institutions, district and region at which the respondents live. The results to this question are indicated in Table 4.1. Firstly, it is noted that the researcher distributed the questionnaire according to the total number of respondents that were in each school, district and region (Table 4.1). There was equal distribution of respondents in the study area. Secondly, the results confirm that the researcher visited all the Schools, districts and regions in order to increase the external and internal validity of data of the study (see Chapter 4, sections 4.3-4.4).

#### **4.2.1.2 Gender and Age of Respondents**

The second and third (2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup>) demographic questions were about gender and age of the respondents. The results of these questions are indicated in Table 4.3 and Figure 4.1 showing that the majority of those who participated in the study were children between 5-17 years old, followed by youth in the age category of 18-43 years old and adults above 35 years old. Respondents disaggregated by gender show that from the study involved 698 respondents, whereby 360 (52%) were male and 338 (48%) female.

Schoolchildren were 322, whereby male were 199 and female were 123 (Table 4.3); education officers and teachers were 85 male and 67 female; parents/guardians were 64 male and 72 female; and key informants (policy and decision makers) were 55 male and 33 female. Respondents in terms of gender, in Arusha were 89 male and 86 female; Dar es Salaam had 87 male and 89 female; Manyara had 90 male and 85

female; and Zanzibar West had 94 male and 78 female. The result means all age categories and gender were reached and involved in the study.

#### 4.2.1.3 Respondents' Educational Level

The fourth (4<sup>th</sup>) demographic question was about the education attainment by the respondents. The results of the study were reported in Table 4.4. This shows that the study involved all respondents with or without formal education.

#### 4.2.2 Number of Respondents

This research involved a total of 698 respondents (Table 4.1). Initially, the study had intended to involve 720 respondents, in the end the survey reached 698 respondents representing 97% of the target, with 3% of the respondents missing which is statistically insignificant. The respondents composed of the 322 (46%) schoolchildren (Primary, O-level and A-level), 152 (22%) education officers and teachers, 136 (19%) parents, and 88 (13%) key informants (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1: Respondents by Categories**

<b>Sampling Frame of Respondents (N=698)</b>		<b>Percentage</b>
<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	
Schoolchildren (Primary, O-level and A-level)	322	46
Education Officers and Teachers	152	22
Parents and Guardians	136	19
Key Informants	88	13
<b>Total</b>	<b>698</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>Target</b>	<b>720</b>	
<b>Missing</b>	<b>22</b>	

Source: Field Data (2013)

### 4.2.3 Respondents by Region

The study area included four (4) regions namely; Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Manyara, and Zanzibar West (Urban). The study drew equal number of respondents (25%) from each region. Table 4.2 shows the distribution of respondents by region.

**Table 4.2: Distribution of Respondents by Region**

<b>Sampling Frame of Respondents (N = 698)</b>				
	<b>Frequency</b>			
<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Arusha</b>	<b>Dar es Salaam</b>	<b>Manyara</b>	<b>Zanzibar</b>
Schoolchildren	81	82	81	78
Education Officers and Teachers	38	38	38	38
Parents and Guardians	34	34	34	34
Policy and Decision makers	22	22	22	22
<b>Percentage</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>25</b>

Source: Field Data (2013)

### 4.2.4 Respondents by Gender

This study involved 698 respondents, whereby 360 (52%) were male and 338 (48%) female. Schoolchildren were 199 male and 123 female; education officers and teachers were 85 male and 67 female; parents/guardians were 64 male and 72 female; and policy and decision makers were 55 male and 33 female. Respondents in terms of sex, in Arusha were 89 male and 86 female; Dar es Salaam had 87 male and 89 female; Manyara had 90 male and 85 female; and Zanzibar West had 94 male and 78 female. Table 4.3 shows distribution of respondents by gender.

In addition, the study shows that the majority of the respondents (58%) were male, while female were 42%. The fact that there were more men in the sample than female is not by design; and these gender imbalances indicate that there are more

male schoolchildren (primary and secondary), teachers, parents/guardians, and policy and decision makers than female in Tanzania.

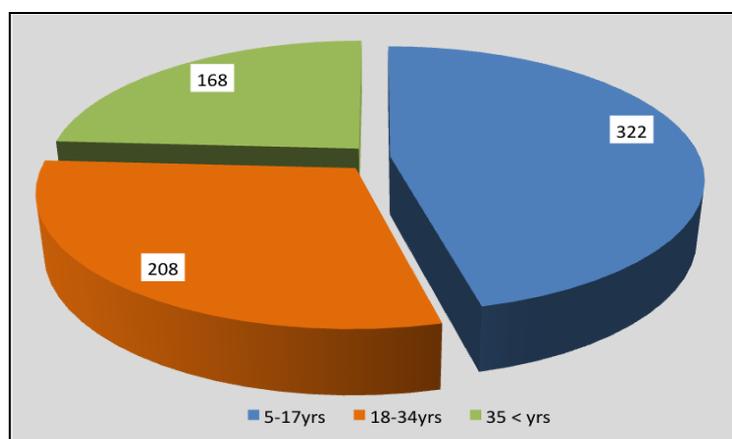
**Table 4.3: Distribution of Respondents by Gender**

<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Schoolchildren	199	123	322
Teachers and Education officers	85	67	152
Parents and guardians	64	72	136
Key Informants	55	33	88
<b>Total</b>	<b>403</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>698</b>
<b>Percent</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.2.5 Respondents by Age

This study involved 46% respondents in the age category of 5-17 years (children), 30% respondents who were between 18-34 years (youth) and 24% respondents with age category of 35 years and above (Figure 4.1). This study defines a child as any person below the age 18 (Tanzania's Law of the Child Act, 2009; ILO Convention number 138 and 182). Moreover, youth is defined as any person between the ages of 18-34 (Tanzania's Youth Development Policy, 1996).



**Figure 4.1: Distribution of Respondents by Age**

Source: Field Data (2016)

Figure 4.1 shows that all schoolchildren involved in the study were in the age category of 5-17; 87 and 65 education officers and teachers were in the age categories of 18-34 and above 35 years respectively. In addition, the table indicates that 83 and 53 parents/guardians ranged between 18-34 and above 35 years in that order. Furthermore, policy and decision makers were 38 in the age of 18-34 and 50 in the age of above 35 years.

Figure 4.1 further illustrates that the majority (75.9%) of the respondents in the study were relatively young (below 34 years). This scenario of children and youth coupled with the education attainment as illustrated in Figure 4.1 call for an effective marketing and promotion of tourism industry, because as illustrated in chapter two, there is a need for a more pro-active creation of awareness on tourism among young Tanzanians in order to make them become domestic tourists in future. Implication for this finding is that the government of the united republic of Tanzania and other tourism stakeholders need to devise a strategy that targets young generation for a robust and sustainable tourism industry the fact which is supported by the Tanzania Tourism Master Plan, 2002.

As the majority of the respondents were relatively young, again this suggests that there is need for an effective marketing strategy, which will help mould and integrate children into the tourism issues as their age denotes some energy and desire to achieve more. Education qualifications become an asset to them as they are able to understand issues better due to the knowledge and skills possessed by educated people. Therefore, in the process of inculcating the children and youth into the tourism issues, targeting market segments for the tourism awareness campaigns

should target schoolchildren in secondary schools and their teachers. This approach is also supported by both the Tanzania Tourism Master Plan (2002) and Botswana Tourism Master Plan (2000).

#### 4.2.6 Respondents by Education Level

In terms of education level, the survey involved 37% respondents who had primary education, 36% respondents had secondary education (O-level and A-level combined) and 27% stated that had college education. The study refers to primary and secondary education as to those children still in both primary or secondary education and those who have completed those levels. College education refers to those participants who completed college or university education (Table 4.4).

