

THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA



International Conference on the Future of Tourism (ICFT)

16th -17th April 2019

**Organized by: The Open University of Tanzania
Venue: Njiro VETA Hotel, Arusha-Tanzania**

Proceedings Editors
Prof. Jan-Erik Jaensson
Dr. France Shayo

The Open University of Tanzania
Kawawa Road,
P. O. Box 23409
Dar es Salaam,
TANZANIA

©The Open University of Tanzania, 2019

ISSN - 2507-7821

ISSN - 2507-7872 [Online Publication]

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored, in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means; electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording, or otherwise, without the prior written permission of The Open University of Tanzania.

FOREWORD

Dear Authors and Esteemed Readers

It is with deep satisfaction that I write this Foreword to the Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference on the Future of Tourism (ICFT) held in Arusha, Tanzania, April 16 - 17, 2019.

ICFT continues a tradition of bringing together researchers, academics and professionals from all over the world, experts in tourism and hospitality.

The conference particularly encouraged the interaction of research students and developing academics with the more established academic community in an informal setting to present and to discuss new and current work. Their contributions helped to make the Conference as outstanding as it has been. The papers contributed the most recent scientific knowledge known in the field of Sustainability of Tourism; Domestic Tourism and SMEs Development; Tourism and Economic Development; Culture and Tourism; Innovation in Tourism; Customer Care in Tourism; Methods of Measuring Tourism; and National Tourism Policy.

In addition to the contributed papers, two invited keynote presentations were given: by Mr. Richald Rugimbana, the Executive Secretary of Tourism Confederation of Tanzania who spoke about the Issues for future tourism development with special focus of Tanzania; and Prof. Zororo Muranda, Pro-Vice Chancellor, Chinhoyi University of Technology in Zimbabwe who gave presentation on the Future of tourism: Tourism of the future.

The Conference was preceded by a tailor made training in *e-Tourism and Management of World Heritage sites*. The facilitators of training were: Prof. George Oreku, a professor of ICT from the Open University of Tanzania and Mr. Erick Kajiru, an expert of Management of UNESCO World Sites from the UNESCO Commission in Tanzania.

These Proceedings will furnish the scientists of the world with an excellent reference book. I trust also that this will be an impetus to stimulate further study and research in all these areas.

We thank all authors and participants for their contributions.

Ladislaus F. Batinoluho, PhD

Conference Coordinator

Department of Tourism and Hospitality Management

P. O. Box 23049, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

Tel: +255 767 636606

Email: tourism@out.ac.tz

Website: <https://icft.out.ac.tz/>

We Thank Our Sponsors for Their Valuable Contributions



TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD	iii
Session 1a Sustainability.....	1
ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RWANDA: CASE STUDY OF RWANDA ENVIRONMENT MANAGEMENT AUTHORITY (REMA) <i>Kalulu Ronald, Kabera Callixte and Tushabe Emmy: University of Tourism, Technology and Business Studies (UTB), Rwanda.....</i>	1
NATURE-BASED TOURISM IN TANZANIA SINCE ITS ONSET: A LESSON FOR CONSERVATION AND TEACHING AID <i>Halima Kilungua, Ngaruko Deus D: The Open University of Tanzania, Munishi, Pantaleo, K.T: Sokoine University of Agriculture</i>	23
OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN NJOMBE REGION, TANZANIA <i>Susan Rugano Gwalema: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	36
INFLUENCE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT ON CONTAINMENT OF ILLEGAL USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES IN PROTECTED AREAS: A CASE OF OUTREACH PROGRAMMES IN RUBONDO ISLAND NATIONAL PARK <i>Massana Gibril Mwishawa: Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA), Cosmas B.M. Haule: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	49
EXAMINING THE JOURNEY TRAVELLED BY NGORONGORO CONSERVATION AREA FOR 60 YEARS: A CONSERVATION PERSPECTIVE FOR DECISION MAKERS <i>Ladislaus Fredrick Batinoluho: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	62
Session 1b Domestic Tourism and SME Development	77
EFFORTS MADE BY THE TANZANIA GOVERNMENT IN PROMOTING PARTICIPATION FO LOCAL PEOPLE IN DOMESTIC TOURISM <i>Jafari Anania Mwemtsi: National College of Tourism.....</i>	77
CHALLENGES FACED TOUR OPERATORS IN PROMOTIONS OF THEIR PRODUCTS AND SERVICES IN TANZANIA: A CASE STUDY OF TOUR OPERATORS IN ARUSHA CITY <i>Samwel Savunyu Ngungat: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	89

ANALYSIS ON THE SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY INITIATED PROJECTS (SCIPS) IN VILLAGES SURROUNDING KILIMANJARO NATIONAL PARK (KINAPA)-THE COMMUNITY SPEAKS (PERCEPTIONS AND CHALLENGES)	
<i>Reginald Kimario: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	101
ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO EMPLOYEE TURNOVER IN TANZANIA	
<i>Farida Sebastian Masalu and Eunice Nderingo Ulomi: National College of Tourism.....</i>	114
EXAMINING THE ROLE OF FESTIVALS IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA	
<i>Ladislaus Fredrick Batinoluho: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	123
THE ROLE OF NATIVES IN DEVELOPMENT OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN MOROGORO REGION, TANZANIA: PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDES	
<i>Wambuka Rangi: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	135
Session 1c Innovation in Tourism.....	144
NEW MEDIA AND SOURCE MARKETS FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM IN TANZANIA: CASE OF SOUTHERN NATIONAL PARKS	
<i>Kezia H. Mkwizu: African Gifts; Emmanuel Patroba Mhache, Harrieth G. Mtae and Deus D. P. Ngaruko: The Open University of Tanzania,.....</i>	144
UNEXPLORED TOURIST SITES IN TANZANIA: EXPERIENCE OF MBEYA AND SONGWE REGIONS	
<i>Emmanuel M. Tonya and Matilda Lameck: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	154
SERVICE INNOVATION AND SMEs IN TOURISM: THE CASE OF TRAVEL AGENCIES	
<i>Hawa Uiso: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	168
THE ROLE OF INNOVATION IN TOURISM: A CASE OF ARUSHA, TANZANIA	
<i>Shilingi Anifae, Greyson Agapity and Ernest Mwandumba: National College of Tourism.....</i>	177
ASSESSMENT OF BUSINESS TOURISM IN PROMOTING TOURISM GROWTH IN ARUSHA, TANZANIA	
<i>Mwijarubi, L.B. and Sabulaki, N. P: National College of Tourism</i>	183

THE IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION NETWORKS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY	
<i>Jan-Erik Jaensson: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	205
POTENTIALS OF FORESTS ON NATURE BASED TOURISM IN TANZANIA: A CASE OF RAU FOREST RESERVE, MOSHI URBAN DISTRICT, KILIMANJARO REGION	
<i>Emmanuel Patroba Mhache: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	215
Session 2a Tourism and Economic Development, and Customer Care	230
THE ROLE OF MFIS FINANCING IN FACILITATING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: REVIEW OF EMPRICAL LITERATURES	
<i>Joseph Magali: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	230
ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES OF VISITORS TO NATURE BASED TOURISM DESTINATIONS; OBAFEMI AWOLOWO UNIVERSITY BIOLOGICAL GARDEN IN PERSPECTIVE	
<i>Ajayi O. O., Alarape A. A. and Oluyisola O. O: University of Ibadan, Nigeria.....</i>	242
ASSESSMENT OF THE SERVICES PROVIDED BY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOTELS IN KINONDONI DISTRICT, DAR ES SALAAM REGION	
<i>Mariam Kobelo Chuma: Tanzania Forest Services Agency, Emmanuel Patroba Mhache: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	256
ROLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMPETENCE IN PROMOTING CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN FIVE STAR HOTELS IN ZANZIBAR	
<i>Perpetua Ishika and Dawson Kyungai: National College of Tourism</i>	274
TOURISM DINING EXPERIENCES IN TANZANIA: AN INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' PERSPECTIVE	
<i>Bahati D. Mbilinyi: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	286
Session 2b Tourism and Economic Development.....	301
CHALLENGES FACING TOURIST HANDICRAFT ENTREPRENEURS AT GREENMARKET SQUARE, CAPE TOWN.....	301
<i>Thereza Israel Mugobi: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	301
COMPETITIVENESS OF BOTSWANA AS A TOURIST DESTINATION	
<i>Phetogo Sechele- Mosimanegape and J. J. Prinsloo: North West University in Mafikeng, South Africa.....</i>	316

POVERTY ALLEVIATION THROUGH TOURISM ACTIVITIES: A CASE OF AMANI AND ULUGURU MOUNTAIN NATURE RESERVES <i>Michael Patrick: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	326
IMPACTS OF POLITICAL INSTABILITY ON THE FUTURE OF TOURISM GROWTH: THE CASE OF TANZANIA <i>Elias Mseti and Halima Kilungu: The Open University of Tanzania .</i>	339
ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION AND TOURISM FIRM'S PERFORMANCE IN TANZANIA: REFLECTIONS INTO THE FUTURE <i>France Shayo and Hawa Uiso: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	347
Session 2c Policy, Sustainability and Culture in Tourism.....	360
STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS ON SUSTAINABILITY OF TOURISM ATTRACTIONS DEVELOPMENT IN ZIMBABWE <i>Forbes Kabote, Zororo Muranda, Patrick, and Walter Mamimine: Chinhoyi University of Technology, Zimbabwe</i>	360
THE ROLE OF TOURIST HOTELS IN THE CONSUMPTION OF CULTURAL TOURISM IN TANZANIA- A FOCUS ON TOURIST HOTELS IN KILIMANJARO REGION <i>Kundy, Andrew Morris: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	371
LAND DEGRADATION AND ITS IMPACTS ON CULTURAL TOURISM AMONG THE INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN TANZANIA: A CASE OF THE HADZABE <i>Henry Sweddy Moshi, Asantiel E. Makundi and Reguli Baltazar Mushy: The Open University of Tanzania.....</i>	380
ASSESSMENT OF TANZANIA TOURISM POLICY OF 1999 IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITY <i>Nasra Kara: The Open University of Tanzania</i>	393

Session 1a Sustainability

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSERVATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RWANDA: CASE STUDY OF RWANDA ENVIRONMENT MANAGEMENT AUTHORITY (REMA)

Kalulu Ronald, Kabera Callixte and Tushabe Emmy
University of Tourism, Technology and Business Studies (UTB), Rwanda
kaluluronald@gmail.com

Abstract

The study explored environmental conservation and its influence on tourism development in Rwanda. The study objectives were designed for the study and literature review was guided by research objectives and was attained from secondary sources. The total population, mainly from REMA, tourists, tourism players was 109 respondents who were all included in the sample using both convenience and purposive sampling techniques. Tools for collecting data were questionnaires, documentaries and interview. Data was analyzed using tables, frequencies and percentages. Findings on the causes of environmental degradation in Rwanda were poor cultivation practices, deforestation, overgrazing, soil exhaustion, widespread poaching. The impact of environmental conservation on tourism development in Rwanda were the ability of the conserved flora and fauna to generate tourism revenue when visited by tourists, stabilizing biodiversity, quality air for visitors, and increase of wildlife conservation. The relationship between environmental conservation and tourism development were highly significant in that, if there is environmental conservation, then, tourism resources will be developed hence attracting visitors at the destination. The study proposed environmental sustainability in Rwanda such as; 3R (recycle, re-use and reduce); implementing carrying capacity, green tourism, use of renewable energy, planting more trees and plants, efficient waste management, soil conservation and better agricultural practices as well as pollution Control.

Keywords: Environmental conservation, Tourism, Development

Introduction

The globe has three major types of environment from which tourism can benefit. These include the aerial, aquatic and atmospheric or land environment. Therefore, the quality of the environment is essential not only to man but to all flora and fauna hence forming the backbone of tourism though the relationship of tourism with the environment is complex as it involves many activities that can have adverse environmental effects (Andereck et al, 2014).

Man has put a lot of pressure on the environment, in that, today than in the past, there has been rampant developments which has come with mixed blessings. On a positive note, there has been economic development and infrastructure improvement. However, these developments have greatly impacted on the environment as it displaces forests, mountains, and valuable resources all which are habitats for wildlife. At the same time, the constant use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides and insecticides plus other means of land degradation has had great effect on the environment as well as becoming obstacle to tourism development because it hinder environmental conservation. The above has led to a level where the planet is reaching unsustainable levels as it faces shortage of resources like quality water, quality air, quality space and quality food yet these are the same resources that tourists need for consumption at the destinations visited.

Today's disposal of chemical waste and plastics into the waters has had bad eventualities as it leads to a contamination of water and fish in the nearby thus causing severe health problems for people living in the area and is seen by Hodgson (1996) and Holden (2006) as the first event that caused environmental concerns among the public (Joseph et al, 2013). In the 1960s, researchers started to realize how mankind is influencing and changing the environment of our planet, leading to the creation of academic studies about environmental concerns due to human influence.

With the spread of development in the 1970s, Europe, America and other parts of the earth, caused a lot of negative environmental impacts (Mathieson et al, 2015). These impacts gave rise to public concerns about ecological issues leading to the establishment of several Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) like 'Greenpeace' or 'Friends of the Earth' which influenced the media and political structures to draw their attention towards problems in the environment (Andereck et al, 2013). During the 1980s the tourism industry reached from the 'Western countries' into areas as the Caribbean, South East Asia and the African Continent, broadening awareness about consequences for the environment due to tourism development.

As (Bosselman (2014) points out that research about local and global impacts of the Environment conservation on tourism development throughout the decade of the 1990s increased, causing debates and serious protests about various ethical concerns: "An ethical dimension was increasingly introduced into environmental campaigning over rights of non-human life, with high-profile and sometimes violent actions being taken for the liberation of animals from experimentation. Environmental conservation in the United States over the past several decades has focused on regulating production industries, such as manufacturing and mining. However, there has been increasing interest in the

tourism activities. Environmental conservation contributed \$91 billion in revenue into the U.S. economy in 1998.

In 2005, Fáilte Ireland set up an Environment Unit which is now part of the Policy and Planning Unit. The purpose of the Unit is to advocate a high-quality physical environment for tourism and to promote good environmental practice throughout the tourism sector. As part of its role as a prescribed body in the planning process, Fáilte Ireland also aims to strengthen its partnerships with Local Authorities (Catner et al, 2016). Tourism itself is a vast subject and law relating to tourism is in context of everything that is covered under the tree of tourism. In busy and hectic life today, the word tourism itself brings a sense of joy and calmness. Every human being enjoys and cherishes the bounteous gift of nature (Becker, 2009). Across Europe in the 20th century, Man has always been attracted towards the Mountains, Green valleys, gushing and meandering water sources, woods and forest glades, stretching shores of golden beaches, wilderness, and wildlife in shore nature (Terry et al, 2010). The adverse impact environmental conservation has on the tourism development both undermines the basic resource for tourism in coastal areas and heavily affects other non-tourist economic activities. (John et al, 2018). According to Martha (2016). Environmental protection in Tanzania began during the German occupation of East Africa (1884-1919) colonial conservation laws for the protection of game and forests were enacted, whereby restrictions were placed upon traditional indigenous activities such as hunting, firewood collecting and cattle grazing. In year 1948, Serengeti was officially established as the first national park for wild cats in East Africa. Since 1983, there has been a more broad-reaching effort to manage environmental issues at a national level, through the establishment of the National Environment Management Council (NEMC) and the development of an environmental act.(Bacon et al, 2017). In 1998 Environment Improvement Trust (EIT) start working for environment & forest protection in India from a small city Sojat. Founder of Environment Improvement Trust is CA Gajendra Kumar Jain working with volunteers (Beeh, 2016).

For tourism to be successful and to exist, there must be a well-protected and conserved environment with a mix of quality air, quality vegetation for the fauna, quality water and food and health living for man (Hall et al, 2014). It is also clear that an improved environment improves the quality of visitation to destinations as the environment is able to sustain the needs of visitors. This means that tourism development should in all respects be appropriate to the character of the place in which they are situated and it should apply to the scale, design and nature of the place as well as to the particular land use, economic and social requirements of the place and its surroundings (Amaro, 2013; UNEP, 2016). The industry is dependent upon the country's natural environment and cultural heritage to sustain the distinctive tourism product and to develop environmentally-based ecotourism products. East African committee in 2014

declared that the beneficial uses to tourism of a range of environmental resources - particularly water - are made clear to those with a responsibility for protecting them. Overseas tourist numbers are expected to increase to 10 million in 2012. (Godsman et al, 2011). In order to facilitate this growth without increasing pressure on the environment, Rwanda needs to make commitments on air emissions, waste management, water quality and forest protection (Laws, 2013).

Rwanda has variety of rich biodiversity that can attract many tourists such as Volcanoes National Park (VNP) which inhabits some of the rarest and endemic wildlife species including mountain gorillas MINITERRE (2003). However, the environment is facing different threats resulting from human activities including poaching, hunting, bamboo collection, and others.

Despite the importance of tourism, there are many threats to this environment caused by human activities based on their dependence on forest resources to supplement livelihoods (Bush et al., 2010). Some of these threats, such as mining, poaching for bush-meat, timber harvests, wood harvests for handicrafts, medicinal plants, minerals, honey gathering that also causes fire outbreaks, construction, fire, and illegal honey gathering that often results into fire outbreaks (Plumptre et al., 2004) and many others, all of which have led to significant deforestation and degradation of this rather fragile mountain gorilla habitat in the AR (Plumptre et al., 2004). It has also resulted into significant habitat loss that directly threatens already endangered species such as mountain gorillas (Plumptre et al., 2003, 2004, 2007). For example, since the mid-1980s, about 1560 square kilometers of forest cover has been lost and converted to other land uses in the Albertine Rift (Plumptre et al., 2007). Historically, human-induced biodiversity threats to mountain gorilla habitats of the GVL, especially the Virunga National Park in the Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Volcanoes National Park in Rwanda have been primarily attributed (and continue in the case of DRC) to the decades of civil wars in the East African great-lakes region (Plumptre, et al., 2001). These wars have made it impossible for organized and effective law enforcement and conservation efforts in conflict areas. As conservation efforts evolved through these conflicts, one of the primary challenges for conservation in the Albertine Rift is the increasing forest dependence behavior of Some of the forest resources include charcoal firewood, Endangered species at VNP, such as mountain gorillas, continue to face threats resulting from impoverished park neighboring communities (Plumptre et al., 2004; Bush et al., 2010) and (Martin et al., 2011; Plumptre et al., 2003).

It means that government should put up aggressive mechanisms and efforts if tourism is to thrive as it solely depends on environmental quality. Conservation involves improvement, and protection of human and natural resources in a wise

manner, ensuring derivation of their highest economic and social benefits on a continuing on long-term basis. Conservation is achieved through alternative technologies, recycling, and reduction in waste and spoilage and (unlike preservation) implies consumption of the conserved resources. According to new Oxford American Dictionary (third edition), Conservation is the action of conserving something, in particular. It involves preservation, protection, or restoration of the natural environment, natural ecosystems, vegetation, and wildlife. Furthermore, it shows that Conservation is preservation, repair, and prevention of deterioration of archaeological sites and artefacts.

Upon realising the importance of tourism to Rwanda's economy, the government formed the Rwanda Environment Management Authority (REMA) institution with mandate to facilitate coordination and oversight of the implementation of national environmental policy and the subsequent legislation (Martha, 2009). REMA's mission is to promote and ensure the protection of the environment and sustainable use of natural resources through decentralized structures of governance and seek a national position to emerging global issues with a view to enhancing the wellbeing of the Rwanda people (Lincoln et al, 2014). Rwanda's conservation measures have attracted many visitors and eventually inflow of foreign currency in the country (Kavacs et al, 2010) as overseas visitors agree that Rwanda is a clean and environmentally green destination. The tourism industry has successfully traded on Rwanda's positive environmental image for decades, but unprecedented economic growth in recent years has put the quality of this core tourism product under increasing pressure. Strategic tourism assets, which are important for the sustainable growth of tourism in Rwanda, should be safeguarded from encroachment and damage by inappropriate development. These assets include special landscapes, important views, good water quality, the setting of historic buildings and monuments, biodiversity and access points to the coast and open countryside (Liddle et al, 2008).

The study adopted the following as the research questions. (1) What are the causes of environmental degradation in Rwanda? (2) What is the impact of environmental conservation on tourism development in Rwanda? (3) What is the relationship between environmental conservation and tourism development? and finally (4) What are the appropriate measures of environmental sustainability in Rwanda?

Literature review

This section presents review of related literature and the various studies in relation to the problem under investigation.

Environmental conservation

Environmental conservation is an umbrella term that defines anything we do to protect our planet and conserve its natural resources so that every living thing can have an improved quality of life (DelRosso,2017) Environmental conservations include activities such as managing our landscapes, habitats, species and access to our countryside. It is all about protecting the UK's natural environment. It is not about profits but helps address some of our big challenges, such as climate change, and contributes to biodiversity and health and social inclusion (Bush, 2014).

The causes of environmental degradation

Environmental degradation comes about due to erosion and decline of the quality of the natural environment. It is caused directly or indirectly by anthropogenic activities that extract various environmental resources at a faster rate than they are replaced, and thus depleting them (John et al, 2018). On this regard, degradation means damage or reduction in quality of environmental features, primarily influenced by human activities. Some natural events such as landslides and earthquakes may also degrade the nature of our environments. The primary cause of environmental degradation is human disturbance. The degree of the environmental impact varies with the cause, the habitat, and the plants and animals that inhabit it (Becker, 2009). Continued environmental degradation can completely destroy the various aspects of the environment such as biodiversity, ecosystems, natural resources, and habitats. For instance, air pollution can lead to the formation of acid rain which can in turn reduce the quality of natural water systems by making them acidic. This is a typical example of environmental degradation. Environmental degradation is therefore a concept that touches on a variety of topics namely deforestation, biodiversity loss, desertification, global warming, animal extinction, pollution, and many more (Martha, 2016).

Overpopulation and Over-exploitation of natural resources as the human population keeps on enlarging, puts pressure on the environment. According to a study by the UNEP Global Environment Outlook, excessive human consumption of the naturally occurring non-renewable resources can outstrip available resources in the near future and remarkably destroys the environment during extraction and utilization. Overpopulation simply means more pollution and fast extraction of natural resources compared to how they are being replaced (Hall et al, 2014). Ruinous Agricultural Practices, intensive agricultural practices have led to the decline in quality of most of our natural environment (Cessford, 2017). Majority of farmers resort to converting forests and grasslands to croplands which reduce the quality of natural forests and vegetation cover. The pressure to convert lands into resource areas for producing priced foods, crops, and livestock rearing has increasingly led to the depreciation of natural environments such as forests, wildlife and fertile lands (Kavacas et al, 2010).

Furthermore, the intensive agricultural practices destroy fertile lands and nearby vegetation cover due to the accumulation of toxic substances like bad minerals and heavy metals which destroy the soil's biological and chemical activities. Runoffs of agricultural wastes and chemical fertilizers and pesticides into marine and freshwater environments have also deteriorated the quality of wild life habitats, natural water resources, wetlands and aquatic life (Edington et al, 2016). Landfills, one of the calamitous effects of landfills are the destruction of nearby environmental health together with its ecosystems. The landfills discharge various kinds of chemicals on the land adjacent to forest, various natural habitats, and water systems such as underground and surface water which makes the environment unappealing to the survival of trees, vegetation's, animal and humans. It even interferes with the animals interactive food chains because the chemicals contaminate plants, and waters which are consumed by the animals. Besides the foul smell from the landfills and periodic burning of the wastes make living in such environments unbearable (May et al, 2011).

Increase in deforestation, the act of deforestation (cutting down of trees) has impacted on the world in terms of depreciating the natural environment and wildlife. It has also impacted on humans on the account of changes in environmental support processes such as weather conditions. Some of the reasons for deforestation include farming, construction, settlement, mining, or other economic purposes. For more than one hundred years, the number of trees on the planet has plummeted, resulting in devastating consequences such as biodiversity loss, soil erosion, species extinction, global warming, and interference with the water cycle (Mathieson et al, 2012).

Environmental pollution, most of the planet's natural environments have been destroyed and a large portion is under huge threat due to the toxic substances and chemicals emitted from fossil fuel combustions, industrial wastes, and homemade utilities among other industry processed materials such as plastics. Land, air, and water pollution pose long-term cumulative impacts on the quality of the natural environments in which they occur (Fussel et al, 2015). Improper Land use Planning and Development, the unplanned conversion of lands into urban settings, mining areas, housing development projects, office spaces, shopping malls, industrial sites, parking areas, road networks, and so on leads to environmental pollution and degradation of natural habitats and ecosystems. Mining and oil exploration, for instance, renders land unusable for habitation and causes other forms of environmental degradation by releasing toxic materials into the environment. Improper land use has led to the loss and destruction of millions of acre of natural environments across the globe (Boo, 2017).

Natural Causes, despite the fact that environmental degradation is under normal circumstances associated with anthropogenic activities, natural causes are also contributors. Natural events such as wildfires, hurricanes, landslides, tsunamis

and earthquakes can totally lower the survival grade of local animal communities and plant life in a region (Redlin et al, 2010). These disasters can also destroy alter the nature of the landscape rendering it unable to support life forms on it. Besides, occurrences such as hurricanes and flooding can wash or force the migration of invasive species into foreign environments which can lead to its eventual degradation (Mathieson et al, 2012).

Impact of environmental conservation on tourism development

The formulation of positive impacts resulting from environmental conservation on the tourism is questionable because as Chimura et al (2018) argues, by using such an expression, it is meant that the environment is being protected from further negative impacts caused by human influence worse than tourism like deforestation or mining. So called ecotourism or nature- based tourism can lead to beneficial outcomes for the environment when financial benefits, earned from tourism, are being channelled into preserving wildlife, by doing so the tourism industry helps to sustain ecosystems while still using these ecosystems as a form of tourist attraction (USA Today). Wildlife tourism has changed from exotic animals being hunted down by rich European colonialists for their pleasure, to tourists spending a significant amount of money to get the opportunity to observe rare animals in their natural surroundings without destabilizing the sensitive ecosystem they live in (Edington et al, 2016).

This change allows sensitive ecosystems to stabilize its biodiversity, provides tourists with the possibility to experience unique nature and creates a new, sustainable source of income for local communities, especially in low-developed regions where this form of tourism can be utilized to reduce the consequences of agriculture, deforestation and the overuse of natural resources (USA Today). Environmental conservation can contribute directly to the tourism development of sensitive areas and habitat and the environmental conditions is better so this promote the increase in number of visitors who came in the areas (May et al, 2011). Revenue from park-entrance fees and similar sources can be allocated specifically to pay for the protection and management of environmentally sensitive areas. Special fees for park operations or conservation activities can be collected from tourists or tour operators. Some governments collect money in more far-reaching and indirect ways that are not linked to specific parks or conservation areas. User fees, income taxes, taxes on sales or rental of recreation equipment, and license fees for activities such as hunting and fishing can provide governments with the funds needed to manage natural resources. Such funds can be used for overall conservation programs and activities, such as park ranger salaries and park maintenance (National research council, 2005).

Tourists are getting aware of their travel behavior, advances in technology and transportation take place, infrastructure and facilities reach new levels, all these

factors are shaping and changing the tourism industry and future research is necessary to reduce the negative impacts of tourism upon the environment. Therefore, a rise of environmental awareness among tourists can lead to an increase of wildlife conservation because the tourism industry is going to realize how people base their decision making on the sustainability aspect of a destination which will lead to an increased demand of nature based or green tourism (Noack et al, 2016). The Travel industry of America (2018) Environment and Tourism emphasizes a holistic view of the tourism system and how it interacts with nature, illustrating the positive and negative effects of this relationship. It emphasizes how ontologies of the environment influence the planning and management of tourism for natural resource conservation and human development. It is an invaluable tool for anyone studying Human Geography, Tourism and Environmental Studies, as well as for policy makers and consultants working in the field of tourism development (David et al, 2016).

Relationship between environmental conservation and tourism development

Tourism and environment are closely linked to one another: on one hand tourism destinations are relying on natural resources, so called 'common pool resources' (CPRs) in academic circles, as mountainous regions, coral reefs, any kind of natural waters and others which function in form of attractions; and on the other side, environment can change in a positive as well as in a negative way due to tourism influence (Wagner, 2016). The rise of sea the level, the meltdown of glaciers and the polar ice, the change in temperatures all over the globe are not just bringing transformation from an environmental point of view, but they are also impacting numerous other fields of society like in this case, tourism.

By remarking David and Noack(2016) explanation of coral reefs, uses the example to explain how the handling of 'common pool resources' is affecting the environment, tourism and other sectors: the ecosystems of coral reefs are highly sensitive to any shift in temperatures or the chemical composition of the surrounding water, therefore it is essential that all actors like accommodation providers, tour guides and tourists do not damage the reef in any possible way otherwise future tourist arrivals will decline due to a loss in quality of the attraction resulting in reduced income for the entrepreneurs of the local community, which means decreased revenues generated from taxes for the local, regional or national government of the destination leading to a loss of potential investment (Redlin et al, 2010). The effects of environment change tourism development the resulting from human behavior are undeniable and have to be minimized by future research. Environmental conservation can be a major tool for tourism development but, if not properly planned it can have destructive effects on biodiversity and tourism in general, and can result in the misuse of natural resources such as freshwater, forests and marine life. At a number of

sites tourism development has resulted in serious water shortage affecting both local communities and industry, forests have been depleted and coral reefs have been damaged (Schulz et al, 2010).

The problem of environment conservation both undermines the basic resource for tourism in coastal areas and heavily affects other non-tourist economic activities. Negative impacts from improper environmental conservation occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within acceptable limits of change. An uncontrolled environment poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world. It can put enormous pressure on an area and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, increased pressure on endangered species and heightened vulnerability to forest fires. It often puts a strain on water resources, and it can force local populations to compete for the use of critical resources. With all those challenges there will be no sustainable tourism development because sustainable tourism development always needs to respect the environment and refer to accepted principles of sustainability (Seabloom et al, 2009). It must be planned to make balanced use of the resources of any site, thus avoiding negative effects, reducing visitor satisfaction, or adversely impacting the local society, economy and culture. Sometimes it may be difficult to quantify limits, but they are essential for sustainable tourism. Thus, if it is to maintain the main elements on which it is based, the tourism sector needs to invest in the maintenance of the natural environment. If properly planned, environmental conservation can become a positive force for tourism industry development (Wang et al, 2017).

Visitors can intrude upon wildlife in a variety of ways, from their visual presence to their movement, noise, and behavior. Different species will perceive the consequent disturbance in different ways and for different reasons. (Yee et al, 2012). Wildlife tolerance and response, and any impact consequence, will vary among different species, settings and times. Factors contributing to these variations can include different feeding patterns; territoriality; breeding seasons and behaviors; lifecycle maturity; alarm behaviors; and ecological niche competition. Some visitor effects, such as trampers passing by, may be incidental to wildlife, whereas others, such as ecotourism visits or photography, may be specifically directed at wildlife. Additional visitor-related effects can also arise from the ways in which wildlife responds to the presence of staff; any of their associated construction, maintenance and research activities; and the effects related to the presence of facilities and structures (Woodring, 2014). When visitors come to a natural environment, they can import harmful external material, substances, or biota. Visitors may accidentally introduce hazard sources such as exotic weeds, predators, and diseases. They may also introduce hazards from negative behaviors such as fuel leakage or disposal; soap chemicals from washing; littering; bringing dogs; or inappropriate fire practices

(Willard et al, 2012). Similar hazards arise from the activities of management staff, both direct and indirect, in facility provision and maintenance. These may be direct introduction effects, such as exotic seeds in track fill or building materials; leachate from timber; and chemicals from material degeneration. Or they may be indirect effects, such as providing access routes for predators; fire potential; and providing focal points for visitor congregation. (Rejeski, 2017).

Measures to sustainable environment

We all want to protect our planet, but we're mostly too busy or too lazy to put up big change that would improve our lifestyle and save the environment. In celebration of Earth Day, here are some reminders about how you can contribute to saving our one and only planet. Population boom and fossil fuel based technological advancements have taken serious measures on our natural environment (Noack et al, 2016). There should be planting more trees and plants as they have environmental, economic, and social benefits. Trees improve the air quality of the place we live in by absorbing carbon dioxide and releasing oxygen, and give us food and shade. A regular sized tree can clean about 330 pounds of carbon dioxide while producing oxygen for the whole community every year. (Shanklin, 2013). Trees also combat the greenhouse effects, reduce the pressure on heating and cooling, and therefor saves energy. Trees also save us from climatic changes, natural disasters, and catastrophes. Find nonprofit organizations in your area that promote sustainability and join these groups. There are also many organizations promoting sustainability and environmental awareness on the internet. You can easily get involved and help these organizations promote sustainability. Joining and helping out a few sustainable organizations can go a long way in making a big difference in our local communities, society and environment (Carol et al, 2011).

Collect rainwater and save it to water your lawn. You can buy rainwater barrels at your local home improvement store or even make your own. We all know what we need to do to protect the environment, whether that is recycling, reducing our power consumption by switching electronic devices off rather than using standby, by walking short journeys instead of taking the bus. Businesses are regulated to prevent pollution and to keep their own carbon emissions low.(Wager, 2016) There are incentives to installing renewable power sources in our homes and businesses. Environmental protection is the third pillar and to many, the primary concern of the future of humanity. It defines how we should study and protect ecosystems, air quality, integrity and sustainability of our resources and focusing on the elements that place stress on the environment. It also concerns how technology will drive our greener future; the EPA recognized that developing technology and biotechnology is key to this sustainability, and protecting the environment of the future from potential damage that technological advances could potentially bring (Shanklin, 2013).

Reduction of waste, this is the first out of the measures to sustain the environment that I would like to introduce in this entire article and want you and my other readers to learn and make use for good. In daily life, we waste a lot of things such as plastics, paper, etc. You can recycle these wastes instead of throwing them in a trash can. You can categorize them into non-recyclable and recyclable products and send recyclable products to a recycling company. Buying reusable and used items is a great way to protect the environment (Steffens, 2013). By choosing used products, the demand for new products will be reduced and of course, your money will be also saved. Visit local used furniture and used appliance stores to find your needed items. The packaging used to protect products from unwanted damages. However, you should choose products with minimal packaging. This is because it needs energy and new raw materials to create. When shopping, buy items that use minimal packaging. If you have to buy something that needs to be packaged, try to choose products with the least packaging as possible as you can. More importantly, avoid choosing products that is packaged with styro foam. It is a popular packaging material, but it contributes to land pollution as it releases hydrocarbons and it is also difficult to recycle (Stipanuk et al, 2016).

The best measure taken on protection of the environment and make it sustainable is installing solar panels on your roof if you are trying to save the environment. Using alternative energy sources as much as possible is a good way to protect the environment. Start from your house by getting solar panels installed and using solar power for room and water heating. Solar panels are used to convert sunlight into electricity without causing pollution. Solar energy is renewable and you will never worry about running out of it. It also needs a little maintenance to work at maximum efficiency. Besides, there is no noise made in the process of producing electricity. Finally, solar panel technology is continually developing so reducing the cost of production and simultaneously increasing the efficiency is not impossible. In fact, this is among the best tips on how to protect the environment so that you should not look down but learn and consider installing it as soon as possible (Andereck et al, 2013).

Forest conservation, Forest plays the vital role for the environment conservation. The Ministry of Forest and Soil Conservation has launched various programmes for the conservation of forest and environment. Community Forest Programme is one of the examples of conservation programmes that help to protect the land, water and other components of the environment. Afforestation must be done for the conservation of forest. Laws about forest protection and awareness generation help in the conservation programme (National research Council, 2005).

Soil conservation is an important measure to sustain the environment. Control of landslides, flood, and soil erosion helps to protect the land. Afforestation, tree

plantation, protection of pasture land helps to conserve the soil. Terrace farming on slope land, use of compost fertilizer and minimizing the use of chemicals also helps to protect the soil. Ministry of Forest and Soil Conservation, Ministry of Agriculture, etc. are conducting various programmes to protect the soil (Vignola et al, 2010).

Construction of toilets in every house and management of enough public toilets also help to keep the environment healthy. Cleaner production techniques can be important tools for planning and operating tourism facilities in a way that minimizes their environmental impacts. For example, green building (using energy-efficient and non-polluting construction materials, sewage systems and energy sources) is an increasingly important way for the tourism industry to decrease its impact on the environment. And because waste treatment and disposal are often major, long-term environmental problems in the tourism industry, pollution prevention and waste minimization techniques are especially important for the tourism industry (Bosselman, 2014).

Pollution Control, Industries and vehicles emit the smoke, dust and harmful gases that pollute the environment. Chemical fertilizer and chemical poisons like insecticides, herbicides, pesticides, etc. also pollute the environment. Pollution must be controlled to keep the environment healthy. The government of Nepal is making an effort to control the pollution (Joseph et al, 2012).

Conservation of Heritage, Temple and parties are our cultural heritage. They are our identity. They must be preserved for future generation. We must keep the areas of cultural heritage free from pollution. Unfortunately, there seem to be many people who think that only governments and big companies in general should do something to conserve the environment. This is however untrue. (Amaro, 2013). Every single individual is actually able to participate in protecting this planet from pollution and suffocation caused by all kinds of residues and waste “produced” by the world’s population. It is actually quite easy to go green. Taking care of the environment should be everyone’s responsibility and privilege at the same time; the privilege to conserve the planet for the generations to come (UNEP, 2016). There are numerous ways in which environment protection and conservation can be achieved. Nevertheless, we will try to enumerate ten of the most common and simple ones. They are easy to do by absolutely anyone with a little bit of good will. There are three essential verbs you should keep in mind: reduce, recycle, and reuse (Economic society, 2018).

Research Methodology

The research made use of primary data as well as secondary data, and especially inclined towards qualitative research though persuasive evidence comes through a triangulation of measurement processes and this was utilized to merge

quantitative and qualitative research methods (Aliaga and Gunderson, 2002). The study used survey techniques and data collection included observation and structured questionnaires developed to find out the enablers of environmental conservation and tourism development. Additional essential data was also collected through interviews especially to key leaders in REMA, tourists and tourists' players/operators and responses were analysed using descriptive statistics. A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the level of agreement. It was administered to 109 respondents. However, the data gathering faced hardships such as the spread of the youth in the district as well as language of communication made the data collection hard and communicating with the some respondents was not easy due to the fact that they did not understand English hence creating a language bottleneck. Despite the above limitations, the research team utilized the available means to achieve the goals by getting interpreters, permission from authority. The modified questionnaire was pilot tested on 80 respondents in Universities where most potential and would be future tourism leaders the country are situated. This was also more practical as students in colleges are more accessible and with the help of colleagues in other colleges similar testing environment could be assured (Ashmore, 2008).

The Major Findings

This chapter illustrates the general information regarding the findings obtained from the study about environmental conservation. The study was undertaken to achieve and to answer a variety of questions which specifically were; (1) what are the causes of environmental degradation in Rwanda? (2) What is the impact of environmental conservation on tourism development in Rwanda? (3) What is the relationship between environmental conservation and tourism development? and finally (4) What are the appropriate measures of environmental sustainability in Rwanda? Literature was reviewed, data was collected and analyzed and eventually presented in tables, figures and narrative.

Demographic findings

The study revealed that majority of the respondents were female which is in agreement with the recent World Bank report about distribution of gender. Most of the staff at REMA and tour firms/companies had attained education. These findings are not new as they are supported by other studies that most people do not enter into entrepreneurship probably because of lack of adequate formal education (Ashmore, 2008; Rashid and Wilhelm, 2016; Auken, 2006). Most respondents were married. The respondents showed the indicators of a good environment including biological diversity which indicates that the greater the diversity the healthier the environment, food production, average surface temperature and Carbon dioxide concentration in the atmosphere, human population and resource depletion.

The causes of environmental degradation in Rwanda

The causes of environmental degradation in Rwanda, as confirmed by 52% of the respondents were poor cultivation practices in the small mountainous country with the highest rural population density in Africa, largely on steep mountainous terrain on old leached infertile soils. This has led to declining agricultural yields and increasing levels of land degradation as rural farmers cultivate ever more marginal lands. An initial scoping exercise showed that the key issue within the land degradation scenario was poor cultivation practice leading to increasing and severe erosion of soil and consequent sedimentation of watercourses, loss of soil fertility and overall loss of ecosystem productivity and health. Other causes were deforestation in many places of Rwanda particularly soon after genocide in April 1994, where the total area covered by forests had been reduced to around 470,000 ha, from 700,000 ha in the pre-war situation. The respondents also said that the significant decimation of forests was a result of the drastic increase in needs for wood for construction of makeshift shelters for the Displaced Persons and as a source of energy for cooking during the war. Some respondents affirmed that overgrazing was also a big problem in the Eastern part and southern part of the country especially the that most returning refugees who settled in the region had large herds of cattle concentrated in this area and overgrazing was a problem due to the limited carrying capacity of the dry region.

8% of the respondents said soil exhaustion. With unsustainable agriculture remain in Rwanda that cause soil exhaustion and this resulting in a serious level of land degradation throughout the country. The respondents said that soil exhaustion in Rwanda has two direct causes Soil Erosion and Loss of Soil fertility. Soil erosion in Rwanda is a result of a combination of several factors: extremely steep slopes, non-application of soil protection measures, application of inappropriate soil conservation techniques, unreliable heavy rains and the general low level of awareness of both the farmers and local leaders on the economic benefits of soil protection investments. Continued decline in soil fertility is mainly a result of “soil mining” such continued cultivation without replenishing soil fertility with plant nutrients through application of organic manure or/and mineral fertilizers. The other causes were poaching especially in the rural areas where the citizens are catching animals as their meals.

The impact of environmental conservation on tourism development in Rwanda

According to table number 7, the impact of environmental conservation on tourism development in Rwanda, led to acquisition of tourism fees especially in protected areas of Akagera national park and volcanoes national park and Nyungwe park. In these parks, revenue was earned in form of visitor entrance fees, and concession fees and this led to tourism development.

There was also stabilization of biodiversity as 37% of the respondents said that when there is conservation, the flora and fauna stabilize thus leading to quality visitation. The respondents from REMA said that they protect environment to avoid greenhouse effects, climate change and so on in order to protect the planet from decimate but also with partnership of RDB they conserve environment also to create better environmental pictures that will attract the foreigners and receiving some cashes from those visitors, the respondents from both sides in RDB and REMA they confirmed that as if such cases take place immediately it is the development of tourism industry because those visitors will lodge in the hotels, use the local restaurants, consumes some product and services in the nations so that the tourism businesses increment will take place as well.

27% of the respondents said fresh air that attracts visitors. The respondents said that no body feel courage of heading in the region where there environmental devastation because even the air in the region is not fresh, when the environmental conservation is properly planned and implemented leads also to fresh air maintains in the country that makes each and every one among the visitors wish to go in the regions and 23% of the respondents said the impact of increase of wildlife conservation. With a rise of environmental awareness among tourists can lead to an increase of wildlife conservation because the tourism industry is going to realize how people base their decision making on the sustainability aspect of a destination. The respondents said that the term environmental conservation is the practices of protecting the natural environment on individual, organization controlled or governmental levels, for the benefit of both the environment and humans.

The respondents said that Rwanda Environmental Management Authority facing the problems of handling nature disaster like earth quakes, floods and climate change and these problems leads to environment degradation but the management of these calamities is not easy because it comes for the sake of God and people have nothing do with it. The budget relating to the protection of the environment also is insufficient because of the location of Rwanda where there a likely to happen aloft disasters.

The relationship between environmental conservation and tourism development in Rwanda

A well conserved environment really results into tourism promotion and development as majority respondents asserted. The correlation was highly significant in that when the environment is properly conserved, there will be the increase of natural resources which in turn will attract more visitors in the country hence tourism development. Positive changes in the quality of life could follows like personal income increases, helps to improve living standards for those more directly involved in industry, supports the diversity of restaurants and other cultural entertainment, influence the assortment of goods for sale in

many local shops that would not be available in the same amount if tourism did not exist to support them, park areas are often improved, street furniture and design criteria introduced, greater care and attention placed on overall environmental quality, new opportunities and only 6% of the respondents ticked weak, by that the respondents said that tourism development doesn't rely on environmental conservation.

Appropriate measures of environmental sustainability in Rwanda

The appropriate measures of environmental sustainability in Rwanda should include; planting more trees and plants and that REMA and RDB must put in place sound policies and laws governing the utilization of forest resources which have proven relatively effective due to both law enforcement and acceptance of the need by local people through a high degree of awareness creation. A number of forest management mechanisms were put in place, including the Ministerial Order of 2000, prohibiting tree harvesting in all public forests, the Ministerial Decree of 2003, establishing procedures governing Public Forest Management contracts and the establishment of the Forest Protection Service, created through the Prime Minister's Order of 2002.

Another measure should be efficient waste management. Efficient waste management is an important measure in reducing environmental impact and promoting sustainability. The respondents said that there are three keywords are reduce, reuse, and recycle which can significantly reduce global impact and conserve natural resources, reduce pollution, and reduce our carbon footprint. The first step to minimizing waste is to buy only the products that you need. Avoid excessive packaging and recycle everything that you can. 15% of the respondents said 3R(Recycle, re-use and reduce) the respondents said that rather than throwing out items like clothing or food jars, consumers can find new uses for them and thereby reduce their consumption of new resources. Composting, using jars to store beverages or leftover food, and trading or selling used DVDs rather than throwing them out are all examples of ways people can reuse. The respondents said that Communities have a variety of recycling programs, such as curbside pickup of recyclables, drop-off centers, buy-back centers that pay you for valuable items and deposit-refund programs and also the respondents discussed reduce as reducing your consumption or buying less. Designing items like plastic bottles in ways that use less material is another way to reduce consumption. Using steel cutlery instead of plastic utensils, buying used goods, mending clothes instead of buying new ones and consuming less electricity are all examples of ways you can reduce in your own life.

10% of the respondents said use of renewable energy. The respondents said that most renewable energy comes either directly or indirectly from the sun. Sunlight, or solar energy, can be used directly for heating and lighting homes

and other buildings, for generating electricity, and for hot water heating, solar cooling, and a variety of commercial and industrial uses.

15% of the respondents said measure of Soil conservation, Pollution Control, ban the use of non-biodegradable plastic bags and packaging materials.

Conclusion

The study conclude that all objectives have been achieved based on the study findings got from the field, environmental conservation influence the tourism development since the natural resources are proper conserved, focuses on areas where environmental impacts can be addressed and reduced through Planning Policy, in terms of land use and the built environment. The environmental conservation theme also covers work to support tourism development and regeneration at a local level.

Recommendations

Based on the above discussions and conclusions, and after coming to the end of the study, the study propose the following as appropriate recommendations to conserve the environment as well as promote tourism in Rwanda;

The study recommends that government should mobilize the farmers to invest in soil protection structures to conserve the environment.

The study recommends that there should be an improvement Land use Management and resulting improved production of organic matter that will largely contribute to the combat against desertification, climate change that reducing the natural resources attracts tourists.

The study also recommends that there should be decentralization and environment Management Project aims at building capacity for sustainable management of environmental and natural resources.

References

- Amaro, Belisa. (2013). Ecotourism and Ethics. *Earth Island Journal*, 14 (3). [On-line]. Available: www.earthisland.org/ejournal/fall99/dis_fall99/ecotourism.html) and Animals: A Review. *Biological Conservation*, 17, 182-206.
- Andereck, Kathleen L. (2013). The Impacts of Tourism on Natural Resources. *Parks and Recreation*, 28 (6), 26-32.
- Bacon, Peter R. (2017). Use of Wetlands for Tourism in the Insular Caribbean. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14, 104-117.
- Beeh, Jenny E. (2016). Adventure vs. Ecotourism: Environmental Impact of So-Called Ecotourism Activities. *Earth Action Network, Inc.*, 10 (3), 46-48.
- Bialkowski, C. (2011). Hotels Working Hard to Clean Up the Environment. *Convene: The Journal of the Professional Convention Management Association* (October, pp. 45-46). *Boating Industry*, 61 (2), 8-9.