**Table 4.4: Distribution of Respondents by Education Level**

Respondents	Frequency				
	Primary	Secondary	College	University	Total
Schoolchildren	103	219	0	0	<b>322</b>
Education Officers and Teachers	0	16	118	18	<b>152</b>
Parents and Guardians	106	24	4	2	<b>136</b>
Key Informants	14	24	32	18	<b>88</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>223</b>	<b>283</b>	<b>154</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>698</b>
<b>Percentage</b>	32	41	22	5	100

Source: Field Data (2016)

Table 4.4 shows distribution of respondents by level of education. 37 % of the respondents had primary education, 36% of the respondents had attained secondary

education and 28% of the respondents had college/university education. This demonstrates the fact that majority of the people in Tanzania have primary education, followed by secondary education and the college/university education. The findings were very helpful especially when designing domestic tourism marketing and communication strategy one needs to know the levels of education among the target population. Thus, primary and secondary school leavers being the majority in Tanzania's population, a strategy for inculcating tourism values to schoolchildren is very relevant and appropriate in transforming domestic tourism in future. The schoolchildren when subjected to tourism studies while at school will allow an opportunity to become potential domestic tourists.

This section provides a clear picture of the kind of population the researcher dealt with. It has given clear information on the gender, age, and education of the respondents. Such data becomes very useful during the analytic process as it informs the researcher of the categories of the respondents. The next section deals with the analysis based on the research overall objective and specific objectives of the study, which were clearly stated in chapter one sections 1.5.1 and 1.5.2.

### **4.3 Level of Awareness on Domestic Tourism among Respondents**

#### **4.3.1 Schoolchildren's Awareness on Domestic Tourism Issues**

This questionnaire item sought to establish schoolchildren's awareness on tourist issues. The data showed that out of the 322 schoolchildren reached, 225 (68.6%) stated that were unaware on domestic tourism issues, while 95 (29%) demonstrated awareness on domestic tourism issues. In addition, it was discovered that 224 (68.3%) children were unaware and 97 (29.6%) were aware of available local tourist

attractions. The implication of these results is that firstly tourism is not taught at school; secondly schools lack tourism study trips for children; no tourism promotion activities take place at schools; parents and guardians do not have tendency of visiting tourism attractions and that there is something wrong with our education system in relation to domestic tourism and tourism sector as a whole. Table 4.5 below provides the summary of schoolchildren's responses on their awareness on domestic tourism issues.

**Table 4.5: Level of Awareness on Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware on tourism	225	68.6	69.9	69.9
	Aware on tourism	95	29.0	29.5	99.4
	Don't Know	2	.6	.6	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Further analysis shows that 217 (66.2%) children had not visited any tourist attraction, while 105 (32%) indicated that they had visited tourist attractions (Table 4.5). This shows that the schoolchildren who were unaware of the general domestic tourism issues were also unaware of the existing local tourist attractions in the country, which was very much linked to low visitation to the local tourist attractions among the children.

**Table 4.6: Level of Awareness on Local Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	224	68.3	69.6	69.6
	Aware	97	29.6	30.1	99.7
	Don't know	1	.3	.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### **4.3.2 Teachers and Education Officers' Awareness on Domestic Tourism Issues**

This study reached a total of 152 teachers and education officers and explored their levels of awareness on domestic tourism issues. It was noted that 121 (79.1%) were aware of domestic tourism issues, while 3 (2%) stated that they were unaware of domestic tourism issues. It was also revealed that 129 (84.3%) children were aware and 20 (13.1%) were unaware of available local tourist attractions. The implication of these results is that teachers and other education stakeholders are educated and sensitized about tourism issues. However, a significant number of those who seemed to be unaware show the existing gaps in the tourism promotion efforts in the country. Teachers in Tanzania are involved in most socio-economic activities, ranging from elections, population census, vaccinations, and several other campaigns. The results showing that there are some teachers who are not aware of tourism issues is something that needs to be addressed. Tables 4.7 and 4.8 below respectively present the responses of teachers and education officers' replies on their awareness on domestic tourism issues.

**Table 4.7: Teachers' Awareness of Tourism Issues**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Aware	121	79.1	79.6	81.6
	Don't know	28	18.3	18.4	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

In addition, the study established that 67 (43.8%) teachers and education officers had toured some tourist attractions, while 83 (54.2%) stated that they had never been to any tourist attraction (Table 4.8). The relatively high level of visitation among the teachers and education officers is associated with their level of awareness on both tourism issues and available local tourist attractions.

**Table 4.8: Teachers' Awareness of Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	20	13.1	13.2	13.2
	Aware	129	84.3	84.9	98.0
	Don't know	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

### 4.3.3 Parents and Guardians' Awareness on Domestic Tourism Issues

This study consulted with total of 176 parents and guardians on their levels of awareness on domestic tourism issues. It was observed that out of the 176 respondents 117 (66.5%) were unaware on domestic tourism issues, whilst 16 (9.1%) said that they were aware on domestic tourism issues (Table 4.8). It was also observed that 111 (63.1%) children were unaware and 22 (12.5%) were aware of existing local tourist attractions (Table 4.9). The implication of these findings is that parents and guardians seem to be unaware of what happening in the tourism industry. This further demonstrates the reasons why conservation of the natural resources, especially wild resources is challenging in Tanzania. It is obvious that low visitation to local tourism attractions is attributed to lack of awareness of the available attractions. This calls for urgent intervention on how we bring up the young generation. There is a need for starting creating awareness on tourism issues to the young generation if Tanzania intends to have sustainable tourism sector. Tables 4.9 respectively present the responses of parents and guardians' replies on their awareness on domestic tourism issues.

**Table 4.9: Parents' Awareness of Domestic Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	117	66.5	86.0	86.0
	Aware	16	9.1	11.8	97.8
	Don't know	1	.6	.7	98.5
	4	2	1.1	1.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Furthermore, this research found that 114 (64.8%) parents and guardians never visited any tourist attractions, while 22 (12.5%) stated that they had had visited some tourist attractions (Table 4.9). These findings suggest awareness on domestic tourism issues influences awareness existence of local tourist attractions, which lead to travel motivation to the destinations (Table 4.10).

**Table 4.10: Parents and Guardians' Awareness of Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	111	63.1	81.6	81.6
	Aware	22	12.5	16.2	97.8
	Don't know	3	1.7	2.2	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.3.4 Key Informants' Awareness on Domestic Tourism Issues

This survey involved 88 key informants by attempting to establish their levels of awareness on domestic tourism issues. It was found that out of the 88 respondents 37 (40.7%) were unaware on domestic tourism issues and the remaining 46 (50.5%) stated that they were aware on domestic tourism issues (Table 4.11).

**Table 4.11: Key Informants' Awareness on Domestic Tourism Issues**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	37	40.7	42.0	42.0
	Aware	46	50.5	52.3	94.3
	Don't Know	5	5.5	5.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

The study further established that 58 (63.7%) key informants were unaware and 30 (33%) were aware of existing local tourist attractions (Table 4.12). The findings on inadequate awareness on domestic tourism issues and limited awareness on the locally available local tourist attractions is very much linked to limited visitation tendency experienced among the key informants.

**Table 4.12: Key Informants' Participation in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Unaware	58	63.7	65.9	65.9
	Aware	30	33.0	34.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### **4.4 Participation at Domestic Tourism**

##### **4.4.1 Schoolchildren's Participation**

This study noted that out of the 322 schoolchildren contacted, 305 (93%) stated that had not visited any tourist attraction before and 17 (5.2%) indicated that they had visited some tourist attractions (Table 4.13).

This observation implies that unless protracted effort is carried out, there is little prospect that schoolchildren will develop appropriate habits for becoming domestic tourists in future.