- Boo, Elizabeth. (2017). *Ecotourism: The Potentials and Pitfalls*. Washington, DC: World Wildlife Fund.
- Bosselman, Fred P. (2013). In the Wake of the Tourist. Washington, DC: The Conservation Foundation. *American Journal of Environment, Energy and Power Research* Vol. 1, No. 7, September 2013, PP: 117-130, ISSN: 2329-860X (Online) Available online at www.ajepr.com
- Bosselman, Fred P. (2015). In the Wake of the Tourist. Washington, DC: The Conservation Foundation.
- Burr, Steven W. & Walsh, Jeffrey A. (2014). A Hidden Value of Sustainable Rural Tourism Development. *Trends*, 31 (1), 9-13.
- Bush, Melinda. (2014). Panel Analyzes Trends in the Evolving Agent-Hotelier Relationship. *Travel Weekly*, 48 (47), 25-30.
- Carey, Sandra & Gountas, Y. (2017). Tour Operators and Destination Sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 18 (7), 425-431.
- Cass, Ginny & Jahrig, Shannon. (2012). Heritage Tourism: Montana's Hottest Travel Trend. *Montana Business Quarterly*, 8-27. Terry Davies and Sarah Cahill Discussion Paper 00-14
- Cessford, G.R. (2017). Impacts of visitors on natural and historic resources of conservation significance: Part 2 Research and information needs. Science and Research Internal Report, No. 157. Department of Conservation, Wellington. 29 p.
- Chmura, Gail L. & Ross, Neil W. (2018). The Environmental Impacts of Marinas and Their Boats, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Office of Sea Grant, U.S. Dept.
- Carol W., Petrillose, Michael J., & Pettay, Amy. (2011). Solid Waste Management in Selected Hotel Chains and Individual Properties. *Hospitality Research Journal: The Professional Journal of the Council on Hotel, Restaurant, and Institutional Education*, 15.
- David M. & Roffman, Harold. (2016). *Hospitality Facilities Management and Design*. East Lansing: Educational Institute of the American Hotel and Motel Association.
- Deady, Tim. (2010). ASTA Conference Reaps Suggestions for Guarding Environment. Kenya. 123P
- Del Rosso, Laura. (2017). Responsible Tourism is Focus of Travel Expo: 2017 New Travel Expo. *Travel Weekly* 56 (14), 10-13.
- Ecotourism Society (2018). *Ecotourism Statistical Fact Sheet*. [On-line]. Available: www.ecotourism.org.
- Fussell, Lori Marie Snook. (2015). Carbon Monoxide Exposure by Snowmobile Riders. *National Park Service's Park Science*, 17 (1), 1-6. [On-line]. Available: [www.nature.nps.gov/parksci/vol17\(1\)/07carbon.htm](http://www.nature.nps.gov/parksci/vol17(1)/07carbon.htm).
- Gartner, William C. (2016). *Tourism Development: Principles, Processes, and Policies*.
- Gee, Chuck Y., Makens, James C. Makens, & Choy, Dexter J.L. (2009). *The Travel Industry*. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

- Godsman, James G. (2011). Outlook for the Cruise Industry. Cruise Lines international Association. [On-line]. Available: <http://cobweb.utsa.edu/FACULTY/VHELLER/readings/cruise-outlook.html>.
- Hall M.C. (2014), "Trends in Ocean And Coastal Tourism: The End of The Last Frontier?", *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 44, pp. 601-618.
- Impacts. New York: Longman House.
- John & Crompton, John L. (2018). Developing and Testing a Tourism Impact Scale. *Journal of Travel Research* November, 37 (2), 120-130. Audubon Society. [On-line]. Available: www.audubon.org.
- Joseph E. Mbaiwa (2012) the socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism development on the Okavango Delta, north-western Botswana. *Journal of Arid Environments* (2003) 54: 447–467 doi:10.1006/jare.2002.1101
- Kovacs, K.M. & Innes, S. (2010). The Impact of Tourism on Harp Seals (*Phoca groenlandica*) in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, Canada. *Applied Animal Behaviour Science*, 26, 15.
- Laws, Edward A. (2013). *Aquatic Pollution: An Introductory Text*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Liddle, M.J. & Scorgie, H.R.A. (2008). *The Effects of Recreation on Freshwater Plants*
- Lincoln, Lori. (2014). Clear Waters; Cruise Lines Adopt Environmental Waste Management Policies. *Travel Weekly*, 53 (73), S16-S19.
- Magazine, 136 (4), 500-531.
- Martha S. (2016). Ecotourism's Impact on the Environment. *Environment*, 41 (5), 5-9, 28-33.
- Mathieson, Alister & Wall, Geoffrey. (2015). *Tourism: Economic, Physical and Social Impacts*. New York: Longman House.
- May, Vincent. (2011). *Tourism, Environment and Development*. Tourism Management,
- McIntosh, Robert W. & Goeldner, Charles R. (2010). *Tourism: Principles, Practices, Philosophies*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- National Research Council. (2005). *Clean Ships, Clean Ports, Clean Oceans*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press. New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- Noack, David R. (2016). Planes, Trains, and Cruise Lines: The Net has become a Cornucopia of Travel Information and Services. *Internet World*, 7 (7), 82-86. of Commerce; University of Rhode Island.
- Power, Thomas M. (2016). *Lost Landscapes and Failed Economies: The Search for a Value of Place*. Washington, DC: Island Press. *Recreation*, 28 (6), 26-32.
- Redlin, Michael H. & deRoos, Jan A. (2010). *Water Consumption in the Lodging Industry*. Washington, DC: The Hospitality, Lodging and

- Travel Research Foundation of the American Hotel and Motel Association.
- Rejeski, David. (2017). An Incomplete Picture. *The Environmental Forum*, (Sept/Oct pp. 26-34). Washington, DC: Environmental Law Institute.
- Restaurant, and Institutional Education, 17 (1), 219-229
- Schulz, Christopher. (2014). Hotels and Travel Agents: The New Partnership. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 35 (2), 45-50.
- Seabloom, Robert W., Plews, Gary, & Cox, Frank. (2009). The Effect of Sewage Discharges from Pleasure Craft on Puget Sound Waters and Shellfish Quality. Washington State
- Shanklin, Carol W. (2013). Ecology Age: Implications for the Hospitality and Tourism Industry. *Hospitality Research Journal: The Professional Journal of the Council on Hotel*,
- Sidles, Darla. (2017). Changing the Way People Use Parks. *Natural Resource Year in Review, Planning and Preservation*. National Park Service. [On-line], Available:
- Solley, Wayne B. (2017). Preliminary Estimates of Water Use in the United States (Open-File Report 97-645). Reston, VA: U.S. Geological Survey.
- Steffens, Ron. (2013). Not Just Another Roadside Attraction: Towns Located Near National Parks. *National Parks and Conservation Association*, 67 (1-2), 26-31.
- Stipanuk, David M. & Ninemeier, Jack D. (2016). The Future of the U.S. Lodging Industry and the Environment. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 37 (6), 74-91.
- Travel Industry Association of America. (2018). *Tourism Works for America 1998 Report*. Washington, DC. [On-line]. Available: <http://www.tia.org/pubs/twfar98.stm>
- Vignola, Margo L. & Krutick, Jill S. (2010). *The Lodging Industry in the 1990's: Confronting Crowded Markets*. Salomon Brothers.
- Terry Davies Sarah Cahill (2010) *Environmental Implications of the Tourism Industry*. Discussion Paper 00-14 March 2000.
- Tim & Schwartzman, M. T. (2012). Ecotourism: Traveling to Save the Planet. *Travel Weekly*, 49 (34), 105-108. Transportation Efficiency Act to Support the Federal Aid in Sport Fish Restoration Program. *Travel Weekly*, 49 (50), 35-37.
- UNEP (2016), *Tourism Focus*, quarterly bulletin included in the *Industry and Environment review and issue of the Industry and Environment review on Sustainable Tourism*. Kigali, Rwanda. University Publisher York: Cambridge University Press, 2016.
- Wagner, Grace. (2016). A Work in Progress: Hotels' Environmental Programs. *Lodging Hospitality*, 52 (12), 59-61.

- Willard, Beatrice E. and John W. Marr. (2012). Recovery of Alpine Tundra under Protection After Damage by Human Activities in the Rocky Mountains of Colorado. *Biological Conservation*, 3(3), 181-190.
- Woodring, Jeannie. (2014). Ecotourism: Exploring the Last Frontier of Travel. *Alaska Business Monthly*, 10 (5), 50-56.
www1.nature.nps.gov/pubs.
- Yee, Jordan G. (2012). *Ecotourism Market Survey: A Survey of North American Ecotourism Operators*. San Francisco: The Intelligence Centre, Pacific Asia Travel Association.
- United Nations, D. o. (2017 Revision). *World Population Prospects*. Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division.

NATURE-BASED TOURISM IN TANZANIA SINCE ITS ONSET: A LESSON FOR CONSERVATION AND TEACHING AID

Halima Kilungua, Ngaruko Deus D.
The Open University of Tanzania
kilunguh@yahoo.com

Munishi, Pantaleo, K.T
Sokoine University of Agriculture

Abstract

Since the 19th century, national parks as the main Tanzanian nature-based tourism destinations have passed through different waves of environmental and societal change. Nevertheless, studies that profile this development to inform policy decisions and society are inadequate. This paper discusses the developments of the Tanzanian nature-based tourism and its destinations since the 1600s. The paper shows that the majority of tourism destinations started as open areas where trophy or hunting tourism was not restricted; then upgraded to either game reserves (trophy hunting restricted by license) or forest reserve (for forest products), and finally to national parks. These changes were driven by fear for species extinction due to environmental-change impacts and unsustainable wildlife hunting. The emerging increase in environmental awareness among the government, park managers and tourists also played a major role. This paper concludes that although the Tanzanian nature-based tourism destinations had changed substantially in the past, the possibility to cope with the current environmental-change impacts is more challenging for tourism management. The paper, therefore, provides pertinent information that can assist to better manage the Tanzanian nature-based tourism sector and, in turn, to cope with the current impacts of changing environment.

Keywords: Conservation, national park, Tanzania, tourism

Introduction

Tanzania is famed for its tourist attractions. The main attractions are wildlife biodiversity and scenic landscapes in protected areas (Kweka et al., 2003; Kilungu et al., 2014; Kilungu et al., 2017). These protected areas (i.e. main tourism destinations) include the well-known snow-covered Mt. Kilimanjaro, Ngorongoro Crater and the endless plains of the Serengeti National Park (Kilungu et al., 2014). These destinations are nevertheless under pressure from a range of factors, including climate and land-cover change, loss of wildlife biodiversity and land grabbing (see Kilungu et al., 2017). Implications of these changes to the Tanzanian nature-based tourism and conservation are poorly known. This likely limits integrating environmental-change impacts in protected areas' general management plans. Profiling the history of Tanzanian tourism

and its destinations is vital. This assessment should serve as a lesson in contemporary conservation and teaching aid in tourism studies.

The historical details and analysis are necessary to understand the evolution and the current state-of-art of the Tanzanian nature-based tourism (NBT) under the current rate of environmental change are poorly documented. Some assessments are available, but these do not focus on the evolution of specific attractions or destinations. Most of these assessments focus mainly on economic and market analysis (Cater, 1987; Curry, 1990; Gössling, 2001; Wade et al., 2001; Lindsey et al., 2007), governance issues (Salazar, 2009a) and the role of Big International Non-Governmental Organisations (BINGOs) (Chachage, 1999). Economic analyses only explain the income accrued from tourist expenditures but do not cover the history of tourism destinations. Salazar (2009a) reviewed governance issues but only on small part of the country (the northern circuit) and ignored the changing role of tourism in managing protected areas. At least this could have brought the history on why the Northern Circuit (i.e. Kilimanjaro, Manyara, Arusha, Tarangire and Serengeti national parks and Ngorongoro conservation area) is famous in the country's tourism history. Chachage (1999) mainly assessed the functions of BINGOs, such as IMF and World Bank in stimulating tourist arrivals in the country from the 1980s.

This paper aims to compile the history of national parks in Tanzania since the 1830s. In principle, the paper is not based on the systemic literature review because the history of tourism in Tanzania is highly fragmented. Rather, the paper uses the extensive literature review approach including but not limited to the review of published and unpublished reports, encyclopedia, media, and anecdote information. Moreover, two century ago, tourism was not well defined. Thus, several tourism definitions exist. But this study adopts the broad definition by UNWTO/UNSTAT (1994) to cater for various tourism periods, motives and preferences from colonial to post-colonial periods. As such, tourism is defined as those activities deployed by tourists during the course of their journey and their stay in places situated outside their usual environment. This study considers scenic landscape explorations and discovery, wildlife expeditions, wildlife hunting (i.e. trophy or sport), mass tourism (the search for sex, sun and sandy beaches) and game viewing (Camera or Experience-tourism) as all forms of tourism. In addition, this study adopts Leiper (1979) definition that defines a tourism destination as locations or places, which attracts tourists to stay temporarily to conduct tourism activities. In this study, therefore, game reserves, forest reserves, nature reserves, national parks, wildlife management areas, and the Ngorongoro conservation area are all tourism destinations.

Methods

Specifically, this study reviews the literature on the evolution of the national parks as the main tourism destinations in Tanzania. National parks play a

pivotal role in the Tanzanian tourism sector. Based on the Tanzania National Parks Authority (TANAPA) and Tanzania tourism sector survey statistics, about nine-tenths of the country's tourists visit national parks (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2017; TANAPA, 2018). National Park (IUCN Category II) is the highest category of protected area that allows the only non-consumptive use of wildlife, such as game viewing or experience-tourism. Moreover, domestic tourism in national parks is low. This makes managing national parks highly challenging because direct benefits to local communities are less compared to, for example, game reserves or forest reserve where local communities get meat or firewood and timber. Currently, Tanzania has about 6% of its land occupied by sixteen national parks largely devoted to nature-based tourism and conservation. This highest conservation sacrifice did not occur by chance. Rather, considerable efforts have been employed. Nonetheless, Tanzanian National Parks are rapidly becoming 'islands' as a result of land-cover change and habitat fragmentation through human settlements, agricultural development, climate-change impacts, illegal mining and the active elimination of wildlife on adjacent lands. As a result, local extinction of megafauna in Tanzanian national parks is potentially substantial and inversely related to habitat fragmentation and loss (Newmak et al., 1991; Newmark, 1996). Insights into past and current are thus vitally important to successfully manage the national parks and tourism.

In this paper, Section 2.1 reviews the history of tourism in Tanzania since its onset while Section 2.2 briefly describes the evolution of national parks from the 1830s before synthesizing the major findings and concluding the review in Section 3. Section 3 concludes that since national parks had changed in the past, there is also a possibility to change to accommodate the current impacts of environmental change. The science-based assessment coupled with political will is the way to make this change valuable for conservation, tourism and society.

The history of Tourism in Tanzania

Before the nineteenth century, Africa was seen as a 'dark continent', 'the world's last great wilderness', 'exotic jungles filled with animals', 'paradise and a place of spectacular but savage beauty' (Adams & McShane, 1996). Since only a few Europeans had visited Africa, the main sources of information were books and paintings. Among the best-known examples are the paintings by the Frenchman Henri Rousseau who, surprisingly enough never set foot on the African continent but his artistic representations of African landscapes beauty and wildlife were inspired by stories told by explorers and travellers (follow this link for more <http://www.henrirousseau.org>). Rousseau's paintings became a major information source about African megafauna and beauty landscapes. Rousseau's arts likely marked the new era of tourism in Africa.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, few Europeans travelled through the African Great Lakes region (i.e. Burundi, the Democratic Republic of the

Congo, Kenya, Rwanda, Tanzania and Uganda). The promise of beautiful landscapes and abundant wildlife attracted the attention of European explorers. Famous explorers, including John Speke, Johann Rebmann, David Livingston, Frederick Selous, Karl Peters and Vasco de Gama travelled through various parts of East Africa. Their travelling aimed to gather information on resources, particularly ivory, and places with scenic landscapes. Each of these explorers reported and or published his discoveries.

Few to mention, John Speke, a British Indian Army, for example, reported the discovery of the source of the River Nile in 1858. In the same year, German missionary Johannes Rebmann became the first white to 'discover' Mt. Kilimanjaro and its snow cover in 1858. Thirty-three years later, Mt. Kilimanjaro was protected as a game reserve and in 1910, a National Park was established. The discovery of snow close to the equator attracted many explorers and many publications came out as a result. Among the publications were the "Globus Magazine" and "Brehm's Illustriertes Tierleben" (i.e. Globe Magazine and Brehm's illustrated animal life) authored by Alfred Edmund Brehm, both of which appeared in the 1860s. In 1889, a German geographer, Hans Meyer, was the first to reach Mt. Kilimanjaro's highest summit, called Kibo (5895m ASL). His father owned a publishing house, which picked-up on Meyer's adventures and printed a number of magazines and books on Tanzania's landscape beauty. These magazines and books became famous in the European market. These publications spread the news of the Tanganyika's attractions within Europe and the world. Meyer turned thus out to be highly instrumental in informing the European public about Tanganyika's landscape beauty, and in inciting demand for tourism in the country.

Lured by the abundance of resources that explorers discovered, European powers became interested in the region and started the scramble for Africa. Britain and Germany divided East Africa (i.e. Uganda, Kenya and Tanganyika among themselves. Tanganyika (now mainland Tanzania) became a German colony between 1884 and 1918 while British took over from 1919 to 1961.

According to MacKenzie (1988), East Africa was the world's greatest source of Ivory in the German colonial era and exports exceeded those of any other countries. East Africa harboured large groups of elephants thus ivory trophy hunting (i.e. GUN-tourism) was the vital constituent of the pre-colonial economy. From an economic point of view, the international attention for the area now known as Tanzania centred on trophy hunting, especially for the ivory trade. Trophy hunting reached its climax when demand for ivory expanded in response to the growing demand for cutlery, billiard balls and pianos in the United States and Britain (Chachage, 1999). Ivory, however, was not the only product 'exported' from Tanganyika to Europe. Animal hides (e.g. like lion, leopard, cheetah, and crocodile), rhino horns and minerals were also exported.

In the late 19th Century, opposition against the excessive destruction of animal stocks grew. This condemned massive hunting for elephant trophies and other big game hides (e.g. lion, giraffe, and, leopard). Thus, calls for preservation measures to promote the survival of the species started to emerge under the influence of natural history studies. The paradigm shifted from tourist hunting for the trophy to the sport (leisure) hunting tourism, triggering the development of science-informed regulations for wildlife conservation (i.e. the General Wildlife Ordinance of 1896). Non-use activities, such as wildlife safaris, were also advocated. This, in turn, reinforced and accelerated the establishment and expansion of many protected areas in Tanganyika.

The Evolution of National Parks in Tanzania

Tourism was considered a lucrative business in colonial governments and therefore strategies to improve tourism earnings were put in place. In the 1890s, sports hunting and non-destructive tourism had become important motives for implementing conservation measures in the form of game reserves and sanctuaries. Stringent conservation measures were introduced for Mt. Kilimanjaro in 1891 by Hermann von Wissman, who was the first Governor of the Moshi and Kilimanjaro districts. These measures declared the West Kilimanjaro as a first game reserve in Tanganyika in 1896 (Chachage, 1999). This example was copied all over the country and by 1908, eight-game reserves were demarcated. From 1910, the German colonial rulers gazetted a series of game reserves (e.g. the Saba River game reserve, which is since 1964 the Ruaha National Park, and the Rufiji River now Selous Game Reserve). The number of reserves increased to ten by 1918 to attract especially German tourist expeditions (Mtahiko, 2004). Alongside these efforts, wildlife-marketing activities started. These activities aimed at selling Kilimanjaro and other demarcated reserves as tourist destinations. In multimedia platforms (e.g. newspapers and magazines), East African tourist destinations, particularly Tanganyika and Kenya (by that time Germany East Africa-1884-1918), were the primary focus.

Under the British territory in 1918, Tanganyika by then had become famously known as 'Safari land' due to all its unique landscapes and megafauna potential for wildlife safari tourism (Chachage, 1999). Non-hunting (leisure) tourists started to appear by the 1920s although the country's wildlife was not adequately protected. Following in the footsteps of the Germans, the British continued to protect wildlife by establishing more protected areas for tourism purposes. In the British period, wildlife safaris in protected areas gained popularity. Wildlife safaris coincided with a period when motorcars and photo camera became popular (i.e. early 20th century). Despite emerging of wildlife tourism, scientific, educational, trophy hunting still remained the most lucrative and dominant form of tourism.

The British extended the number of game reserves from ten to thirteen in the early 1920s. The three added game reserves (i.e. the Selous, Ngorongoro, and Serengeti) were confirmed under the Game Preservation Ordinance of 1921. Later, in 1933, the Lake Rukwa and Usambara reserves were added. The extension of these game reserves coincided with the fact that tourism (both trophy hunting and wildlife safaris) was a potential income generator. As times passed, wildlife safaris became an increasingly important aspect of wildlife conservation, rivalling or even surpassing sport-hunting as a source of government revenues. The change in tourists' preferences from hunting (GUN-Tourism) to wildlife viewing (EXPERIENCE or CAMERA-Tourism) incited the re-categorisation of some game reserve into national parks. This paradigm shift marked the new era of national parks establishment in Tanganyika.

The era of national parks specifically designed for wildlife safari began in 1933. The advocacy of park tourism was a response to the world economic depression of the 1930s (Ouma, 1970), which it sought to counter. In Tanganyika, the poorly developed infrastructure did not match its abundant tourism attractions. What is more, tourists visiting Tanganyika first had to register in Kenya (i.e. headquarter of the colony), marking Tanganyika earn less from tourism. World War II provided Tanganyika with little opportunity to develop its park tourism since much of the earnings were committed to territorial protection. Nevertheless, an increasing number of tourists with a 'special interest' in Tanganyika's flora and fauna (i.e. wildlife) were recorded (Ofcansky & Rodger, 1997). Acknowledging the role of tourism as a source of revenue, East African Governors organized a tourism conference in Nairobi in 1947 (Sindiga & Kanunah, 1999). This conference aimed to market all tourist attractions in East Africa.

Following these publicity campaigns in the early 1950s, the potential of national parks as a basis for tourism was widely recognized. Serengeti became the first national park to be established under the National Park Ordinance of 1948 (implemented in 1951). The whole of East Africa region saw the necessity for creating national parks for the preservation of an immense heritage of fauna and flora (Foran, 1950). Tanganyika, in particular, experienced a tourist boom in this period (Hyma, 1980). The growing numbers of tourist arrivals paralleled by an increase in studies of tourism ranging from promotional literature in magazines, research articles, and books. Well-produced guidebooks were produced for each country (Cox, 1970; Hyma, 1980). In addition, film and photography emerged as important new promotional media. For example, Grzimek's 1959 film "Serengeti darf nicht sterben" (i.e. Serengeti shall not die) received much attention. The film's aim was to promote the conservation of Serengeti's spectacular wildlife resources for sustainable tourism and research. The film became an excellent medium for tourism promotion and indeed stimulated many conservation activities in Tanzania.

Soon after independence (in 1961), tourism became key in all development plans. While in the colonial period Tanzania had the only game and forest reserves, after independence many reserves were re-categorised or upgraded to national parks. Unlike national parks where hunting of wildlife is strictly prohibited, game and forest reserves fall under IUCN category IV allow licensed wildlife hunting (i.e. sport or trophy hunting) and legal harvests of forest products, such as timber. In this upgrade, Serengeti became the first national park gazetted. This park caters for the changing tourists' demands from game hunting to wildlife viewing. The number of national parks rose to seven in 1970 and thirteen in 1995 and finally to date the country has sixteen national parks. Creation of more national parks was in line with the country's policy to conserve its biological resources for different purposes, including wildlife safaris tourism. This policy was likely due to brutal and excessive hunting that led to almost the extinction of some of its megafauna, rhinos for example. Tanzania was now ready to protect her wildlife resources though in collaboration with international organizations. This vision is clearly seen in the Tanzanian first president speech, Mwl. J.K. Nyerere, stated: "The survival of our wildlife is a matter of grave concern to all of us in Africa. These wild creatures in wild places are not only important as a source of wonder and inspiration; they are also an integral part of our natural resources and our future livelihood and well-being. We solemnly declare that we will do everything in our power to make sure that our children's grandchildren will be able to enjoy this rich precious inheritance" (extract from his speech for the symposium on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources, September 1961). This statement drove Tanzania to establish more protected areas so that the 'grandchildren' of the world' could enjoy the resources. The National Park Act of 1948 (implemented in 1951), which created the Serengeti National Park (SNP) was amended and replaced by the National Parks Act, Chapter 282 of 2002. This new Act established the Tanzania National Parks Authority (TANAPA) as a responsible government parastatal to manage Tanzania's national parks.

To date, the country has dedicated about 38% of its land (i.e. 947,303 km²) for conservation, of which 6% is for national parks. This land sacrifice is the highest in a country where about 80% of its inhabitants (i.e. 45 million inhabitants according to 2012 Census) are peasants and needs land for subsistence agriculture. This sacrifice is not only to appreciate the contribution of tourism to the GDP but also job creation, poverty alleviation and other indirect benefits, for example, ecosystem services. Nonetheless, some people with limited knowledge on the history of conservation may also argue, 'this is too much for conservation only'. The review indicates that the acquisition of this land did not occur overnight. Rather, it took almost 200 years. This review is timely especially now, the country has no land to establish more protected areas, as the population is growing, and the demand for land is tipping. Thus,

the reasons for conservation now than ever should base on fair benefit sharing, research findings disseminations, lobbying for political will, stringent law enforcement and awareness and at the same time tourism must be used as a vehicle to achieve the conservation goals as the colonial government did.

The evolution of the Tanzanian National Parks, Selous Game Reserve (SGR) and the Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) would not be complete without the annotated spatial map (Figure 1). According to Braat (2013), maps are arguably the best communication tools to initiate discussions on conservation decisions such as priority areas or relevant policy interventions. In line with Braat's notion, the potential of this spatial map in Tanzanian conservation efforts and teaching tourism studies should not be undermined. This spatial map annotates the historical development (i.e. time and space) of the sixteen national parks, the SGR and NCA. The map is created using historical information on the individual protected areas, running from the pre-colonial era to the contemporary era. Some information used to create this map were from Wikipedia and anecdotal. The ArcGIS is used to create the spatial distribution of all protected areas in Tanzania. The narrative text boxes for each protected area were added using Adobe Illustrator software. The map shows that all national parks started as open game controlled areas where hunting was not restricted then upgraded to either game reserves or forest reserves, where hunting was restricted by licence and finally, to national parks, where hunting is strictly prohibited. Game or forest reserves evolved from open areas.

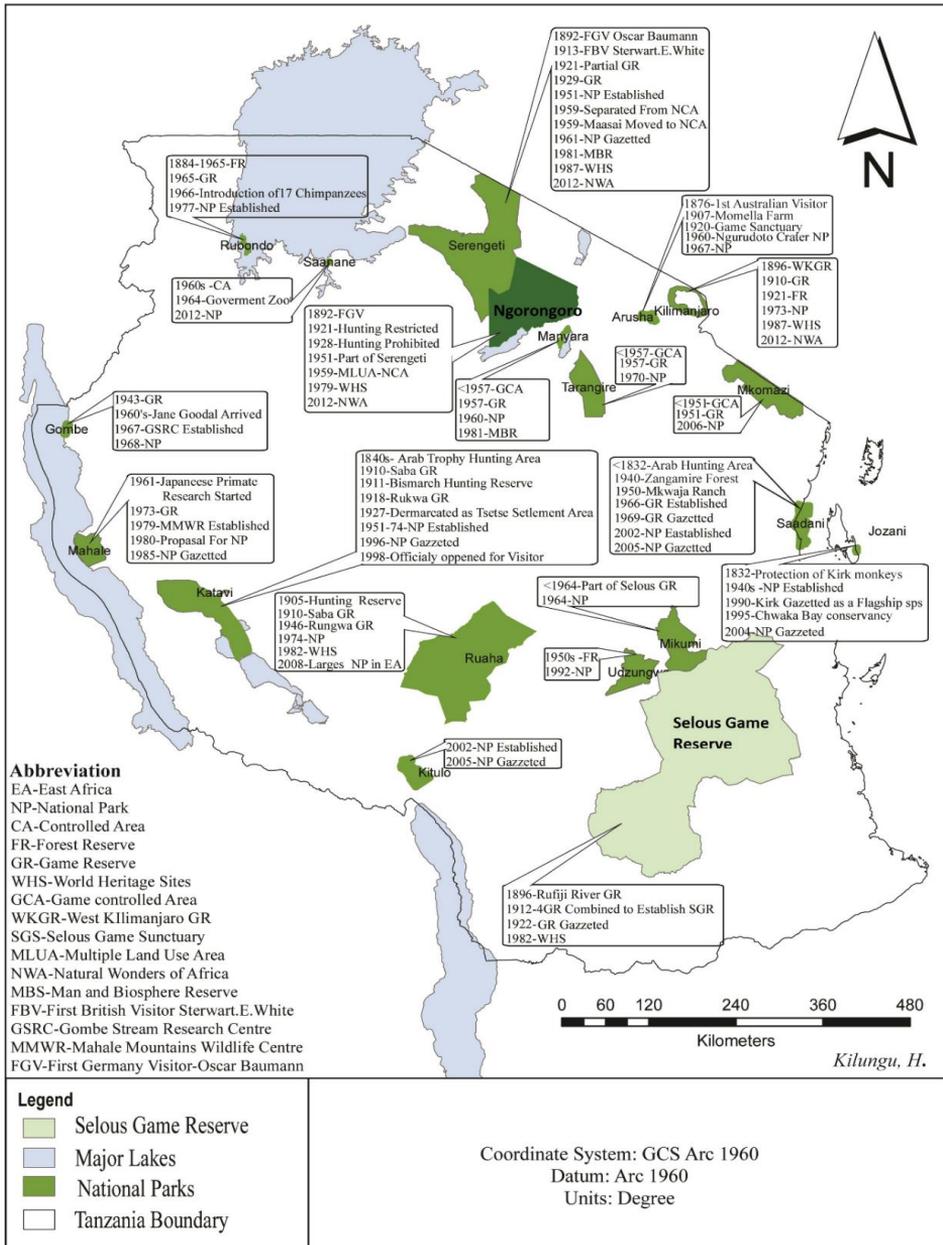


Figure 1: Evolution and distribution of tourism destinations in Tanzania over the past centuries

Synthesis and Conclusion

The establishment of national parks: the main nature-based tourism destinations in Tanzania originates in the 19th century. This evolution is based on the wealth of the country’s wildlife resource and landscape beauty potential for

conservation and tourism, the economic contribution of wildlife and fear for species extinction. Currently, the country dedicates 38% of the land for conservation and tourism, of which 6% is for national parks. This conservation sacrifice is not by chance. Rather appreciate the role conservation and tourism play to the GDP, job creation, poverty alleviation and other indirect benefits, such as ecosystems services including climate regulation and water supply. Definitely, people with limited knowledge about the history and the benefits of conservation and tourism will likely argue ‘the sacrificed land is too much for conservation only’ as the majority of Tanzanian need land for subsistence farming. This curiosity question is expected as the country has limited land to sustain its growing population. The only viable option is likely to de-categorise some national parks to communal lands. This review is a useful lesson for conservation and society at large. This review shows that it took almost 200 years to build iconic Tanzania. Conservation is based on political will and sacrifice (e.g. the colonial political will, the advocacy of Mwl. Nyerere in conservation), stringent law enforcement (e.g. Game Preservation Ordinance of 1921 now wildlife conservation act of 1974) and research findings dissemination to raise awareness. Tourism is used as a vehicle to achieve conservation goals. As learnt, soon after independence, most of the game reserves and or forest reserves were re-categorised to national parks to parallel the changing tourists’ demands and preferences (change from GUN-tourism to CAMERA-tourism) and to protect species extinction.

National parks play a pivotal role in both conservation and tourism in the era of land grabbing, increasing livestock, climate-change impacts, and other related environmental change. The review does not mean to re-categorize all game reserves into national parks. To date, Tanzania has sixteen national parks. Nonetheless, it is not surprising to see the re-categorization of the national park into agricultural land in the future as many national parks face wildlife extinction due to various reasons. But still lobbying for a political will while enforcing the conservation laws as colonialist did is probably a viable option. As before and soon after colonization, the country’s wildlife resources were not subjected to any policy or law. The resulting ‘No-Mans-Resource’ led to illegal hunting and threatened the extinction of wildlife biodiversity. But the increase of awareness on the impacts of unsustainable hunting and environmental and societal impacts on wildlife resources among the colonial government rulers, park managers, and tourists played a major role to change the conservation and tourism over time. Research findings created the fear of species extinction. This fear changed the motives of tourists visit and the type of the demanded attractions and eventually the type of managing wildlife resources. This review views that showing the contribution of national parks in GDP is not only enough to guarantee the sustainability of conservation and tourism but also individual income. For example, what is the opportunity cost of national parks visa vie agriculture? This curiosity question is also not answered in this review, but the

compilation of the evolutionary history of national parks since the 1930s enlightens the critical thinking for further researches.

The history of nature-based tourism destination in Tanzania would not be complete without the Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) and the Selous Game Reserve (SGR). The two protected areas are among the most important conservation areas and nature-based tourism destinations second to national parks. The NCA is widely regarded as the cradle of mankind and the most important prehistoric site in the world. The Zinjanthropus, the world's first humans, were discovered in the NCA. Furthermore, the NCA is a multiple land use where conservation, tourism, and human being (i.e. Maasai pastoralists) symbiotically live together. This symbiosis attracts the majority as such the area is accredited as the Man and Biosphere Reserve by UNESCO-world heritage sites. The SGR is another important tourism destination where both wildlife safaris and trophy hunting is allowed in specialized sites. The Selous game reserve is the most famous tourist hunting area in the world, as well as the oldest and largest African game reserve. In fact, game reserves are purposely located adjacent to national parks to control wildlife carrying capacity within national parks and at the same time to accrue economic benefits through trophy hunting.

This review concludes that since national parks had changed in the past, there is also a possibility to change to accommodate the current adverse environmental and societal change. Science-based assessment is the way to make this change valuable for conservation, tourism, and society at large. Since books and multimedia platforms had played a major role in conserving and selling wildlife resources of the country, this review also will play a role to stimulate sustainable conservation and teaching tourism studies. Much of the information on the historical evolution of protected areas is poorly documented or only available in incompatible formats. But the collated evolutionary history and the time-series of each protected area on a map format makes the history of tourism in Tanzania complete and easily assessable. This two hundred years history is ever collated in the country. Thus, this historic evolution and distribution of national parks in a single map is an important teaching aid in tourism studies.

References

- Adams, J. S., & McShane, T. O. (1996). *The Myth of Wild Africa: Conservation without Illusion*. (pp. 290). California: University of California Press.
- Braat, L. C. (2013). ECOSER 4th Volume: Special Issue on Mapping and Modelling Ecosystem Services. *Ecosystem Services*, 4, 1-1.
- Cater, E. A. (1987). Tourism in the least developed countries. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14, 202-226.

- Chachage, C. S. L. (1999). Globalization and transitions in tourism in Tanzania. Paper presented at the ICTSD regional trade and environment seminar for governments and civil society on February 10 - 12, 1999 (pp. 29) in Harare, Zimbabwe: The Nordic Africa Institute.
- Cox, T. (1970). Traveller's Guide to East Africa: A Concise Guide to the Wildlife and Tourist Facilities of Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda and the island of Mauritius. (pp. 198). Valletta: T. Cox Ltd.
- Curry, S. (1990). Tourism development in Tanzania. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17, 133-149.
- Foran, R. (1950). The rise of Nairobi: From campsite to city-phase in the history of Kenya's capital which is soon to receive a Royal Charter. *The Crown Colonist*, 20, 161-165.
- Gössling, S. (2001). Tourism, economic transition and ecosystem degradation: interacting processes in a Tanzanian coastal community. *Tourism Geographies*, 3, 430-453.
- Hyma, B., Wall, G., & Ojo, A. (1980). Tourism in Tropical Africa: A Review of Literature in English and Research Agenda. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 7, 525-553.
- Kilungu, H., Leemans, R., Munishi, P. K. T., & Amelung, B. (2017). Climate change threatens major tourist attractions and tourism in Serengeti National Park, Tanzania. In W. Leal Filho, S. Belay, J. Kalangu, W. Menas, P. Munishi & K. Musiyiwa (Eds.), *Climate change adaptation in Africa: Fostering resilience and capacity to adapt* (pp. 375-392). Cham, Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.
- Kilungu, H., Pantaleo, M., Leemans, R., & Amelung, B. (2014). Wildlife safari tourist destinations in Tanzania: Experiences from colonial to post-colonial era. *International Journal of Current Research and Academic Review*, 2, 240-259.
- Kweka, J., Morrissey, O., & Blake, A. (2003). The economic potential of tourism in Tanzania. *Journal of International Development*, 15, 335-351.
- Leiper, N. (1979). The framework of tourism: Towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 6, 390-407.
- Lindsey, P. A., Roulet, P. A., & Romañach, S. S. (2007). Economic and conservation significance of the trophy hunting industry in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Biological Conservation*, 134, 455-469.
- MacKenzie, J. M. (1988). The empire of nature: Hunting, conservation and British imperialism. (pp. 345). Manchester: Manchester University Press.
- Mtahiko, M. G. G. (2004). Wilderness in the Ruaha National Park. *International Journal of Wilderness*, 10, 41-44.
- Newmak, D. W., Foley, C. A. H., Grimshaw, J. M., Chambegga, O. R., & Rutazaa, A. G. (1991). Local extinctions of large mammals within

- Kilimanjaro National Park and forest reserve and implications of increasing isolation and forest conservation (pp. 35-46). In D. W. Newman (Ed.), *The conservation of Mount Kilimanjaro* (pp. 136). Gland, Switzerland: IUCN press.
- Newmark, W. D. (1996). Insularization of Tanzanian parks and the local extinction of large mammals. *Conservation Biology*, 10, 1549-1556.
- Ofcansky, T. P., & Rodger, Y. (1997). *Historical dictionary of Tanzania*. (pp. 291). London: Scarecrow Press.
- Ouma, J. P. B. M. (1970). *Evolution of tourism in East Africa (1900-2000)*. (pp. 117). Nairobi: East African Literature Bureau.
- Salazar, N. B. (2009a). A troubled past, a challenging present, and a promising future: Tanzania's tourism development in perspective. *Tourism Review International*, 12, 259-273.
- Salazar, N. B. (2009b). A Troubled Past, a Challenging Present, and a Promising Future: Tanzania's Tourism Development in Perspective. *Tourism Review International*, 12(3-4), 14.
- Sindiga, I., & Kanunah, M. (1999). Unplanned tourism development in Sub-Saharan Africa with special reference to Kenya. *Tourism Studies*, 10, 1-15.
- TANAPA. (2018). Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA) corporate information, tourism performance: Parks arrivals highlights (Table: number of tourist arrivals to parks for the year 2012/2013). Retrieved June 10, 2018, from https://web.archive.org/web/20151220102029/http://www.tanzaniaparks.com/corporate_information.html
- Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey. (2017). *The 2016 international visitors' exit survey report* (pp. 94). Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. National Bureau of Statistics (NBS).
- UNWTO/UNSTAT. (1994). *Recommendations on Tourism Statistics*. (pp. 84). New York: United Nations Press.
- Wade, D. J., Mwasaga, B. C., & Eagles, P. F. J. (2001). A history and market analysis of tourism in Tanzania. *Tourism Management*, 22, 93-101.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR DEVELOPING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN NJOMBE REGION, TANZANIA

Susan Rugano Gwalema
The Open University of Tanzania
susan.gwalema@out.ac.tz

Abstract

Tourism ranks third as the leading exporter. It had a contribution of about 25 percent of Tanzania's foreign currency in 2016 mainly from wildlife and beach tourism. This contribution can increase through tourism expansion. Njombe region, has great potential for developing sustainable tourism since it has got a variety of vegetation from savannah woodlands to montane forests, marvelous natural physical features, wildlife, historical sites and cultures. The objective of this paper is to reveal the possible tourist attractions found in Njombe region and possible investments. This was a desktop research. From literature reviewed, it is argued that there is a need to develop various forms of tourism and related activities in Njombe region using the available resources by integrating local people in tourism development programmes. Njombe region has a bright future for tourism development especially with the commencement of the anticipated iron and coal mining at Liganga and Mchuchuma respectively, which will bring in about 32,000 people with various needs. It is concluded that the government of Tanzania needs to commit itself to tourism expansion in Njombe region and diversify tourism activities in line with global technological changes to attract visitors and improve local people's livelihoods, as well as conservation of the environment.

Keywords: Tourism in Njombe region, developing sustainable tourism, investing in tourism

Background

Tourism defined by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) as the activities of persons travelling to and staying away from their usual places of residence for not more than one year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to an activity remunerated from within the place visited (WTO, 2010) is a growing industry. The two main types of tourism are domestic and international tourism with various forms of tourism depending on the objectives and activities involved. For instance holiday tourism is meant for relaxation, eco-tourism is responsible travel to natural areas which conserve environment and improve the welfare of the local people. Community Based Tourism is controlled and managed by communities. We also have agricultural tourism, cultural tourism and sport tourism to mention a few.

According to the World Tourism Organization, it is being suggested that-, due to its growth tourism has become one of the leading contributors to the global economy, being stronger than other businesses. In total, the Travel and Tourism (T&T) industry generated 10.2% of global GDP and 292 million jobs in 2016. The sector also accounted for 6.6% of total exports and about 30% of total global service. As a result of the preceding promising growth, it is being projected that tourism has the potential to support 380 million jobs by 2027 (WTTC, 2017).

The other general trend of tourism is a shift from the traditional destinations in Europe, America and the Caribbean to other places. This aspect also regards a remarkable rise in Asian tourists, particularly from China and East Asian countries. There is an increasing number of Chinese tourists all over the world (Wee, C.H, 2017). In addition, also, the global market trends indicate that long-haul travel, neighbouring country tourism, rural and ethnic tourism, wellness and health holidays, cultural tourism, ecotourism, sports and adventure holidays, coastal tourism and cruises are emerging areas of tourist interest. For instance, cultural tourism accounts for about 37% of global tourism and it is likely to continue (WTO, 2015). Moreover, the average age of the international tourist has been reduced giving rise to an increased number of young tourists who travel to take a break from increasingly stressful professional lives (Ibid). Given the above factors, robust growth in tourism is likely to continue in the coming years such that on the part of Tanzania has to effectively participate to competitively capture the market.

In the preceding sense, the future of tourism in Tanzania is bright. According to World Travel Tourism Council (2017), Tanzania's tourism sector grew over the past decade by 300 percent, attracting more than one million visitors annually; the majority came for a wildlife safari. The sector employs around one-half million people, and is the country's most significant source of foreign currency. According to the Permanent Secretary of the Tanzania Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, in 2014 alone tourism generated around \$ 2 billion which constituted 25% of Tanzania's foreign exchange earnings and represented 17% of Tanzania's GDP in 2014 (URT, 2014). This figure increased in 2018 where according to the Minister of Natural Resources and Tourism, Dr Kigwangala, H, Tanzania earned \$ 2.44 billion from tourism ([ww.businessweek.com/tanzania](http://www.businessweek.com/tanzania)). He emphasized to target the Chinese market for increased revenues.

Tanzania ranks in 109th position in the world in terms of Travel and Tourism Competitiveness with a score of 3.46 and with Switzerland topping the list with a score of 5.66 according to WTTC (2017). In the Sub Saharan region, Tanzania ranks 12th, with Seychelles leading the group with a punctuation of 4.51. Tanzania also ranks 82nd out of 184 countries in terms of travel and tourism sector size according to WTTC, (<https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/tourism/>).

Nonetheless, tourism is centered mainly in the "northern circuit" of Arusha, Mount Kilimanjaro, Tarangire National Park, Lake Manyara, the Ngorongoro Conservation Area, and the Serengeti as well as Zanzibar. The Government of Tanzania is focused on developing the country as a multi-center tourism destination. The fact that wildlife game viewing represents a significant majority of the overall and leisure tourism market, Tanzania recognizes the opportunity to develop this segment by expanding beyond the northern circuit. The "Southern Circuit" has been earmarked for tourism diversification and investment focused on nature and adventure travel, in order to receive increased arrivals and revenue (WTTC, 2017).

The objective of this paper is to reveal the available and possible tourism attractions in Njombe region as well as the possible investments to enable tourism expansion in the region and the "southern circuit" at large. Tourism development in the region is considered important especially with the commencement of iron ore and coal mining at Liganga and Mchuchuma respectively whereby about 32,000 people (some of them being Chinese) are expected to flow in. The region needs to prepare itself to serve this market. Local people's integration into the tourism activities is deemed important to enable them benefit from the industry through the sale of goods and delivery of services to visitors.

Research Methodology

This section provides information on the study area, methods used to collect data and how the data was analysed.

The Study Area

The study area is Njombe region. The region is located in the Southern Highlands Zone of Mainland Tanzania. It lies between latitude 08o 40' and 10o 32' South of the Equator and between longitude 33o 47' and 35o 45' East of Greenwich. The Region covers an area of 24,994 km² and it is divided into four Administrative Districts and six Local Government Authorities. According to the 2012 Population and Housing Census, the Region had a population of 702,097 people, 329,359 being males and 372,738 females (URT, 2013).

Ecologically the region is divided into three zones, namely; Highlands, Middle and Lowland. The Highlands Zone lies at an altitude of 1,600 - 3,000 meters above sea level. Temperature is normally below 15o C with rainfall ranging from 1,000 to 1,600 mm per annum, falling in a single season from November through May. The Midlands Zone lies between 700 - 1,700 meters above sea level with rainfall ranging between 1,100 and 1,300mm and temperatures are mild to cold, falling to below 10oC during June-July (Ibid). The lowland zone lies between 600 - 1,400 meters above sea level. Temperatures range from 15oC and 20oC with rainfall ranging from 600 to 1000mm. These ecological zones

are favourable for agricultural production of a variety of crops, forests, and tourism.

The region is connected to neighbouring regions of Mbeya, Iringa and Ruvuma with tarmac roads. Most of the roads within the region are in good condition and passable throughout the year. Ongoing projects include the construction of tarmac roads to Ludewa and Makete districts. The local people are very industrious such that the region's average income is high (URT, 2013) mainly from round potatoes, soft timber, tea and wattle barks.

Methods of Data Collection

This was basically a desktop study. Therefore, most of the data were largely collected through documentary research. Additional information was obtained through participatory observation by the author. Documentary research was done to get data on the status of tourism at the global level and Tanzania, the social economic information on Njombe region, and tourism attractions in Njombe region. Observation was done on natural and man-made features and the environment, to determine the tourism attractions and the required developments. The data has been presented and discussed descriptively in accordance with the Regional Investment Profile, literature on tourism status, and through inference on data obtained through observation to reach conclusions.

Findings and Discussions

Findings

There are many tourism attractions in Njombe region that are suitable for developing various forms of tourism. These include: The Livingstone and Kipengere mountains that are good for natural vegetation and landscape viewing, Lake Nyasa beaches, Mount Kitulo, attractions relating to hospitality industry, cultural packages, and historical attractions such as the Nyumbanitu caves, the German Boma at Milo, old Missionary churches at Lugarawa, Luilo and Madunda in Ludewa district and Yakobi in Njombe Urban. Accordingly, there are opportunities for improving those attractions and investing in tourism for providing the needed tourism products. The following is a detailed explanation of the attractions, types/forms of tourism that can be developed and the required investments.

Adventure tourism is one of the types of tourism that can be developed in the region. Mountain climbing and particularly hiking can be developed in the Livingstone Mountains especially at Gangitoroli, in the Kipengere ranges and Mount Kitulo. Long Distance Walking Safaris can be carried out between Kipengere and Makete as well as from Uwemba to Mlangali using local tour guides. Trekkers can experience changes in elevation and scenery particularly of wheat farms, forests, temperate grasslands and tea estates. In order to cater for

visitors' needs, investment in lodges, retail shops, restaurants, eco pubs, gardens, Souvenirs Outlets, theme parks and Retail Travel Agents are needed.

Adventure tourism can also be developed in Lake Nyasa. Here, a number of tourism activities such as swimming, diving, speed boat racing, fishing and other water sports can be performed.



Figure1: Nsungu- Manda Beach along Lake Nyasa in Ludewa District

Beach tourism development opportunities also exist along the beautiful beaches of Lake Nyasa at Lupingu and Nsungu-Manda (Refer Figure 1). The lake has many (more than 100) species of fish than any other lake in the world. It also possesses ornamental fish with beautiful colours not found elsewhere (URT, 2013). So, the lake has great potential for developing many tourism activities and the accompanied employment of the local people through provision of goods and services that will be on demand. Construction of hotels, camping sites for Lake viewing, lodges, restaurants and a visitors' centre, will be a viable strategy as once those facilities are available, interested tourists will visit the place. More visitors will be expected to visit these attractions when iron and coal mining starts in Ludewa district.

Apart from the above, Njombe region has the potential to develop eco-tourism. Notably, in respect of the preceding suggestion, the region is home of the greater ecosystem of Kitulo National Park. The diversity of species found there including 40 flower species (See Figure 2) that are endemic to this area only. In addition, the area is also home of migrating species of birds notably; Black Stork, White Stock, and Adam's Stork as well as other resident species. So, birding tourism is important. Kitulo is also the source of Lake Nyasa and the Great Ruaha River where animals drink water (ibid). As such, it is a place where a lot can be learned, hence, the need for proper protection and improvement of the area.



Figure 2: Natural Flowers at Kitulo National Park

The Kitulo park needs a good tourist hotel to accommodate visitors. So, there is an opportunity for building a tourist hotel and providing transportation services to the area. This will further stimulate development in Makete district by providing a market for food staffs such as wheat, green peas, pork, vegetables and temperate fruits such as apples, peaches, pears and avocados which are grown locally. Also small businesses in other trade articles can be initiated and be stimulated. Consequently, there will be diversification of sources of income. In anticipation of local peoples' rise in income and improvement of their livelihoods, that will be an achievement of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Global Sustainable Development Goals.

Apart from Kitulo National Park, there is the Mpanga- Kipengere, Game Reserve and its associated splendid natural vegetation. This needs good management in collaboration with adjacent communities to ensure wildlife sustainability and avoid its degradation through human encroachment and depletion of game through poaching as the case of Lwafi Game Reserve in the Lake Rukwa Basin (Musana, 2018, Gwalema & Malata, 2018) and Ruaha National Park (Mungure & Gwalema, 2018). Opportunities for tourism investment include: establishment of a visitors' centre, restaurants for food and beverages, and good retail shops at Kipengere village. In addition, the Kipengere ranges and the Livingstone Mountains are both suitable for mountain climbing, long walking safari and scenery viewing.

Njombe region is also well endowed with spectacular physical features that are eye catchers. These include water falls on Nyamuyuya, Hagafilo and Ruhuji rivers in Njombe urban, Kimani, Luvanyina and Madihani rivers in Makete district, a unique slab of rock with a shape similar to the map of Africa extending for about 7 acres found at Igodivaha village in Wanging'ombe district. The Rock is grown with short grass with glittering outgrowths during rainy season. There are also fascinating natural rock caves, nearby at NyumbaNitu forest.

There are also a natural attractive montane forests at Nundu (Njombe), and Milo (Ludewa) (Figure 3). These need to be conserved with the establish of tourist centres at these places.



Figure 3: A Natural Montane Forest in the Livingstone Mountains

In Njombe region there is an opportunity for developing agricultural tourism. Owing to the presence of tropical and montane climates, a variety of crops flourish in the region. These include: tea, coffee, wheat, round potatoes (Irish), pineapples, peas, apples, peaches, pears, mangoes, cucumbers, and water melons. Others are flowers and exotic forests (wattle, pines, eucalyptus and cypress estates) and fishing ponds. Beautiful wheat farms, tea estates, fruit orchards and well managed forests are nice-looking and enjoyable to walk in (See Figure 4). If developed as tourism attractions, jobs will be created for tour guides, food and beverage providers and transporters. This will be one way of diversifying income generating activities for the local people who mainly depend on subsistence agriculture. That will also provide an opportunity to build visitors' centres, restaurants, lodges, hotels and camping sites at Makete, Ludewa, Njombe, Luponde and Lupembe.



Figure 4: A Tea Estate at Luponde

Development of cultural tourism is another opportunity in Njombe region. Improvement in traditional food preparation can be a tourism product. The local people can teach visitors how to prepare various fish meals and cassava stiff porridge (Ludewa). Secondly, in Wanging'ombe district, visitors can be taught vegetable preparation mixed with pumpkin seed flower. This is very nutritious and tasty. Thirdly, in Makete, local people can teach visitors how to prepare home-made brown bread and stiff porridge made out of local wheat flour and round (Irish) potatoes. In Njombe, visitors can cook and taste 'numbu' –a root crop rich in zinc. Lastly, visitors can learn how to cook a spiced green maize meal, and taste bamboo wine. Thus, there are opportunities for demonstrators of the various methods of food preparation, running restaurants and tour guiding. This will help to make local people value local foods while visitors will learn and appreciate local foods.

Performance of traditional dances and theatre arts can be developed for tourism. In Njombe region there are several tribes- the Bena, Kinga, Pangwa and Manda. Each of these, has got its unique traditional dance. So, local people can form groups for local dance performances (such as Muganda, Kioda and Lituli) to entertain visitors when they are relaxing after visiting various attractions. This will be an opportunity to generate income from the entertainment fees. It will also be one way of strengthening the local culture.

Improvement in handicraft making is an added opportunity. The local people in Njombe region are good at making baskets, table mats, lamp sheds, trays, waste bins, photo frames and baby beds using local available reeds and bamboo. If tourism is developed in the region, there will be trainers in handicrafts, SIDO will get many trainees and a variety of handicraft products will be produced for sale. This will stimulate creativity in designing products and trade in souvenirs. Apart from being a source of income, these products build a sense of appreciating natural resources and being proud of their own culture. In turn, people can be easily motivated to exploit those resources in a sustainable way.

Historical sites are also available. Among the historical sites in Njombe region is the Nyumba Nitu natural forest, currently under conservation and management of local communities. Nyumba Nitu, meaning a Black house, consists of natural caves and a natural forest located at Mlevela village approximately 15 kilometers away from Njombe Town. Inside the caves, local Wabena people hid or took refuge during tribal wars between rival Wahehe fighters during Chief Mkwawa conquests in Iringa region, during the last quarter of 19th century. The caves also provided safe hideout from German forces during the Maji Maji uprising (URT, 2013). History narrators are required as well as a tourism centre for providing essential needs.

Njombe region is not very much endowed with wild animals partly because of the mountainous terrain and low temperatures in many parts. Establishing zoos for keeping wild animals is another opportunity. Zoos can be established in warm areas such as Ludewa, Wanging'ombe and Lupembe. Visitors can view animals in zoos instead of traveling to distant parks. So there is an opportunity to establish zoos in those areas.

Medical tourism can be developed in Makete district, at Ikonda hospital. The hospital has got modern medical equipment and specialized physicians for various disorders. Some people travel from afar to Ikonda. However, it is not well promoted. We need to promote it so that many people get treatment at the hospital. That will stimulate more building of lodges, restaurants, banks, petrol stations, and transportation services.

Discussion

Tourism development in Njombe region appears to be bright because a lot of opportunities exist as explained above. Tourism attractions only need to be improved and managed well. This is not a simple endeavour as it needs investment in human resources development and environmental conservation to ensure that the attractions are not degraded. A study by Gwalema and Malata (2018) around Lake Rukwa found out that, there was a big link between the depletion of Lake Rukwa wetlands, the shrinkage of the lake and the anthropogenic forces taking place around the lake. In order to ensure the sustainability of Lake Nyasa, anthropogenic activities close to the lake will have to be controlled. For that matter, mere existence of attractions is not enough without preceding initiatives being undertaken.

Moreover, in order to benefit from tourism, the local people, need to be well integrated in the tourism industry. Hence, for such a thing to happen there is a need to decide and develop types of tourism that will involve and benefit the local people. Since the tourism industry is very competitive, in order to benefit from it, the local people need to learn widely how to run tourism enterprises in accordance with the current trend. Nowadays, 41% of business and 60% of

leisure travel arrangements are done online. That implies that service providers including local people will have to go digital in order to meet customers' needs on the web (<https://medium/swlh/top-10trends>). Hence, tourism tech trends will have to be attended to accordingly.

Success in carrying out tourism that will benefit the local people has to be through-, relevant communities undergoing training in various fields in order to gain awareness about how tourism is managed. They will also need to learn how it can be a tool for sustainable development in all dimensions (Visasmongkolchai, 2017). For example on one hand many local people in Njombe region are subsistence farmers, owning individual farms. On the other hand, tourism is a chain business involving many people. Thus, they will need to learn how to create cooperation in all aspects and learn how to manage various activities such as tour guiding, handicrafts designing and making, hospitality and how to manage and distribute finances. In fact, for such an approach to be sustainable there has to be continuous development and improvement of tourism products and human resources (Ibid, 2017; Jensen, 2005). Such process of developing sustainable tourism should include adherence to UNWTO principles that have been recommended to governments in connection with Tourism development and Poverty Alleviation (WTO, 2006, 2010).

Foremost, strategies for developing sustainable tourism should be mainstreamed within overall poverty elimination measures that ensure tourism development strategies focus more on equitable distribution of wealth and services. Secondly, there is a need to develop partnerships between international, government, non-governmental and private sector bodies, with a common aim of using tourism as an engine for development. Based on the preceding strategy, it is suggested that, most of the tourism oriented products such as accommodation, transport, retail shops and restaurants can be left to the private sector. Thirdly, an integrated approach with other sectors should be developed to avoid overdependence on tourism. For example, in Njombe region, integrating tourism with agriculture and local culture will help to generate more revenues to the small farmers and traditional groups. Agricultural and cultural tourism will have to be innovative and scientifically planned (Wang, n.y).

The fourth principle requires governments to create conditions which empower and enable the poor to have access to information, ability to influence and decision making. For example, having a training centre for designing and making handicrafts, will be one way of integrating the local people in the industry. The fifth principle is to focus action at the local level within the context of national policies. The strategies for developing sustainable tourism in Njombe region, in this case, should be based on the Tanzania Tourism policy (URT, 1999), and others. In this way, the Ministry of Tourism will be

committed to sustainable conservation and use of resources that in the long run can have enormous contribution to the socio-economic development of the local people and the country at large. Finally, there should be a monitoring mechanism to measure the impact of tourism on people's livelihoods. These principles can be well implemented through ecotourism and community based tourism (WTO, 2005). These two involve communities and help to achieve the global Sustainable Development Goals among which poverty is number one.

According to UNWTO, eco-tourism involves travel to destinations where flora and fauna and cultural heritage are the primary attractions. One of the goals of ecotourism is to offer tourists insight into the impact of human beings on the environment, and to foster a greater appreciation of our natural habitats. Therefore, there is sharing of socio-economic benefits with local communities and indigenous peoples by having their informed concern and participation in the management of ecotourism enterprises (Google-ecotourism).

The ideals of ecotourism do not always match with reality. Where most of the businesses are controlled by foreigners, very little trickles to the local people especially if many of them possess low levels of education. This negative aspect is evident in a study done by the author in Tanzanian coastal local communities, which found local people were less integrated in the tourism industry. Consequently, only 10 (6.7%) of the local people in the sample of the study were employed in the tourism industry; at the lowest level of the employment hierarchy. Moreover, about 78% of the respondents were poor due to lack of employment opportunities and capital (Gwalema, 2012).

Implications

From the above discussion, it is implied that, in order to develop sustainable tourism in Njombe region, a lot of financial resources are needed. The government on its own may not be capable of doing everything. The private sector will have to be motivated to get involved in some investments such as accommodation, transportation, pubs, restaurants and tour guiding.

The shift to the digital world implies that, electricity and Internet band connections will have to be available and accessible everywhere in the country. Urban bias should be avoided.

Training of human resources has to be continuous to enable the local people develop new quality products and manage tourism activities competitively in a sustainable way.

Conclusions

From the tourism attractions indicated above and the needed investments, we conclude that the future of tourism in Tanzania and Njombe region in particular

is bright. However, the Tourism Division needs to make concerted efforts to empower the local people to fit them in the industry. A lot of financial resources are needed to develop human resources, tourism attractions and infrastructure in order to compete well with other countries. Tourism in all its various forms can benefit local people and improve local people's livelihoods if the government makes concerted efforts to implement tourism strategies for achieving its set objectives. Involving local communities in planning tourism development and management of tourism enterprises using the available resources should be made a reality.

Recommendations

In order to develop sustainable tourism in Njombe region, this paper recommends the following:

- To manage the attractions in a sustainable way so as to avoid their degradation and/or depletion. The carrying capacity of the respective areas should be adhered to;
- Focus on Eco-tourism and Community Based Tourism in the region because their various forms involve local communities and hence, a wider spectrum of positive multiplier effects;
- The Government through the Tourism Division should invest heavily in tourism training, infrastructure development and environmental conservation;
- Develop partnerships between international, government, non-governmental and private sector bodies for mutual benefit;
- Ensure good governance and accountability. It is the government which can protect and empower local people to participate productively in the industry and ensure sustainable tourism.

References

- Gwalema, S.R (2012), Tourism and Poverty Alleviation in Tanzanian Coastal Communities: A Case Study of Ununio, Kaole and Kilwa-Masoko Settlements, Southern Journal of Reconstruction, Vol 1:1
- Gwalema, S.R and Malata, C.M (2018), Anthropogenic Forces and the Depletion of Wetlands Around Lake Rukwa in Sumbawanga District, Tanzania, JIRDO, Vol. 4:4
- <http://himachalparyatanshiksha.blogspot.com/2013/05/tourism-products->
Accessed 4-3- 2019
- <http://www.gidb.org/tourism-current-global-tourism-> Accessed 2-3-2019
- <https://www.export.go./article?id= Tanzania- travel-tourism-> Accessed 2-3-2019
- <https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/tourism/tanzania-tourism-sector-report>
Accessed 4-3- 2019
- <https://www.tanzaniatourism.go.tz/things-to-do/category/cultural-> Accessed 3-3-2019

- Jensen, O (2005). Competence building by cooperative relationships between local tourism firms and between local tourism firms and global tour operators: A Research Sketch for a Case Study in Madagascar, Paper to be presented at “Recent Development in Tourism Research”, Research Conference organised and hosted by Faculty of Economics, University of Algarve, Portugal, October 6 – 8, 2005
- Mungure, J. S and Gwalema, S.R (2018). Factors for Habitat Loss for Wild dogs in Ruaha Ecosystem: A Case of Iringa Rural District, A Paper presented at the International Scientific Conference of the Geographical Association of Tanzania, Iringa, 10th-11th, August, 2018
- Musana, E.Y (2018). An Analysis of the Determinants of Persistent Land Conflicts Between Crop Cultivators and Migrant Agro-Pastoralists in Tanzania. A Case of Rukwa Basin. An unpublished PhD Thesis
- Top 10 Travel Industry Trends in 2019, (<https://medium/swlh/top-10trends>), Accessed 13-3-2019
- URT, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2014). Tanzania Tourism Sector Report 2015: Record of Arrivals in 2014, <https://www.tanzaniainvestment.com/tourism/tanzania-> Accessed 11-3-2019
- URT, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, (1999): National Tourism Policy, Government Printer, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- URT, Regional Administration and Local Government (2013). Njombe Region Investment Profile.
- Visasmongkolchai, S (2017). Guidelines for Sustainable Tourism Development in a Community, <https://www.slideshare.net/SomchaiVisasmongkolc/guidelines-for-sustainable-tourism->, Accessed 13-3-2019
- Wang, Y (n.y). Agricultural Tourism Development Strategy, College of Economics and Trade, Hebei Normal University of Science & Technology, Qinhuangdao,
- Wee, C.H (2017). Emerging Trends in Tourism: Opportunities, Challenges and Implications, *J. Tourism & Hospitality* 6:318 doi:10.4172/2167-0269.1000318. Accessed, 12-3-2019
- World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2006): Tourism and Least Developed Countries: A Sustainable Opportunity to Reduce Poverty
- World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC) (2017). Travel & Tourism Impact 2017 World, <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-> Accessed, 12-3-2019
- World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2010). Definition of tourism, at [www.tugberkugurlu.com/-/definition of tourism-unwto-definition-of-tourism-](http://www.tugberkugurlu.com/-/definition-of-tourism-unwto-definition-of-tourism-) Accessed 27-2-2019
- WTO, (2015). Cultural Tourism, at www.solimarinternational.com/...cultural-tourism- Accessed 11-3-2019

INFLUENCE OF COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT ON CONTAINMENT OF ILLEGAL USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES IN PROTECTED AREAS: A CASE OF OUTREACH PROGRAMMES IN RUBONDO ISLAND NATIONAL PARK

Massana Gibril Mwishawa
Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA)

Cosmas B.M. Haule
The Open University of Tanzania
cosmas.haule@out.ac.tz

Abstract

The need of local communities' involvement is one of the fundamental issues in existence of protected areas and ultimately sustainability of wildlife tourism. This paper illustrates the influence of community involvement on illegal use of natural resources based on experiences of outreach programmes in Rubondo Island National Park (RINP). A cross-sectional survey involving a sample of 86 respondents was conducted in villages adjacent to RINP. Questionnaires, in-depth interview and field visits were the major instruments of data collection. The data were qualitatively and quantitatively analysed. The results show that illegal fishing was the leading type of illegal use of natural resources in the RINP due to poverty and abundance of fish in the protected areas. In addition, the study found that even though, the analysis of variance shows statistical significance difference in the mean decrease of incidences of poachers arrested within the park Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP) was unable to deter the illegal use of natural resources in the villages adjacent to the park. The paper concludes that outreach programme is an effective instrument in enhancement of natural resources conservation efforts in the RINP but not sufficient to meet local communities' needs, so recommends the RINP to reconsider the approach in order to compensate the local communities of their loss to access natural resources.

Keywords: Community involvement, natural resources, outreach programmes

Background

Local communities' involvement is one of the fundamental issues in existence of protected areas and sustainability of wildlife tourism. Studies (Barrow et al., 2000; Ervin et al., 2010) have shown that over the years the nature and level of local communities' involvement in management of protected area has kept on changing. In classical model of natural resource management, protected areas, especially national parks, existed independent from the surrounding landscapes and were managed by central government and local people were excluded from planning (Ervin et al., 2010). In these classical models, local communities were

not only removed from the parks but also were prohibited from using natural resources found in them (Kideghesho and Mtoni, 2008; Andrade and Rhodes, 2012; Obour et al., 2016). In the perspective of the classical model advocates, the existence of local communities adjacent to protected areas is not only associated with potential of increased risk of illegal activities but also is considered to be a threat to wildlife tourism. However, several studies (Songorwa, 1999; Loibooki et al., 2002; Kideghesho and Mtoni, 2008) have shown that the classical models which were associated with command and control conservation policies lead to increased illegal activities in protected areas. In those cases, the increased illegal activities imply the local communities' discontent with conservation policies (Kideghesho and Mtoni, 2008; Watts and Faasen, 2009 as cited by Andrade and Rhodes, 2012).

According to Gray and Kalpers (2005) as cited by Gandiwa et al. (2014) the pressure from local communities adjacent to the protected areas is part and parcel of management duty of national park in Africa. For, acknowledgement of local communities' knowledge and opinions imply increased compliance to conservation policies (Gelcich et al., 2005 cited by Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). In that case, it has been reported that the consideration of human influences and their involvement in conservation of wildlife is fundamental for long-term viability of protected area (Western, 1982 as cited by Fiagbomeh and Bürger-Arndt, 2015). In that context, it follows that any neglect of local communities in the management of protected areas harbor the difficulties in enforcement of conservation policies (Aswani and Weiant, 2004 as cited by Andrade and Rhodes, 2012).

Globally, illegal use of natural resources is one of the greatest challenges that threaten the sustainability of biodiversity in protected areas (Effiom et al., 2013; Moore et al., 2018). According to Gavin et al. (2009) the illegal resource use involves commercial and subsistence use that violates existing protection area regulations. In most cases, the violations include taking of resources from a legal protected area or private land without permission; illegal land occupation; violation of resource-use regulations; and extraction of prohibited resources such as wildlife species. Some of the common illegal uses of natural resources identified in protected areas of Tanzania include poaching, illegal fishing, logging, mining, entry without permission and settlement in a protected area (Wilfred, 2015).

Despite the isolated nature of the Rubondo Island National Park (RINP), the RINP is one of the most threatened protected areas in Tanzania (TANAPA, 2003 as cited by Stevens, 2011). TANAPA further argue that the RINP face difficulties to enforce its conservation regulations as it enjoy limited local support and receive low number of visitors. In that case, RINP experiences insufficient capacities and resources to finance enforcement of park regulations. As a way out of illegal use of natural resources, there is a need to reconcile the

biodiversity goals and socio-economic issues (Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). Since, 1970s both modern and emerging natural resource management models have found a number of techniques that recognize the need to involve local communities around protected areas into conservation of natural resources (Ervin et al., 2010).

In Tanzania, the change in natural resource management paradigm in late 1970s and early 1980s were made inevitable following economic crisis and ultimately decline in the capacity of government agencies to manage vast area of protected areas (Mariki, 2013). In 1988, Tanzania National Park Authority (TANAPA) with support from African Wildlife Foundation (AWF) initiated the outreach programmes as part of benefit sharing (Bergin and Dembe, 1996; Barrow et al., 2000; Humphries, 2012). The outreach programmes provided funds for community development projects in order to enhance the local support for conservation goals and decrease the infringement of national parks' rules. Even though, outreach programmes have been reported to promote greater local involvement in natural resource management (Nelson, 2010), studies (Holmes, 2003; Humphries, 2012) have shown that communities' conservation services particularly, outreach programmes face a number of institutional constraints such as limited human resources and broken vehicles. In addition, the effectiveness of outreach programmes in national parks has been curtailed by lack of power devolution to local communities and management rights over natural resources (Humphries, 2012). In that case, the understanding of the types and causes of illegal use of natural resources, kinds of services provided by outreach programmes, and trend of illegal activities in the RINP is fundamental for the assessment of the effectiveness of outreach programmes in management of natural resources.

Materials and Methods

The cross-sectional survey design study was conducted at Rubondo Island National Park (RINP). The Rubondo Island National Park (RINP) is located in the south-west corner of Lake Victoria (Appendix 1). The area of Rubondo Island was set aside as a Forest Reserve during German colonial times and declared a Game Reserve in 1965 and later, in 1977 declared as a National Park (FZS, 1993). The area of the park comprises of water and dry land habitat which forms an ecosystem important for feeding and breeding by variety of wildlife species. Apart from its ecological importance, the RINP and its entire ecosystem support the adjacent local communities both economically and socially.

The target population of this study was all people in nine villages (Ikuza, Kasenye, Izumacheli, Nkome, Kikumbaitale, Nyabugera, Muganza, Bongera, Kisaba) around the RINP. A sample size of 86 head of households was randomly selected from 1721 households from the two study villages of Ikuza and Nyabugera located in Muleba and Chato districts, respectively. This approach of selecting respondents was basically similar to the one used by

Tosun (2006) in his study on the nature of community participation in tourism development in Turkey. In addition, the remaining 20 participants who were key informants were purposive selected. This sample is equivalent to 6% of the total number of households in the study area. This is in agreement with Kangalawe (2012) who asserts that under circumstances where there is shortage of funds and time a sample of 5% is said to be sufficient.

The data in this study were collected from primary sources using in-depth interviews, questionnaires and observation. The questionnaire was pre-tested prior to field administration to ensure its validity. Apart from questionnaires, information from key informants from the RINP, district officials (Community Development Officer) and village leaders were collected by the in-depth interview. Furthermore, during data collection we made physical field observations and verifications of the existing outreach projects. In addition, different documents (published and unpublished) especially from TANAPA anti-poaching units reports were reviewed.

The data collected from this study was presented by using text, tables and graphs. Qualitative data was analyzed using content analysis which means analyzing the information collected through interviews in order to indentify the main themes that emerge from respondents (Kumar, 2005). Content analysis is the classical procedure for analyzing textual material obtained through interview, observation and open ended questionnaire (Flick, 2006). Quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistic analysis and inferential statistics.

Results and Discussion

Types of Illegal Use of Natural Resources in RINP

In order to determine the threats and the trends of sustainability of natural resources in the study area, we identified types of illegal use of natural resources facing the RINP (Table 1). The majority of the respondents (30.5%) identified illegal fishing as the main threat to natural resources in the RINP and its sustainability.

Table 1: Major Illegal Uses of Natural Resources Reported in RINP

Types of Illegal activities	Responses	
	F	%
Illegal fishing	80	30.5
Animal poaching	70	26.7
Logging	58	22.1
Others	54	20.6
Total	262	100.0

F=Frequency with multiple responses

Source: Field Survey (2016)

Apart from illegal fishing, other illegal uses of natural resources reported by the respondents include animal poaching, and logging. In-depth interview with one key informant in the Community Development Office at Chato District Council revealed that the prevalence of illegal fishing, could have been influenced by the abundance of fish in protected area (inside RINP) as compared to unprotected areas (outside the park). Similarly, a park ecologist in in-depth interview asserted that the RINP as other International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) category II protected area is only for non- consumptive utilization. In that case, the RINP is protected as breeding area to wildlife species particularly birds and fish. This view on abundance of fish in the areas managed by the RINP is shared by the respondents in the surveyed villages (Table 2).

Table 2: Factors Influencing Illegal Activities in RINP

Reasons for illegal activities in RINP	Responses	
	F	Percent
Corruption	9	9.4
Poverty	40	41.7
Ignorance (Less awareness)	20	20.8
Lack of alternative source of income	4	4.2
High availability of fish in RINP	22	22.9
Easy accessibility to the park	1	1.0
TOTAL	96	100.0

F=Frequency with multiple responses

Source: Field Survey (2016)

These results (Table 2) are in agreement with Russ (2002) study which found that restricting fishing access would promote fish reproduction. The abundance of fish in protected area compared to the rest of the unprotected lake is manifested by illegal establishment of temporary fishing camps in the park bordering islands and villages (Appendix 1). The prominent fishing camps identified during the study include Miembeni and Mwerani in Nyabugera village, Nyarugusu and Chakazimbwe in Ikuza village, Kabiga and Migongo in Maisome Forest Reserve, and Lunazi and Bulongelo in Izumacheli village. The spillover of adult fish in the neighbouring areas is also reported by Tanzania Natural Resource Forum (TNRF) (2008) which asserted that in different seasons fish move for additional ecological resources in areas adjacent to the park. However, as reported by Halpern et al. (2009) as cited by Bennett and Dearden (2014) the spillover effects is limited to small spatial scale leading to the concentration of fishing camps in Ikuza, Maisome, Mambwe and Butwa islands which are close to the protected areas.

Field observations in areas adjacent to the park found that, all camps have temporary shelters which are used seasonally depending on the onset of the moon. The prevalence of the illegal fishing at night is supported by anti-

poaching reports. According to the respondents in the study area, darkness provide easy fish catch. Besides, the darkness was a natural protection for illegal fishers as it was difficult for the RINP patrol rangers to spot them. In the respondents' opinion, illegal fishers who managed to enter in the park had likelihood of getting more fish in a very short time. In both, survey (Table 2) and in-depth interview with the key informants it was reported that the presence of fishing camps within the protected area albeit at low level was influenced by unethical park staff who allowed fishermen to fish and utilize natural resources inside the RINP. These results are consistent with Plumptre et al. (2014) study in Virunga National Park which reported the potential of rural population to engage in illegal activities for income to increase with ineffective law enforcement.

Furthermore, these results (Table 2) show that poverty was found to be the main reason (41.7%) for local community adjacent to the park to engage in illegal activities. The survey results (Table 2) on poverty are supported by review of the RINP protection unit annual reports which indicated that residents of Nyabugera and Izumacheli villages engage in animal poaching and logging due to lack of alternative source of income. The local communities adjacent to the park are facing similar challenges due to denial of access to vital fishing grounds which are crucial for their acquisition of food and income. Similar reduced access rights are reported by Michael and Naimani (2017) in Saadani following its upgrading from a game reserve to a national park.

Services Provided by the RINP Outreach Programme to Communities around the Park

Survey results (Table 3) revealed that through its outreach programmes, the RINP provided different services to communities bordering the park. The results (Table 3) show that Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP) was the leading service provided by the RINP. Other services provided by the RINP include opportunity to visit the park, conservation education for awareness raising, employment opportunities, and capacity building opportunities. In-depth interview with the RINP management indicated that TANAPA allocated more than TShs 120 million in 2015/2016 financial year for the park to support the Community Initiated Projects (SCIP) in the villages adjacent to the parks. From this amount, more than TShs 100 million was used for the construction of health centre at Ikuza village. The amount is equivalent to 70 percent of the total value of that project whereby the remaining 30 percent of the construction costs were footed by Muleba District Council. However, the results (Table 3) leave a lot of unanswered questions, particularly, how outreach programme would influence the self-regulated attitude on the use of natural resources.

Table 3: Services Provided by the RINP to Communities around the Park

Services provided by RINP to communities	Responses	
	F	Percent
Conservation education provision	53	17.7
Temporary/permanent employment	49	16.4
Opportunity to visit the park	55	18.4
Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP)	82	27.4
Education to Income Generating groups	25	8.4
Soft loans to Income generating groups	2	0.7
Education and Support to BMUs	20	6.7
Assistance in chasing problem animals	13	4.3
Total	299	100.0

F=Frequency with multiple responses

Source: Field Survey (2016)

In most cases, as reported by Chapman (2014) study in Uganda, the outreach programmes only ensure local communities improved access to social services. Unlike the neglected support given to BMUs and micro credit, the SCIP are far from influencing household income poverty which push people adjacent to the park to engage in illegal use of natural resources.

Trend of Illegal Uses of natural Resources in RINP

The assessment of illegal activities trends in the RINP was based on the reports from the RINP anti-poaching office. The number of poachers arrested by the park anti-poaching units for the period of six years from 2011 to 2016 is given in Figure 1. The results (Fig. 1) reveal that there is a general decrease in the number of poachers arrested in the RINP over the period of six years.

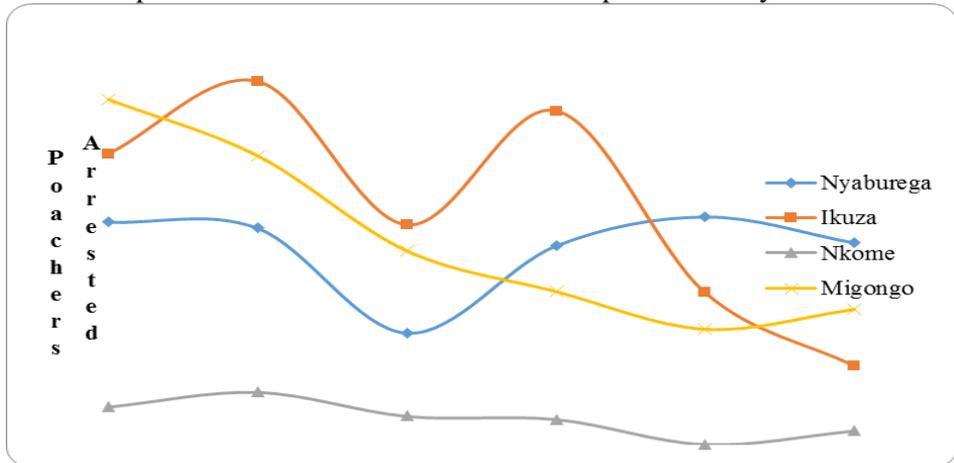


Figure 1: Trend of Poaching in RINP for the period of Six years (2011-16)

Source: RINP -Protection Department (2016)

The results (Figure 1) further illustrate that the decrease in incidence of poachers arrested in the RINP is not uniform. The decrease of arrested poachers (Figure 1) was more pronounced at Ikuza village where the number of offenders arrested decreased by 73 percent. The noticed increase of poachers arrested albeit small for Nyarubega village could have been contributed by the intensified law enforcement efforts by the park. The analysis of variance (Table 4) indicates that F value for the reported decrease in the incidence of poachers arrested was statistically significant (at $p \leq 0.05$; $df=3, 20$) different.

Table 4: Analysis of Variance for Number of Poachers Arrested from 2011 to 2016

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares (SS)	Degree of Freedom (DF)	Mean Square (MS)	F
Treatment	150,333.13	3	50111.043	9.583
Error	104,578.83	20	5228.941	
Total	254,911.96	23		

Source: Field analysis of data in Fig.1

Similarly, the declining trend on illegal uses of natural resources in the RINP is supported by the trend of poaching as reported by the respondents from Ikuza and Nyabugera villages (Table 5).

Table 5: Respondents' Views on the Trend of Poaching Pressure in the RINP 2011 to 2016

Responses	Nyabugera		Ikuza		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Poaching increased	11	12.8	8	9.3	19	22.1
Poaching decreased	21	24.4	29	33.7	50	58.1
Poaching not changed	7	8.1	7	8.1	14	16.3
There has been no poaching in this PA at all	1	1.2	2	2.3	3	3.5
Total	40	46.5	46	53.5	86	100.0

F = Frequency

Source: Field survey (2016)

The respondents from the two study villages attributed the decrease in poaching pressure in the RINP to increased conservation awareness among the community members and intensification of law enforcement efforts by anti-poaching units (Table 6). The importance of conservation education in reducing the incidence of poaching in the RINP is also supported by in-depth interview

made with the staff of the Outreach Programmes office. The staff of the RINP Outreach Programmes office reported the existence of intensified efforts on conservation education in the villages adjacent to the park.

Table 6: Reasons for decrease in poaching pressure in Rubondo Island National Park

Reasons for decreased poaching pressure in RINP	Nyabugera		Ikuza		TOTAL	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Intensified law enforcement efforts by the park	5	9.4	15	28.3	20	37.7
Realized tangible benefits from RINP	1	1.9	0	0.0	1	1.9
Increased conservation awareness among village members	16	30.2	13	24.5	29	54.7
I don't know	1	1.9	2	3.8	3	5.7
Total	23	43.4	30	56.6	53	100.0

F = Frequency

Source: Filed survey (2016)

The staff further reported presence of diverse forums for provision of conservation education to the communities around the RINP. The most common forums used include village meetings, seminars, workshops, film shows and park visits to the organized groups. In most cases, the conservation education was provided to the local communities, school pupils, and to fishermen found in the fishing camps. Furthermore, the staff from the Outreach Programme office reported that the park has introduced environmental protection campaigns in schools and public land in villages around the park. In these campaigns, school environmental clubs, women groups and individuals are competing on how effectively they run projects which enhance conservation of natural resources in the park. These competitions are done once every year. The winners from each category are awarded certificates, cash (money) and study tour trips to other national parks so as to learn from other conservation clubs.

Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

As discussed in this paper, illegal fishing is the leading form of illegal use of natural resources in the RINP. The paper has underscored the fact that prevalence of illegal fishing is against the RINP establishment objectives which among others aimed to make it a fish breeding ground. The dominance of illegal fishing implies that the park has insufficient staff to monitor the fishermen movements in its vicinity. Besides, the increasing dependence on fishing means that other kinds of economic activities undertaken are unprofitability to sustain local communities' livelihoods. In addition, this paper has shown the importance of conservation awareness in reduction of illegal use of natural

resources. However, the reported continued incidences of poaching implies that the conservation education offered by the RINP and other institutions is still at infancy level to the extent that it has not made local communities adjacent the park appreciate the value of nature. Furthermore, the continued declining incidence of poaching in the RINP not only imply increased financial burden on the government but also continued threat to the survival of endangered animal species such as Sitatunga and ultimately the future of tourism industry in the island.

Thus, we recommend that the RINP should reconsider its outreach programmes approach so that it could find ways to compensate the local communities to the lost access to fishing ground by either incorporating them in recreational fishing or introduce fish farming in their localities which will deter them from encroaching the park areas. In that case, we recommend further study be done on local communities attitudes towards the outreach programmes.

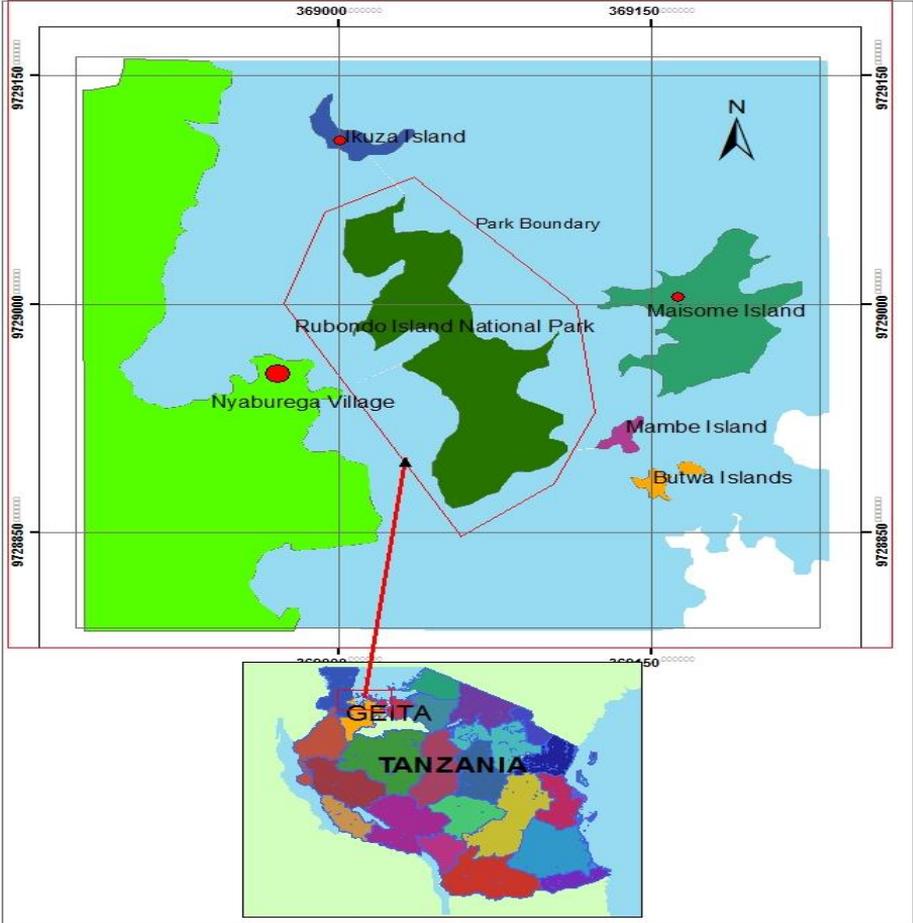
References

- Andrade, G. S.M. and Rhodes, J.R. (2012). Protected Areas and Local Communities: an Inevitable Partnership toward Successful Conservation Strategies? *Ecology and Society* 17(4):14.<http://dx.doi.org/10.5751/ES-05216-170414>.
- Barrow, E., Gichohi, H. and Infield, M. (2000). *Rhetoric or Reality? A Review of Community Conservation policy and Practice in East Africa*. London, England: International Institute for Environment and Development and International Union for Conservation of Nature.
- Bennett, N. J. and Dearden, P. (2014) From measuring outcomes to providing inputs: Governance, management, and local development for more effective marine protected areas. *Marine Policy*, Vol. 50:96-110.
- Bergin, P. and Dembe, E. (1996). Parks and People in Tanzania: an Overview of the Tanzania National Parks Community Conservation Service. *Participatory Wildlife Management. Rural Extension Bulletin* 10:14-18
- Chapman, C.A., van Bavel, B., Boodman, C., Ghai, R.R., Gogarten, J.F., Hartter, J., Mechak, L. E., Omeja, P. A., Poonawala, S., Tuli, D. and Goldberg, T.L. (2014) Providing healthcare to improve community perceptions of protected areas. *Fauna & Flora International Oryx*.doi:10.1017/50030605313001592.
- Effiom, E.O., Nuñez-Iturri, G., Smith,H.G., Ottosson, U. and Olsson, O. (2013). Bushmeat hunting changes regeneration of African rainforests. *Proc Biol Sci.* 280(1759): 20130246. doi: 10.1098/rspb.2013.0246
- Ervin, J., Sekhran, N., Dinu, A., Gidda, S., Vergeichik, M. and Mee, J. (2010). *Protected Areas for the 21st Century: Lessons from UNDP/GEF's Portfolio*. Newyork: United Nations Development Programme and Montreal: Convention on Biological Diversity.

- Fiagbomeh, R.F. and Bürger-Arndt, R. (2015). Prioritization of strategies for protected area management with local people using the hybrid SWOT-AHP analysis: the case of Kakum conservation area, Ghana. *Management Science Letters* 5:457-470.
- Flick, U. (2006). *An Introduction to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage Publications
- FZS (1993). *The History and Current Status of the Black Rhinoceros in Rubondo Island National Park, Tanzania*. Unpublished.
- Gandiwa, E., Zisadza-Gandiwa, P., Mango, L. and Jakarasi, J. (2014). Law enforcement staff perceptions of illegal hunting and wildlife conservation in Gonarezhou National Park, southeastern Zimbabwe. *Tropical Ecology* 55(1):119-127.
- Gavin, M.C., Solomon, J.N. and Blank, S.G. (2009). Measuring and Monitoring Illegal Use of Natural Resources. *Conservation Biology*, Vol. 24(1): 89-100.
- Holmes, C. (2003). The Influence of Protected Area Outreach on Conservation Attitudes and Resource Use Patterns: a Case study from Western Tanzania. *Oryx*, 37(3):305-315. doi:10.1017/S0030605303000565
- Humphries, K.E. (2012). *A Political Ecology of Community-Based Forest and Wildlife Management in Tanzania: Politics, Power and Governance*. PhD Thesis, University of Cambridge.
- Kangalawe, R. Y. M. (2012). Land degradation, community perception and environmental management implications in dry lands of Central Tanzania. In *Tech Open Science/Open Minds*. Chapter 23 (pp. 539-560). Retrieved on Wednesday, November 2, 2016.
- Kauano, E.E., Silva, J.M.C. and Michalski, F. (2017). Illegal Use of Natural Resources in Federal protected Areas of the Brazilian Amazon. *PeerJ*:e39002:DOI 10.7717/peerj.3902.
- Kideghesho, J.R. and Mtoni, P.E. (2008) The Potentials for Co-management Approaches in Western Serengeti, Tanzania. *Tropical Conservation Science* Vol.1(4):334-358.
- Kumar, R. (2005). *Research Methodology*. London: Sage Publication.
- Loibooki, M., Hofer, H., Campbell, K. L. and East, M. L. (2002). Bushmeat hunting by communities adjacent to the Serengeti National Park, Tanzania: the importance of livestock ownership and alternative sources of protein and income. *Environmental Conservation*, 29, 391-398.
- Mariki, S.B. (2013). Conservation with a human face? Comparing local participation and benefit sharing from a national park and state Forest Plantation in Tanzania. *SAGE open* DOI:10.1177/2158244013512665.
- Michael, E. and Naimani, G.M. (2017). Implication of Upgrading Conservation Areas on Community's Livelihoods: Lessons from Saadan National Park in Tanzania. *Journal of the Geographical Association of Tanzania*, Vol. 36(1): 39-57.

- Moore, J.F., Mulindahabi, F., Masozera, M. K., Nichols, J. D., Hines, J.E., Turikunkiko, E. and Oli, M. K. (2018). Are ranger patrols effective in reducing poaching-related threats within protected areas? *Journal of Applied Ecology*. 55:99-107.<https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12965>.
- Nelson, F. (2010). Introduction: The politics of Natural Resource Governance in Africa. In: Nelson, F. (ed) *Community Rights, Conservation and Contested Land. The politics of Natural Resource Governance in Africa*. Earthscan, London. pp.1-31
- Obour, R., Asare, R., Ankomah, P. And Larson, T. (2016). Poaching and its Potential to Impact Wildlife Tourism: An Assessment of Poaching Trends in the Mole national park in Ghana. *Athens Journal of Tourism*, Vol. 3(3):169-192
- Plumptre, A.J., Fuller, R. A., Rwetsiba, A., Wanyama, F., Kujirakwinja, D., Driciru, M., Nangendo, G., Watson, J.E.M., and Possingham, H.P. (2014). Efficiently targeting resources to deter illegal activities in protected areas. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 51: 714-725 [doi:10.1111/1365-2664.12227](https://doi.org/10.1111/1365-2664.12227).
- Russ, G.R. (2002). Yet another review of marine reserves as reef fishery management tools. In: Sale, P.F. (ed) *Coral reef fishes: dynamics and diversity in a complex ecosystem*. Amsterdam: Academic Press.
- Songorwa, A. N. (1999). Community-Based Wildlife Management (CWM) in Tanzania: Are the Communities Interested? *World Development*, 27, 2061-2079.
- Stevens, S.S. (2011). Flagship Species, Tourism, and Support for Rubondo Island National Park, Tanzania. Open Access Dissertation.487. https://scholarworks.umass.edu/open_access_dissertation/487.
- Tanzania Natural Resource Forum (TNRF) (2008). *Wildlife for All Tanzanians: Stopping the Loss, Nurturing the Resources and Widening the Benefits. An Information pack and Policy Recommendations*. TNRF, Arusha.
- Tuson, C. (2006). Expected Nature of Community Participation in Tourism Development. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 27:493-504
- Wilfred, P. (2015). Exploring differences among illegal activities in the Ugalla Game Reserve of western Tanzania. *Tanzania Journal of Science*, Vol. 41:103-116

Appendix 1: The map of Rubondo Island National Park



EXAMINING THE JOURNEY TRAVELLED BY NGORONGORO CONSERVATION AREA FOR 60 YEARS: A CONSERVATION PERSPECTIVE FOR DECISION MAKERS

Ladislaus Fredrick Batinoluho
The Open University of Tanzania
Batinoluho@hotmail.com

Abstract

This paper examines Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) since its establishment in 1959 to 2019. Methodology employed in this study was desk review of the literature on NCA. The review of the literature review focused on published information on NCA within 60 years of its existence. Findings show that the components of the multiple land use model for NCA have failed to co-exist. In the 60 years of NCA's existence, human population has increased from 8,000 in 1959 to 93,136 in 2017. Cattle and small stocks increased from 161,034 and 100,689 small stocks in 1959 to 238,826 cattle and 570,633 small stocks in 2017 (NBS, 2017). The increase in human and livestock population coupled with the increase in human activities in the property jeopardize the conservation and tourism activities. The study reveals that NCA's fate remains in the hands of the decision makers. The study suggests that; firstly the indigenous residents should give up their pastoral and other ways of life and move out to save the NCA. Secondly the decision makers must choose, either to lose NCA or pursue community development. The study recommends abolishing the multiple land use model by relocating all indigenous people outside of the NCA in order to save the property.

Key Words: Multiple Land use Model, indigenous residents, and tourism development

Background of Ngorongoro Conservation Area

Historical Background

The history of Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) dates back to 1928, when it was gazetted as a game reserve. In 1940 the Reserve was merged with Serengeti Game Reserve and upgraded by the Game Ordinance to become Serengeti National Park. However, for almost a decade the Park remained a "park on paper" (i.e., without effective enforcement of the laws and regulations governing the national parks), a delay which was caused by the World War II from 1939 – 1945 (Shivji, G. I and Kapinga, W. B, 1998).

In addressing this challenge, the British Administration excised the eastern part of the Park to form the current NCA - a multiple land use category of protected area which allowed wildlife conservation to be pursued along with pastoralism. The excision of NCA from Serengeti National Park resulted to formation of two management authorities, Tanzania National parks (TANAPA) and Ngorongoro

Conservation Area Authority (NCAA). The authorities were governed by the Tanzania National Parks Ordinance (Cap. 412) and Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance (Cap. 413) of 1959, respectively. The TANAPA Ordinance prohibited human settlements within the national parks while the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Ordinance sought to meet three objectives - conservation of natural resources, promoting the interests of indigenous residents and fostering tourism development. Following the establishment of the two authorities, about 4,000 people from Serengeti were moved to the NCA and were guaranteed that their interests will be safeguarded. Following reorganization of the laws by the Parliament, the NCA Act is now cited as Cap. 284 [R.E. 2002].

When it was established in 1959, the population of native residents in NCA was about 8,000. In 2013, the population grew to 87,851, an increase of over ten times. This population growth goes hand in hand with increasing pressure on natural resources through increased livestock population and improvement of economic activities and settlements inside the area.

Location and size

The Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA), located at longitude 35° 30'E and latitude 3° 15'S, is a part of the Great Serengeti-Mara Ecosystem (GSME), which is a cross border conservation area in East Africa. The NCA covers 8292 Km² out of 25,000 km² of the GSME. Other protected areas in the GSME are Serengeti National Park (14,763 km²), Maswa (2,200 km²), Kijereshi (300 km²), Ikorongo (563 km²) and Grumeti (416 km²) Game Reserves (GRs); Loliondo Game Controlled Area (4,000 km²) and Ikona Wildlife Management Area (WMA, 242 km²). The Kenyan part of the ecosystem is the Maasai Mara National Reserve covering some 1,510 km².

Biodiversity, Geology and Archaeological significance

Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) has global importance for biodiversity conservation. Is the home to a population of some 25,000 resident large animals, mostly ungulates, alongside the highest density of mammalian predators in Africa including the densest known population of lion. The NCA harbours a range of endangered species, such as the Black Rhino, Wild hunting dog and Golden Cat and over 500 species of birds. It also supports one of the largest animal migrations on earth, including over one million wildebeest, 260,000 zebras and about 450,000 Thompson and 350,000 Grant gazelles during the wet season (Campbell and Borner, 1995).

The high diversity of wildlife species in NCA is a function of variations in climate, landforms and altitude and, consequently, several overlapping ecosystems and distinct habitats, with short grass plains, highland catchment forests, savanna woodlands, montane long grass plains and high open moorlands. The Northern Highland Forest Reserve in NCA is the major source of water for the Karatu district and the ground water forest of the Lake Manyara

National Park. It also provides a critical habitat of elephants, rhinos and leopards of the NCA and its surrounding areas.

The NCA is home to the world's largest unbroken caldera, Ngorongoro Crater. The Crater is 600m deep and 260 Km² in size. It offers the diversity of East African scenery and wildlife in a confined space. Besides this Crater, the area has other spectacular craters including Olmoti (3.7 km²) and Empakai (8 km²). The Empakai crater harbours a good number of flamingos, especially during the months of May and June. The third highest peak (3,648 metres above the sea level) in Tanzania, the Lolmalasin, is also found in NCA. The craters are part of the eastern Rift Valley, whose volcanism dates back to the late Mesozoic / early Tertiary periods and is famous for its geology. The property also includes Laetoli and Olduvai Gorge, which contain an important palaeontological record related to human evolution.

Inside the NCA also lies the spectacular ash dunes of Shifting Sands formed from volcanic ash, which are technically referred to as barkan. These dunes are formed when there is ample dust on the ground and a unidirectional wind to create the moving effect. The volcanic ash collects around a rock, and continually gathers until it forms what appears to be a small sand dune. In the case of these Shifting Sands, they tend to move around 10-18 metres a year depending of the strength and direction of the wind. The 'Nasera' is an exceptional stone standing an estimated height of 100 metres above the ground. The Nasera rock is perhaps the tallest and biggest stone in Tanzania. This stone provides a spectacular view for visitors in NCA.

NCA has been subject to extensive archaeological research for over 80 years and has yielded a long sequence of evidence of human evolution and human-environment dynamics, collectively extending over a span of almost four million years to the early modern era. This evidence includes fossilized footprints at Laetoli, associated with the development of human bipedalism, a sequence of diverse, evolving hominin species within Olduvai Gorge, which range from Australopiths such as *Zinjanthropus boisei* to the Homo lineage that includes *Homo habilis*, *Homo erectus* and *Homo sapiens*; an early form of *Homo sapiens* at Lake Ndutu; and, in the Ngorongoro crater, remains that document the development of stone technology and the transition to the use of iron. The overall landscape of the area is seen to have the potential to reveal much more evidence concerning the rise of anatomically modern humans, modern behavior and human ecology.

Ethnography

Maasai are the best known of the ethnic groups in Ngorongoro, and today they make up 98% of the resident population. The remaining 2 % are Datoga, in addition to very few Hadzabe families who live on the very edge of Ngorongoro by Lake Eyasi. Maasai and their livestock wandered into this area around two

centuries ago. They pushed off the Datoga (also known as Barabaig or Mang'ati) who remain as a minority in the east and south of the Ngorongoro Conservation Area. Maasai and Datoga are traditional pastoralists, living almost solely on their livestock, which they revere above anything else. Traditionally, these pastoralists were nomadic, moving with their livestock in a continuous search for grass and water. They have since become more settled as they are now obliged to attend school or require regular services of health clinics. Additionally, these peoples have less available space as their populations increase within the limited landscape of NCA. The Hadzabe have remained purely traditional hunter-gatherers surviving from only handmade bow, feeding on roots and fruits and dressing in animal hides, living in remote homes in the caves and trying to stay away from other people.

Conservation status

The Ngorongoro Conservation Area is a multiple land use category of protected area where conservation of wildlife is pursued alongside human development. Essentially, the NCAA has three legal mandates namely, to integrate the conservation of natural and cultural resources, safeguard the interests of resident pastoralists and promote tourism.

The NCA was inscribed in the World Heritage List under natural criteria in 1979. In 2010, the World Heritage Committee of UNESCO re-inscribed the NCA as a mixed property on the list of World Heritage Sites (WHS). NCA's inscription in the World Heritage List was based on its outstanding universal value and criteria set by the Committee for selection of the sites. NCA had met five out of the ten criteria: Criterion (iv) - to be an outstanding example of a type of building, architectural or technological ensemble or landscape which illustrates (a) significant stage(s) in human history; Criterion (vii) - to contain superlative natural phenomena or areas of exceptional natural beauty and aesthetic importance; Criterion (viii) - to be outstanding examples representing major stages of earth's history, including the record of life, significant on-going geological processes in the development of landforms, or significant geomorphic or physiographic features; Criterion (ix) - to be outstanding examples representing significant on-going ecological and biological processes in the evolution and development of terrestrial, fresh water, coastal and marine ecosystems and communities of plants and animals; Criterion (x) - to contain the most important and significant natural habitats for in-situ conservation of biological diversity, including those containing threatened species of outstanding universal value from the point of view of science or conservation.

In 1981, NCA was also recognized internationally as a part of the Serengeti-Ngorongoro Biosphere Reserve, under UNESCO's Man and the Biosphere Program (MAB). In 2013, the NCA was voted one of the seven natural wonders of Africa. It was nominated to be the Ngorongoro Lengai UNESCO Global Geopark in April, 2018.

Multiple land use model challenges

The Multiple Land Use model has rendered NCA vulnerable to constant stresses from numerous factors prompting a debate on whether the model can still be a viable conservation option. Several changes have emerged in the 60 years of the model causing some management challenges of the area as a conservation area. These changes include human population growth and their spatial distribution over the landscape, change in the social structure as well as lifestyles of the indigenous people and neighbouring communities, transformation of land use patterns and levels both within and outside the NCA, increase in tourist numbers and associated facilities, spatial and temporal use of the area by livestock and wild animals, vegetation change alterations, climate change particularly unpredictable rainfall regimes as well as change in hydrology and drainage patterns.

NCA, as a mixed Natural and Cultural World Heritage Site, is disrupted by multifaceted factors. Several World Heritage Committee decisions have called for an assessment of the multiple-use model of the area to address issues of sustainable livelihoods, natural and cultural resources conservation and tourism promotion with limits of acceptable use as well as its administration and governance of the area. The NCAA Board of Directors has also at different instances ordered the Management to re-evaluate the NCA's multi-purpose land use model and propose the more contented set-up that will sustain natural and cultural heritage of the area and promote tourism for human development (NCAA, 2018). Ultimately, there is need for making decision.

Review of the Literature

Part two presents the literature which was reviewed in course of this study. The study involved the theoretical and empirical literature. The section also presents a theoretical framework which was adopted in the study.

Theoretical Review

The study on the call for action against the journey travelled by NCA for 60 years was guided by the Egg of Sustainability Model, which was developed by International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) in 1994 (Prescott and Allen, 1995). The model shows the relationship between people and ecosystem as one circle inside another, like the egg yolk. This implies that humans live in an ecosystem, and that ultimately one is entirely dependent on each other. The egg becomes safe if both the inner thick albumen (white) and yolk are good. Conversely, a society is stable and sustainable only if both humans and the ecosystem are fine.

Social and economic development can only take place if the ecosystem offers the necessary resources: raw materials, space for new production sites and jobs, constitutional qualities (recreation, health etc.). The ecosystem is therefore, regarded as a super coordinated system to the other dimensions of the triangle or

prism models: social, economic, and institutional. The latter can only prosper if they adapt themselves to the limits of environmental acceptable use. Thus, according to this model, sustainable development is realized when human well-being and ecosystem well-being are achieved (Figure 3). Deterioration in the well-being of both or one of the two components (ecosystem and/or society) will lead to sustainable or unsustainable development as illustrated in the Figure 4.