**Table 4.13: Schoolchildren's Participation in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Visited	17	5.2	5.3	5.3
	Not visited	305	93.0	94.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

It was as well revealed that 287 (87.5%) children were not interested in visiting local tourist attractions, while only 35 (10.7%) expressed interested in going for visitation (Table 4.14).

**Table 4.14: Schoolchildren's Interest in Visiting Local Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	35	10.7	10.9	10.9
	No	287	87.5	89.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

The low visitation rate found among primary and secondary schoolchildren is a common phenomenon despite the fact Tanzania is naturally endowed with tourist attractions. This study establishes that low tourist visitation rate existing among schoolchildren is very much associated with the lack of interest in going for visitation among them. In other words, awareness influences need for visitation.

**Table 4.15: Schoolchildren's Reasons for Participation in Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inadequate awareness on tourism issues	237	72.3	73.6	73.6
	Inadequate disposable income	42	12.8	13.0	86.6
	Not in our culture	30	9.1	9.3	96.0
	Don't know	13	4.0	4.0	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Schoolchildren were also asked to state reasons why most of them have not been able to visit tourist attractions. It was found that 72.3% of the children stated lack of awareness on tourism issues as one of the major barrier for visitation. 12.8% of children stated that their parents do not have enough disposable income, while 9.1% said that it is caused by tourism not being part of their culture and 4% did not know the cause for lack of participation at domestic tourism among them (Table 4.15).

**Table 4.16: Schoolchildren's Opinion over Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Growth	232	70.7	72.0	72.0
	Retardation	54	16.5	16.8	88.8
	Don't know	36	11.0	11.2	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Also schoolchildren were asked to state importance of participation at domestic tourism. 70.7% said that visitation to attractions leads to growth of domestic tourism, while 16.5% opposed and 11% did not know at all (Table 4.16).

#### 4.4.2 Teachers and Education Officers' Participation in Domestic Tourism

This study visited a total of 152 teachers and education officers and explored their levels of participation at domestic tourism. It was established that 67 (43.8%) stated that had visited some tourist attractions, whereas 83 (54.2%) had never visited any tourist attraction (Table 4.17).

**Table 4.17: Teachers' Participation in Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Visited	67	43.8	44.1	44.1
	Not visited	83	54.2	54.6	98.7
	Don't remember	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

It was also noted that 145 (94.8%) teachers and education officers expressed interest in participation at domestic tourism, while only 7 (4.6%) of them stated that they would not like to go for visitation (Table 4.18). The high interest in participating at domestic tourism expressed by the teachers and education officers is not surprising because their levels of awareness on domestic tourism and existence of respective tourist attractions is high (Table 4.7 and Table 4.8).

**Table 4.18: Teachers' Interest in Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	145	94.8	95.4	95.4
	No	7	4.6	4.6	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

In Table 4.19, teachers and education officers were asked to state reasons why some of them have not been able to participate at domestic tourism. It was found that 73.2% of the teachers mentioned lack of awareness on tourism issues as one of the major problems for participation. 13.7 % of teachers stated inadequate disposable income to be a challenge, while 6.5% said that it is caused by tourism not being part of their culture and 5.9% did not know the cause for lack of participation among them.

**Table 4.19: Teachers' Reasons for Participation in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inadequate awareness on tourism issues	112	73.2	73.7	73.7
	Inadequate disposable income	21	13.7	13.8	87.5
	Not our culture	10	6.5	6.6	94.1
	Don't know	9	5.9	5.9	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Also teachers were asked to state importance of participation at domestic tourism. 68% said that participation at domestic tourism leads to growth of domestic tourism, while 2.6% opposed and 1.3% did not know at all (Table 4.20).

**Table 4.20: Teachers' Opinion of Visitation to Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	104	68.0	94.5	94.5
	No	4	2.6	3.6	98.2
	Don't know	2	1.3	1.8	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>71.9</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	43	28.1		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.4.3 Parents and Guardians' Visitation to Tourism Attractions

This study reached a total of 176 parents and guardians and sought their status of domestic tourism. It was found that 22 (12.5%) stated that had visited some tourism attractions, whereas 114 (64.8%) had never visited any tourist attraction (Table 4.21).

**Table 4.21: Parents' Visitation to Tourism Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Visited	22	12.5	16.2	16.2
	Not visited	114	64.8	83.8	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

The study found that 35 (19.9%) of the parents and guardians expressed interest in visiting local tourist attractions, while only 101 (57.4%) of them stated that they would not like to go for visitation (Table 4.22). The low interest in visiting the attraction expressed by the parents and guardians reflects the fact that even the level of awareness on domestic tourism and associated tourism attraction is low among them (Table 4.21 and Table 4.22).

**Table 4.22: Parents' Interest in Participating in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	35	19.9	25.7	25.7
	No	101	57.4	74.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Parents and guardians in the study were also asked to mention reasons why some of them have not been able to participate at domestic tourism. It was discovered that 60.2% of the key parents mentioned lack of awareness on tourism issues as one of the key hindrances for visitation. 17 % of the parents mentioned pointed out inadequate disposable income as an obstacle (Table 4.23).

**Table 4.23: Parents' Reasons for Participation in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inadequate awareness on tourism issues	106	60.2	77.9	77.9
	In adequate disposable income	30	17.0	22.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

**Table 4.24: Key Informants' Interest in Participating in Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	75	82.4	85.2	85.2
	No	12	13.2	13.6	98.9
	11	1	1.1	1.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

The study found that 75 (82.4%) of the key informants expressed interest in participating at domestic tourism, while 12 (13.2%) of them stated that they would not like to go for visitation (Table 4.24). The relatively high interest in participating at domestic tourism expressed by the key informants is associated with their understanding of tourism entails and also they know what and where and which tourist attraction to visit.

**Table 4.25: Key Informants' Reasons for Participation in Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Inadequate awareness on tourism issues	70	76.9	79.5	79.5
	Inadequate disposable income	12	13.2	13.6	93.2
	Not our culture	6	6.6	6.8	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Findings in Table 4.26 show that 86.8% of the key informants stated that participating at domestic tourism contributes to domestic tourism growth. 6.6% opposed and 3.3% did not know at all (Table 4.26).

**Table 4.26: Key Informants' Opinion Over Importance of Attractions**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	79	86.8	89.8	89.8
	No	6	6.6	6.8	96.6
	Don't know	3	3.3	3.4	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

## 4.5 Promotion of Domestic Tourism

### 4.5.1 Promotion of Domestic Tourism Among Schoolchildren

This study reached out 322 schoolchildren to seek their experience if domestic tourism in their areas has ever been promoted or not. It was found that 65.2% have never heard of domestic tourism in promotions, while 11% stated that they once heard domestic tourism being promoted. 11% of the children were not sure if they ever heard of such promotions (Table 4.27).

**Table 4.27: Schoolchildren's Views on Domestic Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	36	11.0	11.2	11.2
	No	214	65.2	66.7	77.9
	Don't know	71	21.6	22.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>321</b>	<b>97.9</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	7	2.1		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Table 4.28 shows that 56.4% of the schoolchildren indicated level of domestic tourism promotion being extremely low in their areas. 39% stated that promotion is low and others said its medium.

**Table 4.28: Schoolchildren's Views on Level of Domestic Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	128	39.0	39.8	39.8
	Medium	9	2.7	2.8	42.5
	Extremely Low	185	56.4	57.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.5.2 Teachers and Education Officers' Views on Promotion of Domestic Tourism

Findings in Table 4.29 indicate that 59.1% of the teachers stated that the level of domestic tourism promotion was extremely low in their community, while 15.3% stated that promotion is low and 2.8% said its medium.