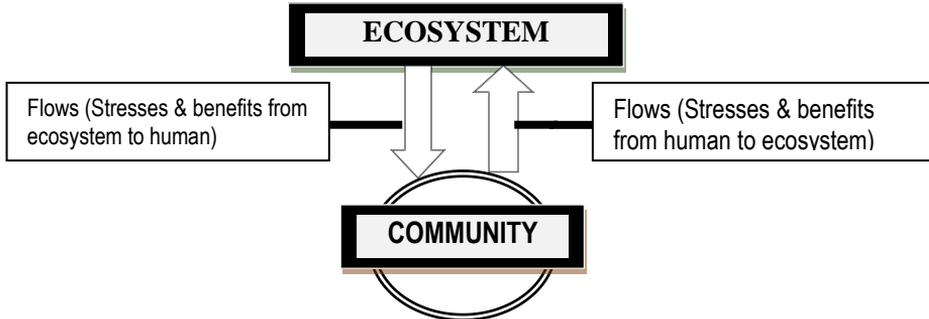


Figure 3: How ecosystem and people are interdependent for sustainability
 Source: Gujit and Moiseev, 2001

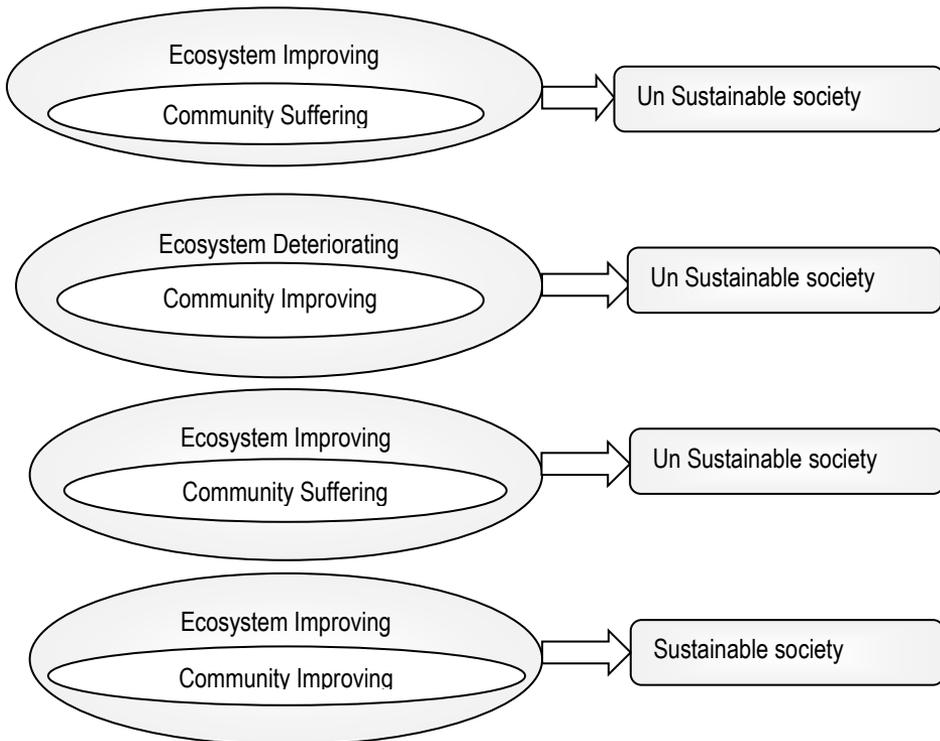


Figure 4: Egg of sustainability model
 Source: Author, 2019

The egg of sustainability model can be used to explain the reality of the multiple land use model in the NCA. In 1959 when the model was adopted, the assumption was that the model would lead to sustainability where humans and ecosystem would co-exist harmoniously.

Current Status of NCA

The trends and existing conditions of the NCA suggest that the model disregarded some important variables. Some of these variables are human, livestock, wildlife, economic factors, land uses and human behavior. Initially, the humans and livestock populations were relatively low than today and, therefore, impact on ecological system was minimal. Furthermore, their activities and life styles including housing were compatible with conservation needs of the area. Today the human population has grown, by almost 12 times, and the life style has changed thus leading to stresses over the ecological system. The nature and characteristics of the indigenous people in terms of their conservation relationship with wildlife has significantly changed. The preconceived co-existence between human-livestock-conservation has failed.

Population growth causes deterioration of the ecological system as a result of over utilization of ecosystem services and resources such as forage, firewood, water and pasture land. Furthermore, the culture and life style of the indigenous residents, which were considered to be compatible with conservation objective of the area, have changed over time. Indigenous residents pastoralists are now building modern houses (Figure 5 and 6).



Figure 5. Human activities at Oloirobi village in the NCA

Source: Author, 2019

Worse enough, the residents are engaging in poaching to obtain wild meat and collude with other poachers from outside NCA unlike in the past. There have been reported cases where resident indigenous collaborated with poachers to kill

rhinoceros, elephants and other endangered wildlife species (NCAA, 2018). Whereas insufficient and poor quality ecosystem services caused by ecosystem deterioration, increase poverty among the local communities, drought and disease incidences are the major causes of livestock mortality. For instance, in 2017 more than 77,000 livestock died in the NCA due to drought, inadequate pasture and diseases among other factors (Fyumagwa et al., 2018). The situation in NCA indicates that both human and ecological conditions are deteriorating and, therefore, undermining the society well-being and sustainability of the area. The indicators of deteriorating human well-being in the area include relatively high above the national standards and also compared to the intensity in other districts in Arusha region (Table 1). In the NCA; poverty is 70%, illiteracy rate 64.5%, hunger (total dependence on handouts), and diseases levels among others. Poor ecological condition of the NCA is defined by range degradation, declined populations of some wildlife species and reduced quality of forage due to increase of invasive alien and pioneer species. Deterioration of ecological system translates into inadequate resources for society and therefore leads to competition for available scarce resources such as water and forage. This has consequently generated human-wildlife conflicts, including repeatedly reported cases of spotted hyenas attacking and killing both people and livestock, unlike in the past (NCAA, 2018).

Methodology

This study is based on a literature review. The literature used included published articles, journals, books, reports, newspapers, and magazines. Also, the study used Google scholar search engine with the keywords to access various information on the topic. Critical examination of the Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) since its establishment in 1959 to 2019 was carried out through in depth analysis of the components of the model. Content analysis was employed to assess the content and concept of model in relation to conservation, community development and tourism. This technique is a common data analysis method in the social sciences (Berg, 2009). The scholar further identifies that this method involves a careful, detailed, systematic assessment and interpretation of a particular body of material with the intention of identifying patterns, themes, biases and meanings. Additionally, the technique identifies the meaning of the text and therefore maintains a qualitative textual approach (Silverman, 2006; Elo and Kyngäs, 2007). The reasons for this method is that it is analytically flexible and offers a replicable methodology if done correctly (Duriau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007). Elo and Kyngäs (2007) observed that this method can be employed as inductive or deductive research approach and that different levels of analysis can be performed using qualitative or quantitative approaches through longitudinal research designs. In tourism research, a several studies have adopted this technique. The analysis was conducted to contextualize interpretations of the reviewed literature to produce valid, reliable, dependable and trustworthy findings.

Key Findings and Discussion

This part presents the key findings of the study, by focusing on the components of the Multiple Land Use Model for the NCA. The components of the model are community development, biodiversity and cultural heritage conservation and tourism development.

Increased human population

According to National Bureau of Statistics (2017), the population of indigenous resident is 93,136. If the number of people will continue to increase unabated, the population is expected double and reach about 200,000 by 2032. This means that the well-being of the people in the area will worsen further and fail to sustain their existence as established by the national and global standards of human welfare. In the face where conservation of natural and cultural resources as well as tourism promotion seem to fairly succeed while condition of resident pastoralists' deteriorates, demonstrates that the multiple land use model that has existed for 60 years can no longer be upheld without making adjustments in its current status. Otherwise, individuals or groups without goodwill to the NCA will take advantage of the deteriorating state of resident pastoralists' wellbeing to obtain unfair sympathy as well as financial and political gains.

Increased Livestock Population

In 1960, pastoralists had 161,034 cattle and 100,689 small stocks, which was equivalent to Tropical Livestock Unit (TLU) of 171,103 translating to approximately 16.0 TLUs per person. Regardless of equivalency factor for livestock category to TLU, equating single cattle to one TLU and 10 small stocks to one cattle, the TLUs in the NCA has progressively decreased to 3.2 in 2017. However in order to sustain the food base, at least 8.0 TLU per person is required, which is not the case for NCA (Fyumagwa et al.; 2018).

Biodiversity and cultural heritage conservation

NCA is the UNESCO World Heritage Site, Man and Biosphere Reserve, one of the 7th Natural Wonder of Africa and Ngorongoro Lengai UNESCO Global Geopark. In addition, the number of black rhino (*Diceros bicornis michaeli*), one important keystone species of the NCA has swelled from about 12 individuals in the 1980s when the NCA was put on a danger list of UNESCO to about 59 in 2018 (NCAA, 2018). This implies that the NCA has continued to maintain the international standards of conservation and management of biodiversity, cultural heritage and geological landscape.

Community development

The relationship between resident pastoralists in the area and the NCAA has been at all times low due to deteriorating human's socio-economic conditions, which is partially attributed to food insecurity, water scarcity, income poverty,

problem animals, poor state of health and education services as well as inadequate involvement in the management of the NCA. Despite the main source of livelihoods for the people of the NCA being livestock production, the livestock units per person has over years declined terrifically. Recent reports indicate that in 2017/2018 approximately 77,000 cattle died mainly due to drought (Fyumagwa et al., 2018). Among other reasons, resident pastoralists in the area associate it with inadequate grazing land due to restrictions imposed by the Authority to graze in Ngorongoro, Empakaai and Olmoti craters for salt licks as well as the Northern Highland Forest Reserve (NHFR), insufficient veterinary services, livestock predation, deteriorating rangelands that involves invasion of both alien and natural plant species.

Land Issues and Villagilization

NCA's area has been encroached leading to reduced size. The area has been reduced from 8,292 Km² in 1959 to 8,100 Km² in 2006 (Ardhi University College, 2006). Conversely, all the 25 villages in NCA have not been surveyed and no village description boundaries. Out of the 25 villages, 16 villages have registration numbers and geographical boundaries, while 9 villages are not registered.



Figure 6. Misigiyo Village in the NCA

Source: Author, 2019

Tourism Activities and Revenue

During the 2017/2018 financial year, NCA was a protected area that earned TZS 127 billion more revenue per unit area than any other protected area in East Africa. Also, NCA provided the Government with TZS 22.37 billion as dividends which made it to be number one on the list of protected areas in Tanzania for providing dividends to the government. NCA's revenue generated from Tourism activities enables to finance its operations and pay all relevant

taxes to the Government, implying that the Property has largely succeeded in optimizing tourism benefits through unlocking the social and economic potential of the area.

Figure 7 shows the number of visitors, both residents and foreigners to the NCA between 1968 and 2017. Generally, whereas non-resident visitors increased from 1968 to 1977 when the number dropped following the collapse of the East Africa Community (EAC), obliging the closure of the Tanzania-Kenyan border, domestic visitors maintained more or less the same number over the same period of time. Since 1984 when the border was re-opened non-resident visitors increased progressively up to 2017. Whereas resident tourist increased gradually until 2013, they have decreased consistently for the past four years up to 2017. The causes of increase up to 2013 were perhaps the results of intensive domestic tourism campaign by the Authority, increase in the proportion of middle-class income in the country and cultural transformation of the Tanzanian society towards loving the natural environment. However, the decline in the number of domestic visitors since 2013 could be attributed by the construction of a tarmac road from Arusha to the Lake Victoria Regions through Singida, whereby many travelers between the two locations currently prefer to use that road avoiding the Ngorongoro-Serengeti road, which is gravel road and difficult to pass during wet season, fee payment at both the NCA and Serengeti National Parks (SENAPA) entrance gates and sometimes by some unfavourable restrictions for using the route such as prohibition on passing through the two protected areas between 6.00 in the evening and 6.00 in the morning.

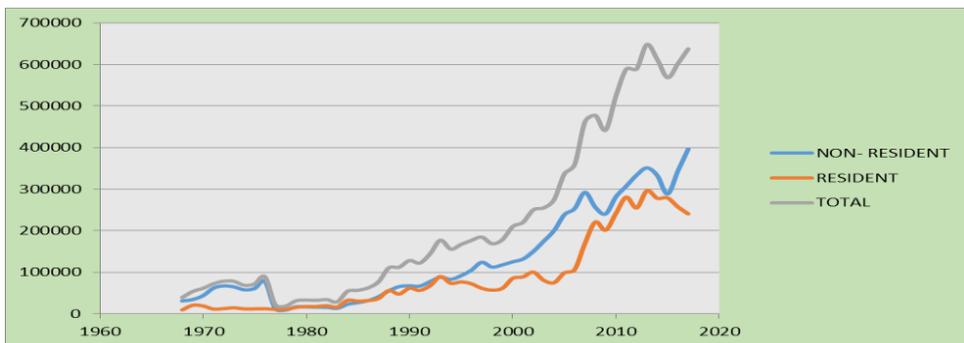


Figure 7. Trends in Visitors to NCA between 1968 and 2017

Source: NCAA, 2018

A survey that was conducted in 2008 revealed that five topmost attractions, which prompted foreign tourists to visit the NCA prior to arranging for the travel, were variety and wildlife abundance that accounted for 30.0% of all the respondents (n=2,907), the Ngorongoro Crater (19.0%), the landscape and scenery (9.0%), presence of black rhino (8.0%) and 7.0% mentioned the annual wildlife migration (Runyoro, 2009). Although it is often asserted that if human-wildlife co-existence was to be abandoned, NCA will attract relatively few

visitors than how it is today, during the same study, human-wildlife co-existence and the area being known to be the origin of humankind were ranked the sixth as reasons for the arranging the visitation, each accounting for 6.0% of all the respondents (Runyoro, 2009). However, on one hand, after concluding their visit in the NCA, the five things they enjoyed most were, the wildlife abundance, which accounted for 44.0% of all the respondents (n=2,907), the Ngorongoro Crater (14.0%), landscape and scenery (11.0%), wildlife-human coexistence (5.0%) and wildlife migration (5.0%). On the other hand, when they were asked to list things they disliked after their visits, majority of mentioned poor road condition, which accounted for 49.0% of all the responses, tourists and vehicle congestion particularly in the Ngorongoro Crater (20.0%), poor tourist facilities in campsites (12.0%), sub-standard accommodation facilities and services (6.0%) and poor reception and customer care emerged the fifth on the list accounting for all the responses Runyoro, 2009). The NCAA Corporate Plan mentioned five things tourist dislike after visiting the NCA in the following order: livestock in NCA; human settlements in NCA; delays at the main gates; road conditions and dust; and poor interpretation services (CSP, 2017). Whereas attractions, which tourists recognized prior to visiting the NCA and those, which they liked after their visit, were all natural, those, which they disliked were all administrative, and therefore need to be strategically and immediately addressed if the Authority wishes to mitigate the problem of the declining trends of non-resident tourists.

Increasing congestion of vehicles in the Crater implies that, number of visitors entering the NCA have continued to increase. Table 1 shows the number of visitors entered the NCA from 2006 -2017.

Table 1. Number of Visitors to the NCA from 2006 -2017

Year	Number of Visitors		Total
	Non- Resident	Resident	
2006	253,001	106,258	359,259
2007	292,307	169,743	462,050
2008	256,233	221,216	477,449
2009	240,411	201,555	441,966
2010	281,513	242,133	523,646
2011	307,086	281,520	588,606
2012	333,601	255,213	588,814
2013	350,970	296,763	647,733
2014	332,993	278,774	611,767
2015	288,404	279,579	567,983
2016	343,598	257,850	601,448
2017	396,102	240,952	637,054
Grand Total	3,676,219	2,831,556	6,507,775

Source: NCAA, 2018

On revenue from tourism, during the 2017/2018 financial year, NCA was a protected area that earned TZS 127 billion more revenue per unit area than any other protected area in East Africa. Also, NCA provided the Government with TZS 22.37 billion as dividends which made it to be number one on the list of protected areas in Tanzania for providing dividends to the government. NCA's revenue generated from Tourism activities enables to finance its operations and pay all relevant taxes to the Government, implying that the Property has largely succeeded in optimizing tourism benefits through unlocking the social and economic potential of the area.

Summary

Ngorongoro Conservation Area is of great importance at the community, district, regional, national, African and global level. In tourism, the NCA is Tanzania's icon in terms of visitation and revenue generation. In the 2017/2018 financial year, NCA was the only single protected area in the country which generated TZS 127bn and contributed TZS 22.36bn dividends to the government. In East Africa, NCA was the only protected which generated more revenue per unit area than any other protected area in the region in 2017/2018. At the African level, NCA is one of 7th Natural Wonders of Africa. Internationally, NCA is the UNESCO Man and Biosphere reserve, UNESCO World Heritage site and Ngorongoro Lengai UNESCO Global Geopark.

Despite the NCA's immense national and global importance there are several threats which jeopardize its survival if they remain unresolved. Currently, NCA's population has increased more than 900% since 1959. In 1959, when the population was 8,000 people, in area of 104 ha within NCA there was one person. In 2017 (58 years later), in each 9 ha there is a person. In 2075 (58 years to come), in each 0.8 ha of NCA there shall be a person, leave alone the human development activities. Conversely, in 1960 pastoralists had 161,034 cattle and 100,689 small stocks, which was equivalent to Tropical Livestock Unit (TLU) of 171,103 translating to approximately 16.0 TLUs per person. In 2017, the TLUs in the NCA has progressively decreased to 3.2 in 2017, while according to national standards, a person requires at least 8.0 TLU in order to sustain the food base, which is not the case for NCA (Fyumagwa et al.; 2018).

On the other hand, NCA is the only protected area in Tanzania, where people are provided food (maize grain) for free or at subsidized price, children have scholarships at levels of education, health services are provided for free and livestock receive free veterinary services. It is the only division in Tanzania, which has full local government leadership of the nine (9) unregistered villages and sixteen (16) villages which have registration by numbers without village boundaries and village lands. Politically, NCA with 25 villages, 11 wards and with over 20,000 voters forms a strong base for Ngorongoro Constituency. Both the ruling party and opposition parties consider NCA as political asset. Also,

NCA is the only place in Tanzania, where few households make a village and a village is a ward. Further, NCA is the only area in the country where people are not allowed to grow crops and cannot own land which is a matter of the existing NCA Act. On the other hand, NCA has a number of activists, especially NGOs which intend not inform policy makers but creating hatred between the Government and its people.

Implications

Conflicts of protected area and human development in NCA have reached a point where any strategic investment in human development has corresponding negative consequences for protected area conservation and management, and vice versa. Also there are indications of waning relationships between the people of NCA and the Authority resulting from weakening human conditions of the people of the NCA due to water shortages, income poverty, problem animals, food insecurity, poor health, poor shelters, livestock depredation and poor education. The main source of livelihoods for the people of the NCA is livestock.

Conclusion and Recommendation

On the basis of the information gathered during this study, the study concludes that the Outstanding Universal Value of the Property is increasingly threatened by the impact of resident human populations and unsustainable land use practices linked to subsistence agriculture and tourism. The study therefore considers that if these issues are not addressed urgently and if the current degradation patterns are not stopped, the Outstanding Universal Value of the property will be jeopardized. The study recommends abolishing the multiple land use model by relocating all indigenous people outside of the NCA in order to save the property.

References

- Campbell, K. and M. Borner (1995). Population trends and distribution of Serengeti herbivores: implications for management. University of Chicago Press. Chicago-USA
- Fyumagwa et al.; (2014, 2018). International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation Attitudes of Maasai pastoralists towards the conservation of large carnivores in the Loliondo Game Controlled Area of Northern Tanzania. 10.5897/IJBC2014.0769
- NBS (2017). Population and livestock Census for Ngorongoro division. NBS. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania
- NCAA (1996, 1998, 2018). Ngorongoro Conservation Area General Management Plan. Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority, Arusha, Tanzania.
- NCAA. (1999). 1998 aerial boma count, 1999 people and livestock census, and human population trend between 1954 and 1999 in the NCA.

- Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority, Ngorongoro Crater, Tanzania.
- NCAA. (2003). Annual report Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority. Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority. Arusha, Tanzania
- Neumann (1992). Cultivation and Conservation in Ngorongoro Conservation Area. 10.1007/s10745-006-9031-3.
- Prescott-Allen (1995). Safety Net: Protected Areas Contributing to Human Well-Being. University of Chicago Press. Chicago-USA
- Runyoro, A. V. (2006). Analysis of alternative livelihood strategies for the pastoralists of Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Tanzania. PhD. Thesis. Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania.
- Runyoro, V (2006). Cultivation and Conservation in Ngorongoro Conservation Area. 34(6):809-828
- Shivji, G. I and Kapinga, W. B. (1998). Maasai rights in Ngorongoro, Tanzania. IIED/HAKIARDHI, U.K. and Tanzania

Session 1b Domestic Tourism and SME Development

**EFFORTS MADE BY THE TANZANIA GOVERNMENT IN
PROMOTING PARTICIPATION FOR LOCAL PEOPLE IN DOMESTIC
TOURISM**

Jafari Anania Mwendisi
National College of Tourism
jafariananiamwendisi@yahoo.com

Abstract

Developing countries, including Tanzania, have been relying heavily on international tourism rather than domestic tourism. African countries have already realized the potential positive economic impacts of domestic tourism and have taken some steps towards developing and implementing several strategies on domestic tourism. However, in Tanzania strategies have been poorly developed and minimally implemented. To obtain a clear picture on Tanzania's domestic tourism performance, a study was undertaken to assess efforts made by Tanzania government on promoting local people participation in domestic tourism. Specifically, the study was intended to identify strategies that can be implemented for the sustainable domestic tourism, identifying factors hindering local people participation in domestic tourism and to propose initiatives that Tanzania could assume to motivate the natives to participate in domestic tourism. The survey was conducted among 3 key tourism government organs namely MNRT, TTB and TANAPA, which are responsible for the formulation of policies and promotion. The results showed that there is a need for the government to put more efforts on promoting local people participation in domestic tourism by collaborating with stakeholders and developing integrated domestic tourism strategy that will enable the industry to tap this potential market in a sustainable and competitive manner. Key recommendations from the study focus on carrying out a national survey on the status of domestic tourism as well as opening tourist data collection centres in various bus terminals and ferry stations. Also there is a necessity for allocation of sufficient and reasonable budget to enhance the implementation of the approach. Basing on these substantial outcomes and study findings, the study concluded that, the Tanzanian government have made little efforts in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism

Keywords: Efforts, Local people, Domestic tourism

Introduction

The promotion of domestic tourism among local people is of great significance in encouraging them to visit the tourist attractions within their own country as well as enhancing the formation and maintenance of a national identity through

the viewing of national heritage sites and promotion of cultural understanding, cohesion of goodwill within the country (Mena, 2004). Also it helps in establishing a united sense of national pride in the country's unique endowment of natural resources, thereby bridging conflicts among tribes and other neighbors. Furthermore, income from domestic tourists is needed to increase the revenue base of conservation agencies. These agencies play a vital role in Tanzania's overall economy as they have contributed an estimation of about 17.2% of the country's total GDP from 2016 to 2017 (MNRT report,2018).

One of the global challenges facing domestic tourism is the way it is promoted and marketed, there is a need for going beyond marketing mere components and products of tourism or rather selling the sites and begin focusing on offering the best experiences to tourists. Also there is a need for developing a good marketing strategy that should talk directly to its target niches (Alma.2016). The number of domestic tourists in Tanzania is significantly lower than those of international tourists in most of the tourist destinations. Basing on the statistical analysis released by the Tourism Statistics Bulletin (2017), in 2016 the number of residents participated in domestic tourism was 766,092 while in 2017 the number was 735,739 a decrease of about 30,353 tourists. This shows that there is a need for more efforts on promoting domestic tourism. In this regard, the study assessed the efforts made by the Government of Tanzania in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism.

Bakare, (2011) and Mungai, (2011) revealed that domestic tourism in Africa has challenges ranging from the lack of tourism awareness to insufficient use of media like radio or TV for promotional purposes. Nevertheless, Rogerson&Lisa,(2005) highlighted that in Africa, domestic tourism initiatives have been slower in terms of growth. Countries like South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya are also seeking to improve domestic tourism. Also the Economic Outlook, (2012) reported that the other reasons as to why African youths, in particular, are not engaging themselves in domestic tourism include unemployment and an increase in illiteracy rate. Similarly, Barrar, (2010) of Latin America also Stone & Nyaupane (2017) of Botswana, pointed out that the domestic tourists are low in number due to the negative cultural attitudes towards travels as well as limited studies on domestic tourism in their areas in general.

In Tanzania studies have been conducted on domestic tourism in relation to promotion of domestic tourism (Mkwizu, (2018), Mariki et al., (2011); Anderson, (2015); Jani, (2016); Sing'ambi & Lwoga, (2017), and Ladislaus, (2017). Regional wise, the East African Countries established the EA Community Tourism Development Strategy, (2018) and Tanzania Tourist Board established Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy, (2018) for the purpose of emphasizing the promotion of domestic tourism. However, the development of

such strategies minimally contributed to an increase in domestic tourists in the country. This shows that still there is a need for conducting further researches aimed at assessing the efforts made by the Tanzanian government in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism.

The efforts made to promote domestic tourists have been done in many countries. For example in China, measures to stimulate domestic tourism, were started with “targeted promotion campaigns” an immediate response was to increase the promotional budgets of the national tourism administration and launch special campaigns to target the domestic tourism. The campaigns were intended to encourage local people to take their holidays at home by creating travel packages that bundle popular destinations within a region or province, China CCTV and other state media provided a relatively inexpensive channel for promoting multiple domestic tourism events, combining public and private resources to improve the potential for reaching multiple audiences. (UWTO report,2009).

In Australia campaign was to encourage workers to use their leave for holidays within the country. In Portugal, a coordinated domestic packaging effort was launched alongside a comprehensive advertising campaign and the development of a dedicated website where private partners could offer special packages and discounts for domestic travelers. Thailand also took similar initiatives by allocating funds covering travelling costs for up to 2,000 youths picked from each of the country’s provinces to travel throughout the country. (UWTO, 2009) Beside those countries, in 2009 China developed a website to promote domestic tourism and to define any temporary financial benefits of traveling domestically. Moreover, China has started to reduce or eliminate specific taxes on travel-related activities, temporary financial incentives, such as lowering or eliminating airport taxes on domestic flights, accommodation taxes for Chinese travelers, tiered entrance fees at parks and cultural sites, and lowering toll road charges. Egypt (2007), Australia, (2007) and China, (2009) have introduced tax reductions and suspensions of fees in tourism and related areas including take-off and landing fees for airline operators, encouraging greater flexibility in spreading out vacation time and promoting year-round travel and reduce the seasonal fluctuations and encouraging greater flexibility in travel timing policies, (UWTO,2010).

Despite these past initiatives, local people participation in domestic tourism has not been enhanced well in Tanzania. Anderson, (2017), highlighted that low levels of domestic visitors to tourist attractions is partly caused by stakeholders including government’s concentration on foreign tourists. Similarly, Dr.Hamsi Kigwangalla, the Minister of Natural Resources and Tourism as he was addressing the Ministry Staff Council conducted in Mwanza (ITV report, March,2019). He said in 2016/2017 of the number of tourists who visited

different tourist attractions found in Tanzania, 735,739 were residents and 591,404 were international tourists which is far less compared to 2,025,206 tourists who visited various tourist attractions in Kenya. He said this gains of the sector in Kenya were a result of coordinated efforts between various arms of government, whom the tourism sector has engaged, as well as the concerted efforts in marketing Kenya as a destination of choice. In the same meaning, more effort is required in promoting tourism in the country particularly domestic tourism.

In order to understand why domestic tourism has not picked up, it is vital now to assess first the efforts made by Tanzania government in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism, therefore, the study identifies strategies that are supposed to be implemented for the sustainable domestic tourism development in Tanzania as well as investigating factors hindering the local people participation in domestic tourism and propose the initiatives that Tanzania could implement to foster the participation of natives in domestic tourism and suggest suitable approaches towards the implementation.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

This section presents the theoretical anchorage of the study. It specifically discusses three theories that guide this study, Broad context model, Modified Solow's growth model and the Rostow's theory. These theories are discussed in details below.

Broad context model of destination development scenarios suggests that there is a need to regulate tourism resources to ensure growth is sustainable and that regions are able to take on different types of strategies, with some being more sustainable than others (Weaver, 2000). Also Modified Solow's growth model is used to guarantee tourism long-run growth (Parilla & Font, 2007). The Rostow's theory of growth and development outlines the various stages that are involved in developing tourism projects (Winton, 1954). The theory suggests that there is an effort that needs to be overcome before self-sustained development can take place. They include built up transport, investment, enhanced organization and development of tourism.

Therefore, the application of these theories shows the sequential process for domestic tourism development in any country. The standards stated in this development process help in the provision of infrastructure to the local people, and social amenities to the tourist sites and the environments as well as empowering local communities with good roads, communication network, bank loans, accommodation facilities, tourism commute vans, holiday taxes for local tourists, security, holiday incentives and lowering entry prices to attraction sites.

In effort to promote local people participation in domestic tourism in Tanzania, TTB as a government organ for promotion of tourism industry, in 2016 consulted a number of tourism stakeholders in the process of preparing the domestic tourism strategy plan whereby various recommendations were viewed out such as inquiring TTB to continue to making more and frequent consultations, open tourist information centres in each region for the current three are not enough, improve its manpower (quality and quantity of the staff),conduct more research on tourism particularly domestic tourism, increase market strategies segment, focus on effective and productive campaigns to promote domestic tourism and collaborate with other institutions important in stirring up the grow of domestic tourism such as the National College of Tourism, Immigration, Police, Customs departments and Local Government Authorities (Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy,2018).

However, the TTB has made few efforts to implement the above mentioned insights recommended by stakeholders. The following are the few areas which have been implemented so far; TTB and TANAPA in 2013 and 2015 respectively took initiatives to promote domestic tourism by launching a 6 months domestic tourism promotion campaign by distributing promotion materials progressively and organizing various tourism exhibitions like Karibu Fair, Sabasaba Trade Fair, Swahili Tourism International Expo SITE, Kimondo Fair, Karibu Kusini Tourism Fair, MICE exhibition shows and developed a Domestic Tourism Strategy which still in place.The Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) is implementing the REGROW project, (2017) which is aimed at strengthening the management of protected areas and promote nature-based tourism in Southern Tanzania .Also the ministry has lowered the entrance fee for local people visiting tourist attractions, launched the Urithi festival domestic tourism promotion campaign in September 2018 and reviewing the National Tourism policy. Similarly, a local company Jovago has been launched and an online campaign dubbed 'Tanzania Yetu' to encourage local residents to visit attraction sites in the country (Odunga, 2016). However, the approaches boosted little significantly the participation of the local people in domestic tourism in the country.

Despite the discussed efforts made by the government, the number of local people participation in domestic tourism remains relatively low. The reason behind this phenomenon has been commented by numerous scholars including Anderson, (2017), who comments that 'low levels of domestic visitors to tourist attractions are partly caused by stakeholders including government concentration on foreign tourist. Other scholars have also mentioned inadequate promotion as one of the factors affecting domestic tourism in Tanzania (Mariki, Hassan, Maganga, Modest & Salehi, 2011; Macha, et al., 2014. In light of the foregone discussion, the study aimed to examine the efforts made by Tanzania government in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism.

Conceptual Framework

Based on this research framework, this study is accomplishing the following objectives: to identify strategies that are supposed to be implemented for the sustainable domestic tourism development in Tanzania, to identify factors that hinder local people participation in domestic tourism and to recognize the initiatives that Tanzania could take to motivate local people to participate in domestic tourism.



Source: 2019

Study of efforts made by the Tanzania government to promote local people participation in domestic tourism was been described in the following conceptual framework shown above. It is relatively evident that the domestic tourism in Tanzania requires more efforts to promote local people to participate in domestic tourism. This means that the government should provide assistance and ways for the local people to get involved. In the same course, the independent variable was Tanzania government efforts while local people participation was the dependent variable and intervening variables were promotion strategies.

Methodology

The aim of the study was to examine the efforts made by the Tanzania government in promoting participation of local people in domestic tourism. The specific objectives were to identify strategies that are supposed to be implemented for the sustainable domestic tourism development in Tanzania, to identify factors that hinder local people participation in domestic tourism and to recognize the factors that Tanzania could hasten local people participation in domestic tourism. The study area was in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) - Tourism Division, Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) and Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA). This study used qualitative method for data collection. Qualitative studies allow researcher to explore behavior, perspectives, feelings, and experiences in depth (Blaxter, Hughes, & Tight, (2006) which was deemed to have the potential to benefit the study. A focus study approach was adopted as a data collection procedure. Survey structured questionnaires for interviews are the instrument, which were applied in this study to capture data from sampled area.

The researcher examined tourism data from the records of the TTB, MNRT and TANAPA from 2014-2017 and various tourism research studies as well as international journals. Then the interviews were conducted with key government

officials of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tanzania Tourist Board, included Tanzania National Park charged with overseeing tourism policies and guidelines. Six participants were selected overall using an expert sampling technique. This type of purposive sampling technique is used where there is a need for gaining knowledge from individuals that have particular expertise (Teddlie, C., & Yu, F. (2007). The researcher used thematic analysis to analyse the data.



Figure 1: The African Rhino at Ngorongoro Conservation Authority in Tanzania

Source: ACAA (2018)

Findings

Qualitative data analysis was done to test interview research questions and data obtained from the respondents through interviews. Data was edited, coded and categorized before analysis and interpretation of the result was done in relation to the objectives and research questions formulated. From the findings, the researcher concluded that domestic tourism demand in Tanzania is still low beside the marketing efforts that are made by the government to promote local people participation in domestic tourism activities. Some respondents pointed out that demand is low because, there are no studies conducted to assess the ways of getting the statistics of domestic tourists. The statistics available currently are based only from the records obtained in tourist attractions.

Further respondents revealed that local people are always participating in domestic tourism. Their participation is in the macro/micro, native, small scale, national, local and ethnic conceptualisation though without their knowledge much of the time. This conceptualisation let decision makers to reconsider local

people's values and contribution both as hosts and tourists in search of sustainable domestic tourism development in the country. This was supported by Korstanje, (2015) who said that, the value of domestic tourism rests in the reality of the indigenous people's ways of life and other stakeholders acknowledging the value of such in the preservation of tourism resources. Therefore, the implication of this concept is for the government of Tanzania as a tourism policy makers and destination developers to carry out a critical national survey on the status of domestic tourism.

Other respondents argued that the numbers of domestic tourists are still low because of unfortunate marketing activities being done to attract tourists to the destinations. The government and stakeholders should promote local peoples to participate by creating awareness about the importance of domestic tourism activities. They pointed out that tourism marketing creates awareness, stimulates natives to travel and visit the tourist attractions.

Tourism promotion creates awareness to the domestic tourists so that they know what is being offered and where to find it. This observation resonates with Moseley's et al (2015) who revealed that tourism promotion involves the tasks of creating awareness to the domestic tourists, identifying and choosing the target segments in where the actual and potential customers are living and desires to purchase the product. The findings are also correlate with George's (2006) who pinpointed that tourism promotion involves finding out what tourist want and developing suitable offering, telling them what is available and providing instructions as to where they can buy the offerings. so that they in turn receive and tourism organization make money.

Many of these findings are consistent with the stake holder's ideas reported in 2017 during TTB stackholder`meeting. They argued that, TTB should continue to make more and frequent consultations, open tourist information centres in each region contrary to the current three, improve its manpower, conduct more research on tourism particularly domestic tourism, increase market strategies segment, focus on effective and productive campaigns to promote domestic tourism and work/collaborate with necessary institutions to grow the domestic tourism such as National College of Tourism, Immigration, Police, Customs departments and Local Government Authorities. However, TTB have implemented very little.

In the light of this, Tanzania Tourist Board must direct players in tourism industry to come up with packages affordable to local people in order to participate in domestic tourism. This had been suggested by Basera (2018) and supported by Moseley et al. (2015) who pinpointed that such packages would enable local people to visit tourist attractions sites. TTB must invest in creating a local positive image in way that will fight competition with other destinations in the country as Crompton and Christie (2003) argued that positive local image

of a destination will enable domestic tourists to use it as basis to make decision to travel to their preferred destination. In this regard all tourism stakeholders in Tanzania need to create a positive image of the destination to the domestic tourists.

Lastly, other respondents remarked that, the government should develop a website to promote domestic tourism, reduce or eliminate specific taxes on travel-related activities, impose temporary financial incentives, such as lowering or eliminating airport taxes on domestic flights, accommodation taxes for local people travelers, lowering entrance fees at parks and cultural sites, lowering toll road charges and provide safety and security measures. These findings resonated the initiatives assumed by various countries such as Egypt (2007), Australia, (2007) and China, (2009) and WTO (2010) which suggested that in order for local people to participate in domestic tourism in their countries, there should be tax reductions and suspensions in fees for tourism and related areas, take-off and landing fees should be reduced as well by the airline operators, encouraging greater flexibility in spreading out vacation time and promoting year-round travel and reduce the seasonal fluctuations.

Table 1: Annual Trends of Domestic Visitors from tourist attraction sites 2014-2017

S/N	Site	2014	2015	2016	2017
1	Arusha park	38,337	31,089	33,463	33,885
2	Gombe park	970	895	958	968
3	Katavi	2,826	2,445	3,066	1,910
4	Kilimanjaro	3,302	3,328	3,508	2,731
5	Kitulo	577	592	311	432
6	Lake Manyara	65,543	62,287	57,855	56,082
7	Mahale	141	171	166	151
8	Mikumi	30,700	35,311	38,003	34,413
9	Mkomazi	1,227	1,905	1,482	1,700
10	Ruaha	8,606	7,403	12,958	12,161
11	Rubondo	662	501	739	421
12	Saadani	15,685	19,854	18,722	18,603
13	Saanane	10,685	13,132	11,102	10,088
14	Serengeti	217,756	204,998	174,047	152,216
15	Tarangire	55,096	58,585	78,573	77,101
16	Udzungwa	6,159	6,310	5,557	5,268
17	Selous Game reserve	-	-	270	6,142
18	Museum centres	-	-		66,100
18	Antiquity sites	-	65,256	59,467	59,396
19	Ngorongoro Conservation	278,221	278,922	265,845	249,428
TOTAL		736,493	792,984	766,092	735,739

Source: (2019)

Conclusion

The results of the study showed that the government of Tanzania has made relatively minimal efforts in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism. For example, Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy Plan which is a tool to promote local people participation in domestic tourism is not in use update. Again the budget allocated for TTB to promote tourism has not been sufficient enough to meet the level of requirements and sometimes unrealistic. The findings are also agreeing with Anderson (2015) who pinpointed that low levels of domestic visitors to tourist attractions is partly caused by stakeholders including government. Nevertheless, promotion has been embraced by the government tourism providers although they are biased towards international promotion than domestic market. The tourism service providers are using various promotion strategies to reach the Tanzanian tourist market but there is a need for increasing coverage that will enable domestic tourists to know the destinations that they can visit across the country. This study had also recognized that the progress of domestic tourism is being affected by the unreliability of national survey on domestic tourism statistical records that relies on tourist attraction sites only. All over again this study revealed that there is a little collaborative and participatory approach to promote local people participation in domestic tourism in Tanzania, this was supported by Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy plan, (2018).

Recommendations

Based on the outcomes of the study, the following recommendations have been made. The study recommends that there is a need to carry out a national survey on the status of domestic tourism and to open tourist data collection centers such as bus terminals and ferry stations where many Tanzanians travel from one region/district to other regions. For example, during Christmas and New Year holidays, many Tanzanians travel back to Kilimanjaro region just to celebrate with their home relatives. This could be one of the domestic tourism that would help to inform policy makers at the national level as well as at the country level on the current status of domestic tourism and how to move the industry forward. Furthermore, there is need for a collaborative and participatory approach to domestic tourism marketing. TTB, TANAPA, Tourism Department of MNRT, TAWA, National Museums & House of Cultures, TFS and NCAA need to collaborate and forming marketing strategies that can feature the local people participation in domestic tourism. The marketing strategies can only be achieved if the operators would adjust their services and customize their products to appeal to Tanzanians. Also Focusing on domestic tourists during off seasons should be encouraged. Moreover, respondents indicated that funds allocated to promote tourism in Tanzania is insufficient, therefore there is a need for increasing the budget allocated, which should be realistic and likely to be implemented.

The study also suggests that further studies need to be carried out to examine the efforts made by the country at large in promoting local people participation in domestic tourism in Tanzania despite focusing on the government only.

Reference

- Basera V (2018). Tourism Marketing Strategies and Domestic Tourism Demand in (Zimbabwe). *J Tourism Hospit* 7: 344. doi:
- Barake, K.O. (2011). Effectiveness of selected communication media on tourism awareness development in Orgun state Nigeria. *Africa Research Review* 5(1): 382-392.
- Blaxter, T., Hughes, C., & Tight, M. (2006). *How to research* (4th ed.). England: McGraw Hill.[Google Scholar]
- Callixte, K. (2013). Proceedings of the 8th ATLAS Africa Conference '13: Domestic tourism, an obvious alternative engine for economic development of Rwanda? A case study of National Parks. Kigali, Rwanda.
- Chigora, F. (2016). Social Media and Brand Equity: Reality for Small to Medium Enterprises in Zimbabwe Tourism Industry. *The International Journal of Innovative Research & Development*, 5(4): 23-29.
- Crompton E & Christie I (2003). *Senegal Tourism Sector Study*, Africa Region.
- Dodo, o. 2015. *traditional taboos defined : conflict prevention myths and realities*, harare, ida publishers.
- EA Community Tourism Development Strategy, (2018) Kigali Rwanda
- George R (2003) *Marketing South African Tourism and Hospitality*. Oxford University Press
- Ghialy C. Yap , (2010). *An econometric analysis of Australian domestic tourism demand*. Edith Cowan University, Australia
- Mariki, S.B., Hassan, S.N., Maganga, S.L.S., Modest, R.B & Salehe F.S. (2011). Wildlife-based domestic tourism in Tanzania: Experiences from the northern tourist circuit. Retrieved from <http://www.ajol.info/index.php/ejesm/article/view/73349/62278>
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. (2018). *Tourism Division: The 2016/17 Tourism Statistics Bulletin*. Dar es Salaam.
- Moseley J, Sturgis L, Wheeler M (2007) *Improving Domestic Tourism in Namibia*
- Mkwizu, K.H.M. (2016a). Domestic Tourists' Attitude towards Television Advertising in Tanzania. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 4(6): 364-370. Retrieved from Mkwizu, K.H.M. (2016b). Proceedings of the 25th Annual ATLAS Conference '16: Role of Domestic Tourism: An Evolutionary Economic Geography Approach in Tanzania. Canterbury.
- Mkwizu, K.H.M. (2016c). Intra-Destination Television Advertising on Domestic Tourism in Tanzania. *The International Journal of Business & Management*, 4(7): 424-430.

- Ngoka, P. (2013). Proceedings of the 8th ATLAS Africa Conference '13: Tourism visitation of Yankari and Cross River national parks by local and foreign Statuses-Implications f
- The China National Tourism Administration report, (2015), UNWTO, (2015)
- Tanzania National Parks. (2015). Retrieved from <http://www.tanzaniaparks.com>
- Tanzania Tourist Board. Domestic marketing strategic plan, 2018, Dar es Salaam
- Tanzania Tourist Board. (2017). Retrieved from <http://www.tanzaniatouristboard.com/about-us/ttb-profile>
- Tanzania National Parks. (2016). Retrieved from <https://www.facebook.com/tzparks>
- Tanzania Tourist Board. (2016). Retrieved from <http://www.tanzaniatouristboard.com/about-us/vision-mission-and-corevalues/>
- Tanzania Tourist Board. (2016). Retrieved from <https://www.facebook.com/TanzaniaTouristBoard/>
- Tourism and Economic Stimulus in China UWTO (2009) & (2010) Madrid, Spain
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Dickinson, W. B., Leech, N. L., & Zoran, A. G. (2009). A qualitative framework for collecting and analyzing data in focus group research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*
- Teddle, C., & Yu, F. (2007). Mixed methods sampling: A typology with examples. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1, 77–100.10.1177/234567890629243 [Crossref], [Web of Science ®], [Google Scholar]

CHALLENGES FACED TOUR OPERATORS IN PROMOTIONS OF THEIR PRODUCTS AND SERVICES IN TANZANIA: A CASE STUDY OF TOUR OPERATORS IN ARUSHA CITY

Samwel Savunyu Ngungat
The Open University of Tanzania
samwel.savunyu@out.ac.tz

Abstract

This study examined challenges faced by tour operators in promoting their products and services in Arusha Tanzania. The study used exploratory research and case study design of 76 respondents' tour operators and marketing managers. Documentary review, interviews and questionnaire were used for data collection. The data collected were analysed using SPSS for questionnaires and the data from interviews were analysed through content analysis. The findings show that the challenges that faced by tour operators in promoting their products and services includes lack of competent tourism marketing professionals; linguistic and communication barrier of employees; high services charges and fees in destinations; little usage of information technologies; changing of customer preference and buying behaviors from tourism generating markets; poor market segmentation and targeting to among of many operators; poor product branding; poor quality service of tour guide; lack of reliable tourism information; poor tourism infrastructure in the destination; poor customer service; 18% of VAT imposed by the government in tourism products reduces the number of visitors; cost of doing marketing research, advertising, printing and distribution of promotional materials; and bureaucracy in tourism destination. The study found the challenges noted affects tour operates and therefore measures that can be used by tour operators to succeed in promotional efforts include: - marketing research; recruit skilled and qualified personnel; improving services provision. In the light of the findings, further research on similar topic is suggested in other destinations of the world for comparison purposes.

Keywords: Tourism marketing, promotion, tour operators, and tourism products

Introduction

The growth and development of tourism in different destinations globally is linked to promotion efforts done by respective destination agencies, in collaboration with tourism business operators including hotels, tour operators and travel agencies. Various studies have been done on issues related to tour operators promoting their products and services. Stanić N, (2016) did a study on market trends on tour operators and travel agencies booking channels and results indicated that traditional distribution systems still dominate in most of the activities of the young population and especially for booking tourism and

travel services. Van Der Merwe (2003) researched on marketing communication methods used by tour operators and noted that registered tour operators frequently use interactive media, direct marketing and advertising in promoting their packages. Seleshi (2011) conducted a study on the role of tour operators in tourism development and indicated that tour operating firms are highly vertically integrated and they employ a few promotional media, and involve local communities in some forms of tourism activities at tourist destination sites.

Twining-Ward L, (2010) in his study noted that the factors constraining tour operator business development in Sub Saharan Africa includes poor quality service, poor airline connections, insecurity and political unrest, high cost of doing business, low product diversity, corruption, red tape, and visa, poor roads and infrastructure, capacity of accommodation, poor national marketing, health and safety issues, problems with the charter tourism, seasonality service standards, and market awareness.

Rheal L, (2016) in his study on the perceived challenges of incoming tour operators with the post political crises effects found that the perceived challenges to incoming tour operators stemmed from the uncertainty of the environment in which incoming tour operators operates, decline of demand, internal changes followed by a period of inactivity, damaged destination image, late recovery for tourism industry and economic downturn were the main consequences facing tour operation business. Otieno, O (2014) looked at face book usage for the purposes of marketing products and services offered by tour operators, results showed that only 35% Kenyan tour operators are present on Face book and that less than 10% are consistently active. The study indicated also that that the major challenges faced in using Face book among the tour operators as a marketing tool were little understanding of social networking usage, a lack of budget allocation, a need for more human resources and a severe lack of visitor interaction and feedback.

Nkonoki S, (2012) identified that most of the challenges facing tour operators in Tanzania are originating from the external facilitators of the tourism but they have negative impacts in the internal business operations of tour operators. The author contended that some obstacles towards the delivering of the services by the tour operators to the customers resulted from improper functioning of other supporting factors such as poor infrastructure and safety. The competition between the tour operating companies is high, lack of competitive and skilled labour as well as little assistance from the government to the tour operating companies are among the key challenges facing tour operation business in the country. Moreover, Kaaya E, (2014) on the assessment of marketing strategies tour operators use for marketing and promotion of Tanzania tourism products find that tour operators use various marketing strategies to market and promote

Tanzania tourism products. Nevertheless, the above studies have focused on general challenges facing tour operators. This study therefore intended to identify products and services provided by tour operators; to check on promotional instruments used by tour operator; to examine challenges facing promotions of tour operator's products and services and to provide strategies on how to overcome them.

Review of Related Literature

Theory/Concept of Integrated Marketing Communications

The advocates of the IMC concept, Schultz and others note that the process of integrated marketing communications calls for a "big-picture" approach to planning marketing and promotion programs and coordinating the various communication functions. It requires that firms develop a total marketing communications strategy that recognizes how all of a firm's marketing activities, not just promotion, communicate with its customers (Belch GE and Belch MA, 2001). The IMC approach is proving to be a permanent change that offers significant value to marketers in the rapidly changing communications environment they are facing in the new millennium. The basic tools used to accomplish an organization's communication objectives are often referred to as the promotional mix which includes advertising, direct marketing, interactive/ internet marketing, sales promotion, publicity/ public relations and personal selling. However, the theory of integrated marketing communications (IMC) seems to be very useful theory in this study. To enable an effective promotion of tourism products, tourism businesses operators including tour operators need to adopted and use an integrated marketing communications. Thus, since among of the aim of this study is to identify marketing instruments used by tour operators in their efforts to market their tour packages and companies therefore this theory is significant.

Role of Tour Operators in Tourism Industry

It is undeniable fact that tour operators play a crucial role in the tourism industry. They act as intermediaries who can influence the supply chain as suppliers often have no alternative marketing and distribution channels (Zhang, Song & Huang, 2009; Budeanu, 2009) and tour operators are able to affect the consumer's choice. Cooper (2012) also showed that the important function of a tour operating company is to bridge the elements of the services offered from the supply side of the business with the consumption side of the business. Tour operators purchase the tourism elements such as airline tickets and hotel rooms in a large scale and combine them together, market them as a single product through brochures and other. Laws (1996) identified that tour operator contributes to tourism value chain including, selecting and packaging holiday element, promoting and distributing them; providing information about destinations; ensuring affordable access to them; setting and monitoring quality

standards in resorts; organising excursions and entertainments; managing relations with supplier and distributors.

Tour Operators and Marketing

Tour operator is an intermediary between hotels, transport companies, activity centres and the customer. Over the years the tour operations industry has evolved and with it the tools that are used in sales and marketing. Like all businesses is it important that tour operators market their products and services effectively using various avenues such as; word of mouth, direct marketing, personal selling, public relations, sales promotions, advertising and Internet marketing (Hudson, 2008). Tour operators are the main organizers and providers of a package holiday, through finding and searching clients either online via internet or to the events such as Tourism Trade Fairs, large group meetings such as conferences or seminars. The sometimes ccontracts with accommodation sectors for overnight stay and meals, local and international airlines, ground transport companies for transfers and game drives, restaurants and to the other stakeholders servicing the industry such as supermarkets, curio shops and gemstone shops made by them (Saffery et al, 2007).

Challenges facing Tour operators

Raluca D, (2013) in his study noted that the challenges facing tour operators in the promotion of destinations are, essentially concentrated on the tourism practices and the transition towards the new modern tourism, also or financial possibilities to invest in the ecological technology; the discrepancies between the major tourism components, lack of leisure infrastructure; the high level of prices of services is a big impediment in the increasing popularity among tourists, and especially foreigners, strong competition of countries with similar potential; and the new technologies are influencing the way consumers are prospecting the market and purchasing the best services. Tay K.X. & Chan, J.K.L. (2013) in their study conducted found that the obstacles faced by tour operators in practicing responsible destination development are lack of demand for responsible tourism packages, high cost of staff development, complexity due to involvement of various parties and partners such as hotels, transportation, and others and non-standardised strategies due to different regulatory systems in destination countries.