**Table 4.29: Teachers' Opinion on Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely low	104	59.1	76.5	76.5
	Low	27	15.3	19.9	96.3
	Medium	5	2.8	3.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Table 4.30 indicates that out of 176 teachers and education officers, 46% stated that domestic tourism is not promoted at all, while 12.5% said that it's being promoted. 18.8% were not sure if its being promoted or not. This implies that much remains to be done to ensure the population becomes is aware of the endowments the country is blessed with (Table 4.30).

**Table 4.30: Teachers and Education Officers' Opinion on Domestic Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	22	12.5	16.2	16.2
	No	81	46.0	59.6	75.7
	Don't know	33	18.8	24.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

**Table 4.31: Teachers' View on Promotion of Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Teaching Tourism to schoolchildren at school	135	88.2	88.8	88.8
	Establishment of children competitions on Tourism issues	2	1.3	1.3	90.1
	On job training of teachers on Tourism issues	10	6.5	6.6	96.7
	All of the above	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>99.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	1	.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>153</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Findings in Table 4.31 express the opinion of the teachers and education officers on what to be done to promote domestic tourism in Tanzania. 88.2% of the teachers and education officers reached advised on the need for teaching tourism as a subject to schoolchildren, while 6.6% of the teachers suggested on job training for teachers in tourism issues so they transfer knowledge to children.

#### 4.5.3 Parents and Guardians' Views on Promotion of Domestic Tourism

This study indicates that 59.1% of the parents and guardians suggest that the level of promotion of domestic tourism in Tanzania is extremely low. 15.3% said that the level of promotion is relatively low and 2.8% stated that its just medium (Table 4.32).

**Table 4.32: Parents' Views on Promotion of Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Extremely low	104	59.1	76.5	76.5
	Low	27	15.3	19.9	96.3
	Medium	5	2.8	3.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

The results in Table 4.33 show respondents' experience if they ever heard of domestic tourism being promoted in their community. 46% of these stated that they never heard of domestic tourism being promoted while 12.5% pointed out that

domestic tourism is being promoted and 18.8% stated that they actually do not know whether domestic tourism is being promoted or not.

**Table 4.33: Parents' Experience in Domestic Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	22	12.5	16.2	16.2
	No	81	46.0	59.6	75.7
	Don't know	33	18.8	24.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

**Table 4.34: Parents' Opinion on Promoting of Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Teaching Tourism to schoolchildren at school	120	68.2	88.2	88.2
	On job tourism training to teachers	2	1.1	1.5	89.7
	All of the above	14	8.0	10.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.5.4 Key Informants' Views on Promotion of Domestic Tourism

Findings in Table 4.35 show key respondents' experience if they ever heard of domestic tourism being promoted in their areas or not. 75.8% of these stated that they had never heard of domestic tourism being promoted, while 8.8% pointed out that domestic tourism is being promoted and 12.1% stated that they really do not know whether domestic tourism is being promoted or not.

**Table 4.35: Key Informants' Experience on Domestic Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	8	8.8	9.1	9.1
	No	69	75.8	78.4	87.5
	Don't know	11	12.1	12.5	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

This study shows that 27.5% of the key informants suggest that the level of promotion of domestic tourism in Tanzania is extremely low, while 62.6% said that the level of promotion is relatively low and 6.6% stated that its just medium (Table 4.36).

**Table 4.36: Key Informants' Views on Tourism Promotion**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Low	57	62.6	64.8	64.8
	Medium	6	6.6	6.8	71.6
	Extremely Low	25	27.5	28.4	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

**Table 4.37: Key Informants' Opinion on the Role of Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	80	87.9	90.9	90.9
	No	8	8.8	9.1	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Table 4.37 shows the opinion of key informants on the importance of domestic tourism to the economy. 87.9% stated that domestic tourism is important, while 8.8% said that it is not important.

**Table 4.38: Key Informants Suggestions on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	83	91.2	94.3	94.3
	No	3	3.3	3.4	97.7
	Don't know	2	2.2	2.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Results in Table 4.38 indicate key informants' suggestions on the need for teaching tourism to schoolchildren. 91.2% stated that it is important, 3.3% opposed and 2.2% do not know whether it is important or not.

#### 4.6 Prospects of Including Tourism Issues into Primary and Secondary Education Curricula

##### 4.6.1 Schoolchildren's Views on Inclusion of Domestic Tourism into Education Curricula

This study reached a total of 322 children in primary and secondary schools to seek their experience on whether tourism is taught at school or not. 93.9% of the children stated that tourism is not taught in class. 3.4% said that tourism is taught and 0.9% seemed were not sure (Table 4.39).

**Table 4.39: Schoolchildren's Experience on Tourism**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	308	93.9	95.7	95.7
	Yes	11	3.4	3.4	99.1
	Don't know	3	.9	.9	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Results in Table 4.40 indicate views of the children in primary and secondary schools on if there are subjects at school which have topics on tourism. 93.6% stated that none of the subjects has a separate topic on tourism. 3.4% stated that there are some subjects with tourism topic and 1.2% of the children were not sure.

**Table 4.40: Schoolchildren's Views on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	307	93.6	95.3	95.3
	Yes	11	3.4	3.4	98.8
	Don't know	4	1.2	1.2	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Results in Table 4.41 express schoolchildren's appeal to the government for introducing tourism subject to schools. 97.6% of the children strongly appealed to the government to consider introducing tourism subject to schools.

**Table 4.41: Schoolchildren's Opinion on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No	2	.6	.6	.6
	Yes	320	97.6	99.4	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>322</b>	<b>98.2</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	6	1.8		
<b>Total</b>		<b>328</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.6.2 Teachers and Education Officers' Views on including Tourism issues into Education Curricula

**Table 4.42: Teachers' Comments on Tourism in the Curriculum**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	8	5.2	5.3	5.3
	No	144	93.5	94.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>98.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>154</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Findings in Table 4.42 indicate teachers and education officers on whether tourism is included in the current curricula at primary and secondary education in Tanzania. 93.5% of the teachers and education officers stated that tourism is not included in the existing curricula. 5.2% stated that tourism is indirectly included in the current curricula.

**Table 4.43: Teachers' Comments on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	4	4.4	4.5	4.5
	No	82	90.1	93.2	97.7
	Don't know	2	2.2	2.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

This study reached a total of 88 teachers and education officers to seek their experience on whether tourism is taught at school or not. 90.1% of the teachers stated that tourism is not taught in class.4.5% said that tourism is taught and 2.2% seemed to be not sure (Table 4.43).

**Table 4.44: Teachers' Opinion on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	149	98.0	98.0	100
	No	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>152</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>154</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Findings in Table 4.44 show that 98% of the teachers and education officers reached by this study appeal to the government for introducing tourism subject to schools. 2% of the teachers do not recommend.

#### **4.6.3 Parents and Guardians Views on including Tourism into the Curricula**

This study reached a total of 176 parents and guardians to seek their experience on whether tourism is taught at school or not. 90.1% of the parents stated that tourism is not taught in class.4.5% said that tourism is taught and 2.2% seemed to be not sure (Table 4.43).

**Table 4.45: Parents' Comments on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	131	74.4	96.3	96.3
	No	5	2.8	3.7	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Results in Table 4.45 express parents and guardians' appeal to the government for introducing tourism subject to schools. 67% of the parents advise the government to consider introducing tourism subject to schools, while 5.1% do not recommend and 5.1% were not sure.

**Table 4.46: Parents' Comments on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	118	67.0	86.8	86.8
	No	9	5.1	6.6	93.4
	Don't know	9	5.1	6.6	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	40	22.7		
<b>Total</b>		<b>176</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

#### 4.6.4 Key Informants' Views on including Tourism into the Curricula

**Table 4.47: Key Informants' Comments on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	4	4.4	4.5	4.5
	No	82	90.1	93.2	97.7
	Don't know	2	2.2	2.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

This study involved 88 key informants and wanted to establish their experience on whether tourism is taught at school or not. 90.1% of the stated that tourism is not taught in class, 4.4% said that tourism is taught and 2.2% seemed to be not sure (Table 4.46).