Furthermore, a report prepared by Twining-War L (2010) for World Bank, documented that the cost of doing the business, security, access, business environment, service standards, and market image are the key challenges facing the tour operations sector in Sub-Sahara Africa. The report mentioned that the limited frequency and the high cost of flights reduce the ability of ground operators to access; poor roads constrain the development of new destinations and cause considerable wear and tear to vehicles; the high cost of vehicles and vehicle parts and the lack of maintenance skills make it expensive to operate

ground transfers; high interest rates make it hard for operators to borrow money to grow their business. Moreover, a continual increase in park fees and the high cost of utilities put a strain on business operations.

Mwita M, (2014) in his study, found that the most prominent challenges facing tour operators were budget limitation followed by rapidly changing technology. Lack of appropriate skills and other logistics problems, cost of developing and maintaining an e-commerce systems, customer not ready tour e-commerce and security systems concerning payments as among of the challenges that tour operators face was also pointed as challenges in the study. Nkonoki S, (2012) found that among of most challenges facing tour operators in Tanzania originate from the external facilitators of the tourism, moreover, the improper functioning of other supporting factors such as poor infrastructure, safety; competition between the tour operating companies, lack of competitive and skilled labour in tour companies as well as little assistance of the government to the tour operating companies. High competition among tour operators threatening raised operational costs- Competitors with higher capital base may decide to penetrate local market by lowering their prices to levels that are unaffordable to the company. Among other problem facing tour operators includes, difficult to raise capital, availability of high tax, high competition in business, bureaucracy, poor infrastructure, poor technology and unstable economic condition. Moreover, Anderson W & Juma S (2011) contented that among the constraints faced by operators; include poor quality of the locally supplied products, business informalities, high transaction costs and violation of agreements by local suppliers. They highlighted also that there are challenges which are demand-related challenges, supply-related challenges, and institutional & legal-related challenges.

Methods

Research Design

This study employed exploratory and a case study design of tour operators who are arranging safari for visitors in different tourist destinations. The sample size of the study was 76 registered tour operators doing tour operation business and they were selected randomly and purposively to represent the study from 325 registered tour operators residing and engaging in tourism business in Arusha.

Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Data were collected from the sample population through interviews to key informants and questionnaires. The researcher gathered secondary data through published documents from articles, conference proceedings, and other electronic sources cover the study objectives. This study used questionnaire of closed and open ended questions and interviews to key informants of marketing and sales officer and tour operators were used to gather information on the study objectives

Data analysis

Quantitative data were analyzed using the SPSS and Microsoft Office Excel 20. Data collected by questionnaires on promotional instruments, and challenges faced by tour operators in promotions of tour products were coded and analysed accordingly. The analysis revealed descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages which appeared in form of tables, and figures. However, thematic based analysis was used to analyze qualitative data from interview and open-ended questions related to research objectives.

Results and Discussion

Products and Services offered by Tour operators

The study was to identify products and services provided by tour operators. Tour products and services are singled out in packages and then sold to the clients. Results of services offered is presented in term of percentage as follows: - photographic safaris 36%, balloon safaris 15.8%, hunting 9.2% camping 14.5% mountain climbing 18.5% cultural tourism 6.9% and other accounted to 3.9%. The results imply that tour operators sale mostly wildlife photographic safaris, mountain climbing, cultural and beach holiday in Zanzibar

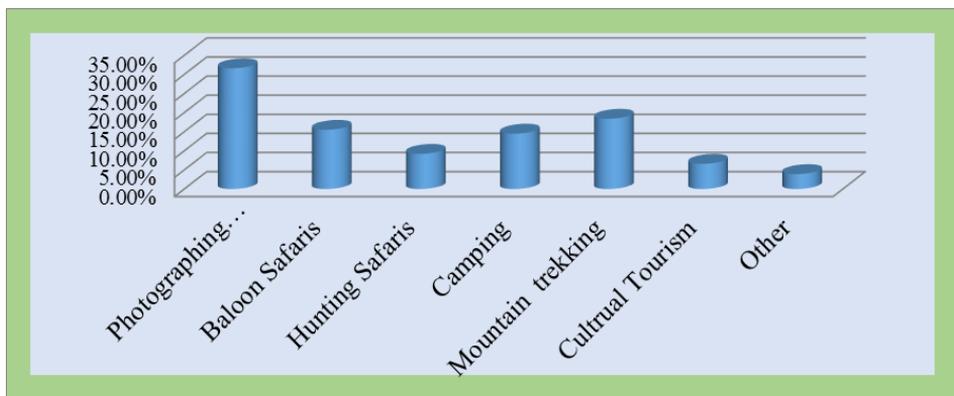


Figure 1: Products and Services offered by Tour operators.

Source: Research Data (2019)

Promotional Instruments used by Tour Operators

Results indicate that tour operators are using different promotional instruments simultaneously to reach the target market and sale tours packages to their potential clients. Findings through open ended question shows that tour operators in the study area uses instruments such as attending travel trade fairs at both local and international level like Karibu Travel Fair, Kili fair, Kili marathon and international tourism fairs such as INDABA Tourism Fair held in Durban South Africa. Many tour operators are doing online marketing via website and social media such as Google, trip advisor, face books, twitter, you tube, e-mails and blogs. Tour operators are also using print media e.g. magazines and newspapers, travel trade manual, maps, promotional brochures.

Such results' are in line with findings by Kaaya E, (2014) who identified different marketing strategies that tour operators use for marketing and promoting Tanzania tourism products. Moreover, Van Der Merwe (2003) researched on marketing communication methods used by tour operators and found that registered tour operators frequently use interactive media, direct marketing and advertising.

Challenges Faced by Tour operators in Promotions of their products

The study was to examine challenges faced by tour operators in promotions their products and services in Arusha City. The challenges that were found in the course of doing this study includes lack of tourism marketing professionals, the success of marketing requires determined, well trained and experts who are specialized in marketing discipline. Research findings show that (43) 56.6% of respondents agree that lack of marketing tourism professionals who specialized in marketing of tourism oriented products is a challenge in their companies where as (24) 31.4% disagreed with the statement and only (9) 18.8% remained neutral to the statement. The findings concur with results of Nkonoki S, (2012) who noted that lack of competitive and skilled labour in tour companies is a challenge facing tour operators in marketing and performing other operations.

Language barrier of employees was mentioned also as a challenge where by most of marketing managers, driver guides, travel consultant and other company's officials lack a good command of communication skills and multilingual to offers service. Results in Table 1.0 show that (46) 60.5% agreed to the factor that language barrier of employees is among of a challenge towards promotion efforts done by tour operators while only (30) 39.5% remained neutral to the statement.

Know how on marketing skills and techniques on how to carry out marketing activities is among of the important factor for marketing success of any company. Lack of marketing skills and techniques is among of a challenge that faces tour operators in the study area. Finding indicates that (40) 52.6% of respondents agreed that lack of the knowhow on marketing skills and techniques is a challenge that face tour operators while (36) 47.4% disagreed with the statement. The study findings imply that many tour operators in the study area are not aware on effective and reliable marketing skill and techniques that will enable them to penetrate in the market and being able to receive a significant number of clients.

Further, high charges and fees in tourism destinations have been noted as a challenges facing marketing effort among tour operators. A number of charges and fees, taxes and levies have been established by the government over time in the tourism industry. Charges and fees vary from one tourist's destination to another. Charges and fees ranges from destination entre fee; conservation fee;

vehicles fees; camping fees; guide/ranger service fees walking safaris fee; huts and hostel fees; rest houses and banda fees; rescue fee for Mts Kilimanjaro and Mount Meru; landing fees and many other. Results in Table show that (54) 71.1% agreed that high charges and fees in tourism destinations is a big problem in their operation and getting customers whereas (15) 19.7% remained neutral to the statement while (7) 9.2% disagreed with the statement. The results imply that the multiple fees and charges for tourism activity discourage tour operators business.

With regards to the problem of Information Technology (ICT), the study indicates that effective and efficient application of ICT for tourism marketing and other tour operation is among of the challenges that many tour operator face in the study area. Table shows that (59) 77.6% of respondents agreed that problems related on application of ICT and weak internet is among of the serious challenges that is hindering their marketing efforts as well as even other tour operation activities while only (17) 22.4% remained neutral to the statement. The result imply that weak internet and low application of ICT has led the companies to fail to distribute information more quickly, as well as to build closer relationships with customers and suppliers, and to sell their products more efficiently and effectively. Weak ICT penetration and application in the region has resulted inefficient of operational activities of tour operators in the region. The researcher findings concur with previous finding by Mwitia M, (2014) who in his study concluded that rapidly changing technology has drastically affected travel and tour operators. The author pointed also that the cost of developing and maintaining an e-commerce systems is among of the setback to tour operation business, some customer are not ready to do tour e-commerce and security systems concerning payments as among of the challenges that tour operators face.

Moreover, poor marketing segmentation and targeting has been noted as a weakness among many tour operators. The study shows that a larger proportion of respondents (39) 51.3% agree with the statement that poor market segmentation and targeting is among of the challenges hindering good performance of the tourism industry in the region including tour operators as well, however, (31) 40.8% disagree whereas (6) 7.9% remained neutral to the statement. The results imply that marketing segmentation and targeting is not done very well.

Poor product branding, findings as shown in table shows that many tour companies about (50) 65.5% agreed that poor branding of tourism destination and their respective companies has been a factor hindering marketing efforts whereas respondents who remained neutral accounted to (25) 32% while about (1) 1.3% disagreed with the statement . The results imply that many tour companies have failed to brand well they are products and services in orders to

attract the potential customers. Therefore since branding is the most powerful marketing weapon available to contemporary destination marketers and in highly competitive and dynamic global tourism environment, strong branding will help tour operators need to position their products and services and companies in the mind of their customers.

The quality of safari guide and poor customer service, - tour guides are information provider, social facilitator, cultural host, motivator of conservation values, interpreter of the natural and cultural environment, and people mover. Tour guides ensure also safe and quality experience to tourists. However, the researcher in this study found that although tour guides in the region has been providing guiding services and other many important roles but the poor quality of safari tour guides has been among of the great challenge in marketing efforts that many tour operators observed in their business practices. Results in table show that of (48) 63.2% agreed that poor quality safaris guides are discouraging marketing efforts done by tour operates in marketing their packages. About (21) 27.5% remained neutral to the statement whereas (7) 9.2% disagreed with statement. A large proportion of the survey respondent's bolded that poor customer service is among services providers in travel and tour operation companies sector and is still a big challenge. Most staff working in tour companies lacks appropriate training, resulting in a less than professional approach/attitude.

Poor infrastructure in the destination, infrastructure is very important and is a major issue facing the tourism sector in many Africa countries (Alexander, 2011). Tourism infrastructure such as roads, tourism information centre, nature hiking routes, are important and necessary infrastructure for tourism development. The study found that (56)73.7% respondents agreed with the statement that infrastructure are not in a good condition making their clients to complain in most of the situations. During interviews majority of respondents mention that the condition of tourist infrastructure in destinations are in a bad condition which eventually affects their client's satisfaction. Most of such infrastructure such as roads is impassable during rainy season in most tourists' destination. Hence many complaints from tour guides and tourist have been raised over years which eventually limit tourist's flow in the region.

The challenge of Value Added Tax imposed on tourism services noted to affect promotions effort among tourism business operators. In order to broaden tax base, the Government decided to charge VAT on all tourism services with effect from 1st July, 2016. The study was interested to determine if VAT on tourism services is among of the challenges hindering promotion efforts of tour operators. Findings shows that a large proportion of tour operators (58) 76.3% agree that 18% of VAT imposed by the government is among of the biggest

challenge that is hindering their business operations while (15) 19.7% remained neutral to the statement.

Results through open ended questionnaire shows also that the other challenges facing tour operations in promotions of their products includes: - tough competition from tour operator; lack of marketing digital skills, lack of destination information, lack of collective or joint marketing among tour operators, inadequate of experts; booking cancellations when local or international crises occurs; e-payments by cards is a big problem when network is slow make customers complains in park gates; seasonality of tourism market, lack of trust and little government support.

Table 1. Challenges faced by tour operators in promoting their products and services

Views of respondents on Marketing Challenges	Extent of Agreement/Disagreement					
	Disagree		Neutral		Agree	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Lack marketing professionals	24	31.6	9	11.8	43	56.6
Language barrier of Employees	-	-	30	39.5	46	60.5
Lack of marketing skills and techniques	-	-	36	47.4	40	52.6
High Charges and Fees in tourism Destinations	7	9.2		44.7	35	46.1
Problem of Information Technology (ICT)	-	-	17	22.4	59	77.6
Poor Market Segmentation and Targeting	6	2.9	31	40.8	39	51.3
Poor Product branding	1	1.3	36	47.4	39	51.3
Poor Quality of Safari Guide and Customer Service	2	9.2	21	27.6	48	63.2
Poor tourism Infrastructure in the destination	-	-	2	2.6	56	73.7
18% of VAT imposed by the government in tourism products	3	3.9	15	19.7	58	76.3

Source: Research Data (2018)

Measures to ensure the success of marketing efforts of tour companies

Findings through open ended questionnaires shows that among marketing strategies that can be used includes: - learning needs of international market; hire more skilled and qualified personnel; improving services; providing trainings to tour guides and other staff who interacts with clients; customer relationship management; improving high standards of products; pressing renovation of tourism infrastructure in tourists attractions; employing digital marketing; special offers to customers; improve quality of the products; enhancing customer relationship management; customer service; increase guest

loyalty; rebranding tour products; joining online booking sites such as booking.com, expedi.com, agoda.com that can help book direct online.

Conclusion and Recommendation

From the study findings, the study conclude that, tour operators are selling a number products and services using different instruments or techniques such as attending trade fairs; online advertising; print media; road shows; travel brochures and corporate responsibility programs to help the community. However, challenges faced by tour operators in promotions their products and services marketing their products and services includes lack of tourism marketing professionals; linguistic barrier of employees; high charges and fees in tourism destinations; weak information technology; poor product branding; poor quality service of guide; lack of reliable tourism of information; poor infrastructure in destination; poor customer service; 18% of VAT imposed by the government; cost of marketing research and advertising. The study found that strategies that can be used by tour operators to ensure the success of promotion includes: - marketing research; hire skilled and qualified personnel; trainings tour guides and other staff who interacts with clients; using more digital promotion and online booking; enhancing customer relationship management; rebranding products and joint marketing.

The study recommends to tour operators that they should review marketing strategies; diversify tourism product and improve service; use ICT to market product and recruit qualified experienced staff. This study recommends to the Government to review tourism taxes, fees charges and tariffs periodically by involving tour operators. They need also to reduce the 18% of VAT imposed to tourism services so as to positively affect promotions effort done by tourism business operators and to increase a number of travelers in the country.

References

- Anderson W, Juma S, (2011) Linkages at Tourism Destinations: Challenges in Zanzibar ISSN 1997-2520 eISSN 2014-4458
- Alan Saffery (2007). The business of inbound Tour operation; Tour operation manual, Pp 1.
- Belch GE and Belch MA (2001). Advertising and Promotion. An Integrated Marketing and Communications Perspective. 5th Edition. Boston: McGraw- Hill
- Rabotić, (2010). Tourist guides in contemporary tourism. (International conference on tourism and environment Sarajevo,
- Cooper, C. Fletcher, J. Gilbert, D. Shepherd, R. and Wan will, S (1998) Tourism Principles and Practice. New York: Longman
- Krippendorf, J. (1971). Marketing in Fremdenverkehr. Bern & Frankfurt
- Kothari C.R (2004). Research methodology, methods and techniques; Second revised edition, new age international publishers, New Delhi-110002.

- Ragui, R (2013) Challenges Hindering Success of Tour Businesses Owned by Indigenous Entrepreneurs in the Tourism Industry in Kenya Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment for the Award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Business Administration in the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology
- Raluca D. (2013) The Challenges of tour operators facing the promotion of Romanian destinations. Romanian American University
- Maxwell, J. (2004). Qualitative research design: An interactive approach (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage
- Mwita M, (2014) Opportunities and Challenges in ICT Adoption in Tanzania's Tourism Industry using case study of tour operators. E-Review of Tourism Research (eRTR), Vol. 11, No. 1/2,
- Nkonoki S. (2012) Challenges of Tour Operators, Case: Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania Thesis Degree Programme in Tourism
- Stanić N (2016) Market Trends For Tour Operators and Travel Agencies Booking Channels - Preferences of Young People in Serbia. Quality and Competitiveness in Tourism And Hospitality Industry
- Seleshi (2011) Role of tour operators in Ethiopian tourism development. A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of MA in Tourism and Development in the Institute of Development Studies.
- Tay K.X. & Chan, J.K.L. (2013). A study of tour operators' motivation and the views on responsible rural tourism development in Sabah, Malaysia. TEAM Journal of Hospitality and Tourism, 10(1), 17-31
- Twining-Ward L, (2010) Africa Region's Finance and Private Sector Development Department (AFTFP) Sub Saharan Africa Tourism Industry Research Phase II Tour Operators Sector
- United Republic of Tanzania (2005) Tanzania Tourism sector survey, The international Visitors Exist survey report; Pp 17
- United Republic of Tanzania (2002) Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tourism Master plan strategy & action, Final summary update; Pp 14
- United Republic of Tanzania (Sept. 1999) National Tourism Policy. Dar es Salaam: Government Printers. Pp 4
- Van Der Merwe, Michelle, Caroline (2003). Marketing communication methods used by tour operators in Guateng. Research Dissertation: University of South Africa, South Africa
- WTO (1999a), 'Tourism Highlights 1999', (May).

**ANALYSIS ON THE SUPPORT FOR COMMUNITY INITIATED
PROJECTS (SCIPS) IN VILLAGES SURROUNDING KILIMANJARO
NATIONAL PARK (KINAPA)-THE COMMUNITY SPEAKS
(PERCEPTIONS AND CHALLENGES)**

Reginald Kimario
The Open University of Tanzania
rkimario@gmail.com

Abstract

The main focus of the study was to analyze the perceptions of the local community in regards to support for community initiated projects (SCIPs) in the selected villages surrounding Kilimanjaro national park (KINAPA). Also, challenges facing projects implementation were analyzed so as to explore fully the area of effective projects implementation. The study involved observing the projects supported by Tanzania National Park Authority (TANAPA) in the villages surrounding KINAPA. Also, interviews were carried out with the local community members to establish their perceptions regarding the support projects established in their surroundings. The sample collected involved 180 people and these were randomly selected from the local community population in the selected villages. The selected villages were six (6) with 30 members of the local community selected from each. Likert scale analysis was carried out on the responses obtained from the interviews. It was revealed that a majority of the respondents found the projects initiated did not positively influence their daily lives. Also, there was an array of challenges affecting projects implementation as voiced by the local community as well as the park officials. It was recommended that KINAPA should directly engage more with the local community as well as carrying out exploratory studies so as to assess their genuine needs based on the nature of their environment. Also, TANAPA needs to increase the level of funds channeled towards projects support to KINAPA so that KINAPA establishes more meaningful projects in the villages. Finally, it was recommended that education and sensitization campaigns be carried out by KINAPA to the local community so as to promote local community participation in the enhancement of support projects sustainability.

Background

Globally, natural resources are undergoing rapid and substantial loss with species and habitats declining at an estimate rate of 0.5% to 1% per year (Balmford et al., 2006). In an attempt to address this problem, the international community spends between 6 billion US \$ to 10 billion US \$ per year to maintain the resources (James et al., 2001; Molnar et al., 2004; Gutman et al., 2007; Pearce, 2007).

Livelihoods projects through community outreach programmes undertaken by various parks management emerged from the recognition that strictly protected areas often do not consider the interests of communities in safeguarding their livelihoods (Pimbert et al., 1997; Kiss, 2004). Livelihoods projects help to foster the link between maintenance of natural resources and poverty alleviation or livelihood benefits provision in a vicinity (Salafsky and Wallenberg, 2000).

Across Sub-Saharan Africa, there are livelihoods projects which emphasize participation and economic empowerment of local communities which supplements traditional 'fines and fences' conservation in the areas around the formal protected areas. The types of social services supported by the conservation incentive schemes include hospitals, schools, wells and houses (Roe et al., 2000).

Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs) in Kilimanjaro National Park (KINAPA) began in 1994. The revenues collected from Kilimanjaro National Park and other parks goes to the National Park's headquarters out of which 7.5% of the operational budget goes to communities for the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs). KINAPA contributes 70% of the total budgetary costs of any development project in the villages that surrounds conservation areas and the remaining 30% of the costs is contributed by the community. The SCIPs at KINAPA includes construction of schools, water tanks, wells, bridges, dispensaries and cooking stoves. The decision on which kind of projects are to be initiated is arrived at the village assembly meeting where the community members' air out views on the kind of projects they wish to see implemented (KINAPA, 2006).

Problem statement and study objectives

Problem statement

A well designed study to assess the effectiveness of livelihoods projects in villages surrounding national park is highly needed because of the presence of few such studies (Sosiya, 2016). Present available reviews have not fully shown the link between the conservation of park resources and the presence of conservation incentives schemes in the parks (Karanth, 2012).

Abbot (2001) and Meyer (2008) reported that little is known about the perceptions of local communities regarding the livelihoods projects established in their vicinities. Stewart et al., (2005), Millenium Ecosystem Assesment (2005) and Franks (2008) argued that there is scanty information regarding benefits accrued and costs incurred from livelihoods projects by the local communities as a result of few studies carried out to explore the area. Riehl et al., (2015) reported that there is little information in regards to the effectiveness of the livelihoods projects in promotion of socio-economic wellbeing of local communities in their vicinities. Little has been established in regards to the

constraints that hinder the livelihoods projects from being effectively implemented (Day, 2014).

Main objective

The main objective of this study was to undertake an analysis on the Support for Community Initiated Projects (CSIPs) in villages around Kilimanjaro National Park (KINAPA) to ascertain the perceptions of the local community as well as challenges facing projects implementation.

Specific objectives

The specific objectives of this study were to:

- Analyze the perception of the local communities regarding the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs).
- Examine the challenges facing the implementation of the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs).
- Suggesting solutions towards enhancement of more effective implementation of the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs)

Research Methodology

The study has been undertaken by using cross-sectional research design. The survey strategy was used where questionnaire was distributed and administered to the relevant respondents. This allowed the collection of large amount of data from sizeable population in a highly economical way.

The study area was purposively selected. The study area was then divided into three strata. Two villages were then randomly selected from three strata. The households were then randomly selected from each stratum. Random selection of villages was made possible through the use of the playing card method. Key informants were purposively selected. The sample size selection for this study was guided by Bailey (1994) who posits that at least 30 households are enough to constitute a sample. Thirty (30) households were selected from each of the six villages through simple random sampling. The total number of respondents from the local people from the six villages was therefore one hundred and eighty (180). The total number of key informants from the Park and the selected villages was 20. The group of key informants consisted of Park Managers (3) and Village Chairmen (6), Village Executive Officer (6) and Ward Councilors (6).

Both primary and secondary data were collected to meet the study objectives of the study. Primary data were obtained directly from communities engaged in tourism activities. Similarly, KINAPA official and local government leaders from six villages were interviewed to collect primary data in the study region. Secondary data were obtained from both published and unpublished documents such as scientific articles, books, journals and other electronic sources or internet. The main instrument for data collection was questionnaire consisting of

(both closed and open-ended questions) administered to the study respondents where a likert scale was also attached to it. Moreover, Interview and direct observation instruments and documentary reviews were also used.

For the case of analysis, likert scale analysis was used to analyze the perceptions of local community in regards to the support for community initiated projects in villages surrounding Kilimanjaro National Park which was the first objective. Then multiple response analysis was used to analyze data which emanated from the key informant interview with Village leaders and KINAPA officials responsible with the supervision of Support Projects implementation.

Findings and discussions

Perception of respondents towards the initiation and running of projects

Usefulness of projects in daily life

The study sought to establish the degree to which the projects are useful to the local people living in the villages near to the park which have been supplied by the support for community initiated projects. The results are as summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Perception of usefulness of projects to the lives of local communities

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	28	15.2
Disagree	14	7.6
Undecided	5	2.7
Agree	8	4.3
Strongly agree	129	70.1
Total	184	100.0

According to Table 1, those who strongly agree that that the projects are useful in their daily lives were 70 percent of the total respondents where as those who strongly disagreed where 15.2 of the total number of respondents. Those who disagreed formed 7.6 per cent of the total number of respondents while those who remained undecided formed 5 per cent of the respondents and lastly those who agreed were only 4.3 per cent of the total number of respondents. Those who strongly agreed that the projects are useful to them in their daily activities far surpassed those who disagreed, remain undecided and those who agreed which shows that the local community greatly appreciates the project in their vicinities. Chepkorir (2016) and King (2007) established that economic expectations from local people is normally difficult to meet partly due to competing heterogeneous expectations from the community.

Influence of the presence of the projects on the conservation of park resources

The study sought to establish the perception on the statement that ‘The projects have positively influenced the way they view conservation of park resources’. The results are as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Perception of the influence of the projects on the nature of view of park resources

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	8	4.3
Disagree	16	8.7
Undecided	4	2.2
Agree	5	2.7
Strongly agree	151	82.1
Total	184	100.0

4.3 per cent of the respondents strongly disagree with the statement above, 8.7 per cent disagree, 2.2 per cent are undecided, 2.7 per cent agree and lastly 82.1 per cent strongly agree with the statement above. The majority strongly agree that the existence of the livelihoods projects within the vicinities that is bridges, water tanks, school dormitory in this case as was selected in the study, has greatly influenced the way they view conservation of park resources. In a similar study by Njole (2011), it was argued that sharing of tourism benefits in the form of SCIPs, has caused them to support more of conservational of the Lake Manyara National Park. The community engages in the conservation of park resources through report on the illegal falling down of trees around the park, they help in the extinguishing of fire in the forests and so forth.

Inclusion of community’s interest in the selection of the projects

The study sought to establish the perception of the local community on the whether the selection of the projects is accommodative of community’s interest. Figure 1 presents the results on this.

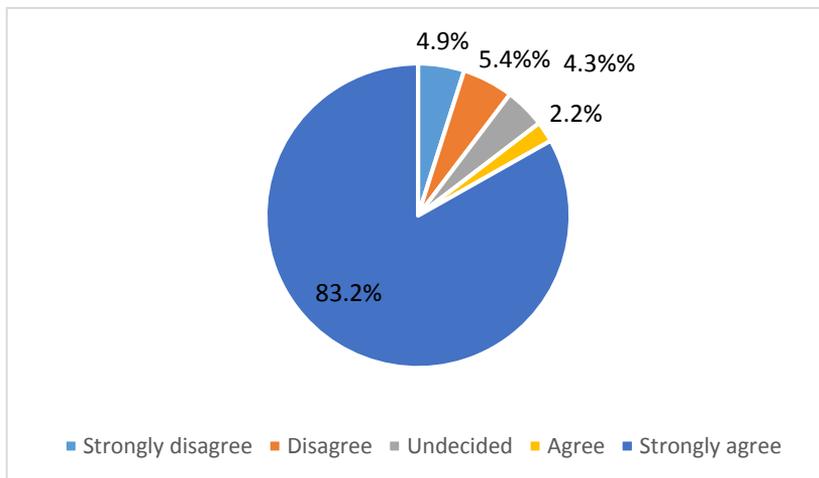


Figure 1: Perception on whether the selection of projects in the vicinity is inclusive

83.2 per cent strongly agree with the statement above that “selection of the projects in their vicinities’ is accommodative of the interest of community members, 5.4 per cent disagree, 4.3 per cent are undecided and lastly 2.2 per cent agree. This shows that a majority of the respondents are of the perception that the projects implementation was largely dependent on the views provided by the local community members. This is important for the smooth implementation of community based projects. As noted by Ogutu (2002), community involvement is an important incentive for ensuring that there is proper wildlife conservation.

Need for more projects in the vicinity

The study sought to establish the perception of the local community on the statement, “There should be more projects in the vicinity”. The results about this are presented in Figure 2 below.

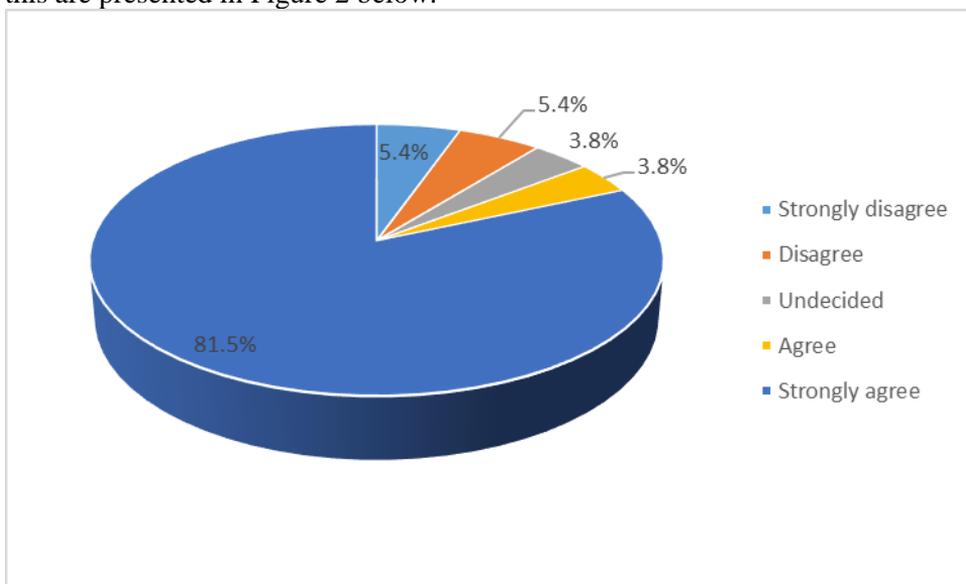


Figure 2: Perception on whether there should be more projects in the vicinity

5.4 per cent of the respondents strongly agree with the statement that ‘There should be more projects in the vicinity’, 5.4 per cent disagree, 3.8 per cent remain undecided, 3.8 per cent agree and lastly 81.5 per cent strongly agree. The majority of the respondents agree with the statement which implies that TANAPA should strive to increase the number of projects for community support in the local community vicinities.

Challenges facing the implementation of projects

The study sought to establish the challenges facing the implementation of the projects through the employment of multiple response analysis. The multiple response analysis was conducted on the data obtained from key informants

which included 3 village leaders from six villages and 3 park officials. The table below (table 3) shows results to this effect.

Table 3: Main challenges facing implementation of the SCIPS

Challenge	Percent
KINAPA lacks enough funds	2.73
Frequent changing of Game Wardens	16.26
No enough information on the projects implemented	9.09
Contribution by local people is unreliable	10.91
Lack of enough supply of water access	2.73
Conflicts between village and council officials	2.73
Delay in the completion of projects	12.64
Poor relationship between villagers and KINAPA	16.36
Bureaucracy in decision making	12.73
Contribution by KINAPA is not precisely known	12.73
Total	100

KINAPA lacks enough funds; This response had a percent of 2.73 of all counts. The response was from three (3) KINAPA officials namely The SCIPs Manager of the Park, Ecology Department Head for the Park and the Chief conservation officer. The SCIPs Manager was reported as saying, “we cannot finance projects in all the 88 villages surrounding the park and instead we are focusing on implementation of income generating projects so that eventually the local people can be able to rely on themselves to finance their basic social services”. Some of the mentioned income generating projects included bee keeping, fish farming, supply of improved variety of fruit bearing trees, facilitation of established youth groups in tour guiding activities as well as art and craft activities. This was also supported by the Ecology Department Head and the Chief Conservation officer. Mahajan (2014) says that limited funds challenges are the primary challenges that limits the effective operationalization of SCIPs established in Sub-Saharan Africa to achieve their desired goal of conserving wildlife around the protected areas.

Frequent changing of Game Wardens; This response had a per cent of 16.26. This response was reported by all the village leaders and council leaders from the six villages namely Ashira, Mwika, Mweka, Sungu, Lyasongoro and Mshiri. It was reported that there was a challenge of frequent changing of Game Wardens which was reported by the village leaders. The Mwika Village Secretary was reported as saying, “KINAPA frequently changes the Game Wardens staff such that there is sometimes miscommunication between us and the park management because most of our plans regarding the projects eventually fail following change in park management leadership”. The Lyasongoro Village Chairperson was also reported as saying, “There is a

frequent change of Park Wardens, this has greatly affected our working relationship”. A similar study by Mahjan (2014) argues that management challenges of the SCIPs has also hampered their successful implementation such that they failed to yield desired outcomes to the communities.

No enough information on projects implementation from former years; This response had a frequency of 9.09 per cent. This response was reported by the village leaders to the effect that there is usually no information regarding the implementation of projects in the former years by past village leaders. The village chairperson from Lyasongoro village was reported as saying that “there is shortage of information regarding the implementation of ongoing projects especially the ones that were started before our assumption to the office”.

Contribution of local people to the projects is unreliable; This response had a per cent of 10.5. This response was reported by the village leaders to the effect that the local people have not always been supportive of the projects in terms of their implementation. The Lyasongoro village chairperson had this to say, “the local people sometimes don’t contribute the required amount and they also don’t contribute on time. This leads to a delay in the implementation of the projects”. This was also supported by the Mwika Ward Executive Officer and the leaders from other villages.

Lack of enough supply of water access; This response had a per cent of 2.73. This response was reported by the village leaders to the effect that there has been lack of enough of supply of water success in some localities of the Ashira village where there is implementation of the water project. The Ashira Village Chairperson was reported as saying, “The water project covers only a small portion of the village and that it was designed for the whole village but since the infrastructure does not support delivery of water for the whole village then that remains the case”.

Conflicts between Village leaders and council leaders: This response had a per cent of 2.73. This response was reported by the Ashira Village Chairperson was reported as saying, “the water project is not running effectively in the village since the council leaders are interfering and want to have the key for the water tank while it is not a property of the council authority as it is the village’s”. In a study by Chepkorir (2016), it was discovered that more than half of the respondents argued that there was no clearly defined conflict resolution mechanisms in the Nairobi national park. Chepkorir then urges for thorough measures to address conflicts whenever they arise in the protected areas.

Delay in the completion of projects: This response had a 12.64 per cent. This response was reported by the Mweka and Sungu Chairpersons. It was reported there is always a delay in the completion of projects by the KINAPA authority

such that the projects take longer than necessary to be completed. For instance, the bridge which was constructed to join Mweka and Sungu villages took more than 10 years to be completed as opposed to around three years which was the intended duration.

Poor relationship between villagers and KINAPA; The response had a per cent of 16.36. It was reported by the village leaders that there is a poor relationship between the villagers and KINAPA officials. The Mshiri Village Executive Officer reported that, “The KINAPA officials have ever killed a villager in Kibosho who wanted to cross over to their protected area which is the Half Mile Strip and they have also raped our wives a number of times. They are like Hyenas those people”. This was also supported by the remaining village leaders who were interviewed. The KINAPA officials also seemed to be in agreement since the SCIPs Manager claimed that, “you know our relationship with the villagers is on the rocks since there have been a number of encroachment practices into the Half Mile Strip where we had to resort to taking very severe course of actions to the culprits but I can assure you that we are trying our level best to mend the poor relationship through frequent meetings with the Villagers and implementation of more community support projects”.

Bureaucracy in decision making; This response had a per cent of 12.73. It was reported by the Village leaders that there was so much bureaucracy in decision making by KINAPA with regards to SCIPs implementation in the villages surrounding the park. The Mwika Council Executive Officer had this to say, “KINAPA officials normally do not respond to our project implementation application letter on time and worse of all you can even get a response with assurance of support and wait for years without any action being taken.” The Mweka Village Chairperson seemed to be in agreement since he claimed that, “KINAPA officials normally work with a lot of bureaucracy, you wan’t to communicate with them then they say make an appointment cause we are too busy. You write them a letter, it then takes months to be responded to. It is really discouraging, you know.”

Contribution by KINAPA is not precisely known; This response had a per cent of 12.73. It was reported by the Village leaders that the contribution by KINAPA is not precisely known in the implementation of the projects. The Lyasongoro Village Chairperson claimed that, “Normally KINAPA purchase materials for projects implementation instead of issuing funds and afterwards they don’t give us the report of their spending on the materials. It therefore becomes very difficult to know in precise terms the level of their contribution to the projects”. This was also supported by the Mshiri Village Chairperson and Executive Officer. The Mshiri Village Chairperson had this to say, “we don’t get complete information on their spending on the projects. They are extremely

secretive. It is very hard to know whether they even contribute to the level that they were supposed to”.

Conclusions and Recommendation

The overall objective of this study was to undertake an analysis on the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIPs) from the angles of perceptions of people living in the villages surrounding Kilimanjaro National Park (KINAPA) as well as on the challenges impeding successful implementation of the projects. In relation to the objectives of the study, the following conclusions were made; For the case of perception of the local community on the Support for Community Initiated Projects in the villages around the park. The sample used was 180 respondents across six (6) villages around KINAPA. The Likert Scale Analysis was used for the analysis of the responses. It was revealed that a majority of the respondents found the projects initiated to be affecting positively their daily lives. Also a majority wanted the projects initiated to keep on operating. A Majority others wanted more projects in the vicinity. However, a majority of the respondents said that there were economic damages imposed on them in the implementation of the projects. It was the same with those who perceived that there were social damages contributed by the projects in the community. A majority others perceived that they were using a lot of their resources in the implementation of the projects.

The assessment of the challenges facing the establishment of the projects was done where multiple response analysis was used. The results to this effect were obtained from a key informants interview. Where the key informants included the Village leaders and the KINAPA officials. The results revealed challenges such as lack of funds by KINAPA, Frequent Change of Game Wardens, no enough information on the projects implemented, contribution by local people is unreliable, lack of enough water supply access, conflict between village and council leaders, delay in the completion of projects, poor relationship between villagers and KINAPA, Bureaucracy in decision making and contribution by KINAPA is not well known.

The study made the following recommendations

KINAPA should promote more transparency; In order to alleviate the challenge of secrecy in accounting for spending for the projects, KINAPA should be more open in the disclosure of information regarding their spending on the SCIPs so as to promote more faith by the local communities when it comes to co-operation in the establishment of the projects.

KINAPA should promote more frequent meetings with villagers; KINAPA should try to hold frequent meetings with the local community since it will help in normalizing or improving relations between them and the local community so as to institute a more friendlier rapport. The study revealed that the relationship

between KINAPA and the local community was strained which is contrary to the central theme of the SCIPs which is to improve relations between the two parties for conservation of park resources.

KINAPA should become more pro-active and do away with bureaucracy in the SCIPs establishment; Following interviews with the village leaders, there were concerns to the effect that there was a lot of bureaucracy or slow decision making in the establishment of the SCIPs such that they were discouraged to send more applications for project support to them. KINAPA has to become more pro-active instead and find quicker means of responding to the local community needs since they are instrumental custodians of the park resources. Village leaders have to encourage the local people to become more pro-active in contributing to the SCIPs; the study revealed that there is a great deal of villagers who don't contribute to the SCIPs regardless of the fact that it is instrumental enough in providing them with basic necessities. Others don't offer their contributions in time while others offer little than required contributions in terms of labour force and in monetary terms. It is important that the village leaders take enough time to sensitize and mobilize their people the need for effective co-support of the projects.

KINAPA needs to institute more projects in the villages especially the ones that are more needed by the local people; The study reveals that there were concerns by the local people about need for more projects in the villages considering the fact that there was only one project per village while KINAPA has been there more than 40 years and therefore it is important that KINAPA allocate more funds for more projects institution in the villages surrounding the park so that the villagers are more encouraged to co-operate with them in conservation of park resources.

KINAPA needs to focus more on the implementation of projects that cater for more than one village; Following funds constraint, a concern raised by the KINAPA officials, it is high time for KINAPA to start working more on the implementation of ward based projects instead of one project for every village so as to deal with the challenge of delay in the completion of projects and perceived biasness by the villagers of one village to another. This has been done in Mwika village where investment was done on a dining hall for Mwika Secondary School which is for the entire ward.

The Village leaders have to sensitize the local people to contribute more towards the maintenance of the projects; one of the challenges facing the implementation of the SCIPs as revealed by the study is that there are usually maintenance problems with the projects especially those that have been implemented at least more than three years ago. The local communities are not more pro-active in the maintenance of the infrastructure which require frequent

repair services after some years while it is largely their responsibility and not that of KINAPA. It is important that the village leaders sensitize the local people about the need for more commitment towards the projects maintenance following wear and tear.

References

- Balmford, A. & Cowling, R.M (2006) Fusion or failure? The future of Conservation biology. *Conservation Biology*. 20, 692-695 pp
- Goldstein G.(2005). The legal system and wildlife conservation: History and the laws effect on indigenous people and community conservation in Tanzania (Georgetown International Environmental Law Review). Washington, DC: Georgetown University Law Centre.10, 122- 126pp
- Graaf, J.D (1993), Soil conservation and sustainable land use: An economic Approach. Royal Tropical Institute, Amsterdam.12, 231-238 pp
- Gutman, P. & Davidson, S. (2007), A view of innovative International financial mechanisms for biodiversity conservation with a specific focus on the international finance of developing countries' protected areas. World Wildlife Fund (WWF). Washington D.C
- Hamilton, A. Ruffo, C.K. Mwash, I.V. Mmari, C. Lovett, J.C. (1989). A survey of Forest types on the East Usambara using variable area tree plot method. Pg. 213-225 in Hamilton A.C. & Bensted-Smith, R. (eds). Forest Conservation in the East Usambara Mountains, Tanzania. IUCN Gland Switzerland 392pp.
- Kalaghe, A.G., Msangi, T.H.& Johansson, L. (1988). Conservation of catchment forests in the Usambara mountains. *J. of Tanzania Association of Foresters*.
- Kerlinger, F.N. (1973). *Foundation of Behavioral Research*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York. Oryx, 42, 491-503pp
- Kilimanjaro National Park Authority.(1995). Kilimanjaro National Park General Management Plan. Kilimanjaro, Tanzania: Author.
- Kiss, A (2004) Is Community based ecotourism a good use of conservation funds? *Trends in Ecology and Evolution*, 19, 232-237
- Kothari , C.R. (2004), *Methods and Techniques, Research Methodology*, Revised second Edition, New Age International Publishers. 68-70pp
- McShane, T.O & Wells M.P (2004) Integrated conservation and Development. In *Getting biodiversity projects to work: towards more effective conservation and development*. Columbia University Press, New York. Oryx, 42, 491-503
- Molnar, A., Shcherr, S.J & Khare, A. (2004) Who conserves the World's forests? Community driven strategies to protect forests and respect rights. *Forest trends*, Washington D.C 18 (3): 621-630
- Napier. T.L.K, McCutcheon, & J. Fish (2008). Factors affecting Natural Resource conservation investments of residents in the Big Walnut

- Creek Watershed, Ohio. *Journal of Soil and Water Conservation*. 63: 18-28
- Ngaga Y. M. (2011). Forest plantations and woodlots in Tanzania (African Forest Forum, Working Paper Series, Vol. 1, Issue 16). Nairobi, Kenya: African Forest Forum.
- Nyeme L., Nilsen H. (2010). Revenue sharing schemes in protected areas in Tanzania (Unpublished report). Norwegian University of Life Sciences, Ås, Norway.
- Orodho, A.J. and Kombo, D.K (2002). *Research Methods*. Nairobi : Kenyatta University Institute of Open Learning 38-45 pp
- Pearce, D.W (2007) Do we really care about biodiversity? *Environmental Resource Economics*.
- Pimbert, M.P, & Pretty, J.N (1997) Diversity and Sustainability in Community Based Conservation. UNESCO-IIPA Regional Workshops on Community Based Conservation, India.
- Pocs, T. (1980). The epiphytic biomass and its effects on the water balance of two rain forest types in the Uluguru Mountains Tanzania, East Africa. *Acta Bot. Acad. Sci. Hung.* 26:143-116

ORGANIZATIONAL FACTORS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO EMPLOYEE TURNOVER IN TANZANIA

Farida Sebastian Masalu and Eunice Nderingo Ulomi.
National College of Tourism
farida.sebastian@nct.ac.tz

Abstract

This study examined the organizational factors that contribute to employee turnover at National College of Tourism (NCT) in Tanzania. The study was guided by two theories; the causal model intent to leave by Martin (1979) and Two- Factor Theory by Herzberg (1959). The theories explain different factors contributing to employee turnover in an organization including; low pay, little promotion opportunity, salary, job security, working conditions, company policy and interpersonal relations. The research applied descriptive research design. Samples of 80 employees were interviewed and filled questionnaires from various departments of the college. The sample was obtained through simple random sampling technique involving the management, tutors and non-teaching staff as well as employees who have already quitted the job. The collected data were analyzed using content analysis. The results of the study revealed that, in adequate compensation package and lack of opportunity for promotion were identified to be the front factors influencing turnover and unclear procedures for promotion.

Keywords: Employees; Turnover; Retention.

Introduction

Tourism industry in Tanzania plays a pivotal role in fostering direct foreign earnings and generating direct and indirect employment opportunities (UNCTAD, 2008). In 2013, its contribution to the country's GDP stood at \$1.85 billion (MNRT, 2013). This contribution makes it necessary for the industry to retain its human resources.

The importance of employees to an organisation has been acknowledged for a long time, as they play a pivotal role in creating and maintaining a competitive advantage for their organisations (Albaqami, 2016).

According to Herzberg (2005), the issue of attracting and retaining highly qualified employees stems from a managerial perspective that is more important than ever previously. Furthermore, the issue of motivating, keeping, and sustaining employees is considered to be a smart strategy for maintaining organisational performance and carving out a place in the market in the long term, as it invests in the valuable resource of human capital (Albaqami, 2016).

In recent times, different scholars, researchers and human practitioners have directed much of their attention to the issue of employee turnover. This concern is evidenced by numerous turnover studies that exist in the literature. These include studies by (Kalotina, 2010) and (Terjen, 2010). All these scholars have agreed on one point that employee turnover may result in negative consequences. As employees are so vital for the functionality of performance, employee turnover is a subject matter that is considered to be one of the most serious obstacles that face organisations. The educational institution is one such organisation that comes under threat from this danger, when its employees are leaving their jobs.

This is evidenced from the statistics obtained from National College of Tourism which shows high rates of employee turnover as it is revealed by the turnover trend obtained from the Human Resources Office in 2018; which shows that, an average of 5 employees out of 83 voluntarily leaves the college every year as it is shown on the table below for the thirteen (13) consecutive years starting from 2005 to 2017. The rate of employee turnover in 2005 was 3.7% which remained the same 3.7% in 2006 but increased to 7.4% in 2007. In 2008 the college experienced the rate of 11.1% which decreased to 7.4% in 2009 and went higher to 12.3% in 2010. In 2011 the college experienced 7.4% which increased to 8.6% in 2012 and remained 8.6% in 2013. In 2014 the college experienced 6.1% which decreased to 3.7% in 2015 and went higher to 11.1% in 2016 and decreased to 7.4% in 2017.

Table 1. Turnovers Trend from 2005-2017 at the National College of Tourism

Reason of turnover	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017
Retirement							02	01			02	02	
Voluntary quit	03	03	06	09	05	10	04	06	07	04	01	04	02
Death					01					01		02	01
Termination												01	03
Total	03	03	06	09	06	10	06	07	07	05	03	09	06
Percentage (%)	3.7%	3.7%	7.4%	11.1%	7.4%	12.3%	7.4%	8.6%	8.6%	66.1%	33.7%	11.1%	7.4%

Source: Human Resources office National College of Tourism, (2018).

Literature Review

Theoretical Foundation

This study was guided by two theories. These are the causal model intent to leave by Martin (1979) and Two – Factor Theory by Herzberg (1959).

The causal model intent to leave

Martin (1979) developed a causal model of intent to leave when investigating employees' intention to stay or to leave an organization. According to the model; low pay, few close friends, little formal and job related information, high centralization, routine work and little promotion opportunity produce a decrease in a job satisfaction which in turn produce an increase intent to leave. It further portrays other six demographic variables including the length of service, age, education, occupation, marital status and sex to have motivation consequences for job satisfaction as well as intention to leave. The model has major advantage that it identifies organizational variables that affect decision making.

Two – Factor Theory

This theory was propounded by Herzberg (1959) two factor theory. According to this theory, there are two sets of factors affecting motivation and work. The first set of factors is related to job context (hygiene factors). The factors in this set are referred to as dissatisfactions. The absence of these factors results in dissatisfaction among employees. These factors include; salary, job security, working conditions, levels and quality of supervision, company policy and administration, and interpersonal relations. Therefore, they are essential in avoiding unfair and unequal treatment among workers. The second set of factors is related to job content (motivators). These factors include the nature of work, personal growth and advancement, responsibility, recognition and a scene of achievement. These factors arouse the feeling of satisfaction in addition to motivating individual to work hard. The theory also explains the significance of job design and the quality of work force which is needed to make jobs more motivating.

The theories reviewed have evidenced that there are numerous factors contributing to employee turnover in an organization.

Empirical Review

Kalotina (2010) conducted a research to investigate the occurrence and implications of staff turnover in the Greek tourism industry. The aim of this study was to explore the occurrence and implications of staff turnover in the Greek tourism industry. The sample data was obtained through online from Greek tourism enterprises over a period of four weeks by survey method. This process yielded 63 usable responses. The findings revealed that the Greek tourism industry faces similar staff turnover effects that are also found in other sectors. Enterprises reported to experience similar staff turnover levels

irrespective of their tourism sector, i.e. travel agents, hotels etc.; staff turnover levels were not found to be homogeneous across organizational hierarchical levels. Respondents claimed that staff turnover is mainly instigated by factors that are beyond management control. The study provides primary data about the level, the type and the consequences of staff turnover in the Greek tourism industry. Although this study was conducted in tourism industry but the aim was to explore the implications of turnover to the tourism industry while our study focused on the causes of employee turnover in the tourism sector and that's why there was a need to conduct another research.

Terjen (2010) conducted a study about service quality and turnover intentions as perceived by employees in service organizations in Norway. The objective of this study was to test a selection of hypothesized relationships between: employees' perceived service quality, employees' turnover intentions, role clarity, empowerment and coaching. The data collection was based on a survey with a sample of 1,076 frontline employees in service organizations. This study used a structured questionnaires that included questions derived from previous studies. The findings from this study revealed that managerial coaching is closely related to employees' perception of their job performance. Managers who manage to establish that kind of coaching style are able to help employees recognize opportunities. Consequently, the coaching practices become catalysts for continuous learning processes about how to enhance performance. Managers in service firms who establish a positive coaching-style, and combine this with freedom that is inherent in managerial empowering practices, will have employees who evaluate their job performance positively, and that in turn contributes to retaining the employees. Moreover the study showed that there are indications that employees' perceived service quality has a direct negative effect on employees' turnover intentions. This study is limited to a selection of variables related to employees' turnover intentions including only frontline employees in service organizations in Norway. Moreover Norway is quite different in environment and cultural aspects compared to Tanzania.

The literature reviewed has evidence that there are numerous factors which have been investigated in their relationship to job satisfaction/dissatisfaction in both government and private organizations as well as developed and developing countries. However none has been found to focus on organisational factors contributing to employee turnover in the National College of Tourism.

Employment Policies and Laws

There are various laws and policies guiding the issues of human resources in both public and private owned organisations. These laws and policies have identified the rights and responsibilities of both employees and employers. The laws and policies reviewed in this study, include Employment and Labour Relations Act, 2004 and Standing Orders for the Public Service, 2009.