**Table 4.48: Key Informants' Comments on Teaching Tourism at School**

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	83	91.2	94.3	94.3
	No	3	3.3	3.4	97.7
	Don't know	2	2.2	2.3	100.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>88</b>	<b>96.7</b>	<b>100.0</b>	
Missing	System	3	3.3		
<b>Total</b>		<b>91</b>	<b>100.0</b>		

Source: Field Data (2016)

Results in Table 4.47 show key informants' appeal to the government for introducing tourism subject to schools. 91.2% of the key informants advise the government to consider introducing tourism subject to schools, while 3.3% do not recommend and 2.2% seemed to be not sure.

The study reveals that majority of the respondents, especially schoolchildren were of opinion that tourism should be taught in primary and secondary schools in Tanzania. If tourism was to be taught in schools, hence therefore, it should first be part of the curricula. Once tourism is taught as a subject at primary and secondary schools, children will grow with it and allow them opportunity to know and like tourism thus increasing likelihoods of being potential domestic tourist. The findings of this study are responsive to the call of the Tanzania Government through its Tourism Policy as narrated in section 5.8.2 of this survey. The Government acknowledges the gaps in developing domestic tourism, thus recommends that in order to promote domestic tourism, tourism studies and other tailor made programs should be introduced to the education system in Tanzania, targeting mainly schoolchildren and students in high learning institutions. Furthermore, the policy calls for concerted efforts of stakeholders in ensuring that tourism studies are inculcated to the young generation due to the fact that they are the potential market segment for future domestic tourism.

In addition, the study findings confirm what other previous researches found in other countries that some countries have successfully transformed their tourism industry after inculcating tourism values into their children through different approaches. The need for involving schoolchildren for future domestic tourism development was also emphasized by the Botswana Tourism Master Plan as discussed in section 3.2 in this

study, that in order to transform domestic tourism sector education and training of future generations is an essential condition for its future development. The Plan further stresses that today's schoolchildren are tomorrow's policy and decision-makers, entrepreneurs, managers and tourists. Therefore, in addition to education and training for direct employment in tourism, there is a need for incorporating exposure to the subject of tourism in the school curriculum. Tourism awareness in schools should possess various components including tourism as a socio-economic phenomenon, environmental education and conservation, cultural heritage, performing arts and crafts, promotion of domestic tourism and tourism as a career prospect.

The research findings reveal that schoolchildren are agents for change in domestic tourism sector in Tanzania. This discovery was also noted by Good and Brophy, (2003) as narrated in chapter 2 of this report that social cognitions and feelings are also influenced by school and these may be just as powerful in predicting later outcome as intelligence.

The discoveries confirm that such indirect effects of school are more elusive because they are mediated by children's motivation to learn or avoid learning, their conception of themselves as pupils, and the attributions they create for explaining success and failure. Cognitive and motivational mediators of indirect effects continue to exert influence on individual development outside and beyond school. Local histories, excursions, drama, sports, culture, weekend pick-nicks for boarding and many others are examples of tourism activities for schoolchildren in their contexts.

Fraser *et al.* (1990) in section 2.3.5 in this study had similar findings whereby she defined education as the ‘activity engaged in when an adult who has superior knowledge and insight purposefully teaches a child, adolescent or adult in order to become intellectually independent and socially responsible (namely, mature adult)’. The Encyclopedia of Educational Development and Planning (1996) as stated in chapter two agrees with the research findings that education is a process of ‘leading out the inborn powers and potentialities and enabling the child to become what he/she is capable of becoming’.

Also Ritchie (2003) as discussed in section 2.3.5 in this study, supports these findings by noting that educational tourism includes general educational tourism and adult study tours, international and domestic university and school students’ travel, including language schools, school excursions and exchange programs. For Educational tourism to be effective, should be integrated into school curricula especially at lower and intermediate levels.

Nyerere as stated in section 2.3.5 supports the findings of this research by stating that the purpose of education is to transmit from one generation to the next the accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the society and to prepare the young people for their future membership of the society and their active participation in its maintenance or development. In relation to this survey, the education approach identifies the need for inculcating values to the young generation so that they may grow with them and end up becoming responsible citizens. Nyerere further notes that children are both potential parents and leaders; therefore it is important to ensure

they grow up with norms and value that safeguard nature and promote sustainable domestic tourism industry. He adds that the inculcation of values to children can only be done at both school and home, which is more less the same as the study proposes.

#### **4.7 Summary**

This section summarises key findings and recommendations for mitigating challenges and gaps found in the course of assessing status and prospects of domestic tourism in schools, which is a development perspective for boosting domestic tourism in Tanzania.

The findings of this study show that the level of awareness on domestic tourism among schoolchildren is low (Table 4.5). This low level of awareness on domestic tourism issues among schoolchildren is attributed to the low level of awareness existing among their parents and guardians (Table 4.9). The study further found that teachers, and education officers, and the key informants were with high level of awareness on domestic tourism issues by 79% (Table 4.7) and 50.5% (Table 4.8) respectively. The considerable increased awareness on tourism among this group is associated with their education levels. Moreover, the study found that the level at which domestic tourism is being promoted in the country is extremely low (Table 4.28; 4.29; 4.32 and 4.36). In addition, this study discovered that there is low interest in visiting local tourism attractions among schools stakeholders, which is attributed to lack of awareness on domestic tourism issues (Table 4.15; 4.19; 4.23 and 4.25). The low interest in visiting tourism attractions is associated the groups' low participation at domestic tourism. The study also revealed that teachers, education

officers, parents, and the key informants were of the opinion that tourism should be mainstreamed into school curriculum in Tanzania (Table 4.41; 4.44; 4.45 and 4.47). The school children also expressed strong interest in learning about tourism and therefore suggested that tourism should be integrated into the school curriculum (Table 4.41).

Basing on the findings on the level of awareness, promotion, participation of the schools stakeholders and the extent of integration of domestic tourism issues into the school curriculum, this study suggests that schools stakeholders should be the fully involved in tourism awareness and promotion programs if Tanzania wants its domestic tourism to grow.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **PROSPECTS OF THE STUDY**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter gives a review of the prospects of the study focusing on the findings, experience, observations and empirical findings of the research.

#### **5.2 Finding of the Study**

This study revealed that the extent to which Tanzanians are aware of the general tourism issues is still low. However, the level of awareness on tourism varies with education level. For instance, it was found that among the learned people the level of awareness on tourism issues is higher than those who never and did go to school.

The study further discovered that the respondents who are aware on tourism issues possess strong interest in visiting tourism attractions. In other words, those people are aware of the tourism attractions are the ones interested in visiting those tourism attractions. This proves that awareness on tourism issues creates demand for visitation to the tourism attractions. Therefore, this study proposes to the tourism stakeholders, especially the GoT, TTB, Travel Agencies, Media and so on to invest heavily in tourism raising awareness campaigns if domestic tourism is to grow. The study found that tourism is not well promoted in the community, particularly in schools. Tourism is not taught in schools and no any campaigns that aim at promoting tourism among the school children and other school and community members. The children enter schools and leave schools without understanding what tourism does entail. The study also discovered that community members do not have

experiences of domestic tourism promotion also demonstrated low interest in visiting tourism attractions. This confirms that tourism promotion influences travel motivation among community members. This study proposes that tourism stakeholders, particularly the GoT, TTB, Travel Agencies, Media and other stakeholders should put much effort in tourism promotion campaigns if domestic tourism is to develop.

The research establishes that there is low involvement of the school stakeholders in the domestic tourism sector. Participation of the school children, teachers, parents, and other members in the community was reported to be low in the study area. Neither the teachers nor their pupils and students confirmed their fully involvement in domestic tourism activities. Also the parents and other stakeholders stated that they do not go for tourism trips. This study discovered the low level of involvement and participation of school stakeholders to the domestic tourism activities lays to the lack of awareness and lack of promotion of tourism issues in schools and the community. This is a very serious problem facing domestic tourism in Tanzania. Unless, tourism stakeholders raise awareness and promote domestic tourism attractions in the country, domestic tourism will grow in Tanzania.

The research discovered that there is low incorporation of tourism aspects in the school curriculum in Tanzania. Tourism is not taught in schools in Tanzania. Tourism aspects including familiarity with local tourism attractions among Tanzania were found to be low. Due to the fact that tourism is not taught in schools combined with both lack of tourism awareness and promotion campaigns, it is not surprising that there is low participation in domestic tourism among Tanzanians. Low

participation in domestic tourism activities leads to the low growth of the domestic tourism sector. This survey proposes that if Tanzania wants to transform its tourism industry, it is time for including tourism aspects in the school curriculum. It is time for tourism to be taught in schools as a subject.

This will allow an opportunity for the young generation to grow up with tourism in their up-bringing. The approach will enable Tanzania to have a generation that is mindful of the wild resources and environment. Teaching tourism in schools is expected to come up with parents, teachers, and other community members who will be aware, sensitized, and motivated to participate in domestic tourism activities thus boosting the domestic tourism sector.

### **5.3 Empirical Findings**

This study reveals that Tanzanians do not have a tendency of visiting tourism attractions. However, some tribes normally travel to visit their home places during end of the year festivals, particularly for Christmas and new-year celebrations. Apart from these end year home based visitations, Tanzanians are reluctant to travel to tourism attractions. This low participation in domestic tourism activities exists in all cadres among Tanzanians. The reasons for lack of interest in visiting tourism attractions are mainly both lack of awareness and lack of promotion of domestic tourism aspects. For instance through random sampling, this study met some people at various places in Dar es Salaam. In ten people found at Morocco Bus Terminal, none has ever been to a national park in Tanzania. Moreover, none of the ten people at Wazo Hill Roman Catholic Church found after mass service has ever been to a

National Park. None out of ten of the academic and non-academic staff at the Open University of Tanzania has ever been to the Peak of Mt. Kilimanjaro.

The incorporation of tourism aspects in the school curriculum in Tanzania will enable tourism to be taught to the children in schools across the country. Tourism will be one of the subjects taught in the classroom. This will provide an opportunity for tourism to be inculcated into the children. Children will grow up with tourism in their mind and up-bringing. When these children grow up, will love and respect the nature, especially the protected areas. This generation is expected to transform the tourism industry, more importantly the domestic tourism sector.

Tanzania lacks a national policy on domestic tourism, which could be the reason as to why the domestic tourism sector is unable to cushion the tourism industry in times of crisis affecting international travel. This study not only sought to assess status and prospect for domestic tourism in schools in the country but also intended to provide a framework on which domestic tourism policies and promotional tools can be founded. The findings of this research have been used to suggest appropriate avenues, through which domestic tourism can be developed to sustainability, provided knowledge on how several factors affect and influence Tanzanians' participation in domestic tourism, and form a basis for future researches in order to mitigate challenges and come up with solutions for the development and growth of domestic tourism in the country.

Tourism stakeholders including the government through the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, Tanzania Tourism Board, legislators, tour operators and agents,

hoteliers and many others will find recommendations in this research useful when formulating marketing and other promotional strategies intended to encourage Tanzanians into becoming reliable and potential domestic tourists.

Insights on how factors influence awareness, demand, promotion, travel motivation and eventually decision making as far as participation in domestic tourism activities is concerned will be useful for academic institutions and other researchers who would like to either gain knowledge or conduct further research in the domestic tourism sector.

Finally, the suggestions of this study are important to the overall economy as they attempt to provide a foundation through which domestic tourism can not only stand on its own feet to offer employment opportunities but also spur growth in other sectors such as transportation, agriculture, manufacturing and hospitality industry.

#### **5.4 Implications of the Study**

This section discusses the implications of the study for practice and for policy. In this case, the strategies and framework for promoting domestic tourism are proposed. The section also explains the legislative and policy measures that can be taken to ensure sustainable development of domestic tourism sector in the country.

This study will advance knowledge to the existing literature on what Tanzania should do in order to boost its domestic tourism sector. Moreover, this study forms a basis for another research on domestic tourism sector in Tanzania. For instance, this study focused on assessing status and prospect of domestic tourism in schools, then one

may be interested in assessing status and prospect of domestic tourism in the community. Furthermore, the study will encourage the policy and decision makers in the country to consider the paradigm of incorporating tourism in the school curriculum complementing Tanzania's Vision 2025 of making Tanzania a middle-income earner.

In addition, the findings of this research provide reasons as to why tourism is not taught in school in Tanzania. This forms a basis for developing strategies for promoting domestic tourism in the country. One of the strategies could be incorporating tourism studies in the school curriculum. Parallel to incorporating tourism studies in the school curriculum, this study further proposes that the tourism stakeholders, especially GoT, TTB, Tourism Travel Agencies, Media, and others should embark on a program to the community for raising awareness on tourism, attitude learning, passion and promoting love to nature and partnerships in domestic tourism in the country.

The study sought to assess status and prospect of how Tanzania's domestic tourism can be structured to act as a growth pole industry for the country's economy. The results showed that incorporation of tourism in the school curriculum was a significant factor influencing participation in domestic tourism. This calls for stakeholders to positively consider mainstreaming tourism into education and community programmes in Tanzania in order for the population particularly the coming generation to be aware on domestic tourism attractions and visit them.

Age was found to have a significant impact on the level of participation in domestic tourism. Specifically, it was found that the younger the individuals, the higher the

likelihood of participating in domestic tourism. This calls for practitioners in the tourism industry in Tanzania to ensure diversity in domestic tourism so as to appeal to different age groups as not all domestic tourism products are picked up the same way by everyone. Given the growing number of youth population in the country, it is important that this group be targeted more for domestic tourism.

Education was found to have a negative influence on participation in domestic tourism. What this means is that those with lower levels of education are more likely to participate in domestic tourism than those that had higher levels of education. Stakeholders in the industry especially those tasked with marketing the tourism in the country should market tourism products for different people depending on their levels of education. In fact, it would be beneficial for the tourism marketers to target those with college education and below, as they are more likely to participate in domestic tourism.

The results also showed that awareness was positively correlated with participation in domestic tourism. This means that those with higher awareness tend to participate more in domestic tourism than those with low awareness. Practitioners should therefore put efforts in tourism promotion to raise awareness among the population. The results showed that the current levels of participation in domestic tourism were 85% but only 14% had done foreign trips for tourism. Therefore, majority of the respondents had at least visited some domestic tourism sites in Tanzania in their lifetime. This suggests that more Tanzanians could be willing to tour domestic tourism sites and therefore revenue source for tourism industry in Tanzania.

The results also showed that the number of expected visits is higher than the current numbers. This is good news for the industry. If the impediments can be adequately addressed through legislative framework especially a government policy that can address these issues, more people will make more visits to the local tourism attractions. This will lead to massive growth of the industry as well as ensure sustainability of the industry. With terror strikes in East Africa region, especially in the neighbouring countries such as the Al-Shabab in Kenya and cases like in Rufiji and Mkuranga in the Coast region in Tanzania making the industry experience low foreign tourists and the fact that foreign tourists are also seasonal, focusing on domestic tourists would provide an alternative and sustainable revenue line for the industry. Indeed, most respondents did not think that they had made adequate number of visits suggesting that they are more willing to make more visits if things change. It is consequently in the interest of the industry and the government to address these constraints and help boost the industry.