Employment and Labour Relations Act, 2004 identifies workers rights and employers responsibilities. It also analyses different issues like remuneration, workers leave and prohibition of discrimination in the work place as it is stated in section 7(1) that, every employer shall ensure that he promotes an equal opportunity in employment and strives to eliminate discrimination in any employment policy or practice. Remuneration, right to have annual leave and prohibition of discrimination are used as retention strategies to organizations.

Also Standing Orders for the Public Service, 2009 identify the rights, responsibilities and different circulars that guide the public servants. It also gives guidelines in workplace communications and to other public offices. However, despite these strategies, the rate of employee turnover has been increasing as it was shown in the table 1.

Methodology of the Study

The study is exploratory, which used qualitative methods. The study used both primary and secondary data collection methods. The primary data collection method involved interviewing and administering questionnaires to a sample of individuals obtained through simple random sampling technique which involves the management, heads of departments, tutors and non-teaching staff as well as employees who have already quitted the job. The secondary data was obtained from Human Resources office of National College of Tourism and also from internet source. The reason for using documentary records in this study was to enable the researcher to track various information concerning turnover and retention strategies from different documents including yearly reports and strategic plan. Moreover, the case study approach was used for the purpose of conducting an empirical investigation on the causes of employee turnover, using National College of Tourism as the case. The data was analyzed using content analysis.

The study was conducted at National College of Tourism in Dar es Salaam, which is one of the government owned education institutions basing in tourism and it has three campuses based in Arusha and the other two campuses are in Dar es Salaam. Dar es Salaam was chosen as the study site due to its accessibility to the researcher and it also has two campuses with enough number of workers compared to Arusha campus. Moreover most employees who have already quitted the job are working in Dar es Salaam so it was easy for data collection.

Discussion and Implication

The study sought to explore the organisational factors accounted for employee turnover in NCT. The factors include: in adequate compensation package, strong racial segregation and biasness, long working hours and heavy work load, lack of opportunity for promotion, job stress due to lack of resources to perform a task and unclear job description.

The researched results were obtained from employees from different departments in NCT. Majority of the respondents revealed that, there is lack of clarity in procedures and opportunities for promotion. This is also revealed from majority of the respondents who claimed on not being promoted or not getting promotions on time despite being qualified for promotion as it is stated in the Standing Orders, “that the effective date of promotion of a public servant shall be determined by the appropriate appointing authority by considering the date upon which the vacancy occurred; the date upon which the officer became qualified for promotion and the date upon which the officer assumed the duties of the new post”. Most people whose right for promotion was denied are the ones who have quitted the job or having intention to leave the job. Herzberg (1950) identified that the hygiene factors produce dissatisfaction and are more related to working condition, salary and inadequate training. This is also clearly presented by Martin (1979) in his causal model of intent to leave. According to this model “low pay, few close friends, little formal and job related information, high centralization, routine work, low distributive Justice and little promotional opportunity produce a decrease in job satisfaction which in turn increase intent to leave.

Compensation formed another factor for employees to quit the organization. Majority of the respondents especially the non teaching staff are not satisfied with the compensation package as they are using Tanzanian Government Scale (TGS) while the tutors are using PTSS scale which seems higher compared to the previous.

Racial segregation and biasness formed another factor whereby the findings revealed that, there is no strong racial segregation and biasness in NCT. Therefore strong racial segregation and biasness does not contribute to employee turnover in NCT. This is because most people working in NCT are Tanzanians and only few volunteers from other countries like Japan.

The study also explored findings on long working hours and heavy work load, which revealed that, the employees are working on their normal working hours and there is no heavy work load. Therefore long working hours and heavy work load do not contribute to employee turnover in NCT. This shows that HR department abides to the law as stated in Employment and Labour Relations Act (2004) that employees should work for nine hours a day.

Majority of the respondents agreed on job stress due to lack of resources to perform a task and unclear job description which has made the workers not to perform well their duties and having no morale to work in their respective positions which at the end contributes to the turnover.

Conclusion and implication of the findings

The objective of this study was to examine the contribution of organisational factors to employee turnover in National College of Tourism. On the basis of the findings discussed above, it was concluded that organizational factors have been found to greatly contribute to employee turnover in NCT. These include lack of opportunity for promotion, poor compensation package and lack of resources to perform a job. These factors are supported by Martin (1979) in his causal model of intent to leave when investigating employees' intention to stay or to leave an organization.

The management must understand that employees must be treated as the most liquid assets of the organization which would make the organization to withstand the waves of globalization. This asset needs to be monitored with due care, otherwise the organization would cease to exist. Rewards and Recognition related variables have a great effect on employee turnover. Management should also compensate employees adequately. In addition to that, they should give employees incentives like individual bonus, lump sum bonus, training and development and other benefits. If these are put in place, employee turnover will be minimized.

The study also provides a good guidance to NCT to put in place more effective means of minimizing the problems of turnover as it is important that employers have to understand their rate of employee turnover and how they affect the organization's performance and ability to achieve their strategic goals.

References

- Beach L.R (2003) *Image Theory: Decision making in personal and Organisational context* Wiley, Chichester.
- Bedein, A., Kemer, E. R., &Pizzolato, A. B. (1991).“ Career Commitment and Expected Utility of Present Job as Predictors of Turnover Intentions and Turnover Behavior”. *Journal of Vocation Behavior*, vol.39, pp.331-343.
- Black's Law Dictionary 9th ed. (West Group, 2009), Bryan A. Garner, editor, ISBN 0-314-19949-7.
- Blomme, R. J, Van Rheede, A & Tromp, D.M. (2008).“Workfamily Conflict as a Cause for turnover intentions in the hospitality industry”, *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol.10, No.4, pp.269-285.
- Bushoff, C, &Mels, G. (2000).“ The Impact of Multiple Comments on Intentions to Resign on Emperical Assessment”. *British Journal Management*, Vol.11, PP.172-255.
- Catherine M Gustafson (2002). “staff turnover: Retention”, *International j. contemp. Hosp. Manage*, Vol14, No3, pp.106-110.
- Collins Jill & Hussey R.(2003). *A practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate students*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan

- Champion, M. (1991). "Meaning and Measurement in Turnover: Comparison of Alternative Measures and Recommendations for Research". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol.76, pp.199-212.
- Employment and Labour Relations Act, (2004). Dar es salaam, Tanzania.
- Evans, M. (2006). "The Effects of Supervisory Behavior on the Path-Goal Relationship". *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, vol.5, pp.277-298.
- Glebbeck, A., & Bax, E. H. (2004). "Is high Employee Turnover really harmful? An Empirical test using Company Records". *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol.46, pp.277-286.
- Hackaman, J., & Oldham, G. R. (1975). "Development of the job diagnostic survey". *Journal Applied Psychology*, Vol.60, pp.159-170.
- Hetzerberg, F. (1959). *The Motivation to Work*, New York: SAS Institute.
- Herzberg, F. (2005). Motivation-hygiene theory. In *Organizational Behavior: Essential theories of motivation and leadership*. Miner, J. B. (E.D.), pp. 61-74.
- Kalotina, C. (2010). "Staff Turnover in the Greek Tourism Industry", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 22, No.3, pp.335-359.
- Kevin MM, Joan LC, Adrian JW (2004). "Organizational change and employee turnover", *Personnel Rev*, Vol33, No2, pp.161-166.
- Kothari, R. (2004). *Research Methodology Methods and Techniques*. New Delhi: India New Age Interactional P LTD.
- Kramer, R. (1999). Employee Turnover can cost you big time. *Adhesives & Sealants Industry*, pp.6-4.
- Martin, N. T. (1979). "Contextual Model of Employee Turnover Intentions". *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol.53, pp.213-245.
- MNRT, (2014). Licenced and registered tour operators.
- Price, J. L (1977). *The study of turnover*, Ames: Iowa State University Press.
- Price J.L, (1977). "Handbook of Organisational measurement " *International journal of Manpower* Vol.18, pp 303-558
- Regner, H. (2002). "The Effects of on-the-job-training on Wages in Sweden". *International Journal of Manpower*, Vol.231, No.4, pp.326-344.
- Robbins, S. P (2005) *organizational behavior*, 7th edition .New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.
- Sounders Mark, L.P. (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students* (5th ed.). England; Pearson.
- UNCTAD (2008). *FDI and tourism: the development dimension-East and Southern Africa*. New York and Geneva: United Nations.
- UNWTO, (2009). *Tourism Highlights*.
- White, G. L. (1995) "Employee turnover," *The hidden drain on profits*. *HR Focus*, Vol 72, No1, pp15-17.
- WTO, (2000) *World Tourism Highlights 2000*, Madrid.

EXAMINING THE ROLE OF FESTIVALS IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA

Ladislaus Fredrick Batinoluho
The Open University of Tanzania
Batinoluho@hotmail.com

Abstract

Festivals are increasingly becoming grounds of discourse enabling people to express their views on wider cultural, social and political issues. Often the debates polarize into those advocating change and those wishing to preserve “traditional” or “local” culture in the face of modernization and globalization. There is generally a high level of consensus about the goal of festivals that is appropriate for them. In particular, the importance of festivals in tourism development is unabated. There comes the role of festivals and their significance in contemporary tourism. Festivals are not only one of the most important products of tourism, but also indispensable ingredient of human society. Festivals are worldwide phenomenon which is attaining greater and greater importance through Tourism Industry. The main objective of this paper was to examine the roles of festivals in contemporary tourism and to define their origins, classification, tourist value, impacts and outcomes with special focus on Tanzania. Specifically, the paper intended to examine the role of festivals with view of developing tourism in Tanzania. The findings of this study show us that festivals have contributed in the development of tourism. Festivals attract tourists to local community events to promote enriching exchanges between tourists and residents. It was found in the case studies of Sauti za Busara Festival, and Urithi Festival that have become a major tourist attraction for the local, regional and international visitors in Tanzania.

Keywords: Festivals, Contemporary tourism and Local communities.

Background to the Festivals

Introduction

According to Picard and Robinson (2006), a festival is an event ordinarily celebrated by a community and centering on some characteristic aspect of that community and its religion or cultures. Getz (2005), defined the festival as a themed public celebration. Cudny (2014) noted that there are several dictionary definitions describing festivals. He cited, among others, the definition from Encyclopaedia Britannica, where a festival (also feast) is “a day or period of time set aside to commemorate, ritually celebrate or re-enact, or anticipate events or seasons— agricultural, religious, or socio-cultural that give meaning and cohesiveness to an individual and to the religious, political, or socio-economic community. This paper, defines festivals as society events which

involve people of different walks of life to achieve a certain purpose. Festivals often serve to fulfill specific communal purposes, especially in regard to commemoration. Celebrations offer a sense of belonging for religious, social, or geographical groups, contributing to group cohesiveness. Festivals in Tanzania often provide entertainment, which is particularly important to local communities before the advent of mass-produced entertainment. Festivals that focus on cultural or ethnic topics also seek to inform community members of their traditions; the involvement of elders sharing stories and experience provides a means for unity among families.

History of Festivals

Each society has set specific dates and periods as milestones, since the ancient times. During those dates, specific functions took place, usually based on indigenous cultures, mores, religion and way of life. The functions formed the beginning of festivals, which evolved into modern types of festivals. As well, the root of the word “festival” is “feast” (“fiesta”), which means celebration (Skoultos, 2014).

The concept of festivals is basically broadened, making it very difficult to define. However, festivals are a subcategory of special events and may be defined as is a cultural event consisting of a series of performances of works in the fine arts, often devoted to a single artist or genre. Festival may include local culture or not but they should definitely include celebration. Classification of festivals becomes difficult due to complexity of definition, although there are several basic categories according to theme and objective: community festivals, music festivals, film festivals, art festivals, and religious festivals.

These days, festivals are increasingly emerging as many countries worldwide try to leverage their potential and take advantage of their positive impacts. Currently, festivals constitute a research field where several researchers from various scientific backgrounds cooperate. Some of these fields are: economy, sociology, psychology, tourism, anthropology, religion, and politics.

Justification for the study

According to Bernd (2000), Tanzania is Africa’s “cultural melting pot” as the four major ethnolinguistics African Language Families occur. These are the Bantu, Nilo-Saharan, Afro-Asiatic and the Khoisan “click” language spoken by Hadza hunter-gatherers. According to NBS (2012), Tanzania has a population of more than 54.2 million people and consists of more than 128 ethnic groups. Each Tanzanian ethnic group has its own language, customs and cultural characteristics associated with its historical, geographical and religious backgrounds. As such, Tanzania is rich in both tangible and intangible cultural heritage that can be used to benefit the country socially and economically. The country’s natural and cultural heritages are important and irreplaceable assets.

Utilizing and conserving these resources is fundamental in creating National and community pride and identity, while expanding the tourism product base and attract tourists to enjoy this fascinating heritage.

Every community in the country, regardless of its size has a history of which it can be proud. A journey into the history of any community can be brought to life by staging a heritage celebration. There is a need for examining the role of festivals in Tanzania in order to propose to the government and other stakeholders the need for sustaining the current festivals in the country, which enhance national and community pride and identity, creating tourism attraction, allowing young generation to gain an appreciation of local history and culture and senior generation an opportunity to renew bonds with the past. Ultimately, these experiences bring about community pride; create a strong cultural property and national pride.

Review of the Literature

Festivals to the Economy

Getz (1997), festivals have major impacts on the development of tourism to the host communities. These days festivals are considered to contribute significantly to the cultural and economic development wealth of many countries in the world. The festival organizers are currently using the historical and cultural themes to develop the annual events to attract visitors and create cultural image in the host cities by holding festivals in the community settings. The need for festivals is not exactly designed to address the needs for any one particular group. The hosting of festivals is often developed because of the tourism and economic opportunities additional to social and cultural benefits.

Festivals have the possibility to generate enormous amount of tourism when they cater to visitors from other source zones including the potential for grants, or sponsorships, either by direct or indirect purpose. In some countries, governments support and promote festivals as part of their strategies for economic development, nation building and tourism. The festivals in turn are seen as an important tool for attracting visitors and building the image within different communities (Getz, 1997). According to Stiernstrand (1996), the economic impact of tourism arises basically from the consumption of tourism products in a geographical area. According to McDonnell, Allen and O' Toole (1999), tourism related services, which include travel, food vendors, accommodation, recreational centers, restaurants, coffee shops, shopping are the major beneficiaries of the festivals.

Festivals to the Culture

There is a strong relationship between festivals and culture. Some scholars include culture in the definition of "festival". It has been affirmed that "Festival is a cultural event consisting of a series of performances of works in the fine

arts, often devoted to a single artist or genre”. Social changes and globalization have been stated as the main drive for the rapid development of festivals during 20th century. The changes included economic social, political, and demographic changes highlighted the need for redefinition and replacement of social identity to the social and cultural world map. Festivals were used as a tool to this course. Festivals involve culture in many different ways. Each element which is celebrated during a festival –regardless of its kind (theatre, comedy, poem, song, dance, music, film, art and so on, comprises a part of the culture of a society, of an area or group of people. Thus, cultural impacts of festivals are remarkable and all elements interrelate with each other and give a cultural experience.

Festival realization can lead to a revival and preservation of indigenous culture. It has been observed that local interest and willingness to participate in cultural experiences and local cultural activity, for instance traditional healers can be reinforced through festivals. In addition, the introduction of new ideas leads to the expansion of the cultural prospects of festivals’ attendees. So, festivals can be used as a tool for cultural development by local societies.

Festivals in Africa

Gaborone International Music and Culture Week (GIMC) - Botswana

Gaborone International Music and Culture Week (GIMC) is a multi disciplinary annual event which celebrates Gaborone City and its residents. GIMC is conducted every end of August and ends first week of September. GIMC showcases cultural celebrations, comedy, poetry, music festival, fashion, and Jazz and Golf day, among others. Performers are selected from across the region and internationally, as well as, top local artists. GIMC attracts thousands of people from within Botswana, neighbouring countries such as South Africa and all over the world.

The Gerewol Festival - Chad and Niger

Each year the semi-nomadic Mbororo people in Chad and Wodaabe in Niger, gather for a week of incredible celebrations known as the Gerewol/Guerewol, a colourful festival that is one of Africa’s most spectacular beauty pageants. The Gerewol is renowned for the way in which young Mbororo and Wodaabe men decorate themselves, donning make up, jewellery, elaborate costumes and ‘displaying’ to young women in search of a partner. The weeklong Gerewol festival symbolizes a time for love. During the seven-day period, several dance routines takes place with the men standing shoulder-to-shoulder and moving around slowly a circle. As they go by, eligible women would tap on the shoulder of the ones they are attracted to. Gerewol Festival is very famous in Niger, West Africa and across the whole Africa. It brings people from all over the world.

National Arts Festival - South Africa

The National Arts Festival (NAF) is an annual festival event of performing arts in Grahamstown, South Africa. It is the largest arts festival on the African continent and one of the largest performing arts festivals in the world by visitor numbers. The festival runs for 11 days, from the last week of June to the first week of July every year. It takes place in the small university city of Grahamstown, in the Eastern Cape province of South Africa. The Festival programme includes performing arts (theatre, dance, stand-up comedy and live music), visual art exhibitions, films, talks and workshops, a large food and craft fair and historical tours of the city. NAF is one of the most popular festivals in South Africa and world-widely. It is attended by millions of people annually.

Festivals in Tanzania

Tulia Traditional Dances Festival

The Tulia Traditional Dances Festival program holds annual traditional dances festivals in different places in Tanzania. The first traditional dances festival was successfully held in Tukuyu Town in Mbeya Region. The Festival attracted ten categories of traditional dances, thus, Ing'oma, Maghosi, Ipenenga, Kimwenge, Samba, Nkyesyo, Kibhota, Kapote, Ndingala and Kitumbwike.

The ten dances are commonly practiced in three councils, namely, Rungwe District Council, Kyela District Council and Busokelo Council all of which participated in the Festival. Out of 62 participating groups, 27 groups emerged winners. Apart from the 1,100 participants, the Tulia Traditional Dances Festival attracted about 1,000 visitors from outside Mbeya Region including Members of Parliament, Ambassadors, Ministers/Deputy Ministers and other government officials. The Festival attracted about 23,000 viewers in total. This being the first time for such an event to be organized, it is considered that was a great success thereby nurturing our culture and traditions.

Sauti za Busara Music Festival - Zanzibar

Sauti za Busara festival features a rich variety of African music from the region with more than four hundred musicians participating over five days in the Historic Stone Town of Zanzibar.

Sauti za Busara festival celebrated its 11th edition in 2014, bringing together diverse artists and audiences and building appreciation for East African music. The event is more than 'just' a music festival: it contributes to the growth and professionalization of the creative sector in the region; provides learning, exchange and employment opportunities, and promotes Tanzania in particular Zanzibar globally as a leading destination for cultural tourism. Sauti za Busara festival aims to; (i) expanding the calendar of events to increase visibility and accessibility for local music and culture; (ii) increasing outreach activity to actively discover and nurture new talents, and help them to reach new

markets; (iii) creating and curating content, to further promote African music on internet and other media; (iv) professionalizing the regional music industry through increased opportunities for training and capacity building; (v) strengthening partnerships with organisations in East Africa and the Global North and South; to share information, join forces and further develop capacities through skills exchange (vi) diversifying revenue streams that promote sustainability in the fulfilment of its mission (<http://www.busaramusic.org>).

Festival of the Dhow Countries - Zanzibar

East Africa's largest cultural event, takes place in Zanzibar in magnificent, historical venues along the waterfront of Stone Town. The festival celebrates the unique cultural heritage of the "Dhow" countries: the African continent and the Indian Ocean region and their global Diaspora. It is scheduled annually around the first two weeks in July. It features an international film and video competition, music, theatre and performing arts, workshops, seminars, conferences and other related arts and cultural programmes.

Mwaka Kogwa Festival –Zanzibar

It is a traditional festival that takes place in July/August to celebrate the local New Year. It is mainly practiced in the Southern Unguja, particularly in Makunduchi. Originating from Persia and brought here by early, immigrants, Mwaka Kogwa is marked by sacrifices, dances, and the actual field fighting. In addition to the tourists from abroad, it draws participants from the whole of East Africa.

Hydom Cultural Tourism Festival

This is an annual festival that takes place in September in Hydom, Manyara Region. The Four Corners Cultural Festival (4CCF) in collaboration with Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) organizes it. This international cultural tourism festival is aimed at conserving, and sustaining four African languages and culture, which are on verge of extinction in the face of rising modernity.

Urithi Festival

In Tanzania, there are Bantu, Nilo-Saharan, Afro-Asiatic and the Khoisan “click” language spoken by Hadza hunter-gatherers. With a population of more than 54.2 million people, Tanzania consists of more than 128 ethnic groups. Each Tanzanian ethnic group has its own language, customs and cultural characteristics associated with its historical, geographical and religious backgrounds. As such, Tanzania is rich in both tangible and intangible cultural heritage that can be used to benefit the country socially and economically. The country's natural and cultural heritages are important and irreplaceable assets. Utilizing and conserving these resources is fundamental in creating National and community pride and identity, while expanding the tourism product base and attract tourists to enjoy this fascinating heritage.

Every community in the country, regardless of its size has a history of which it can be proud. A journey into the history of any community can be brought to life by staging a heritage celebration. There is a need for an event in the country, which will enhance national, and community pride and identity, creating tourism attraction, allowing young generation to gain an appreciation of local history and culture and senior generation an opportunity to renew bonds with the past. Ultimately, these experiences will bring about community pride; create a strong cultural property and national pride. Urithi Festival is a national event that aims to bring together people in all walks of life to celebrate and cherish the country's rich and diversified natural heritage.

By being a national festival event, clearly, Urithi Festival distinguishes itself from any other cultural heritage festival events in Tanzania and the world. This is due to the fact that all other cultural heritage festival events focus on community, city or single ethnic group and are conducted for a few days. On the contrary, Urithi Festival focuses on celebrating the cultural heritage of the entire nation and the festival is conducted for an entire month. It is the big event and through time may become more famous than the Brazilian carnival festival that is held between the Friday afternoon before Ash Wednesday and Ash Wednesday at noon, which marks the beginning of Lent, the forty-day period before Easter.

The main objective of Urithi Festival is to celebrate and cherish Tanzania's rich and diversified cultural heritage and broaden the country's tourism products. Specifically, Urithi Festival aims to; (i) promote national identity, pride, unity, patriotism, and popularize the National symbols; (ii) promote and celebrate Tanzania's rich and diversified heritage; (iii) encourage Tanzanians to recognize, to preserve and value their traditions, cultural norms and value for the present and future generations; (iv) promote development of cultural heritage assets to become touristic products in order to diversify the tourism properties; and (v) promote cultures of different ethnic groups around the country and abroad. The festival targets all people living in Tanzania and beyond.

Festival and Tourism

The concept of "event tourism", which includes "festival tourism", came up for the first time during the 1980s. Scholars understood the necessity of studying this sector and tried to define and describe specific characteristics of this form of tourism, which is related to special events and festivals.

Some literature states that the most important tourism impact of a festival is the increase in media interest about the area before, during and after the festival. Media coverage of the festival leads to positive promotion of the area at regional, national and even at global levels. This potential has been taken into

account by tourism marketing authorities in many tourist areas worldwide. As a result, festivals are used as tools to construct (or reconstruct) destinations' image and to establish destination branding (or re-branding) to national and global tourism map. In the long term, a recurrent and successful festival can be part of the local (or national) tourism product in order to attract visitor interest and to increase the number of tourists. Each festival –with the appropriate planning– has the potential to enrich and improve the offered tourism product and finally increase the competitiveness of the whole destination.

Furthermore, it is well documented that one serious problem of tourism worldwide, with various negative impacts, is seasonality. Experience proves that, convening festivals during periods with low levels of tourism demand can extend “high-season” and offer tourists an important reason for extending their stay in the area or switching the time of visiting.

Effects of Festivals

Festivals may have both positive and negative impacts on their host cities, but emphasis is often focused on the economic analysis. Hall (1992) observes that the ability of major events perceived to attract economic benefits often provide the official justification for why the event is to be hosted.

The host community may have a problem of the influx of people and may not be able to cope with the number of people, especially the demand for associated services such as accommodation, food, recreational, and so on. This usually results into a knock on effect in terms of traffic congestion, crime and vandalism. According to Smith (1989), the socio-cultural impacts result from the interaction between ‘hosts’ and ‘visitors’. A number of factors may lead to difficulties in this relationship.

Furthermore, repeat visits may be more positive in this context. Visitors, particularly those on excursions, have temporal constraints and become more intolerant of ‘wasting time’, for instance in finding somewhere to eat, washrooms, park and so on. Impulsiveness may break down as ‘hospitality’ becomes a repetitive transaction for the host (Glasson et al.; 1995).

In addition, the impacts of festivals may greatly affect the quality of life of the local residents. Thus, it is often argued that strategies need to be adopted to take into account the social and environmental impacts of festivals into analysis when conducting economic impact of the each individual event. The event organizers only take into consideration the economic implications and ignore the residents' perceptions, which offer important non-economic dimension for gauging how festivals benefit or impinge on the host community (Jeong and Faulkner, 1996; Hall, 1992).

Methodology

This study is based on a literature review. The literature used included published articles, journals, books, newspapers, and magazines. Also, the study used Google scholar search engine with the keywords to access various information on the topic. Critical examination of the role of festivals in tourism development in Tanzania was carried out by borrowing experience from other countries. Content analysis was employed to assess the content and concept of festivals in relation to tourism. This technique is a common data analysis method in the social sciences (Berg, 2009). The scholar further identifies that this method involves a careful, detailed, systematic assessment and interpretation of a particular body of material with the intention of identifying patterns, themes, biases and meanings. Additionally, the technique identifies the meaning of the text and therefore maintains a qualitative textual approach (Silverman, 2006; Elo and Kyngäs, 2007). The reasons for this method is that it is analytically flexible and offers a replicable methodology if done correctly (Duriau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007). Elo and Kyngäs (2007), noted that this method can be employed as inductive or deductive research approach and that different levels of analysis can be performed using qualitative or quantitative approaches through longitudinal research designs. In tourism research, a several studies have adopted this technique. The analysis was conducted to contextualize interpretations of the reviewed literature to produce valid, reliable, dependable and trustworthy findings.

Key Findings and Discussion

Festivals have significant role to play in many countries. The International Festival and Events Association (2014), estimates that more than 4.5 million festivals take place every year globally. The United Kingdom is an excellent example of a country that acknowledges the positive impacts of festivals and events. It has been estimated that in the UK 670 events and 200 top festivals contribute about £450 million annually to the economy just from the tickets, transport costs, fare and accommodation costs. Particularly, music festivals are one of the few sectors that has not been affected by the global financial crisis because the music industry and artists “have made more money from live performances than from record sales”, especially after 2008 (Skoultos, 2014).

Skoultos (2014), in 2012 festival attendees in Adelaide (Australia) reached 2.82 million and 590,000 tickets were sold, of which 63,950 were tourists and contributed more than 300,000 overnight stays to the area. Festival attendees’ expenses were estimated at over 58 million AUD (apart from festival tickets) and new income for the region was about 62.9 million AUD. In addition, implementation of the top ten festivals of the area accounted for 790 full-time jobs.

These days, many countries understand the significance of festivals as tools for attracting inbound tourism and sponsor them through local National Tourism Organizations. In a research study to European citizens, 44% declared that they prefer to attend festivals during their vacations. Furthermore, the majority of the audience is 16-30 years old. In detail, percentages for each age group are: 28% for ages 16-20, 27% for ages 21-24 and 23% for ages 25-30. The age groups 31-40 and 41-65 represent 14% and 7%, respectively.

There was another study which examined characteristics of festival goers from around the world, the following trends in demand were identified: travel to a different country for attending a festival, increased spending for accommodation and increased demand for travel packages (including festival tickets). Methodically, 40% of participants in the survey declared that they had already attended a festival in a different country and 39% of them more than one festival. Seventy-five percent of the participants declared that they prefer to include festival attendance in their vacation and 60% prefer to extend their stay in order to get to know the surrounding area. For 2013, the majority of the participants (55%) declared that had chosen to stay in a hotel and 8% in a luxury hotel. Moreover, for 2014, 80% of the participants declared that they are willing to spend more money on the accommodation.

In the same study, it was observed that 60% of the participants booked their festival ticket, accommodation and transportation separately. Nevertheless, for 2014, 95% declared that they prefer to book the above in a single travel package. This fact highlights the increasing significance of travel packages for the festival market. Lastly, it was discovered that the participants in the survey (apart from UK citizens) spend, on average, £206 per festival attendance in their country and £578 per festival attendance in a different country.

This paper proves that, the importance of festivals for supporting, enhancing and developing the local economy, culture and tourism is realism. This was derived either from data referring to festival demand but also from growing research interest which leads to the continuous development of the field at the academic and research level. Therefore, doubt about the potential of the festival sector for Tanzania is derived.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The findings of this study show that the festivals have significant role to play in the development of tourism in a country such as Tanzania. Festivals attract culture tourists to local community events to promote cultural exchanges between tourists and resident. Cultural tourism brings benefits to the host towns and cities, these benefits are not being analyzed in greater depth.

The paper suggests, there is no doubt that tourism festivals have major effects on the local economy directly and indirectly. That the spending by visitors on local goods and services has a direct economic impact on local businesses and also these benefits pass more widely across the economy and the community. On the other hand, cultural tourism does not take into account the loss of local beauty, environmental degradation and effects it creates on the local people of the host communities through their direct and indirect involvement with tourists.

The study also found that some leading authors, such as Goldblatt 2002, Getz 1997 and Hall, 1992 argue that the festival organizers and local governments only take into account the economic impacts and ignore the implications of social impacts of festivals. They argue that greater attention should be paid to the social impacts of festival as well.

This research also suggests that tourism increases through development of local festivals and provides greater economic and cultural benefits to the local area. The visitors are attracted to these festivals from other areas in the country and abroad. The study further found that social and economic factors contributed to tourism growth in these festivals. Given the objectives and scope, this paper reveals that the Sauti za Busara in Zanzibar and Urithi Festival, stand to be festivals of great importance in Tanzania. The two festivals continue to attract more local, regional and international visitors.

This study highlights in particular the Sauti za Busara in Zanzibar and Urithi Festival in Tanzania having growing economic impacts on the local economy and the community. Nonetheless, there is need for an in-depth study that help to understand the level of economic and social impacts these two festivals and others bring to local businesses and community in a wider scope.

References

- Berg, B. L. (2009). An Introduction to Content Analysis: Qualitative Research Method for the social sciences, pp. 338-377, Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bernd, H. (2000). African Languages: an Introduction. Cambridge University Press.
- Cudny. (2014). The Phenomenon of Festivals Their Origins, Evolution, and Classifications. Jan, Kochanowski University.
- Duriau, V. J., Reger, R. K., and Pfarrer, M. D. (2007). A content Analysis of the content analysis literature in organization studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, Vol. 10, pp.5-34
- Elo, S., and Kyngä, H. (2007). The qualitative content Analysis process. *JAN Research Methodology*, pp.107-115
- Getz, D. (1997). *Event Management & Event Tourism*. 2nd Edition, Cognizant Communication Corporation, New York.

- Getz, D. (1997). *Event Management and Event Tourism*. New York, Cognizant Communications Corporation.
- Getz, D. (2005). *Event Management & Event Tourism*, 2nd edition, Cognizant Communication Corporation, New York.
- Glasson, J et al.; (1995). *Towards Visitor Impact Management : Visitor Impacts, Carrying Capacity and Management Responses in Europe's Historic Towns and Cities*. Aldershot, Avebury.
- Goldblatt, J. (2002). *Special Events Best Practices in Modern Event Management*. 3rd Ed. New York: International Thompson Publishing Company.
- Hall, C. (1992). *Hallmark Tourist Events: Impacts, Management and Planning*. Chichester: John Wiley and Sons Ltd.
- <http://www.busaramusic.org>
- Jeong, G and Faulkner, B. (1996). *Festival Management and Event Tourism*. Volume 4, Numbers 1-2, 1996, pp. 3-11(9).
- McDonnell, I. Allen, J. & O'Toole, W. (1999). *Festival and Special Event Management*. Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons Australia Ltd.
- National Bureau of Statistics. (2012). *Population and Housing Census*. The Government Printer. Dar es Salaam. Tanzania.
- Picard, D and Robinson, M (2006). *Remaking Worlds: Festivals, Tourism and Change*. Channel View Publications. pp. 1–3. ISBN 978-1-84541-267-8.
- Picard, D. & Robinson M. (2006). *Remaking Worlds: Festivals, Tourism and change*. Channel View, Clevedon.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting Qualitative data*. Thousand Oaks: Sage
- Skoultos, S. (2014). *Events as special interest tourism and as leisure time activity: market characteristics and event planning*. PhD Thesis, University of the Aegean .
- Stiernstrand, J. (1996). *The Nordic Model: A Theoretical Model for Economic Impact Analysis of Event Tourism*. *Festival Management & Event Tourism*. Vol 3 pp.165-174
- Yeoman, I (2004). *Festival and events management: an international arts and culture perspective*. Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann. Amsterdam. ISBN 9780750658720.

THE ROLE OF NATIVES IN DEVELOPMENT OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN MOROGORO REGION, TANZANIA: PERCEPTION AND ATTITUDES

Wambuka Rangi
The Open University of Tanzania
wambukarangi@yahoo.co.uk OR wambuka.rangi@out.ac.tz

Abstract

The tourism industry is one of fast growing industry in Tanzania and is said to contributes 17.5 percent of Tanzania's gross domestic product in 2016 (Tanzania invest, 2017) and constitute 11.0 percent of the country's labor force (1,189,300 jobs) in 2013 (World Tourism and Travel Council 2013). However the performance of tourism industry in Tanzania has been depending much on the foreign tourists i.e. Domestic tourists in Tanzania are estimated at half a million a year with an annual growth rate of less than 5 percent, while close to 600 000 foreign tourists visited the country last year (Mbani, 2016). Despite of the measures taken by various relevant authorities such as TANAPA and TTB to promote domestic tourism in Tanzania, the sector is improving at sluggish motion. Therefore studying on the role of natives in the development of domestic tourism in Tanzania specifically in Morogoro is crucial as it will provide an insight on how the natives perceive the domestic tourism, challenges encounter domestic tourists and lasts being able to gather the natives's opinion on development of domestic tourism

This is qualitative study involving 24 respondents in a two focused group discussions created basing on age groups. The expected findings will provide the news ways to measures towards domestic industry improvement.

Keywords: Domestic tourism, Role, Natives

Background Information

Tourism industry is one of fast growing industry in Tanzania and is said to contributes 17.5 percent of Tanzania's gross domestic product in 2016 (Tanzania invest, 2017) and constitute 11.0 percent of the country's labor force (1,189,300 jobs) in 2013 (World Tourism and Travel Council 2013). The industry has also been contributing to employment, income and public revenue. However the performance of tourism industry in Tanzania has been depending much on the foreign tourist's i.e. International tourism which sometimes back fluctuate due to uncontrolled conditions. Recession of world economies in 1973 and 2008-2009, enormous increase in oil prices from 1973 and drought of 1974 are empirical evidence to these conditions. Other events are closure of Kenya - Tanzania border in 1977, the Uganda War of 1978/79, the September 11, 2001 attack to World (Salehe *et al*, 2011). Susceptible to poor tourism infrastructure

and bad press publicity. Intense competition for overseas tourists especially with other countries offering similar products like Kenya, South Africa and Uganda affects the tourism sector performance were other conditions that adverse contributed to drop of international tourism (Salehe *et al.*, 2011). These challenges towards international tourism industry draw attention to promoting domestic tourism as compliments to each other for success and sustainable tourism industry. In its inception the domestic tourism was negligible with local residents mainly visiting friends and relatives (Musonda, 2000) despite that, some can afford the park fees and may have time to travel around. For example, in year 2005, domestic tourism performance for Udzungwa Mountains National Park in the southern circuit of Tanzania represented only 23 % of the total tourist number (Alchard and Kamuzora, 2007). A shift of focus to domestic tourism development together with international development has been taken on board by relevant authorities such as TANAPA and Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) the development of domestic tourism has not been doing well. Domestic tourists in Tanzania are estimated at half a million a year with an annual growth rate of less than 5 percent, while close to 600 000 foreign tourists visited the country last year (Mbani, 2016).

Some research has been done on development of domestic industry absolute poverty make people unable to pay for leisure visits to tourist destinations, women still depend on men both financially and in decision making, both of which restrain their participation in visits to wildlife areas for leisure. It was also discovered that both government and tour operators' efforts have been biased toward supporting/encouraging international tourism (Salehe *et al.*, 2011). However the issue of role of native in promotion of domestic tourism has not been researched, this made the study to be crucial especially on how natives perceive the trends and prospects of domestic tourism in Tanzania and its challenges.

What is domestic tourism?

Domestic tourism is the tourism of residents within the economic territory of the country of reference (Hall and Lew, 2009). The term residents in tourism literature refers to host community (Chirikure *et al.*, 2010, Saarinen, 2010, Yang, 2012); local communities (Karambakuwa *et al.*, 2011, Dadvar-Khani, 2012); rural communities (Eusébio and Carneiro, 2012); hosting communities (Lima and 'Hauteserre, 2011); community (Lepp, 2008); and lastly hosts (Holmes *et al.*, 2010, Korstanje, 2011).

Who are Natives?

Ghimire (2013), conceptualise domestic tourism as native tourism. In developing countries the natives are not very active participants in tourism compared to non-indigenous people who migrated to these countries during colonial era (Hughes, 2010). Hinch (2004), define natives or indigenous people as communities, people and nations that share historical continuity with pre-

invasion and pre-colonial societies. In general, these are people who regard themselves as distinct from other sectors of societies now prevailing in those territories, or parts of them. At present, they form non-dominant sectors of society with a determination to preserve, develop and transmit to future generations their ancestral territories and ethnic identities as the bases of their continued existence as people in line with their cultural patterns, social institutions and legal systems.

Overview of Domestic Tourism Development Worldwide

During the past decade, tourism researchers have begun to discover the phenomenon of domestic tourism (Ghimire, 2001), especially in developing countries (Scheyvens, 2002,

In the European travel industry, domestic tourism is a valuable market, contributing more to GDP than international tourists. 23 percent of EU travelers participated in only domestic travel in 2015 and domestic travel industry expenditure is estimated to reach just fewer than 959 billion euros in 2017. Domestic travel refers to trips taken by environment, such as an overnight stay or as a day visit, tourists within their country of residence and outside their usual

Although many travel for business and work related reasons, domestic trips are generally taken for vacation, recreational and other leisure purposes. In Great Britain, domestic travel spending is highest for holidays and visiting friends or relatives, with over 55 million ‘staycations’ taken by British holidaymakers in 2016. Similarly in the Netherlands, the number of domestic holidays taken is almost as high as holidays abroad (STATISTA, 2017).

The prospects of domestic tourism in developed countries is of no comparison to developing countries because when developed countries are at the level of mass consumption and self-actualization, developing countries are at a take-off stage of development. This could have an impact on the scale of preference where activities like tourism are placed almost at the edge of preference list.

Consequently, domestic tourism in countries like USA where discussions about basic needs (i.e. food, clothing and shelter) is no longer on the agenda, accounts for about four to five times the international tourism (Honey, 1999).

Moreover, Sub-Sahara Africans have grown with elephants and lions around them. They have been witnessing since childhood crops being raided, livestock preyed on and their relatives being.

Prospects of Domestic Tourism in Tanzania

Tanzanian government and private sectors plays a great role in promoting domestic tourisms. Tanzania Tourists Board and the Tanzania National Parks

created special packages that will be affordable for Tanzanians. The Minister for Tourism and Natural Resources Professor Jumanne Maghembe once said that;

“We have been depending on foreign countries as sources of tourists, but we need to think about domestic tourists,”

His campaign aimed at encouraging travel agents to introduce low budget tour packages for domestic tourists and set out special accommodation rates during low seasons. He also focused on the move involving campaigns in schools, colleges and universities to scout new domestic tourists.

Challenges facing the development of Domestic Tourism

Salehe *et al.*, 2011 documented the following challenges towards development of domestic tourism in Tanzania; Low income of the people in Tanzania as over 80 % of Tanzanians depend entirely on subsistence agriculture and this limits many people in the country visit the national attractions. Poor promotion of domestic tourism especially to the local people makes them unaware of domestic tourism attractions (Daniel, 2003). The other two constraints, i.e. poor attitudes by local communities towards considering tourism as a form of recreation and source of revenue, and overall low conservation education among local communities, each accounting.

Anderson, who is among the members of the taskforce to find ways of promoting domestic tourism, says low levels of domestic visitors to tourist attractions is partly caused by stakeholders' concentration on foreign tourists.

“Most public institutions and private enterprises dealing with marketing of tourism, direct most of their efforts to international tourism markets,” she said.

Methodology

This is qualitative study involving 24 respondents in a two focused group discussions created basing on age groups, the first group comprises people from 18 year to 40 both females and males and the other group of > 40 years in Morogoro region. The region selection was based on the fact that the region is surrounded by natural attractions includes national parks, game reserves, Uluguru mountains and rivers with water falls e.t.c The responses from the discussion was recorded, transcribed, translated and sub grouped into themes and used (thematic analysis).

Discussion

Public awareness on Domestic tourism

Public awareness is about what people knows and explains the domestic tourism. The domestic tourism was explained well in discussion of both groups, as they mention the required key word like domestic attractions, paying visits

within our country. A good example of the definition from a thirty four years old young man defined as:

“Domestic tourism is about paying visits to our national attractions created by God present in some areas like visiting Mikumi national park and not about the people from outside visiting our country”

However the awareness of domestic tourism isn't the single issues to justify the awareness issues on the domestic tourism, it also includes the awareness on tourist's attractions like beach, wildlife safaris and mountain climbing (Batilinuho, 2017). It is in this study where it was revealed that 73.2% of teachers and education officers who haven't been able to participate in domestic tourism had inadequate awareness on the attractions.

This entails that the awareness issues into well covered as it doesn't contain enough information of domestic tourism. This was revealed by the respondents that there still a gap in information about tourists attractions as the advertise made do omit very important information which the costs of the tour. One of the possible cause of the gap could be the source of information about domestic tourism's attractions. They all agree on social media such twitter, instagram, twitter, Facebook and you tube as source of tourist attraction but few agree radio and TV as source of information and they even went further mentioning the channels like TBC in the “Kambi Popote” TV porgrmma, Star TV, ITV and clouds TV. The other respondent thirty one year's young girl mentioned school as a source of promoting domestic tourism.

“I started knowing there are tourist's attractions when I was studying in a primary school (STD 1-7)”

Socio cultural importance of domestic tourism

In this theme the respondent discussed their trips to diffent tourist's attractions such as Mikumi, SAADAN and national museum and there were few who could make any visits. The discussion went further on the important of domestic tourism in their sides and on the government side. Domestic tourism makes someone refreshed and relaxed was among the strongest argument and agreement. These findings concur with Pierret (2011) who documented that 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.

On top of that people gain a lot of information as lot. A fifty eight years old woman said.

“I have learnt a lot of issue such knowing the origin of the word SAADAN, It from an Arabian man who lived there long time ago had a watch with alarm, when the local people heard about alarm, they asked him what was it? He responded that “SAA DAN” wrongly misspelled Kiswahili word “SAA NDANI” means “There is a watch inside the house”

Praising Gods’ creation during domestic tourism was also discussed and emphasized by a a thirty one years old young woman,

“When I visited the national park, I saw lot of things that I don’t see of them like different animals, big trees etc. makes me praising God for his miracles”

Motivation to Domestic Tourism

In this theme, it was discussed how Tanzanian value the domestic attractions present in their county. Most of the respondents admit to value the domestic tourist’s attractions and be proud of their country. The interesting response was given by 38 years of woman as

“Yes I am proud of my country with a lot of tourists’ attraction of which makes us to lean and enjoy and government gain income out of them”, If foreigners from Europe and other places come in Tanzania to witness our natural attractions why not me who is living in Tanzania”

However the concern is that most of people in Tanzania don’t find domestic tourism as a recreational and entertainment to them, thus why they don’t take it seriously.

Barriers to native’s involvement in domestic tourism

The good number of respondents admitted to be aware of domestic tourism revealed to have once made a trip. They air out their thoughts on the challenges that prevail to the local people which prevent them from visiting the tourists’ attractions.

Low income was the barrier that prevent majority of the people from visiting the tourists attractions areas. On contrary to study done by Batilinuho, (2017) who found that among the teachers and education officers who never participated n tourism admitted to have limited disposable income

The reason was emphasized also by a thirty four years young man revealed that,

“Most of individuals people who are aware of this domestic tourisms, they always wish to visits but they cannot afford as they don’t earn much to support basic need and visits the attractions. As for me if it couldn’t have been a group trip, i couldn’t afford to go there”

The big issue arouse in the discussion about affordability was not on the entrance fee to the tourists attraction but it was on the transport to the national park and the touring cost around the parks (tour car). The cost of transport that is taking the tourist around the attraction doesn’t take into consideration of domestic tourists.

The awaked young lady of thirty one year’s raised an issue of accessibility of most of tourist’s actions such as national parks and game reserve contributing on the rise of transport fee.

“Most of game reserves and national parks cannot be easily reached is no reliable and cheap transport like, I real want to go to Selou game reserve but I don’t know how I will reach there”

Limited awareness of domestic tourism especially on the issue of costs required to visit the place serve as the barriers because most of local people has the notion of too much expensive as they see foreigners.

Local People’s Opinions in the improvement of Domestic tourism

The respondents were asked to air out their views on improvement of performance of domestic tourism. They emphasize on the improvement of awareness through various ways like advertisements and education programmer, so that to bring as many people as possible into the tourism. A forty 45 years old woman said

“I recommend for many attractive advertisements that will draw kid’s attention and make them interesting so that they can demand from their parents as you know kids have got conversing power.”

Local people requested the improvement of transport system to and from the tourists attraction site and even suggest the use of public transport that starts from the main bus stand like Msamvu that will fetch people to different destinations at the normal travel costs. This will reduce the transport costs to and from the attractions site and hence make a lot of people be involved in tourism.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The local people in Tanzania appreciate the presence of natural tourists’ attractions and even feel proud of their country as compared to other countries. Some of them admit to ever visit the attractions and real enjoyed. Other

admitted that they never visit but they plan to visit. However there are barriers needs to be address so that they make easy for them to visit. Such barriers includes; Missing or information gap especially on the issue of costs as many people still have the perception of higher costs. Most of the tourist's attractions are not easily accessed as they incur a lot of costs in transportation.

Government, NGOS and other stakeholders in tourism attraction should not ignore the challenges /barriers towards the development of tourism instead they come together and try to address them collectively for the betterment.

References

- Alchard, A. and Kamuzora, F. (2007). Domestic tourism as basis of sustainable competitive Tourism business in Tanzania: Case of Udzungwa Mountains National Park. *Uongozi Journal of Management and Development Dynamics*. www.uongozijournal.ac.tz/issue-9-2007.php]. Accessed on 8/12/2008
- Batilinuho, F. L., (2017). Assessment of Status and Prospect of Domestic Tourism in Schools in Tanzania in Arusha, Manyara, Dar-es-Salaam and Zanzibar. A Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism of the Open University of Tanzania
- Chirikure, S., Manyanga, M., Ndoro, W. & Pwiti, G. (2010). Unfulfilled promises? Heritage management and community participation at some of Africa's cultural heritage sites. *International Journal of Heritage Studies*, 16, 30-44.
- Saarinen, J. (2010). Local tourism awareness: Community views in Katutura and King Nehale conservancy, Namibia. *Development Southern Africa*, 27, 713-724
- Eusébio, C. A. & Carneiro, M. J. A. (2012). Determinants of tourist–host interactions: An analysis of the university student market. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 13, 123-151.
- Ghimire, K. B. (2013). *The native tourist: Mass tourism within developing countries*, Routledge.
- Holmes, K., Smith, K. A., Lockstone-Binney, L. & Baum, T. (2010). Developing the dimensions of tourism volunteering. *Leisure Sciences*, 32, 255-269.
- Ghimire (2013),
- Hughes, D. M. (2010). *Whiteness in Zimbabwe: Race, landscape, and the problem of belonging*, Palgrave Macmillan
- Karambakuwa, R. T., Shonhiwa, T., Murombo, L., Mauchi, F. N., Gopo, N. R., Denhere, W., Tafirei, F., Chingarande, A. & Mudavahu, V. (2011). The impact of Zimbabwe tourism authority initiatives on tourist arrivals in Zimbabwe (2008-2009). *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa*, 13, 68-77.
- Dadvar-Khani, F. (2012). Participation of rural community and tourism development in Iran. *Community Development*, 43, 259-277.

- Lima, I. B. & D'hauteserre, A.-M. (2011). Community capitals and ecotourism for enhancing Amazonian forest livelihoods. *Anatolia*, 22, 184-203. (Lepp, 2008);
- Musonda, F. M. (2000). Constraints and Opportunities for Development of Tourism Industry in Tanzania. World Bank Capacity Building Project, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. 14p
- Pierret, F. (2011). Some Points on Domestic Tourism Paper. Algiers, Algeria.
- Salehe. F., Modest, R., Mariki. S., Maganga. S. and Hassan. S. (l, 2011). Wildlife-based Domestic Tourism in Tanzania: experiences from Northern Tourist Circuit DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ejesm.v4i4.8>
- Yang, L. (2012). Impacts and challenges in agritourism development in Yunnan, China. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 9, 369-381.

Session 1c Innovation in Tourism

NEW MEDIA AND SOURCE MARKETS FOR DOMESTIC TOURISM IN TANZANIA: CASE OF SOUTHERN NATIONAL PARKS

Kezia H. Mkwizu
African Gifts,
kmkwizu@hotmail.com

Emmanuel Patroba Mhache, Harrieth G. Mtae, and Deus D.P. Ngaruko
The Open University of Tanzania,

Abstract

This paper analyses new media and source markets for domestic tourism. The specific objectives are to determine sources of domestic tourists, and establish the relationship between social media as a source of information to tourists and source markets for domestic tourists. This study was conducted in Southern National Parks in Tanzania namely Mikumi, Udzungwa and Ruaha. Data collected from 300 respondents were subjected to descriptive statistics and Chi-square test analysis. Findings showed that, Dar es Salaam, Morogoro, Mbeya and Arusha are the major sources of tourists for Mikumi National Park; Dar es Salaam, Morogoro and Tanga for Udzungwa National Park; and Iringa and Dar es Salaam for Ruaha National Park. The results proved no significant relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Mikumi and Ruaha National Parks while there is a statistically significant relationship between social media as a source of information for domestic tourists and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park. The outcome of this study can guide various stakeholders and policy makers in marketing activities and encourage social media as a new media of information in relation to source markets for the future of domestic tourism.

Keywords: new media, source markets, domestic tourism

Introduction

Tourism in Africa for the first four months of 2018 showed promising growth rate of 6% thus performing better than the Middle East (4%) and the Americas (3%) (UNWTO, 2018). Mustafa (2012) noted that development of tourism should have similar efforts to expand domestic tourism. Domestic tourism has a number of challenges including limited data (Mustafa, 2012). Recent scholars have also highlighted on the need to use media for domestic tourism (Al-Badi, Tarhini and Al-Sawaei, 2017; Mkwizu, 2017, 2018a, 2018b; Mkwizu, Matama

and Atuzarirwe, 2018; Mkwizu, Mhache, Mtae and Dominic, 2018; Roth-Cohen and Lahav, 2018).