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents conclusion of the study and provides recommendations focusing on the overall and specific objectives. The chapter also presents the suggestions for further research.

#### **6.2 Conclusion**

The status and prospect of domestic tourism in Tanzania rely in raising awareness on tourism to the schools stakeholders, particularly school children, parents, guardians, teachers, and policy and decision makers. This study has proved that unless Tanzania invests in creating awareness on tourism there shall be no growth in domestic tourism. Community members with low awareness on tourism do neither require nor are motivated to travel to the tourism attractions in the country. The findings of this study should enable the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania to review its both tourism and education policies in order to use schools stakeholders, especially schoolchildren in boosting domestic tourism. Empirical evidences in this study demonstrate that domestic tourism could perform well if tourism would be introduced to schools as a subject and taught to children. There is an urgent need for starting inculcating tourism values into the children, in order for them to be converted into potential domestic tourists. This study reveals the best clue for Tanzania that it can use schoolchildren in boosting domestic tourism in future. The study uncovers the problem and brings about the new experience on knowledge and

practice as the springboard towards the sustainable school emancipation program on domestic tourism in Tanzania.

### **6.3 Recommendations**

#### **6.3.1 Creation of Awareness on Domestic Tourism**

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that GoT should take immediate steps in promoting domestic tourism among the population. Developing the community awareness on domestic tourism should involve a strategic focus on the overall and long-term operation of tourism as an industry within the local communities. This can be done through educating and informing the community on tourism. This aspect should focus on setting objectives for the education of the local community in accordance with the overall goals of the organization and the community; devising and implementing strategies and programs to maximize the opportunity to inform all sections of the community about tourism; and communicating costs and benefits of tourism to the community on an ongoing basis. In addition, community awareness on tourism can be done through liaising with tourism stakeholders such as tour operators, hotels and accommodation sector, TANAPA, TTB, MNRT, transport operators, Air travel agencies and so on.

This involves identifying the main stakeholders in the host community; seeking views and opinions of stakeholders on an ongoing basis in relation to tourism activities; assessing and applying input from stakeholders in the planning and organization of tourism activities; and identifying potential conflicts relating to tourism and seeks solutions in consultation with relevant parties. The study suggests that the education of local communities, information sharing and cooperation among

stakeholders will generate a cohesive program of tourism awareness and a better appreciation of the industry as a whole, thus boosting domestic tourism. Media campaigns, networking and information exchange, research and advocacy are all part of the Study's sustainable school emancipation program on domestic tourism in Tanzania.

### **6.3.2 Tourism Promotional Strategies**

It is recommended that if Tanzania wants to boost its domestic tourism, there is a need for robust marketing and promotion strategy that needs to be seen from different temporal perspectives. What is needed in the short term may – almost certainly will - vary from the mid-to-long terms because both the product offering in the destination and market requirements change over time. No consideration of marketing strategy or development of a marketing plan can proceed without detailed understanding of the products available since it will be these products for which demand is sought through the campaign undertaken. Products and markets are mirror images of each other.

The lack of a clear tourism development and marketing strategy based on a prioritized list of products assessed in respect of their market (and market segment) potential, combined with the lack of coordination of marketing and promotional efforts of the national tourism agency, tourism associations and institutions, local authorities and private sector operators has led to the fragmentation of the country's tourism product presentation, and been a major contributory factor to the absence of sufficient critical mass of tourism products to attract significant inflows of domestic visitors.

### **6.3.2.1 Short Term Strategy**

It is strongly recommended that the government and private sector should invest substantive financial resources in promoting a wide spread of destinations as they cannot be justified when these areas are; not individually significant as tourist destinations; difficult to find/travel to; and isolated from other possible attractions, in that they do not form part of established and promoted destination packages, clusters or circuits. The study recommends that Tanzania's domestic tourism product development must be seen as a priority in order to create substantive destination products to achieve the necessary critical mass to attract foreign and local private sector investment. Tanzania possesses many opportunities for developing a more extensive tourism product. Many of these product development opportunities are, however, just that – opportunities. In the short term, then, the country's domestic tourism marketing should focus on what exists and move on from there.

### **6.3.2.2 Mid and Long Term Strategy**

It is further recommended that the tourism promotion strategy has also to pave the way for future product developments through destination image building. The findings for this study demonstrate that Tanzania presently does not have a clear visitation motivation strategy in the marketplace purposely domestic tourists. Addressing this issue requires attention to the destination's image through the development of a new, dynamic and evocative destination brand. In developing the appropriate brand image to build and sustain strong growth in the domestic market tourist segments/niches that the sector wishes to attract, full account must be taken not only of the present product offering but also future planned developments.

Therefore, the study recommends two components of Tanzania's future domestic marketing and promotion strategy: in the short term, strengthening demand for existing product offerings; and in the mid-to-long term creating a destination brand based on two key factors: a more widely diversified product offering than at present; and high quality product and service delivery producing outstanding visitor experiences.

### **6.3.3 Integrating Tourism into Education Curricula**

The findings of this research indicate that the majority of the people in Tanzania do not have interest in visiting tourism attraction in their country. Inadequate awareness on the availability of tourism attractions in their country was found to be among the key reasons for the low involvement in tourism activities. For this to materialize, something urgent needs to be done. Since the Tanzania education system covers pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary education and since the latter two involve children in the age category of 7-17 years, it is therefore recommended that government and private sector should urgently step in to integrate tourism into primary and secondary school curricula. This could be done through the review of existing curricula to include tourism as a subject and taught in schools.

### **6.3.4 Policy Recommendations**

Considering that domestic tourism sector is a major force for sustainable tourism development, thus it is recommended that Tanzania should have a robust and integrated policy framework, and effective, and accountable systems that enable and encourage multi-stakeholder collaboration on tourism planning, development and management.

Tourism planners should learn from mistakes made in the past and elsewhere and realise that the planning process is not a static but a continuous process which has to integrate 'exogenous changes and additional information'. Therefore, tourism planning should be flexible and adaptable; to cope with rapidly changing conditions and situations faced by a community. Nevertheless, many decision makers and developers are often located at a very considerable distance from the destination under development which means they may be unaware of, or unconcerned about any costs resulting from tourism development. The recommendations of the study support the clarification of the concept of tourism teaching in the light of the emerging paradigm of domestic tourism.

#### **6.4 Suggestions for Further Research**

- (i) One aspect for further research should examine deeper social and psychological reasons why some of the Tanzanian citizens are not interested in tourism activities.
- (ii) The other area that needs further investigation is the exploration of why tourism marketing and promotions mainly target foreign tourism markets, excluding the domestic market segments.
- (iii) Quantifying the size and contribution of domestic tourism sector into the Tanzanian economy.
- (iv) Contextualizing the meaning of domestic tourism in Tanzanian perspectives.
- (v) Developing mechanism for determining domestic tourism trips and their related revenues.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix I: Children's Questionnaire

#### A. BIODATA

Name of School	District	Region

		Male = 1	Boy = 2	Hermaphrodite=3
1	Gender of the child			

		5 - 9 = 1	10 - 13 = 2	14 - 17 = 3
2	What age category is the child?			

#### B. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT

		5 = 1	6 = 2	7 = 3
3	What class is the child?			

		Poor = 1	Average = 2	Good = 3
4	What level of literacy is the child?			
5	What level of numeracy is the child?			