Although people travelling domestically worldwide are more than international tourist arrivals, less is known about the source markets for domestic tourism. Various scholars and reports have focused on source markets for international tourism (Kazuzuru, 2014; National Bureau Statistics and Bank of Tanzania, 2017; Tanzania Tourist Board, 2017; UNWTO, 2018), and thus creating a knowledge gap on source markets for domestic tourism. There are even fewer studies that examine new media and source markets for domestic tourism. In bridging the literature gap, this paper analyses new media and source markets for domestic tourism. Specifically, this study determines source markets of domestic tourists, and establishes the relationship between social media as a source of information to domestic tourists visiting national parks and source markets for domestic tourists.

Literature Review

New Media

Generally, new media is defined as a result of progression from classical mass media to new online media (Rosa, 2012). New media is a concept which refers to social media or digital media like digital television (Ghosh, 2016). For purposes of this paper, new media is social media.

Source Markets

Source markets as a terminology in tourism is mainly associated with international tourism, for example, inbound tourism revenue per visitor by source market is one of the core indicators of tourism competitiveness (Dupeyras and MacCallum, 2013). The paper by Dupeyras and MacCallum (2013) further highlights that the range of source markets provides valuable information on strength in growth or declining markets to alert policy makers on the relative strengths, weaknesses and future actions.

In Tanzania, according to the National Bureau of Statistics and Bank of Tanzania (2017), the top 15 source markets for international tourism by percentage are Kenya (18.2%), USA (6.8%), India (5.4%), UK (5.3%), Burundi (4.9%), Germany (4.5%), Italy (3.9%), Rwanda (3.7%), South Africa (3.4%), Uganda (2.9%), China (2.7%), Zambia (2.2%), France (1.9%), Dutch (1.9%) and Israel (1.8%). However, while there is statistics on market share for international tourists by showing source market percentage for international tourists arriving in Tanzania, there is no statistics on source markets for domestic tourists arriving in Tanzania's national parks.

Therefore, for purposes of this paper, source markets as a concept is associated with domestic tourism. Furthermore, in this paper, the concept of source market

refers to source markets by percentage for domestic tourists arriving in Tanzania's national parks.

Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework for this paper is guided by economics of information theory originated by Stigler in 1961. Economics of information theory puts emphasis on information to the consumer particularly conveying information to consumers (Bagwell, 2005). Hence, economics of information theory is concerned with the variables of information and consumer. Stigler (1961) advocated for advertising information to the concept of price dispersion. Further development of economics of information theory is noted in a study by Kronenberg et al. (2015) that examined information in terms of advertising expenditures in relation to a destination based on international tourists of the sending countries.

Therefore, this paper adopts economics of information theory in examining information in terms of social media as source of information in connection to the concept of source markets for domestic tourists visiting national parks. Hence, this paper argues that there is a significant relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting national parks.

Empirical Literature Review

In tourism studies, the use of new media or digital media such as social media in marketing destinations has been documented by previous scholars (Sahin and Sengun, 2015; Mukherjee and Nagabhushanam, 2016; Tafveez, 2017; Icoz, Kutuk and Icoz, 2018). For example, Sahin and Sengu (2015) advocate that national and international tourism sector should apply developments in the field of media to its marketing activities. In connecting media to tourism, the study by Sahin and Sengun (2015) conducted in Turkey concentrated on the importance of social media in tourism marketing. The use of quantitative survey analysis showed that in Turkey, social media has both positive and negative influences in the tourism sector whereby 33.8% of the surveyed respondents used social media to share information. An example of a positive influence is positive comments about a destination shared on social media whereas the negative influence in the tourism sector is the negative reviews of a destination.

Further literature by Tafveez (2017) investigated on the role of social media in tourism. Tafveez (2017) used a literature review methodological approach and findings suggested that social media plays a significant role in tourism however, most researches focused on the positive side of social media. On the other hand, Icoz et al. (2018) argued that social media influenced decision-making process of consumers in Turkey. Analysis of results using structural equation modelling revealed that for the most of respondents who had university

education (64.2%) and use social media (24.7%), there is a statistically significant relationship between knowledge about tourism and customers' intention to share experiences. Whereas these studies (Tafveez, 2017; Icoz et al., 2018) concentrated on media and decision processes as well as share experiences, this paper focuses on new media in particular social media and source markets for domestic tourism.

Research in Africa on social media and tourism is evident mostly in South Africa (Matikiti, Mpinganjira and Roberts-Lombard, 2016, 2017; Mhlanga and Tichaawa, 2017). The research by Mhlanga and Tichaawa (2017) determined the influence of social media on customers' experiences in restaurants with t-test results indicating that there were no significant differences in means of customers' experiences in restaurants and social media usage. However, there were significant differences between types of social media such as Facebook and customers' experiences in restaurants for food, beverages, service, ambience level and overall experiences. Another study Matikiti et al. (2017) in South Africa examined social media and tourism by investigating social media marketing by travel agencies and tour operators.

In Tanzania, a lot of efforts are made by tourism authorities to use social media for tourism information to tourists as shown on websites, for example, by Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA) website where tourists are directed to social media links like Facebook for further information about national parks (TANAPA, 2019). Literature on social media and tourism exists but limited. For instance, Mkumbo (2017) explored social media and tourism with main focus on social media and co-creation.

In synthesizing the empirical literature reviewed on social media and tourism, it is clear that the concepts of social media and tourism are documented in studies and reports with most research dealing with international tourists, decision-making process, customer's intention to share experiences, customers' experiences in restaurants, travel agencies, tour operators and co-creation (Matikiti et al., 2017; Mhlanga and Tichaawa, 2017; Mkumbo, 2017; Tafveez, 2017; Icoz et al., 2018). Therefore, to fill the literature gap, this paper is interested in analysing the concepts of new media and source markets for domestic tourism.

Conceptual Framework

The economics of information theory and empirical literature review guided the development of the conceptual framework for this paper. Therefore, Figure 1 shows the independent variable as new media and the dependent variable as source markets. The H1 tests the relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting national parks.

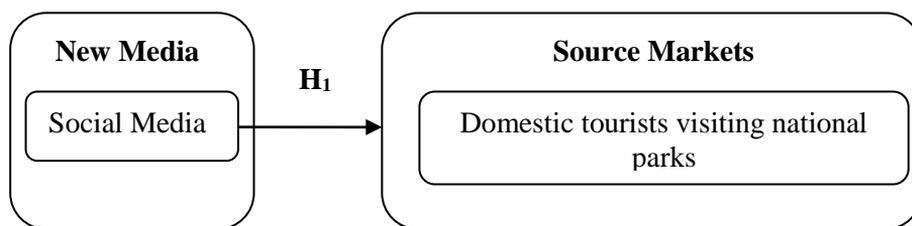


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Methodology

Southern Tanzania is the study area for this paper and the selected national parks due to the tourism potential are Mikumi, Udzungwa, and Ruaha. A cross-sectional design with a quantitative approach was used to test the relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting national parks. Unit of analysis is domestic tourists. Stratified random sampling technique was used due to national parks being in different geographical locations of Morogoro and Iringa. Domestic tourists were selected randomly during data collection. Previous study by Mungai (2011) assisted this paper to adopt and customise media items to measure how domestic tourists source information about national parks. On the other hand, source markets were measured using residence of domestic tourists visiting national parks. Data collection was carried out in December 2014 to January 2015. Descriptive statistics and chi-square test were used to analyse data from 300 respondents.

Findings and Discussions

The findings for characteristics of respondents in Table 1 indicated that on age distribution, the majority of respondents (42%) were between 26 and 35 years with 68.3% being male. The income distribution showed that most respondents earned monthly income of above 300,000 TZS (41.6%) with university education (37.3%) and use social media as a source of information about national parks (27.7%). The results suggest that majority of domestic tourists who visited the selected national parks were mainly middle aged males, earn monthly income above 300,000 TZS, educated and use social media. Therefore, the percentage of social media as a source of information is low and this is due to social media which is still a new media for tourism purposes in the context of Tanzania's domestic tourists visiting Mikumi, Udzungwa and Ruaha national parks.

The findings of this study differ from a study by Icoz et al. (2018) which was conducted in Turkey. The difference is mostly noted in the use of social media whereby in Tanzania, it is slightly higher than Turkey and this is because the

respondents are not from the same geographical area with varying preferences when it comes to sources of information for tourism purposes.

Table 1: Respondents Characteristics (n=300)

Characteristics	Percent (%)
Age of Respondents	
Below 18	4.3
18-25	34.3
26-35	42.0
Above 35	19.4
Gender	
Male	68.3
Female	31.7
Monthly Income	
No income	26.7
Below 300,000 TZS	31.7
Above 300,000 TZS	41.6
Education Level of Respondent	
Primary education	7.0
Secondary education	25.7
College	30.0
University	37.3
Social Media	
Not Social Media	72.3
Social Media	27.7

Source: Field data (2014, 2015)

The descriptive statistics for source market distribution in Table 2 reveal that the major source markets for Mikumi National Park are Dar es Salaam (47%), Morogoro (30%), Mbeya (6%) and Arusha (4%); for Udzungwa National Park, the major source markets are Dar es Salaam (54%), Morogoro (27%) and Tanga (11%); and for Ruaha National Park, the major source markets are Iringa (75%) and Dar es Salaam (30%). The results imply that the main source market for Mikumi and Udzungwa National Parks is Dar es Salaam while for Ruaha National Park it is Iringa, and this is due to proximity of the national parks being near to the respective regions.

This further implies that marketing for domestic tourism be maintained for Dar es Salaam and Iringa because these are the largest source markets that contribute domestic tourist arrivals to the selected southern national parks. Other source markets such as Arusha, Bukoba, Dodoma and Zanzibar require more marketing efforts so as to increase domestic tourist arrivals from these unexplored markets.

Table 2: Source Markets for Mikumi, Udzungwa and Ruaha National Parks

Source Market	Mikumi National Park (%)	Udzungwa National Park (%)	Ruaha National Park (%)
Dar es Salaam	47	54	20
Morogoro	30	27	3
Iringa	1	4	75
Tanga	3	11	0
Dodoma	2	1	2
Mbeya	6	0	0
Bukoba	1	0	0
Kilimanjaro	3	0	0
Zanzibar	1	0	0
Kagera	1	0	0
Arusha	4	1	0
Lindi	1	1	0
Shinyanga	0	1	0

Source: Field data (2014, 2015)

Table 3 indicate that there is no statistically significant relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Mikumi and Ruaha National Parks respectively ($p=0.156$, $p= 0.091$) while there is a statistically significant relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park ($p=0.000$) and the significance is above small to moderate effect ($\Phi= 0.561$, Cramer's $V=0.561$). This means that social media as source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park are dependent on each other.

Table 3: Chi-square Test, Phi and Cramer's V test for Social Media as source of information and source markets

Mikumi National Park	Value	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	15.658a	0.156
Phi	0.395	0.156
Cramer's	0.395	0.156
Udzungwa National Park		
Pearson Chi-Square	31.432a	0.000
Phi	0.561	0.000
Cramer's	0.561	0.000
Ruaha National Park		
Pearson Chi-Square	6.471a	0.091
Phi	0.254	0.091
Cramer's	0.254	0.091

Source: Field data (2014, 2015)

Conclusion, Implications and Recommendations

The major source markets for Mikumi National Park are Dar es Salaam, Morogoro and Mbeya; Udzungwa National Park are Dar es Salaam, Morogoro and Tanga while for Ruaha National Park are Iringa and Dar es Salaam. The relationship between social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Mikumi and Ruaha National Parks is not significant while there is a statistically significant relationship between social media as a source of information for domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park.

Implications are that the significant results extends the application of economics of information theory in the context of social media as a source of information and source markets for domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park in Tanzania. This study recommends stakeholders and policy makers in marketing activities to encourage social media as a new media of information in relation to source markets for the future of domestic tourism. Future researchers can conduct a similar study in other national parks of Tanzania.

References

- Al-Badi, A., Tarhini, A., and Al-Sawaei, S. (2017). Utilizing social media to encourage domestic tourism in Oman. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 12(4): 84-94.
- Bagwell, K. (2005). The economic analysis of advertising. Retrieved from https://academiccommons.columbia.edu/download/fedora/content/download/ac:115356/CONTENT/econ_0506_01.pdf
- Dupeyras, A., and MacCallum, N. (2013). Indicators for measuring competitiveness in Tourism: A guidance document. *OECD Tourism Papers* 2013/02. 65. Retrieved from <https://www.oecd.org/cfe/tourism/Indicators%20for%20Measuring%20Competitiveness%20in%20Tourism.pdf>
- Ghosh, S. (2016). Change in marketing strategies due to new media. *The International Journal of Business and Management*, 4(5): 376-386.
- Icoz, O., Kutuk, A., and Icoz, O. (2018). Social media and consumer buying decisions in tourism: The case of Turkey. *Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural*, 16(4): 1051-1066.
- Kazuzuru, B. (2014). History, performance and challenges of tourism industry in Tanzania. *International Journal of Business and Social Sciences*, 5(11): 120-131.
- Kronenberg, K., Fuchs, M., Salman, K., Lexhagen, M., and Hopken, W. (2015). Economic effects of advertising expenditure – a Swedish destination study of international tourists. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 16(4): 352-374.
- Matikiti, R., Roberts-Lombard, M., and Mpinganjira, M. (2016). Examining social media marketing performance: A focus on travel agencies and

- tour operators in South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(2): 1-16.
- Matikiti, R., Mpinganjira, M., and Roberts-Lombard, M. (2017). Social media in tourism: Establishing factors influencing attitudes towards the usage of social networking sites for trip organisation. *Acta-Commerci-Independent Research Journal in the Management Sciences*, 17(1): 1-13.
- Mhlanga, O., and Tichaawa, T.M. (2017). Influence of social media on customer experiences in restaurants: A South African study. *Tourism*, 65(1): 45-60.
- Mkumbo, P. (2017). The use of social media as tools for co-creation of tourist experiences in safari destinations. *Proceedings of the 10th ATLAS Africa Conference*. Eldoret, Kenya. pp. 100
- Mkwizu, K.H.M. (2017). Influence of media and income on domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa National Park, Tanzania. *Proceedings of the 10th ATLAS Africa Conference*. Eldoret, Kenya. pp. 100
- Mkwizu, K.H. (2018a). Business Intelligence in Tourism: Analysis of knowledge based TV programs on national parks and education of domestic tourists in Tanzania. *Proceedings of the 78th Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management; for Professional Development Workshop (PDW) by Africa Academy of Management (AFAM)*, Chicago, Illinois, USA.
- Mkwizu, K.H.M. (2018b). Analysis of sources of information and income of domestic tourists to national parks in Tanzania. *ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review*, 2018(2): 28-43.
- Mkwizu, K.H., Matama, R., and Atuzarirwe, C. (2018). Media and Education: Domestic Tourists' Perspective. *Proceedings of the 14th AGBA Conference*. Eldoret, Kenya. pp. 1462
- Mkwizu, K.H., Mhache, E.P., Mtae, H.G., and Dominic, T. (2018). Tourism and Logistics of Tourist Destination: Do TV programs matter? Domestic Tourists' Point of View. *Proceedings of the 1st African Conference on Supply Chain and Operations Management*. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. pp. 24
- Mukherjee, A., and Nagabhushanam, M. (2016). Role of social media in tourism marketing. *International Journal of Science and Research*, 5(6): 2026-2033.
- Mungai, G. (2011). Tourism marketing Masai Mara national reserve. (Bachelor thesis). Retrieved from http://www.theseus.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/33139/Mungai_George.pdf?sequence=1
- Mustafa, M.H. (2012). Improving the Contribution of Domestic Tourism to the Economy of Jordan. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 8(2): 49-61.

- National Bureau of Statistics and Bank of Tanzania. (2017). The 2016 International Visitors' Exit Survey Report. 78. Retrieved from https://www.nbs.go.tz/nbs/takwimu/trade/The2016_International%20_Visitors'_Exit_Survey_Report.pdf
- Rosa, A.M. (2012). From mass communication to new media: a network perspective. *Observatorio Journal*, 6(3): 145-176.
- Roth-Cohen, O., and Lahav, T. (2018). Going undercover: Online domestic tourism marketing communication in closed and open groups. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*. Retrieved from <https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/1356766718796054>
- Sahin, G.G., and Sengun, G. (2015). The effects of social media on tourism marketing: A study among University students. *Management and Administrative Sciences Review*, 4(5): 772-786.
- Stigler, G.J. (1961). The economics of information. *Journal of Political Economy*, 69: 213-225. Retrieved from <http://jstor.org/stable/1829263>
- Tafveez, M. (2017). Role of social media in tourism: A literature review. *International Journal for Research in Applied Science and Engineering Technology*, 5(11): 633-635.
- Tanzania National Parks. (2019). Retrieved from <http://www.tanzaniaparks.go.tz/>
- Tanzania Tourist Board. (2017). Corporate Strategic Plan 2017/2018 – 2020/22. 58. Retrieved from http://www.tanzaniatouristboard.go.tz/news/Documents/ICT_strategic_plan.pdf
- UNWTO. (2018). World Tourism Barometer. 12. Retrieved from https://www.seco.admin.ch/dam/seco/de/dokumente/Standortfoerderung/Tourismus/Newsletter/Newsletter%2015/Barometer.pdf.download.pdf/UNWTO_Barom18_03_June_Statistical_Annex_en.pdf

UNEXPLORED TOURIST SITES IN TANZANIA: EXPERIENCE OF MBEYA AND SONGWE REGIONS

Emmanuel M. Tonya, and Matilda Lameck
The Open University of Tanzania
Emmanuel.tonya@out.ac.tz

Abstract

The objectives of the paper are to inform the public about the tourist sites in Tanzania with a special focus in Mbeya and Songwe regions, and analysing the factors that hinder fully deployment of the available tourists' sites in the regions. The methodology of this paper was an exploratory paper, where government officers and indigenous leaders visited and interviewed on what they know about tourist sites. An interview method was employed. The result of the study shows that Mbeya and Songwe regions of the southern highlands of Tanzania are rich of many tourist sites. However, the sites have not fully explored. The results also show that despite flimsy implementation, the tourism policy in Tanzania is outdated and holds the conflicting statement on the distinctive roles of local government and the central government in managing tourism activities. The paper recommends that since tourism is more 'locally specific', the role of local government should be well stated and acknowledged. The local government should prepare by-laws in line with the Tourism law and policy to support sector development. The paper concludes to the government to review the tourism policy to align with the current needs and address all the prevailing shortfalls.

Keywords: Tourism; tourist sites; ritual ceremony

Introduction

Tourism has boomed into economic setups of the world in recent years in regard to its significant role in stimulating economic development and international communication (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). The role played by tourism sector accounts for stimulation of consumption, promotion of trade and enhanced internationalization. The travel and tourism industry is one of the world's largest industries with a global economic contribution (direct, indirect and induced) of over 7.6 trillion U.S. dollars in 2016 (STCRC, 2014; Camilleri, 2018). Many countries put weight in tourism and its economic effects; however, the tourism sector on the influence of environment should not be overlooked (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). It is argued that tourism sector to flourish there is a need for environmental protection as the sector depends on land; hence to be sustainable, tourism needs careful environmental management. This is a concept that, all the stakeholders of the Tourism sector should benefit from the sector for long (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). Environmental protection is known as

sustainable tourism. Sustainable tourism is the development of the sector that can meet the demands of both tourists and host community whilst preventing and improving opportunities for future developments. Also, sustainable tourism is the respect of local people and the travellers, cultural heritage and the environment. Sustainable tourism seeks to provide exciting and educational that benefits to the people of the host area (STCRC, 2014).

In Tanzania, tourism sector benefits everyone, ranging from Government and community at large. The tourism policy has vested the management of tourism to the local government (Turner & Freiermuth, 2017). The local government is mandated to make sure the tourism benefits all the residents in terms of development. The argument is that tourism can be important in regional areas as the diversified in areas of the economic base and expand the employment market. In a broadest sense, if the local government explores all the opportunities from tourism, the development can be enhanced for improved livelihood (Dian-Yulie, 2014). Local government has the role to develop tourism in their areas, the roles include identification, planning, and execution of plans meant for economic, cultural and social development of people. The question which is unanswered in Tanzania is how the local government plays its role in identifying, planning and developing tourist sites for the purpose of tourism for community development?

Tourism is everyone's business that is everyone can gain from properly managed tourism (Turner & Freiermuth, 2017). In Mbeya and Songwe regions, the majority do not gain from available tourism God-given endowments. In Mbeya and Songwe there are several sites for tourism which are not explored for tourism. The sites include, walking tourism, travels, cultural entertainments, traditional foods, hot spring water, farming, metrological sites and the like. These sites of tourism have been categorized in sectors, accommodation, adventure tourism, and recreation, events, and conferences, food, and beverage, transportation and services (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018). The need for proper planning for tourism site is important as it can solve several development challenges.

Sustainable Tourism and practice

Sustainability of tourism sector depends on proper planning for the tourism development in southern highlands, Mbeya and Songwe inclusive. For the sustainability of tourism include issues strategic tourism planning for sustainable sites. Reider (2012) developed a sustainable tourism destination model.

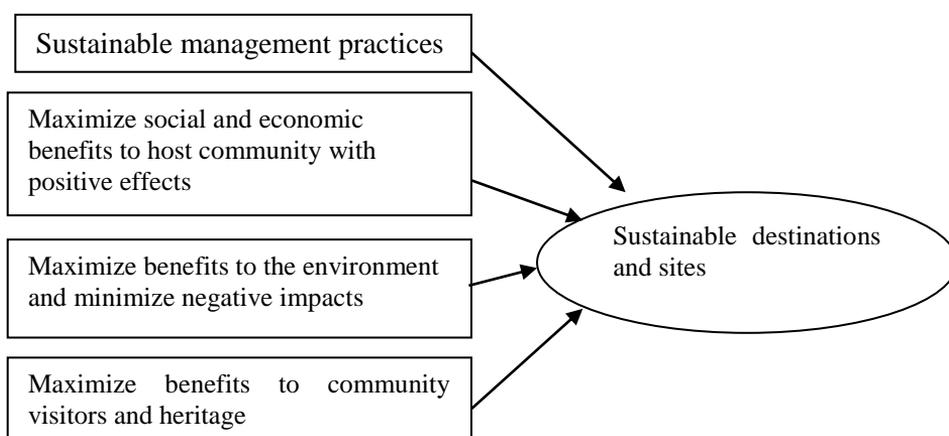


Figure 1: Sustainable Tourism Sites

Source: Reider (2012) Strategic Tourism Planning for Sustainable Destination/sites

The variables to be considered for strategic tourism sustainability includes and not limited to, consideration on local economic benefits, local operation management, heritage protection, natural and cultural conservations, grassroots democracy and community participation (Mitekaro, 2016). It is argued that for tourism to be sustainable, a community participation approach has long been advocated as an integral part of sustainable tourism development (Mitekaro, 2016). It is also envisaged that the approach can increase a community's carrying capacity by reducing tourism's negative impacts while enhancing its positive effects. (Connell, 1997), argued that participation is not only about achieving the more efficient and more equitable distribution of material resources: it is all about the sharing of knowledge and the transformation of the process of learning itself in the service of people's self-development. (Reider, 2012), commented that, the purpose of participation is power redistribution; thereby enabling society to fairly redistribute benefits and costs (Reider, 2012). In the context of tourism planning, participation is defined as community involvement in all process with stakeholders (Godwin, 2011). The involvement of all stakeholders in planning for tourism, the community base theory has proved that, the community is active participated just from the identification to the level of sharing gains.

Community- Base Theory (CBT) is very popular for sustainable tourism development, has been both positively and negatively reviewed (Goodwin, 2011). This theory has its challenges, as some studies noted, for instance, find that the revenues gained from CBT are relatively small and sometimes very little revenue is granted which does not meet the communities' needs.

This study therefore based on community-based tourism theory. Community-based tourism theory (CBT) states that, local community involvement in planning and maintenance of tourism development in order to develop sustainable tourism (Mitekaro, 2016; Hatton, 1999). Tourism planning is often done without local community involvement at the outset (Harrison, 2008). Many tourism projects are prepared by professionals or managers without input from the local community. Community-based tourism theory is often recognised as a perfect example of sustainable tourism development (Mitekaro, 2016).

Tourism in Mbeya and Songwe

In Mbeya and Songwe the available attractions have been left to the local community for security and usage to the final stages of management. However, the local communities often fail to get support as the local government does not meet community needs or values. In addition, many social groups within the local community often feel helpless and frustrated they are not sure whether their concerns on attractions are addressed at any point of the development planning process.

The question of whether the local communities within or adjacent to the tourist attraction areas are economically benefitting from the tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe.

There are debates in different forums during local meetings on how the attractions benefit the local community. The responsible sector seems to be reluctant planning for development on the allegation that, indigenous leaders have taken the attraction for their activities.

Reider (2012) noted the key indicators of sustainable destinations have four dimensions as sustainable management plan in place, compliance with international and national standards, periodic update training of management personnel and visitors satisfaction. There are issues for corrective actions, promotional materials are accurate and do not oversell and compliance with land use and respect heritage. It is important again that information and interpretation facilities are provided to both the local community and the stakeholders (Reider, 2012).

It is argued that planning for sustainable tourism at any stage should focus on participatory planning with the community, local residents and be given priority in employment (Frempong & Asamoah, 2014; Igiha, 2013). The planning of local people and involve them in possible employment ensures ownership of the sites by the residents (Reider, 2012). Planning at the local government role, therefore, includes the development of local entrepreneurs who can sell goods and services to tourism industry; however, the local government provides protection and security of the site and the people (Hall & Lew, 2009).

Given the potentials that the regions have in terms of a tourist attraction, the tourism industry can grow even further only when right steps being taken. Specifically, there is a need for identification be done that can promote tourism planning. There is a need to figure out the challenges needed to be overcome for the identification and development of destinations. The main challenges of tourism management in Tanzania include inadequate skilled manpower and expertise in tourism management and hospitality industry (Kikwete, 2012).

In Mbeya and Songwe, skilled manpower and experts would transform the existing potential of the regions into meaningful economic gains that are needed for livelihood development. The regions have natural beauty and all imaginable tourist attractions, but lacking appropriate expertise to exploit that potential of the regions for its people to enjoy the fruits of potentials tourist attractions. Another challenge is the lack of adequate supportive physical and institutional infrastructure to promote tourism in the regions. The physical connectivity in terms of roads, air, communications are not well developed and in some places poor or non-existent (Kikwete, 2012; Camilleri, 2018).

Regarding the inadequate supportive institutional framework, there is a need to work together between local government and the central government to create strong domestic and regional institutions that would promote tourism in its totality. The promotion of the Mbeya and Songwe regions as a common destination/site is one matter that would need utmost attention. For a better promotion of the tourism sites in Mbeya and Songwe regions, there is a need to identify the sites, make planning in participatory management. The problem with the regions is the local government have not explored the potential sites and or some identified sites are not developed to gain the community. The local government is losing much in terms of taxes from practitioners.

The aim of this paper is to inform the public on potential tourist destinations available in Mbeya and Songwe regions in Tanzania. The objective of the study was to explore the potential tourist sites/destinations found in Mbeya and Songwe regions for the purpose of local government planning and implementing strategic plans for developing the tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe. Some of the tourism has not been known or developed due to several factors including poor community participation, budgetary issues, and policy framework (Melubo, 2017). At this juncture, it is important to make a simple review of the Tanzania National Tourism Policy.

National Tourism Policy review

National Tourism policy is a statement guiding principles and goals in addressing a certain issue (Mattee, 2007). It is the policy statement that earmarks the potentials for tourism, perceived constraints, strategies for its development as well as its sustainability (Liasidou, 2017). The policy statement,

in other words, is a milestone for the tourism industry; without policy, the tourism industry is vulnerable. It means the whole process of government participation in planning, developing, organizing and monitoring the tourism industry (Liasidou, 2017; Mattee, 2007). To investigate the unexplored tourism sites in Mbeya and Songwe without considering the policy framework would limit understanding of the subject. The reason hinges on the fact that the success of the tourism industry, inter alia, relies on policy agenda (Can, Alaeddinoglu, & Turker, 2014). Tourism policy framework goes with the societies participatory if one wants proper implementation (Liasidou, 2017; Mattee, 2007).

History of tourism in Tanzania

It is no wonder that the tourism policies of the colonialists, both Germany and British, were aimed to serve the interests of westerners (Lwoga, 2013; Anderson, et al., 2017). Anderson, et al., (2017) noted that the colonial era, promoted leisure and hunting tourism however, the involvement of natives in tourism was restricted. In spite of the colonial economic policies inherited and implemented by the independence government. After Ujamaa Policy, on the National Tourism policies of 1991 and 1999 are the manifest of post-colonial government. The policy of socialism proclaimed under the Arusha Declaration shaped the tourism industry from 1967 to 1983 (Anderson, et al 2017), the policy vested by the overall tourism management under the government control. The government played the dual role as developer and promoter of tourism (Anderson, et al 2017; (Lwoga, 2013). The trend changed with the adoption of a market economy in 1980s (UNWT, 2010); URT, 1996; URT, 1999). The private sector emerged and assumed an important role in the economy through the provision of tourism services. During this era, the private sector replaced the role of government as an engine of economic development. The changes in the World economic set up changed the Tourism industry (Anderson et al., 2017; Laizae & Toma, 2009). For the regard of globalisation and the World economic changes, the National Tourism Policy was formulated in 1991 and revised in 1999 (Laizar & Toma, 2009).

Tanzania Tourism policy Implementation and strategies

Policy statement often starts with problems that need policy consideration for its redress (Mattee, 2007). The National Tourism Policy equally presents the constraints and limitations from the outset. The policy mentions insufficient exploitation of tourism industry as the main challenge (URT, 1999). The tourism policy further provides other constraints for development like poor marketing of products, poor infrastructure, weak link between regional and international tourist, specialized and skilled personnel scarce, little awareness and participation of local communities, and investment opportunities deficits. In order to address these problems, the objectives and strategies of the policy were designed. The National Tourism policy aims at promoting sound economy

centred on the welfare of the people particularly poverty alleviation (Anderson et al., 2011; Mattee, 2007, Hummel et al., 2018).

The policy makes clear that Tanzania is endowed with a vast and diversifies tourism potentials (URT, 1999); however, they have not been adequately explored. The few explored suffer from homogeneity (Lwoga, 2013). In Tanzania the tourism industry, only the wildlife tourism dominates other potentials. To address the challenge, the National Tourism Policy is determined to create new products and enhancing the existing. The policy further identified the needs of infrastructure and effective regulatory framework that makes the product available and accessible by considering the customer needs. Therefore, the policy needs strategies to address the constraints and implement the objectives. Without strategies, the policy is dormant. The National Tourism Policy needs strategic plans to explore the tourism potentials for the benefit of the local government, central government and the community at large.

National Policy Challenges

There is a need for tourism to be effective and improve the participation of the local community and yields a successful industry. Through a partnership with the local authority, the industry is assured with the development of diversified and sustainable tourism products; proper plan and strategies; political stability and security (Can, Alaeddinoglu, & Turker, 2014). This is partly guaranteed through tourism policy statement prepared by the local authority as by-laws. In Tanzania, this is possible through the Local Government Act of 1982 and the Regional Authorities Act of 1997 for sustainable tourism. To reach this conclusion, the plan for tourism at the local level some strategies holds; improving knowledge about tourism, attracting investment capital, enhancing and expanding the tourism product, improving security and service standards (OECD, 2013). Yet, the multidimensional nature of the tourism industry hinders smooth implementation of the tourism policy and plans (Liasidou, 2017). The policy is pointed as outdated hence unfit to the contemporarily working of tourism business. A lot of changes and transformation have occurred, national wide and internationally, since the adoption of the National Tourism Policy, a need for improvement is inevitable.

Methodology

The methodology of this study is a qualitative exploration is based on the interview. The interviewees have been purposively selected from central government, the office of the Regional Administrative Secretary. Data collected from the offices responsible for natural resources and tourism in (Rungwe) Mbeya and Songwe (Mbozi). The interview was extended and contacted to two offices of the district councils for Mbozi and Rungwe. For the purpose of understanding the uses of tourist sites in the Mbozi and Rungwe district councils, two traditional chiefs were interviewed. The selection of the two

councils is based on having several God-given sites and they are used by traditional chiefs for rituals and home uses. Data have been narratively analysed to give information. The information compiled giving useful information for what the sites have been used for the past decades and proposes for the way forward.

Findings and Discussion

The study examined the tourist sites in the southern regions of Tanzania specifically Mbeya and Songwe regions. Both field and documentary review conducted intended to attest the hypotheses that despite southern regions being endowed with many tourist resources, the northern circuit dominates tourism industry in Tanzania. Basing on the study objectives, the findings are narrated into three parts. Part one describes the tourist sites that locate in these regions. Part two reveals the status of the stated sites for tourist attraction and their current uses. Part three discusses factors that hinder tourist attraction to the stated sites.

Tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe

Tourism as a business presupposes some products for consumption (Godwin, 2011). And tourist sites are the products. The term site in tourism is closely related with the term destination and often used synonymously (Stange & Brown, 2013). They refer to nothing but a place for tourist attractions. However, while tourism destination is clothed with attributes of being the oldest and wide term to cater for sites, zones, regions, country, group of countries and so forth; tourism site is rather a modern term that refers to a particular single tourist attraction. The study considered and deliberated on tourist sites in Songwe and Mbeya regions particularly in the district of Mbozi and Rungwe respectively. Songwe region is blessed with many tourist sites as stated by both governmental officers and traditional leaders. From Mbozi district, an interview with some government officers registered a number of sites that includes Kimondo meteorite site in Ndolezi village, Hot water spring in Nanyala village, bat curves, Black and white Collables (Mbega) in Idiwili hamlet, Germany curves in Ihanda, Ndolezi hanging like stone in Mbozi mission, cultural and tradition dances, traditional fire preparation and some roots food.

Along with the list from government officers, findings from the interviewed traditional leaders in Mbozi district recorded a number of sites found in the area. Nzunda Tunduwanga (chief) mentioned tourism products like Saala River from a lock to Vvawa River, Forest reserve in Ilembu (snakes, baboons and small fauna) and traditional medicine, traditional dances, traditional meals, and traditional languages. On the side of Mwashuuya Mlima Ng'amba (chief) mentioned sites like Mlima Ng'amba the tallest mountain in Mbozi district, Kinaka traditional meal like prepared from roots, cultural dance during traditional prayers stated.

Data from Mbeya also confirmed the hypothesis that the region is gifted with resources potential for tourist attraction. Field research to Rungwe district had a supportive observation. An interview with the district tourism officer working together with the district cultural officer enlisted the available and identified tourism sites, namely, Rungwe Mountain Nature Reserve (animals like a rare type of Monkey named kipunji, crater lakes inside the reserve like Ngiombe and Lusiba, source of rivers like Kiwira, Mbaka, Kipoke etc, traditional medicine and prayers). Volcanic Lakes (Ngozi within Mporoto forest, Kisiba in Masoko, Ndwati in number one village. Others are such as Ikapu, Itamba, Chungululu, Asoko, Ilamba, Kingili, Katumbwi, and Itende). Waterfalls (Kapiki waterfalls, and Kapologwe Falls that flow water into River Kiwila). Pothole (Kijungu) and God's bridge found in Lufingo ward. Mvule tree named Katembo in Masoko (oldest tree of more than 500 years, used for traditional medicine and prayers). Historical sites like German old administrative offices and graves in Masoko.

History of Lungwe plant and the word 'Tukuyu' Traditional dances (Ing'oma, Ipenenge etc)

Again the local traditional leaders in Rungwe district were targeted. While Joel Mwakatumbula (chief) was cited as potential to the sites found in Kisiba ward including Kisiba crater lake and German forty; Lusajo Frank Mahese (chief) interviewed and identified sites found in his area which are Hot pole (Kijungu) and God's bridge within Kiwila river; Historical sites (Isyeto, Ndanyelite Lukomu, and Nyifwila). At this point, there is no doubt that the regions of Mbeya and Songwe are endowed with lots of tourist sites that are potential for tourist attraction. However, to what extent the sites have been developed for the attraction of tourists? The question transpires.

Development of Tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe Regions

Both documentary review and field research showed tourist sites being largely undeveloped in Mbeya and Songwe regions. Some essentials of a developed tourist site maintained in literature have been used for this assessment. For instance, Jamen-Verbeke (2005) argues that a tourist product needs to be transformed or touristified into being accessible, transparent and attractive for tourist. (Ngirwa & Kankhuni, 2018) maintain that the development of sites for tourism is the subject of four 'A's': accommodation, accessibility, attraction, and amenities. Further, Baker (2008) mentions some basic features of a steady tourist site: constantly attractive, accessible, affordable, and live.

With the test of the qualities of developed sites, the regions of Mbeya and Rungwe lack mostly. Poor accommodation, hardly accessible sites, unattractive sites and inadequate of necessary facilities persists in the regions. Often these challenges read in literature that discusses tourism in Tanzania specifically in southern regions (Kazuzuru, 2014; Anderson, 2011). To make a special concern, Kazuzuru insists that the problem of poor infrastructure that consists of lack of

direct international flights (though with Songwe International Airport, this is somehow solved), quality accommodation, good tarmac roads, and quality tour operators and guides dominate in Western and Southern regions compared to the northern circuit.

Results also show that there are lots to tell about little development of tourist sites in Songwe and Mbeya regions. Results from Mbozi district show tourism sites in the area are unreservedly and not developed except the Kimondo which has been developed by the Ministry of tourism and natural reserve. The same results of underdeveloped tourist sites have also been given in Rungwe district with exception of Mount Rungwe and Ngozi Crater Lake developed by the Ministry of Tourism and Natural resources. Despite the upgraded sites of Kimondo, Mount Rungwe and Ngozi crater lakes which somehow attract the tourists, the situation is appalling in other sites. The concerns of a transportation facility, Internet, good food, accommodation, recreation, entertainment, nourishment and poor images of the sites devastates the beautifulness of the sites hence unattractive to tourists.

Since the sites are currently not vigour for tourists, they are used for traditional ceremonies, medicine, prayers, and home uses. Speaking sensitively, the district cultural officer in Rungwe district asserted how the district and government at large miss revenue from the tourist sites in the district just because of being unexplored. The officer mentioned the Kisiba Crater Lake which is currently used for home uses, Mvule tree (Katembo) used for medicine and traditional prayers.

Obstacles to fully exploration of tourist sites in Songwe and Mbeya

The study discusses reasons for undeveloped tourist sites which are grouped into three: Budgetary allocation, Policy issue, and Historical issue.

Budgetary allocation

Limited budget dominates the findings. All the responses cried about the inadequate budget to cater for development of the sites. Since the initial development of the sites is placed under the local government, it is found that local governments have no reliable budget for tourist sites development. Even if the budget is planned, often it could be low and mostly being used for other intervening events. In this case, the sites are not enhanced to create an attractive image, infrastructures remain poor and essential services such as toilets are either unavailable or with poor quality. This problem excludes the already developed sites of Mount Rungwe, Ngozi crater lakes and Mbozi Meteorite which are under the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Reserve.

It is vital to know that cost implication is certain in making quality tourist products as well as tourists' attraction. Along with effective planning and

strategies, tourism industry requires a huge investment to win the market. By reason of limited budget, many tourists' sites remain idle and fruitless. (Qian, Shen, & Law, 2018) clearly disapproved the wrong conception of comparing tourism products with manna received from heaven. The author argues that although mostly tourists attractions are natural hence freely given, its development and attraction costs. Therefore, enough funds for the production process, promotion, infrastructure and management of tourist sites would be the inevitably main agenda in tourism policy and planning.

Policy issue

In the words of Liasidou (2017) 'tourism policy is a panacea'. It is the policy statement that earmarks the potentials for tourism, perceived constraints, strategies for its development as well as its sustainability (Liasidou, 2017). The policy statement, in other words, is a milestone for the tourism industry. For this regard, Tanzania formulated the National Tourism Policy in 1991 which was revised in 1999. From 1999 the National Tourism Policy (NTP, for short) operates until now. From the outset, the NTP made clear that Tanzania is endowed with vast and diversified tourism potentials. However, they have not fully explored. The explored few suffer from homogeneity. Wildlife tourism dominates in the country. Findings proved beyond doubt that the tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe regions are still underdeveloped. It is not uncommon to read 'limited product on offer, poor product development and management' as among the persisting challenges of the tourism industry in Tanzania (Anderson, et al. 2017; Anderson, 2011; Lwoga, 2013).

The NTP is also pointed as weak in terms of equal involvement of all stakeholders in tourism development. While the role of government and private sector is noted, local government authority is another greater stakeholder. Since tourism is a locally based resource, since tourism is more locally specific, since local knowledge is important, and since the power to ensure political stability and sound land use and management is in the hands of local authorities, involvement of local authority and community at large is essential (Can, et al. 2014).

It is true that the Local government authorities are less keen to implement the policy. For instance, through the Local Government Act of 1982 and the Regional Authorities Act of 1997, local authorities have the power to make by-laws that enhances tourism in their areas (Mattee, 2007). While Mbozi district has found to have no by-law that regulates tourism, Rungwe district at least had a by-law that guides fee charges in the few sites that are locally managed through the same is under review to extend regulation.

Therefore, the NTP has direct bearing to the problem of unexplored tourism sites in Mbeya and Songwe regions. Its poor performance in addressing the

problem could be partly associated with the fact of being outdated. Hence policy change is argued to be a must in order to address the current demands and wants (Anderson, et al. 2017).

Historical Issue

Northern circuit tourism concentration is the colonial legacy. Since the colonialists established and enhance tourists' sites in northern regions, the trend dominates to date. A historical development review of tourism in Tanzania by Lwoga (2013) narrates this point. The author showed the contribution of colonialists in the establishment of modern tourism in Tanzania. Despite some flaws, the colonialists enacted laws to regulate tourism activities and created a conducive environment for tourists. But all these made while focusing on northern regions. For instance, the oldest hotel in Tanzania was constructed in Arusha by the German.

With this historical trend, the problem of unexplored tourist sites in Songwe and Mbeya regions is partly a historical concern. Unfortunately, even the independence government has not done much to address the problem. A quote from Melubo, (2017) is relevant here, that "historically, Tanzania's official tourism marketing efforts emphasize the north; when the south is marketed, it is not differentiated from the popular northern attractions". This is supported by a response from the Rungwe district tourism officer that the government is not much concerned with tourism in southern regions hence little investment made so far.

Conclusion

The study was intended to show the public how the southern part of Tanzania has natural endowment beauty. It was aimed at showing extent of unexplored tourist sites in Mbeya and Songwe regions. The paper concludes that having tourism sites is one thing and exploration of the sites is inevitably another thing. The regions of Mbeya and Songwe have vast and diversified tourist sites but unattractive to tourists. Only the lake Ngozi site in Rungwe and Kimondo site (Meteorite) in Songwe have at least been developed. Others which need development for full potential includes Germany curves, hot spring, bat curves, black and white collable, hanging like stone, cultural dances and traditional meals in Songwe. In Mbeya found the Rungwe natural beauty of the Rungwe Mountains, monkey's attraction, the God's built bridge, 500 years tree, historical Germany administration offices and the traditional meals and dances. Since the tourists' visitation is largely for leisure, there is no way they could dare to visit areas with lesser attractions. In this context, should Tanzania want to fully benefit from the tourism industry; all the available potential sites should be given equal weight regardless of where they are located. The reasons for limited budget, poor policy, and history, should not override the economic, social and cultural profits which are found in Tourism business.

References

- Anderson, W., Busagara, T., Mahangila, D., Olomi, D., & Bahati, V. (2017). The Dialogue and Advocacy Initiatives for Reforming the Business Environment of Tourism and Hospitality Sector in Tanzania. *Tourism Review*; Vol 72/1 , 45-67.
- Camilleri, M. A. (2018). *The Tourism Industry: An Overview of Marketing Tourism, Economics and Airline Products*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer Nature.
- Can, A. S., Alaeddinoglu, F., & Turker, N. (2014). Local Government Participation in the Tourism Planning Process. *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences*, 41 , 190-212.
- Connell, D. (1997). Participatory Development: An approach Sensitive to Class and Gender. *Development in Practice*, 7/3 , 248-259.
- Dian-Yulie, R. (2014). *What Does Tourism Mean to Residents?* Newcastle: University of Newcastle.
- Frempong, F., & Asamoah, L. A. (2014). *Tourism and Household income of Aboho Community Members in The Ashanti Region of Ghana*. Kumasi: KNUST.
- Godwin, H. (2011). Pro-Poor Tourism: A Response. *Third World Quarterly journal*, 29/5 , 869-871.
- Hall, M. C., & Lew, A. A. (2009). *Understanding and Managing Tourism Impacts: An Intergrated Approach*. New York: Routledge.
- Hatton, M. J. (1999). *Community-Based Tourism in Asian Pacific*. Ontario: Humber College of Media Studies.
- Hummel, J., Anderson, W., Wood, K., Lombardo, K., & Kauffmann, A. (2018). *Assessment of the Impact of Tourism on Communities and Children in Zanzibar*. NY: Bureau of Wyser. UNICEF.
- Igiha, E. (2013). *Contribution of Tourism on Household income in Tanzania*. Morogoro: Mzumbe University.
- Kikwete, J. K. (2012, October). *Challenges of East Africsan Tourism*. Retrieved October 26, 2012, from www.tanzaniainvest.com: <http://www.tanzaniainvest.com>
- Laizar, I., & Toma, E. (2009). *New Barriers and Globalization in Present Day Tourism and Advances of Tourism, Ecosystem and Sustainable Tourism*. Dar es Salaam.
- Liasidou, S. (2017). Drafting a Realistic Tourism Policy; the Airline Strategic Influence. *Tourism Review*, Vol 72/1 , 28-44.
- Lwoga, B. (2013). *Tourism Development in Tanzania Before and After Independence; Sustainability Perspectives*. *The Eastern African Journal of Hospitality, Leisure and Tourism*, Vol 1/2 .
- Mattee, A. Z. (2007). *Study on Options for Pastorists to Secure their Livelihood: Current Policy Making Process in Tanzania*. Dar es Salaam: Community Research and Development Services.

- Melubo, K. (2017). Tanzania Tourism Policy Review. Tanzania Policy Review (pp. 595-597). Arusha: National Tourism.
- Mitekaro, M. G. (2016). The Impact of Tourism in Tanzania on Community Development: Theoretical Perspective. *Advanced Social Sciences Research Journal*, Vol 3/9, 87-105.
- Mussa, I. A. (2011). An Overview of tourism Policy and Plans for Tourist Development in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Natural Resources and tourism.
- Ngirwa, C., & Kankhuni, Z. (2018). What Attracts Tourists to a Destination? Is it Attractions? *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, Vol 7.
- OECD. (2013). Overview of Progress and Policy Challenges in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam: Investment Policy Reviews- Tanzania.
- Øian, H., Fredman, P., Sandell, K., & Jensen, F. S. (2018). Tourism Nature and Sustainability: A Review Policy Instrument in Nordic Countries. Denmark: Nordic Council of Ministers.
- Qian, J., Shen, H., & Law, R. (2018). Research in Sustainable Tourism: A Longitudinal Study of Articles between 2008 and 2017. *Sustainability Journal*, Vol 10, 590-603.
- Reider, L. G. (2012). Strategic Tourism Planning for Sustainable Destination/sites. 6th UNWTO Executive Training. Bhutan: United Nations World Tourism Organisation.
- STCRC. (2014, March 20). www.destinationnsw.com. Retrieved October 26, 2018, from Tourism Business: <https://www.destinationnsw.com>
- Turner, R., & Freiermuth, E. (2017). Tanzania 2017 Annual Research: Key Facts. *Economic Impact of Travel and Tourism*, 13-24.
- UNWT. (2010). *Tourism Highlights 2010 Edition*. NY: United Nations.
- URT. (1996). *Integrated Tourism Master Plan: Strategy and Action*. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Natural Resources.
- URT. (1999). *National Tourism Policy*. Dar Es Salaam: Ministry of Natural Resources.

SERVICE INNOVATION AND SMEs IN TOURISM: THE CASE OF TRAVEL AGENCIES

Hawa Uiso
Open University of Tanzania
hawa.uiso@out.ac.tz

Abstract

“Service innovation is not a one-company thing; rather it is a service-ecosystem affair” (Mele et al., 2014: 626). Innovations occur as a result of the interaction of some basic components of organizational capability derived from in-house research and development activities. These include managerial systems, values, norms, market and technological competencies. Innovation is best understood not as a provider concern or a customer concern but as a network issue (Mele et al., 2010; Nam and Lee, 2010, cited in Mele et al., 2014). What matters for service innovators to be successful in the long run is not only being able to successfully launch a service innovation once, but to be able to introduce and exploit service innovations repeatedly in order to stay competitive. This is a conceptual paper aimed at assessing the application of service innovation in SME tourism businesses and in particular, travel agencies. Specifically, the study aims to reveal innovation activities of travel agencies and the relationship between their innovation and operating age and between their innovation and number of personnel. The result revealed a significant relationship between operating age of travel agency and service innovation dimensions. The result also indicated a significant relationship between the number of personnel and organizational innovation dimensions

Keywords: Service innovation, SMEs, Travel Agencies

Background information

Tourism industry structure is growing fast and it generally comprises of SMEs that are competitive but there is not enough research about how SMEs in the tourism industry innovate (Yüzbaşıoğlu et al., (2014); Meneses and Teixeira (2011). According to the literature the issue of innovation in travel agencies as SMEs in the tourism industry remains relatively immature with a divergence of opinion. Innovation has an important role in the dynamic business environment and according to Higgins (1995) cited in Yüzbaşıoğlu et al., (2014), the secret of competitive advantage is innovation. Tourism is an industry which has been subjected to many changes and transformations over a number of years. Tourism companies need creativity and innovation in order to be competitive. As the demand for tourism services become more segmented, specialized and sophisticated, companies in the tourism industry face the challenge of constantly changing their offer of services, rethinking their daily operations and procedures, improving their current organizational structure and business model,

and finding new ways to communicate and interact with customers and other stakeholders in the market.

Travel agencies exist primarily as intermediaries between suppliers of travel services, such as airlines and hotels, and customers. Unlike distributors in many industries, travel agencies do not deal with physical products but with information (Cheung and Lang, 2009). According to the literature a travel agent is defined as a person who undertakes a job for another person, who is the 'principal'. The principal in such a relationship not only sets the goals of the job, such as selling tickets, but may also control the means and manner in which the job is done. The fundamental role of a travel agency can be broadly summarized as information, distribution, reservation and services.

The travel agency industry depends upon commissions for a majority of its revenue to the extent that a decline in commission will require the industry to change the means in which revenue is generated (Siebenaler & Groves, 2002). Travel agencies have been the primary instrument for airlines business in the past. Travel agents need to coordinate and work with the airlines into the e-commerce movement through an adaptation/adjustment period (Falkenstein, 1997; French, 1997, cited in (Siebenaler & Groves, 2002). The industry has been the primary instrument for airlines business. There has been a tendency of some travel agencies slowing down business with particular airlines due to reduction in commissions. The airlines may not have noticed the decline because the Internet has been growing at such a high rate of speed. Internet users have adjusted to the e-commerce and usually make their own reservations (Flowers, 2000; Sturkin, 1998; Transue, 1998) cited in (Siebenaler & Groves, 2002). The Internet has caused a significant reduction in airline ticket sales hence causing travel agencies to change. In addition travel agencies have reduced commissions paid to airlines thus causing more changes. Time is the essential element to study the strategies on a short-term basis.