**C. TOURISM AWARENESS**

		Poor=1	Average=2	High=3
6	What level is the child aware of tourism?			
7	What level is the child aware of local tourism attractions?			
8	What level does the child understand the meaning of tourism?			

		Never=1	Ever=2	Don't know=3
9	Have you ever been to any tourism attraction?			

**D. ATTRACTIONS VISITATION**

		Neighbors =1	Parents/Guardians=2	School/Religious group=3
10	Who did you go with?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
11	How long did you spend there?			
		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
12	What type of tourism attraction did you visit?			

		Don't know=1	NO=2	Yes=3
13	Would you like to visit any tourism attraction?			

		Neighbor =1	Parents/Guardia n=2	School/Religious group=3
14	Who would you like to go with?			

		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
15	What type of attraction would you like to visit?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
16	How long would you like to stay there?			

**E. CLASSROOM**

		1-5=1	6-10=2	11-15=3
17	How many subjects are in your class?			

		5-10=1	11-20=2	More than 20=3
18	How many subjects are taught a week?			

		1-3=1	4-6=2	7-9=3
19	How many subjects out of those related with tourism?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
20	Would like to learn about tourism?			

## Appendix II: Teachers' Questionnaire

**A. BIODATA**

Name of School	District	Region

		Male=1	Female=2	Hermaphrodite=3
1	Gender of the Teacher			

		18-35=1	36-50=2	50-60=3
2	What age category is the Teacher?			

**B. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT**

		Form IV and below =1	Certificate=2	Diploma=3	Graduate and above =4
3	What is the level of education?				

		Arts=1	Science=2	Sports = 3	Tourism=4
4	What subjects do you teach?				

		1-4=1	5-8=2	9-12=3
5	How many subjects do you teach a day?			

		5-10=1	11-15=2	16-20=3
6	How many subjects do you teach a week?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
7	Is Tourism in the primary/secondary school curricula?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
8	If not, would you suggest Tourism to be one of the subjects in primary/secondary education curricula in Tanzania?			

9. Mention advantages of making Tourism as one of the subjects in primary/secondary education in curricula in Tanzania?

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

		Arts=1	Science=2	Other =3
10	How many subjects do have topics on tourism			

		STD I-VII=1	F1-FIV=2	FV-VI=3
11	What class/form do you teach			

		Poor=1	Average=2	High=3
12	What level is the teacher aware of tourism?			
13	What level is the teacher aware of local tourism attractions?			
14	What level does the teacher understand the meaning of tourism?			

**C. ATTRACTIONS VISITATION**

		Never=1	Ever=2	Don't know=3
15	Have you ever been to any tourism attraction?			

		Neighbors=1	Parents/Guardians=2	School/Religious group=3
16	Who did you go with?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
17	How long did you spend there?			

		Museum/Historical Site =1	Religious (Church, Mosque etc) =2	Natural Resources (Mountain, lake, ocean etc) =3
18	What type of tourism attraction did you visit?			

		Don't know=1	NO=2	Yes=3
19	Would you like to visit any tourism attraction?			

20	Who would you like to go with?	Family =1	Fellow Teachers/Friends=2	Religious group=3

21	What type of attraction would you like to visit?	Museum/Hi storical Site =1	Religious (Church, Mosque etc) =2	Natural Resources (Mountain, lake, ocean etc) =3

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
22	How long would you like to stay there?			

**C. CLASSROOM**

		1-5=1	6-10=2	11-15=3
23	In average how many subjects are in one class (Excluding STD I and II?)			

		1-3=1	4-6=2	7-9=3
24	How many subjects are taught a day?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
25	Would like to learn about tourism?			
26	Do you think tourism subject is important in schools?	Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3

**F. ORGANIZATION**

		Yes=1	No=2	I do not remember =3
27	Have you ever organized any touristic event (excursion or Trip) in your school?			

		Good =1	Not Good =2	Mixed (average) =3
28	What was the response from other teachers?			
		Good =1	Not Good =2	Mixed (average) =3
29	What was the response from other the Students?			

**IF YES IN CASE THE RESPONSE WAS NOT GOOD**

		They were not interested =1	Financial Constraints =2	Parents/Guardians did not allow them =3
30	What do you think was the major reason for lack of good response?			
31	Do you think tourism subject is important in schools?	Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3

## Appendix III: Parents' Questionnaire

**A. BIODATA**

Name of Village	District	Region

**B. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT**

		Male=1	Boy=2	Hermaphrodite=3
1	Gender of the Parent			

		18-35=1	36-50=2	51< =3
2	What age category is the Parent?			

		STDVII-X=1	F1-FIV=2	FV-VI=3	Graduate=4
3	What is the level of education?				

**C. TOURISM AWARENESS**

		Poor=1	Average=2	High=3
4	What level is the parent aware of tourism issues?			
5	What level is the parent aware of local tourism attractions?			
6	What level does the parent understand the meaning of tourism?			

**D. ATTRACTIONS VISITATION**

		Never=1	Ever=2	Don't know=3
7	Have you ever been to any tourism attraction?			

		Neighbors=1	Parents/Guardians=2	School/Religious group=3
8	Who did you go with?			

		1-6 months ago=1	7-12 months ago=2	Over a year ago=3
9	When did you go?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
10	How long did you spend there?			

		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
11	What type of tourism attraction did you visit?			

		Neighbor=1	Parents/Guardian =2	School/Religious group=3
12.	Who would you like to go with?			

		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
13	What type of attraction would you like to visit?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
14	How long would you like to stay there?			

**D. EXPENDITURE**

		Less than 100,000=1	100,000- 500,000=2	Over 500,000=3
15	How much did you spend?			

		Agriculture=1	Business=2	Other sources=3
16	What was the main source of the money?			

		Transport=1	Meals=2	Accommodation=3
17	What was the major expenditure?			

		Transport=1	Meals=2	Accommodation=3
18	What was the least expenditure?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
19	Would you like to visit a tourism attraction again?			

## Appendix IV: Key Informants' Questionnaire

**A. BIODATA**

Institution	Position/Status	Location

		Male=1	Female=2
1	Gender of the respondent		

		18-35=1	36-50=2	50-60=3
2	What age category is the respondent?			

**B. EDUCATION ATTAINMENT**

		STDVII-X=1	F1-FIV=2	FV-VI=3	College/University=4
3	Respondent's education				

**C. TOURISM AWARENESS**

		Poor=1	Average=2	High=3
4	What level is the respondent aware of tourism?			
5	What level is the respondent aware of local tourism attractions?			
6	Level of the respondent's understanding of the meaning of tourism?			

**D. ATTRACTIONS VISITATION**

		Never=1	Ever=2	Don't know=3
7	Have you ever been to any tourism attraction?			

		Neighbors=1	Parents/Guardians=2	School/Religious group=3
8	Who did you go with?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
9	How long did you spend there?			

		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
10	What type of tourism attraction did you visit?			

		Don't know=1	NO=2	Yes=3
11	Would you like to visit any tourism attraction?			

		Neighbor=1	Parents/Guardian=2	School/Religious group=3
12	Who would like to go with?			

		Museum=1	Protected Area=2	Town/City=3
13	What type of attraction would you like to visit?			

		Less than one day=1	One day=2	More than one day=3
14	How long would you like to stay there?			

#### **E. EXPENDITURE**

		Less than 100,000=1	100,000-500,000=2	Over 500,000=3
15	How much did you spend?			

		Agriculture=1	Business=2	Other sources=3
16	What was the main source of the money?			

		Transport=1	Meals=2	Accommodation=3
17	What was the major expenditure?			

		Transport=1	Meals=2	Accommodation=3
18	What was the least expenditure?			

		Don't know=1	No=2	Yes=3
19	Would you like to visit a tourism attraction again?			