The data indicated that the number of travel agencies currently “going out” of business is significant, but it also indicated that the rate of “going out” of business has slowed significantly (Dorsey, 1998; Durbin, 1999) cited in (Siebenaler & Groves, 2002). Four categories of travel agencies have been identified in the literature along with their adaptation styles including the independent operator of a small travel agency with very limited resources, the normal agency with 2 or 3 agents which does a substantial business, the larger agency that is high-tech and high touch and depends on automation and the Web to some extent (innovators) and finally agencies that are Web based with very little automation otherwise and who were technologically adaptable and saw opportunity in the Web. The study examines how agencies have adapted and prospered through this transitional period.

Internal innovation barriers in tourism enterprises are associated with small sizes of enterprises in the industry coupled with high personnel turnover, insufficient IT competencies and resources, low innovation and knowledge management culture and weak change management (Janoszka and Kopera, 2014). The study provided evidence that most of the surveyed SMEs do not suffer from lack of new ideas but experience complex problems that hinder effective translations of ideas into comprehensive innovations. In addition, there is inability to protect innovations against competitors due to inconsistencies in selecting, implementing and operating protection modes.

The reduction of airline ticket sales commissions by United Airlines in 1995 created stress upon travel agencies in the United States leading to continuous reduction of commission and caps upon commission (Focus, 1995a; Durbin, 1999; Compart, 1999; Durbin, 2000; cited in Siebenaler and David (2012)). This resulted to instability in the travel agencies leading to some of them ceasing business operations, reducing their number of employees or even reducing their traditional businesses slowly. Rapid technological changes and fierce competition within the tourism industry force online travel agencies to increase their understanding of customers' expectations, needs, and wants (Kee et al., 2010). E-service quality is an important avenue by which travel distribution businesses can differentiate themselves from their competitors.

Literature review

Innovation has been defined differently by various authors. Schumpeter (1934) defined innovation as a new way of doing things or unique combination of the factors of production. Innovation has been considered as a product/service, idea, process or practice that is perceived as new by customers and potential customers (Rogers, 1983). According to Hjalager (2010), innovations are further developments of inventions or bright creative ideas for making them into useful products or services. Innovation creates wealth through either creating new wealth producing resources. Service innovation can be defined as a new or considerably changed service concept, client interaction channel, service delivery system or technological concept that individually, but most likely in combination, leads to one or more renewed service functions that are new to the firm and do change the service/good offered on the market and do require structurally new technological, human or organizational capabilities of the service organization.

Service innovation is a multi dimensional concept comprising of new service concept, new customer interaction, new value system/business partners, new revenue model, new organizational or technological service delivery system (Hertog et al, 2010). The first dimension service concept describes the value that is created by the service provider in collaboration with the customer. The innovation is often a new idea of how to organize a solution to a problem or a

need of a customer. The second dimension is the new customer interaction and the role customers play in the creation of value. The interaction process between the provider and the client is an important source of innovation. The third dimension is the new value system or set of new business partners/actors involved in jointly co-producing a service innovation. New services – thus creating and appropriating value – are increasingly realised through combinations of service functions provided by a coalition of providers, both parties in the value chain. Innovations would not become as successful or even exist. The fourth dimension is related to new revenue models. Many new service ideas fail as the distribution of costs and revenues do not match. The fifth dimension concerns the “new delivery system: personnel, organization culture. This dimension pinpoints the observation that ICT has enabled numerous service innovations ranging from electronic government and e-health, to advanced multi-channel management, customization of services, introduction of self service concepts and virtual project teams.

In the case of services, particularly due to the considerable role of customer interaction and the intangibility characteristic, a bias towards technological innovations is even more inadequate. Also, compared to manufacturing, services are less standardized, usually not focused on products, and less centralized. All these factors have made an adequate description of service innovation more hazardous than in the traditional innovation literature, while at the same time not less relevant.

Innovation in services is characterized by some factors including the role of human resources where innovation knowledge is very much embodied in people and in their skills (Meneses and Teixeira, 2011). However, the mechanisms to measure their innovative behaviour are limited. There has been lack of interest in the study of service industry and in particularly of innovation in services, due to the fact that service was regarded as a “Traditional” and delayed area, without technological progress or any creativity (Gallouj and Weinstein, 1997; Howells, 2007, cited in Meneses and Teixeira, 2011).

Yüzbaşıoğlu et al., (2014) found a significant relationship between operating age of travel agency and service innovation dimensions. According to the literature the more the operating age of travel agency the more the number of service innovation activities. A significant relationship between number of personnel and organizational innovation dimension was also observed together with the fact that travel agencies as one of the SMEs in the tourism industry involve service innovation than innovation of processes.

Siebenaler and David (2012) identified four categories of travel agencies as well as their adaptation styles including independent operator for the small travel agency with limited resources (Entrepreneurship), the normal travel

agency that had a substantial business with more than two or three agents employed (Traditional travel agents), the larger agency that was high-tech, high-touch, and depended upon automation and the Web to some extent (Technological innovators) and the individuals who were Web based, with very little automation and had responded completely to the Web 100% (Web Manager). According to the literature, the travel agencies were technologically adaptable and had seen the Web opportunity in advance, then quickly moved forward to respond to the stress from the travel airlines. These individuals may also have little or no travel experience and were simply exploring a business opportunity.

Mele et al., (2014) considered three main different research traditions to innovation including goods-dominant (G-D) logic, the resource-based approach and service-dominant (S-D) logic in order to identify which tradition is more suitable to frame current innovation. According to the literature, innovation is no longer regarded as an extraordinary event, instead, it is understood as a process that is not simply linear but also continuous, systemic and based on complex interactions between actors, activities and heterogeneous resources. In line with this thinking, scholars argue that innovation is best understood not as a provider concern or a customer concern but as a network issue (Mele et al., 2010; Nam and Lee, 2010) cited in Mele et al., 2014). Actors as the customer, the supplier and other stakeholders form a network of interacting relationships that generates value through the sharing and integrating of resources. The network conceptualization changes the model of innovation that positions the supplier as the innovator and the customer as the user (or the stimulus) of innovation (Mele et al., 2014:625). Varis, and Littunen (2010) found that different external sources of information, such as fairs, exhibitions, media, and internet which in principle are freely accessible to anyone, are positively associated with the introduction of novel product innovations in firms.

Methodology

This research is based on literature review. Articles were sought in Journal databases with the following words alone or in combination: Innovation, service innovation, tourism, tourism SMEs, travel agencies. These were initially used individually and then in combination with the other words to search for studies worldwide. The combination of “service innovation and travel agencies” was also used to get knowledge about studies using these key words. The databases used were mainly Emerald, Taylor and Francis, JSTOR, Sciondirect.com, Google Scholar and Elsevier. Many articles were found about service innovation and tourism SMEs in general and quite a number of them were found to address service innovation and tourism SMEs in the hotel and restaurant industry. A few studies were found studying the phenomenon of service innovation in tourism SMEs in relation to travel agencies and these were mainly

done in developed countries. Many studies were found about service innovation but only a few were linking to travel agencies.

Manual content analysis was used to examine the content and concepts in the articles that contained the three concepts: “service innovation”, “tourism SMEs and travel agencies. Conceptual analysis was carried out whereby concepts were chosen for examination and the analysis involved quantifying and tallying their presence and frequency of occurrence. Research questions were identified and texts were coded into manageable content categories. Data were then analyzed and conclusions drawn from them. Relational analysis was also carried out to establish meaningful relationship between concepts.

Findings and discussion

The innovation activities revealed by the study were categorized into four dimensions including marketing innovation, process innovation, product/service innovation and organization innovation (Yüzbaşıoğlu et al., 2014); Results revealed a significant relationship between operating age of a travel agency and service innovation dimensions implying that the more the operating age of travel agency, the more the number of service innovations due to new trends that emerge in the market. The results also indicated a significant relationship between the number of personnel and organizational innovation dimensions implying that an increase in the number of personnel in travel agency implies an increase in organizational service innovation activities.

Siebenaler and David (2012) observed that the travel industry has been one of the slowest to adapt/adjust to change. Adaptations that have occurred have been related to automation, sales techniques, and the Web (Poling, 2000, cited in Siebenaler and David, 2012). According to the literature the success of the travel agents was directly proportional to their ability to use these elements and construct new businesses to serve the traveler in the age of e-commerce. Basing on the analysis and the types of methodologies, adaptation/adjustment strategies that have been developed and used by agencies, the industry need the ability to adjust to change quickly, and to respond to new audiences through e-commerce. The idea proposed by the study is one of leadership and strategic planning to see how travel is going to be developed in the future and how to provide a quality service and product.

Travel agencies need to coordinate and work with the airlines into the e-commerce movement through an adaptation/adjustment period. There have been responses by travel agencies to reduction in commissions by the slowing down of business with particular airlines. The airlines may not have noticed because the Internet has been growing at such a rate of speed. Internet users have adjusted to the e-commerce and usually make their own reservations (Flowers, 2000; Sturkin, 1998; Transue, 1998, cited in Siebenaler and David (2012).

Mele et al., 2014 contend that S-D logic is helpful in providing a new conceptualization of innovation that moves beyond the mainstream view: from “product and services” to “service and value”, from “buyer-seller dyads” to “ecosystem relationships”, and from “closed/linear process” to “open/co-created process”. These new categories provide a fresh framing of innovation, as service innovation/value innovation. The findings revealed a framework for innovation builds on the comparison of the three research approaches where the G-D logic, when analysed in terms of new product development and new service development, positions innovation as an output (a new good or service) of a business’s internal processes, with the firm as the main actor. The resource-based approach establishes the drivers of innovation as knowledge, capabilities and relationships, but the firm is still the main innovator. S-D logic addresses “open” innovation processes in which all actors in the network can mobilize and integrate their resources to become value co-innovators. The findings revealed S-D logic as a more suitable research tradition to frame current innovation because this logic offers a cross-cutting and broader approach to innovation in comparison to the G-D logic and to the resource-based approach.

Studies conducted by Varis and Littunen (2010) indicated that different information sources associated with the introduction of innovations in firms vary according to the type of innovation in question. Similarly the growth of firms was positively associated with the creation of innovations. Of the types of innovation studied, new product, process and market innovations were positively associated with firms’ growth while organizational innovations were not. Regarding profitability the findings were in line with much previous evidence suggesting that, at least in the short-run, profitability and innovation are not positively associated.

In contradiction with several previous studies, the competences of the entrepreneur or those internal to the firm were not found to be important contributors in the process of innovation. In contrast to the suggestion by the regional systems of innovation literature, different regional support organizations were not classified as important sources of information or partners in collaboration with the entrepreneurs.

Lee et al., (2010) identified six dimensions of e-service quality as perceived by online customers in Hongkong, including, Website functionality, Information Quality and Content, Responsiveness and Fulfillment, Safety and Security, Appearance and Presentation, and Customer Relationship.

Conclusion and recommendations

The studies conducted in travel agencies highlighted the relationship between operating age of travel agencies, number of personnel, organizational and service innovation in some countries in the developed world. The findings may

not necessarily apply in other parts of the world. Future researches can be directed to travel agencies in other countries for the generalizability of the findings. For entrepreneurs, perhaps the most significant implication arising from the study is the need to concentrate on the internal factors and operations of the firm. The results indicate that entrepreneurs do not consider the different internal factors in their firms (competencies and know-how of the entrepreneur and his staff, personnel initiatives, personnel training, organized and spontaneous communication between units and individuals in the firm) as important sources of innovation-related ideas and information, more effort should be devoted to improving firms' internal competencies and to removing potential barriers for internal knowledge gathering, sharing.

Directions for future studies

Very few studies have been done in this area of service innovation in relation to tourism SMEs and travel agencies in particular and this serves as an avenue for future studies. Of the few studies conducted, none has been done in Tanzania. A replica study can be conducted using the same research instrument as applied to executives of travel agencies in Tanzania

Reference list

- Craig S., Pierre, J.E and Boyer (2014). The impact of internet travel and tourism: A research review 2001 -2010 *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 31:82–113, 2014. Taylor & Francis Group, LLC
- Cheung, R. and Lam,P. (2009). How Travel Agencies survive in e Business World. Vol.10, ISSN: 1943 – 7765
- Hjalager, A. (2010). A review of Innovation Research in Tourism. *Tourism management*, 31, 1-12
- Janoszka, M. N and Kopera, S. (2014). Exploring barriers to innovation in tourism industry: The case of Southern region of Poland. *Procedia – Social and Behavioural Sciences* 110, 190, 201, Elsevier. Available on line at www.sciencedirect.com.
- Kee,N Tsang, F, Michael T. H. Lai, M. T. H, & Law, R. (2010) Measuring Eservice Quality for Online Travel Agencies, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27:3, 306-323, DOI: 10.1080/10548401003744743
- Lee, C. Sardeshmukh, S.R, Hallak, R. (2016). Aqualitative study of innovation in the restaurant industry. *An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*.Routledge Taylor & Francis Group
- Mele, C.,Colurcio, M and Russo-Spena, T. (2014),"Research traditions of innovation", *Managing Service Quality*, Vol. 24 Iss 6 pp. 612 – 642 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/MSQ-10-2013-0223>
- Meneses, O.A.M and Teixeira, A.A.C (2011). The innovative behavior of tourism firms. *Economics and Management Research Projects: An*

International Journal – ISSN: 2184- 0309. Open Access International Journals Publisher

- Nelson K. T., Michael T. H. Lai & Rob L. (2010) Measuring E-Service Quality for Online Travel Agencies, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 27:3, 306-323
- Nicolae Teodorescu, N. Stancioiu, A.F.; Ravar, A. S; Botos, A. (2011). Creativity and innovation Source of competitive advantage in the value chain of tourism enterprise
- Pim den Hertog Wietze van der Aa Mark W. de Jong, (2010),"Capabilities for managing service innovation: Towards a conceptual framework", *Journal of Service Management*, Vol. 21 Iss 4 pp. 490 – 514
- Rogers, E.M. (1983), *Diffusion of Innovations*, Third Edition, Free Press, New York.
- Siebenaler, C. and Groves, D. L. (2002) Travel Agents and Their Survival Thomas, *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 1:1, 1-16, DOI: 10.1300/J171v01n01_01
- Schumpeter, J.A. (1934), *The Theory of Economic Development*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Varis, M. and Littunen, H. (2010) "Types of innovation, sources of information and performance in entrepreneurial SMEs", *European Journal of Innovation Management*, Vol. 13 Issue: 2, pp.128-154, <https://doi.org/10.1108/14601061011040221>
- Yüzbaşıoğlu, N. Çelikk, P, Topsakalc, Y. (2014). A research on innovation in small and in medium-sized enterprises tourism industry: case of travel agencies operating in Antalya. *International strategic Management Conference, Social and behavioural Sciences* 150 (2014) 735 – 743

THE ROLE OF INNOVATION IN TOURISM: A CASE OF ARUSHA, TANZANIA

Shilingi Anifae, Greyson Agapity and Ernest Mwandumbya
National College of Tourism
shilingia4@yahoo.com

Abstract

Innovation is very potential in boosting the growth of the local economy; same to tourism plays a major important tool for the growth of local communities. Many kinds of research on tourism innovation have been scarce until very recent years and the role of innovation in tourism for the local community studies remain unexplored (FeiFei, 2015). Therefore this paper helps to explore innovative in local food, culture, and local products. The study comprises of literature review and research discussions and used different methodological methods. Simple random sampling was used for the sample size selected. The researcher used non-probability sampling method and each sampling unit were selected by purposive sampling. Homogeneous respondents were chosen and the researchers understanding brought reasonable judgments. The selected respondents provided desired data through questionnaires and observation were fifty (50) international tourists who launched and dine in a local food outlet. Moreover twelve (12) local food outlets were considered for observation in this study. The result also shows that issues of innovation lead tourism industries into more productivity.

Keywords: Innovation, Tourism, Productivity,

Introduction

Background of the Problem

Tourism is an industry which is the very important source of income for many countries (Welford et al 1999), but the net foreign exchange earnings from this industries are considerably less than the gross receipt (Godwin, 2006). However, this increase does not imply enough workforces as there are still reports indicating staff shortage to match the industry growth (Anderson 2015). According to the Tanzania Tourism Sector Report (2015), in the 2014 tourism generated around USD 2billion which constituent 25% of Tanzania's foreign exchange earnings. It is at the forefront of the contribution to the country's economy representing 17% of Tanzania's GDP. Yet tourism and hospitality is personnel intensive and employs a significant number of youths.

Innovation is slowly, but surely shaping the future of \$2.3 billion travel and tourism in Tanzania, as the natural resources-rich country seeks to maximize the potential of the industry. Whereas the importance of innovation has long been underestimated in Tanzania's tourism, trends and consumer preferences are

compelling tour firms to develop new products, in addition to mainstream wildlife to create value for tourists. (Ihucha, 2018).

Innovation in local products, culture, and local food is a topic that has been relatively under-researched in tourism literature (Selwood, 2003). Most researches are based on extensive studies of the relationships between tourism and different aspects. As a result, there is an insufficiency in current literature related to innovation in local products and tourism (Everett & Aitchison, 2008). In particular, there is a lack of research on the extent that local products such as food and services are used in tourism promotion and development in destinations whose success in the tourism industry is generally based on innovation in primary attractions other than food, culture and local products. (Okumus. et al., 2007).

Statement of the Problem

Tourism is one of the greatest global industries, improving according to the continuous changes in tourism trends and consumer preferences. It is this need to change that makes the concept of innovation a vital concern for tourism firms of all sizes – they need to stand out from the strong competition with successful and profitable operations. However, most of the focus of innovation has been on tourism attractions and much has been left desired on research concerning innovation in food and other cultural aspects in tourism (Nelson et al., 2006).

Purpose of the Study

The overall objective of the study is to explore the role of innovation in local food, culture, and local products in tourism.

Specification Objectives

- To identify the categories of innovation including local product and services.
- To determine the contribution of tourism local products towards the development of the local economy.
- To examine the effectiveness of the innovation process for local products and services in the tourism destination.

Significance of the Study

The creative use of local products and culture are a requirement for the creation of innovative offerings in tourism destinations that create and offer products for visitors. The market situation requires constant creation and supply of innovative products and services and this fact is important for all stakeholders in tourism destinations. Therefore, the goal of this research is to assist developing and implementing an effective innovation process in local food, culture and local products in tourism sector.

Literature Review

According to Sholihin& Pike, 2009 innovativeness is a strategic action by which entrepreneurs deal with changes in the situation including risks that are attached in doing business in the African setting. Such action to innovate is among the most momentous factors affecting performance (Hultet al. 2004; Pesämaaet al. 2013).

Since the "Experience Economy" has developed (Pine and Gilmore, 1999), tourists have no longer required basic services but have been increasingly searching for something new and concerned with consumer culture and creativity of the places they're visiting.

The process of product development has, therefore, shift toward co-creation, and producers work together with consumers to create moments of contact and meaningful-experience settings (Boswijk, et al., 2005). However, a careful balance should be found between innovation and authenticity in order to meet new tourists' needs and increase their satisfaction.

As stated by Richards (2012), food can provide a basis for tourism experiences developing the meal experience, linking culture and tourism, producing distinctive foods, developing the critical infrastructure for food production and consumption and supporting local culture. In this process, gastronomy can be considered a fertile breeding ground for "creative tourism" (Richards and Raymond, 2000) because it allows visitors to create rather than consume.

According to Graham Downey, 2016 Consumers expect a lot from local food. They want it to be fresh, healthy and rose responsibly. They want it to be inexpensive and suitable. And, they want their buy to sustain local farmers. At first glance, these goals seem at probability with each other. It is possible to professionally deliver local food to mostly urban consumers while still supporting rural economies.

Combining traditional and non-traditional elements can help to create a link between innovation and authenticity and stimulate a sustainable development of food tourism not only based on the preservation of the past but also the creation of future (Richards, 2002). New augmented food experiences represent a way to improve the quality of visitor experience as well as to widen food experiences and market products.

Food and drink can provide added value to tourist experiences in several ways. Most popular gastronomic tourist products are, for example, unique and memorable dining experiences in local restaurants or at food trucks, farmers markets, agricultural fairs, food beverage events and festivals, visits to wineries, breweries or distilleries, gastronomic and wine routes, cooking classes, ...

(World Food Travel Association, 2016). Traditional experiences are often limited to visit and tastings and they can be augmented in order to create more appealing products (Getz, 2000). For example, a list of potential developments for winery experiences has been suggested by Jaffe and Pasternak (2004): winery as a museum, art gallery and monument to taste and sophistication; winery as a fun-filled event venue; wine estate destination; family home and business, at which all visitors are personal guests; winery as a retail outlet; winery as an educational institution; winery as living history; cultural routes.

Methodology

Introduction

This section deal with the research design, target population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instrument, validity and reliability of the instruments, procedure for data collection, and data analysis techniques. The data was collected by using questionnaire and survey techniques.

Research design

The research design employed in this study is a quantitative approach. This study comprises of literature review and research discussions.

Study area

The study area for this research is conducted in the Arusha region. The reason for selecting this study area is due to the flow of tourists in the region which use accommodation facilities. The research helps to come across the role of innovation in tourism for the local economy.

Sample size

However, this study used non-probability sampling method and each sampling unit selected by purposive sampling. Homogeneous respondent was chosen and the researcher understanding brought reasonable judgments. In addition, Roscoe (1975) propose the following rules of thumb for determining sample size and stated a sample size large than 30 and less than 500 is appropriate for a research study. Therefore this study used a sample of fifty (167) international tourists who had lunch and dine in a local food outlet. Moreover, a sample of twelve (12) local food outlets were considered. The sample size is determined by $n = \frac{N}{1+N(e^2)}$ since it was the defined population.

Results

Although a representative sample of Arusha experiences was conducted, meaning that the data reported in this study are representative of the Arusha context, the study allows a better understanding of a key innovation in tourism which researchers committed a little attention in the past. Therefore the identification of innovation categories in tourism is very crucial for better local development such as local food, culture, and local products. Not only that but

also the determination of the contribution of tourism local products led to satisfaction of tourist hence increase local economic development.

The main results can be summarized as follows:

The most common experiences in Arusha are tourists visiting flora and fauna areas. Since arriving at the destination they need accommodation and entertainment. Local foods, culture, and other initiatives have a propensity to be less popular for most of the accommodation sector. We noticed a larger interest and attitude towards cultural initiatives among these producers, and this fact may be linked with both tourists and those local food outlets, these outlets are primarily motivated by their own personal passion for culture and arts and they often succeeded in transforming culture, local foods, into successful experiences.

The experience of some years past shows that food, cutlery, and crockery supplies were imported including food materials/canned foods; fruits and vegetables; kinds of seafood/products, meat products, bread, pasta, and bakeries; cheese products, milk supplies. The main local purchases from Arusha were none. Respondents will express a high level of satisfaction with the results obtained, meaning that investing in food, culture, and arts helps to improve the local economic competitiveness of the destination.

Discussion/Conclusions

The improvement of interactive and inventive local food, culture, and local products experiences has become significant in many regions. Traditional lack of experiences such as tasting and visits to local food outlets does not allow meeting the desire of authenticity expressed by tourists but lacks innovation and high level of engagement. Going beyond this vision allow developing initiatives that combine several elements, especially food, art, culture, and tourism. This paper shows that Arusha is a fertile reproduction land for inventive food experiences hence there is no need for importing and using foreign materials.

There is a large variety of doing well initiatives combining art, food, and tourism, such as local food, art exhibitions, gastronomic events festivals, cultural awards, and they are often undertaken by local communities, especially gastronomical producers, for the purpose of following their personal passion. Investing in innovative cultural activities often provide immediate economic benefits. The high level of fulfillment suggests that local food outlets, and cultural centers, seem to have understood the potentialities for the development of their activities and their attractiveness, also towards tourists.

References

Andersson, T. & Mossberg, L. (2004). The dining experience: Do restaurants satisfy customer needs? Food Service Technology.

- Antonioli Coroglianò, M. & Viganò, G. (2004). *Turisti per gusto. Enogastronomia, territorio, sostenibilità*, Roma: De Agostini
- Boswijk, A., T. Thijssen and E. Peelen (2005), A new perspective on the experience economy: Meaningful experiences, The European Centre for the Experience Economy, The Netherlands. www.experience-economy.com
- Brown, G., and Chappel, S. (2008). Tasting Australia. A Celebration of cultural identity or an international event? In, J. Ali-Knight et al. (Eds.) *International Perspectives of Festivals and Events*,
- Dodd, D. (2012). *Food and the Tourism Experience*. Paris: OECD.
- Getz, D. (2000), *Explore Wine Tourism: Management, Development, Destinations*, Cognizant, New York.
- Getz, D., Robinson, R., Andresson, T. & Vujicic, S. (2014). *Foodies & Food Tourism*, Oxford: Goodfellow Publishers Limited.
- Jaffe, E. and H. Pasternak (2004), "Developing wine trails as a tourist attraction in Israel", *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6, 237–249.
- Pine, J., Gilmore, J. (1999). *The Experience Economy*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press
- UNWTO World Tourism Organization (2012). *Global report on food tourism*. UNWTO, Madrid.
- Young, K., Mincheol, K., Goh, B., & Antun, J. (2010). A comparison between first-timers and repeaters at a food event. *Journal of Culinary Science and Technology*, 7(4), 239-249

ASSESSMENT OF BUSINESS TOURISM IN PROMOTING TOURISM GROWTH IN ARUSHA, TANZANIA

Mwijarubi, L.B. and Sabulaki, N.P.
National College of Tourism
Lorna.mwijarubi@nct.ac.tz

Abstract

Tanzania for years has been relying on wildlife, historical sites, and the Indian Ocean beaches. Conference and Exhibition (MICE) considered being a new tourist product after wildlife, historical sites, and the Indian Ocean beaches. (Linda, 2018) Under this strategy, the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) has targeted to attract conferences and business visitors ready to hold international conferences in Tanzania regions such as Arusha and Dar es Salaam, aiming at pulling participants who would book hotels and visit northern Tanzania tourist attractions (Linda, 2018). The paper first described MICE and analyzes its potential in tourism growth. The purposive sampling was used to select Arusha City as the study site has the largest number of MICE stakeholders. The research design in this study was descriptive. Homogeneous data were collected by questionnaires and observed by the researcher. The population comprised corporate meeting planners, meeting and convention departments of hotels, conference centers, Food and beverage managers, logistics firms, tour operators, car hire, owner of existing MICE business and management staff of Tanzania tourist board (TTB).

Keywords: *Business Tourism, Tourism Growth, Arusha.*

Introduction

The conference industry is a young, dynamic industry which is growing and maturing at a rapid rate. From origins in Europe and North America, it is now a truly international industry witnessing huge investments across all continents. Conferences have traditionally formed a part of the business tourism, or business events, sector, a major though often under-valued sector of the wider tourism industry, but it may be time to realign the sector and play down its association with tourism (Rogers, 2013).

In recent years, most international organizations such as the World Tourism Organization (WTO) have argued that tourism can be considered as a tool for economic development in many regions of the world. In a global scale, tourism industry representing a 4% annual growth rate over the past four decade's (UNWTO, 2018). International tourist arrivals in Tanzania rose by 90% during the period 2006–2019 Tanzania is the most visited country in Sub-Saharan Africa after South Africa (9.5m), Zimbabwe (1.9m), Mozambique (1.7m), Uganda (1.27m), Kenya (1.26m), and Namibia (1.2m). 81% of the total number

of tourist arrivals in Tanzania visited the country for leisure and holiday with most of the visitors coming from Africa (46%) and Europe (32%). (UNWTO, 2018)

From 2012, tourism in Tanzania has been the leading sector in terms of foreign exchange earnings and is the 3rd largest recipient of FDI after mining and manufacturing. Given its endowment and having exceptionally rich natural tourism assets of world heritage status, Tanzania's tourism sector is an ideal vehicle for propelling growth and poverty reduction (MoF, 2016). The country is ranked 4th among 140 countries with regard to the endowment of tourism-related natural resources. The growth in tourist arrivals in Tanzania is robust and has remained fairly robust in the face of global economic turbulence. For example, during the 2008/2009 global financial crisis, arrivals declined by only 7 percent in Tanzania compared to 32 percent in neighboring Kenya (MoF, 2016).

The tourism industry kept on growing steadily, the number of international tourist arrivals increased from 627,325 in 1999 to 1,327,143 in 2017, likewise during the same period the earnings from tourism increased from USD 733.28 million to USD 2.3 billion, accounting for more than 25% of the total export earnings. Similarly total employment kept on increasing (direct, indirect and induced jobs) from 719,000 in 2008 to 1.5 million in 2017. Equally the value of tourism investments increased from USD 743.0 billion (4.7% of total investments) in 2011 to USD 746.5 billion (8.7% of total investments) in 2017. More efforts to diversify the tourism product in Tanzania have been done jointly by Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB), the Ministry of Natural and Tourism (MNRT) and The Netherland Development agency (SNV) in promoting and developing cultural tourism since 1990s Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTEs) increased from four enterprises in 1999 to 66 in 2017. The CTEs has increased the visibility of the locals as it allows to showcase the unique traditional, art, cuisine, ornaments and related products of cultural artifacts to tourists (MNRT, 2017) (TTB-CTP, 2017).

Tanzania for years has been relying on wildlife, historical sites, and the Indian Ocean beaches. Conference and Exhibition (MICE) considered being a new tourist product after wildlife, historical sites, and the Indian Ocean beaches (Linda, 2018). The country has been relying on the natural, non-natural, beach and cultural tourism attraction and at the same time vision 2020 is advocating efforts to increase the number tourists to 2 billion, increase the length of stay and expenditure. Yet very little research has been done to explore the role of MICE tourism to the contribution of Tourism growth in the country. As well very little and no clear documentation of MICE tourism in Sub Saharan African countries except for South Africa Under this strategy, the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) has targeted to attract conferences and business visitors ready to

hold international conferences in Tanzania regions such as Arusha and Dar es Salaam, aiming at pulling participants who would book hotels and visit northern Tanzania tourist attractions (Linda, 2018). Tanzania has been providing training to the stakeholders on MICE and also ensures that there are existences of 4-5 star hotels that can accommodate large group meetings. The conference, meetings and exhibitions industry is rapidly emerging as one of the most important sectors not only within business travel but also in the whole tourism industry. In recognition of its importance, Tanzania looking at competing with other developing and developed countries so that to be the destination of meetings, incentives, conferences and exhibitions which will assist the country becoming one of the most attractive international trade and investment market. The government is working hand in hand with its institution, agencies and private sector in the efforts of destination product development and diversification to increase the number tourist through adding more product portfolio in the destination package, MICE tourism being one of them. Therefore this research will have significant value to MICE tourism organizers as it will highlight what it entails to attract MICE participants towards its contribution to the tourism growth.

Under the umbrella of tourism, there are various kinds of tourism industries and MICE (Meetings, Incentive travels, Conventions, Exhibitions) tourism can be categorized as part of business tourism. MICE Industry has positive impacts both on economy and society considering its direct revenue, seasonality control, and employment, Foreign Direct Investment (FDI), spurring of technology and innovation, new ideas, knowledge and insight and local business climate as well.

The main focus of the study is in the touristic region. The region is called Arusha which is found in northern highlands of Tanzania. Arusha is the safari capital of the country and popular stop which prepare tourist for their journey to climb Mt. Kilimanjaro, Mt. Meru or into the national parks of Arusha, Serengeti, Ngorongoro, and Tarangire.

Since there is little or no proper documentation regarding the MICE sector and its contribution to tourism growth, there is a need to explore strategies and model to promote MICE in Tanzania. Construction of modern conference and accommodation facilities is very important but are not enough to attract MICE tourists without considering the facts behind how and why decision to visit a destination and attends events are made. According to Lee and Back (2007) Clear understanding of perceptions, motivations and attitudes of events attendees are key elements to develop strategies that will promote MICE tourism. Moreover understanding MICE events with help to increase the number of participants, vivid multi-economic benefits to both host location and MICE event's organizers (Zhang et al., (2007). Further exploration of this study

based on the following Research questions: Is MICE development viable in Arusha and what role played by MICE in tourism growth? Hence, the purpose of this study will be to ensure that all research questions are answered. Researcher interest is to contribute to the government of Tanzania, policy maker, and researchers by elaborating how tourism growth linked with MICE. The results of this study will provide a platform that could be of practical significance to Government and other organizations involved in planning, organizing, developing, and marketing the MICE industry in the country. Developing competitive research findings will be highly valuable to MICE organizers who are competing to attract visitors worldwide.

MICE Tourism concept and its distinctiveness

MICE tourism, the new buzzword in international tourism markets, is an acronym for Meetings, Incentives, Conferences/Conventions, and Exhibitions. It is a specific form of business tourism that relates to the activities of groups of business persons traveling for business purposes rather than individual business travelers and represents a multi-billion dollar segment of tourism worldwide. MICE are used to refer to a particular type of tourism in which large groups planned usually well in advance are brought together for some particular purpose. MICE are an advanced branch of tourism involving vigorous economic activities and hence, play a significant role in the tourism economy of a destination. Most components of MICE are well understood, perhaps with the exception of Incentives. Incentive tourism is usually undertaken as a type of employee reward by a company or institution for targets met or exceeded, or a job well is done. Unlike the other types of MICE tourism, Incentive tourism is usually conducted purely for entertainment, rather than professional or educational purposes.

Meetings are events planned fairly in advance to bring business travelers together on a specific date for the purpose of exchanging information, either between people from one company or organization or between people from different establishments. Some of the events that would comply with the World Trade Organization's definition of 'meeting' include Product launches, Cocktail functions, Breakfast, lunch and dinner meetings, and Special occasions such as weddings, Fashion shows, and Movie promotion (Hamid MA., 2012).

Incentives involve travel to foreign countries or domestic destinations as part of a motivational or incentive scheme to enhance or reward employee efforts. Mostly consumer goods, automobile, and electronics companies use incentive travel, i.e. vacations with the family, to reward dealers and drive dealer sales (Hamid MA., 2012).

Conferences or conventions are generally described as multi-day events attended by at least a hundred delegates for the purpose of exchanging business information. If 40% or more of the delegates come from outside the host

country, the event would be termed as an international conference or convention. The difference between meetings and conferences lies in, both, the number of people attending and the duration of the event (Hamid MA., 2012). Exhibitions OR Events involve the drawing together of corporate leaders and business-minded people for the purposes of viewing products and services of different enterprises and business groups.

The importance of the MICE industry lies in the fact that it converts the annual business meetings and conferences into a glamorous and enjoyable event for the delegates and attendants. Be it a meeting to bring people together either from within one company or from a broader spectrum or an international conference of 100 delegates or product launch party or exhibition, MICE tourism finds itself being inevitable in all the occasions (Hamid MA., 2012).

Since the range and market size of event tourism is expanding progressively, separate forms of tourism are produced and MICE tourism can be an example of them. MICE (Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition) sector consists of related diverse meetings, incentives, conventions and exhibitions activities including conferences, congresses, and trade shows. This sector has been regarded as one of the most dynamic and important sectors of the tourism industry that focuses on business activities rather than leisure (Hamid MA., 2012).

Table 1: The components of MICE (Shediac, 2014)

MICETourism Types	Description	Examples
Meeting	A meeting is the coming together of a group of people to discuss or exchange information. In some regions, meetings may be seen as a small-scale conference by others	Corporate meetings
Incentives	Incentive travels include leisure trips emphasizing pleasure and excitement and which may appear to have little or no connection to a business	Leisure trips
Conferences	An event where the primary activity of the attendees is to attend educational sessions, participate in meetings/discussions, socialize, or attend other organized events	Conference on sustainable tourism
Exhibition	Exhibitions can generally be portrayed as 'presentations of products and services to an invited audience with the object of inducing a sale or informing the visitors'	Presentations of products or services

Empirical review

Business tourism is viewed as a highly lucrative segment of tourism (Cosmin, 2012) and supported by the advance of globalization (Donaldson, 2013), has experienced considerable growth in recent years owing to expanding international relationships and trade (Gelder, 2011). It has been cited that within tourism, meetings and conventions are one of the fastest growing segments (Ladkin, 2006). Among several reasons given, the main reason is being the economic benefits for the destination and community as well as improving the destination image (Cosmin, 2012). Current data from the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) suggest that business spending contributed 23.4% of travel spending in 2015 and is expected to grow by 3.9% in 2016 (WTTC, 2016). As the presence of conventions center, it makes delegates spend more economically, stay longer and not solely spending on hotel and restaurant but on wildlife, leisure activities such as retail, events, and visits to local attractions such as museums and theaters (Gelder, 2011). Business tourism, seen as a strategic tourism segment, is positioned as an important leverage factor that can contribute to tourism growth by attracting events, contributing to the extension of stay at the destination, influencing the return of visitors and the promotion and strengthening of the region's tourism image (Marques J., 2016).

Kumar and Hussain (2014) argue that MICE has been well acknowledged as being a segment that contributes several benefits to tourism growth. Many studies suggest that (formal) business tourists tend to spend relatively large amounts of money in relation to other tourists because they are likely to stay in the more expensive forms of accommodation (e.g., Donaldson, 2013; World Bank, 2012). Their spending is also due to their capacity to enjoy meals from expensive restaurants and to employ relatively expensive transportation options. In addition to what business tourists spend, there is the amount that is spent by others on their behalf. In other words, for every representative, a mass of people exist who have to organize, manage, and arrange the MICE-related infrastructure, as well as employ the essential backup services [Marques & Santos, 2016; United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO), 2014]. Further benefits of business tourism for destinations arise from the fact that business tourists are considered less subject to seasonal fluctuations than are other categories of tourists, as business activity happens continuously throughout the year (Kumar & Hussain, 2014). According to the UNWTO (2018), business tourists “often come at times of the year when other kinds of visitors won’t, which helps support the development and maintenance of tourism infrastructure such as hotels and attractions that support other types of visits as well. Business tourism is seen as a counterpart of the leisure tourism sector, which relies on a considerable amount of the same physical infrastructure, and on bringing business to such destinations as seaside resorts (Cosmin & Ioan, 2012; Gelder & Robinson, 2011). Many of the investments that are made in a destination’s infrastructure are designed primarily for the business

tourist (e.g., hotels, transport and communication facilities, restaurants, attractions and amenities, and even conference venues), providing benefits that can also be enjoyed by leisure visitors and by the local residents (Gelder & Robinson, 2011). A significant part of the new wave of hospitality and accommodation development that is occurring in leading African cities is focused on the business travel market (J. M. Rogerson, 2016). According to Beaverstock (2009), the phenomenon of business travel also has social benefits for the business traveler with The experience of visiting clients or other offices of the firm and the experience of other cities and countries. Swarbrooke (1999) states that business tourism tends to spread its benefits more widely than does leisure tourism because of its use of particular services such as audiovisual companies, secretarial agencies, and florists that tend not to be used by leisure tourists. Therefore, the multiplier effect of such activities is widespread in the case of business tourists. Business events also act as showcases for local products and services, as they provide exposure and serve to foster the burgeoning of related activities taking place in the surroundings (UNWTO, 2018). Therefore, MICE tourism act as a lever for tourism growth, economic diversification, and local economic development. In common with other forms of tourism, business tourism also can benefit the poor (Coles & Mitchell, 2009). Rogerson, J. M. (2013). identifies three main channels for transmitting benefits from business tourism to the poor in the African context. First, benefits accrue through direct employment in hotels and restaurants; second, the direct influences of supply chains, consisting of food, crafts, and lastly, dynamic forces, in terms of externalities, help to boost the national and local economies through tourism growth.

Conceptual Framework



Source: Researcher 2019

Method

In order to explore what extent MICE travel in Arusha region take part in tourism growth and to determine MICE components, quantitative and

qualitative approach was chosen. The data for this analysis were from a survey of MICE stakeholders of Arusha that were identified during the research period. The research design in this study was descriptive, sampling design was both probability and non- probability designs were used for the targeted sample. The motive for adopting such research designs is because the researcher wants to explore more details to develop theory. Homogeneous data were collected by questionnaires and observed by the researcher. The population was comprised of corporate meeting planners, meeting and convention departments of hotels, conference centers, Food and beverage managers, logistics firms, tour operators, car hire, Owner of existing MICE business and five management staff of Tanzania tourist board (TTB), professional trade organization such as TATO. The population of the study consisted of 70 MICE stakeholders who are residing in Arusha. The researcher selected a sample of 60 respondents in this study due to time and purposeful sampling procedures used in this study. The sample size below was calculated by G power online source.

Table 2. A table to show sample size

Respondents	Study population	Confidence Level (%)	Margin Error (%)	Sample size
MICE stakeholders	70	95	05	60

Source: Researcher 2019

Both primary and secondary data was collected from Arusha city. The primary data for this study were collected using a questionnaire and consisted of open and closed questions. The questionnaires were designed carefully to ensure that, all relevant information regarding the research was captured. Data information was collected directly from respondents and the researcher observed their interest in MICE. Secondary data was collected from secondary sources like internets and other relevant sources including books, journals, official reports, and statistical reports for the purpose of enriching the primary data sources.

Results

Demographic characteristics comprised of 35% females and 65% male. With regard to work, the result implied that approximately (60%) of all respondents were working in Private sector such as Hotel, Travel agency, Tour company, Car hire. This indicates that the majority of Stakeholders in MICE tourism are private sector as indicated by results. With regard to how long have been working in MICE business 70% of most stakeholders have experience of fewer than ten years. Moreover pertaining to understanding the concept of MICE 65% said Very familiar with the concepts, while 35% said somewhat familiar with the concept. Regarding MICE if fully practice able to the study area, 70% said yes. Most respondent 70% strongly agreed there is the potential of attracting

tourist through MICE. The findings on MICE lead to tourism growth 50% agreed on the statement. This is due to the fact that MICE diversify the tourist attraction which was shown by results of 60% respondent Agreed to the statement and 30% strongly agreed with a total of 90%. On the other hand, 50% strongly agreed that MICE creates new markets for our local products. Moreover, 50% strongly agreed that MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community. Arusha is the best place for Gemstone business such as tanzanite and there is the availability of leisure and entertainment facilities which can serve MICE travelers. Arusha is not well known by other countries this indicated by the result which shows that 55% strongly agreed that MICE will make Arusha community well known to the outsider. Regarding tourism policy, planning, and management promote MICE results showed that 55% of respondents said yes, 45 respondent said no to the statement. However the researcher observed that there is lack of policy that encourages public organization in the participation of MICE tourism and lack of private sectors initiative to provide assistance in implementing MICE to full potential in promoting tourism growth. The explanations given by respondent on who do they think should make primary decisions concerning MICE practices 70% said People outside their community (e.g. government officials, tour operators, NGO's, financial contributors, etc.) and 10% said the group of people in the community, 20% said the whole community. Regarding if there is an institution providing the fund to facilitate MICE, the findings showed that 55% said no and 45% said yes. But they agreed by saying yes by 75% that the Tanzania government providing assistance in implementing MICE. The results also indicate that most stakeholders don't meet tourist directly and preferred business was conferences or convention and they felt that Exhibition and Incentives was a seasonal business. No doubt, all respondent interests were based on conferences as it attracts more Tourist. The researcher observed that MICE will enhance Destination branding and increase the spending power of tourist. in addition to that will promote Arusha in term of tourist growth and make it more competitive destination.

Inferential Regression

The study sought to measure relationship between the various factors of value of MICE will lead tourism growth against MICE makes Arusha community well known to outsiders, MICE diversify tourist attraction, MICE promote cultural restoration and conservation, MICE creates new markets for local products, MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community. From the linear regression, it was established that there was a relationship between the variables. The coefficient of multiple determinations (R^2) value was 0.816 this meant that 81% of the variation in the MICE will lead tourism growth was caused by the variation of variables as shown in table 3 below.

Table 3. Model Summary of MICE Will Lead Tourism Growth

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.904 ^a	.816	.799	.513

Source: Researcher, 2019

A. *Predictors: (Constant), MICE makes Arusha community well known to outsiders, MICE diversify tourist attraction, MICE promote cultural restoration and conservation, MICE creates new markets for local products, MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community*

From the ANOVA table 4 the regression model predicting the relationship between opinion about Arusha and independent variables was significant at P value 0.00. the F calculated at 48.052.

Table 4 ANOVA^b of MICE Will Lead Tourism Growth

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	63.196	5	12.639	48.052	.000 ^a
	Residual	14.204	54	.263		
	Total	77.400	59			

A. *Predictors: (Constant), MICE makes Arusha community well known to outsiders, MICE diversify tourist attraction, MICE promote cultural restoration and conservation, MICE creates new markets for local products, MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community*

From the analysis, the entire variable only the variable MICE creates new markets for local products is significant with p values that was less than 0.05. From the regression model obtained above, holding all the other factors constant. A unit change in MICE creates new markets for local products holding the other factors constant would lead to change of MICE will lead tourism growth by 0.461 units.

Table 5. Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-.006	.341		-.017	.986
MICE diversify tourist attraction	.228	.086	.196	2.650	.011
MICE creates new markets for local products	.461	.123	.485	3.743	.000
MICE promote cultural restoration and conservation	-.311	.121	-.311	-2.581	.013
MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community	.218	.155	.207	1.405	.166
MICE makes Arusha community well known to outsiders	.388	.140	.413	2.765	.008

a. Dependent Variable: MICE will lead tourism growth

Source: Researcher, 2019

Correlation Analysis

The study sought to establish the relationship between MICE is fully practicable, potential of attracting tourist through MICE, MICE will lead tourism growth, MICE diversify tourist attraction, MICE creates new markets for local products. A correlation done between the variable among respondents revealed that all the variables were positively correlated and significant. This implied that MICE influences tourist growth through frequency of attracting tourist through MICE, creation of new markets for local products and diversification of tourist attraction. The strongest correlation was experienced between MICE will lead tourism growth, MICE diversify tourist attraction and MICE creates new markets for local products ($=0.538$) and ($=0.826$) as shown in the table below.

Table 6. Correlations

		MICE IS fully practiceable	Potential of attracting tourist through MICE	MICE will lead tourism growth	MICE diversify tourist attraction	MICE creates new markets for local products
MICE is fully practice-able	Pearson Correlation	1	.286*	.134	-.146	.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.027	.306	.267	.945
	N	60	60	60	60	60
POTENTIAL of attracting tourist through mice	Pearson Correlation	.286*	1	-.250	-.370**	-.265*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.027		.054	.004	.041
	N	60	60	60	60	60
MICE will lead tourism growth	Pearson Correlation	.134	-.250	1	.538**	.836**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.306	.054		.000	.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60
MICE diversify tourist attraction	Pearson Correlation	-.146	-.370**	.538**	1	.466**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.267	.004	.000		.000
	N	60	60	60	60	60
MICE creates new markets for local products	Pearson Correlation	.009	-.265*	.836**	.466**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.945	.041	.000	.000	
	N	60	60	60	60	60

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Researcher, 2019

Conclusions and Recommendations

The MICE industry is one of the key drivers of tourism destination development and an important generator of income, employment, and (foreign) investment.

Besides economic benefits, the MICE industry delivers opportunities for knowledge sharing, networking, and capacity building, making it an important driver for intellectual development and regional cooperation. Every destination that wants to improve its tourist attractiveness should make detailed plans for the development of tourism.

Empirical studies suggest that destination with the best chances for promoting tourism growth is those that already have the advantageous facilities like Arusha. Moreover, with tourist attractions such as wildlife, gemstone business potential and facilities MICE can be of benefit to Arusha in promoting tourist growth. It can be said that the role of Business tourism in promoting tourist growth will influence this destination to be popular.

The researcher was limited to a narrow population of tourists due to time limit however a large population can be used for future study in order to generalize the opinion of a whole region of Arusha. The study further recommends that new studies be conducted in the sustainability of local gastronomy towards local economic development and to assess the use of marketing by the government of Tanzania in promoting MICE Tourism of Tanzania.

References

- Beaverstock, J. (2009). International business travel: Some explorations. *Series B: Human Geography*, 91 (03), 193-202.
- Cosmin, T. (2012). Realities and perspectives of business tourism on a global scale. *Annals of the University of Oradea, Economic Science Series*, 121(1), 432–438.
- Donaldson, R. (2013). Conference tourism: What do we know about business tourism in South Africa? *African Journal for Physical, Health Education*, 19, 24 - 34.
- Gelder, G. (2011). Events, Festivals, and arts. *Research themes for tourism* (pp. 128-144). Wallington: UK: CAB International.
- Hamid MA., N. F. (2012). Sustainable tourism development practices of MICE venue provider in East Coast Region, Peninsula Malaysia. *In current issues in hospitality and tourism research and innovations - proceedings of the International Hospitality and Tourism Conference* (pp. 87 -90). IHTC.
- Kumar, .. (2014). A review of assessing the economic impact of business tourism: Issues and approaches. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism systems*, 7(2), 49-55.
- Ladkin, A. (2006). Conference tourism -MICE market and business tourism. In I. D. (EDs), *Tourism business frontiers: Consumers, products, and industry* (pp. 56-66). Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Linda, H. (2018, January 23). *MICE: Meeting and Incentive Travel News*. Retrieved January 14, 2019, from MICE: Meeting and Incentive Travel

- News: <https://meetings.travel/2018/01/23/tanzania-targets-conference-mice-tourists/>
- Marques J., S. (2016). Developing Business Tourism Beyond Major Urban Centres: The perspectives of Local Stakeholders. *Tourism and Hospitality Management*, 1-15.
- MoF. (2016). *National Five year Development Plan, Nurturing Industrialization for Economic Transformation and Human Development*. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Finance and Planning.
- Rogerson J, M. (2013). The economic geography of South Africa's hotel industry from 1990 to 2010. *Urban Forum*, 24(01), 425 -444.
- Shediac, .. &. (2014, April 30). *Strategy and PWC*. Retrieved April 01, 2019, from Strategy and PWC: www.strategyand.pwc.com
- Swarbrooke, J. (1999). Urban areas. In I. J. (ED), *Sustainable Tourism Management* (pp. 172 - 182). Wallingford: UK: CABI Publishing.
- UNWTO. (2018, June 30). *UNWTO*. Retrieved April 30, 2019, from UNWTO website: <http://www.unwto.org>
- WTTC. (2016). *Travel and tourism economic impact*. London: World Travel and Tourism Council.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaires

Dear STAKEHOLDERS,

This questionnaire is intended to facilitate a **case study of Arusha City**. As a Lecturer of the National College of Tourism at Arusha Campus I am expected to publish a paper in any relevant Tourism areas.

This survey focusing on the **ROLE OF BUSINESS TOURISM IN PROMOTING TOURISM GROWTH** is being conducted with the purpose of determining the factors played by MICE in promoting tourism growth in Arusha, Tanzania.

The findings of the survey will lead to recommendations for appropriate policy measures to local government and Government in general towards the improvement of the MICE delivery and tourism growth strategy.

Please give full cooperation in this exercise and be assured that the information will be treated in self-possession and for the purpose of this study.

Thank you.

Part I: General characteristics (Put symbol "√" for the selected item)

1. Gender
 - Female
 - Male
2. Which company are you working with?
3. How long have you been working in this company?
 - Less than 10 years
 - More than 10 years
 - More than 10 years
 - Just started a business

Part II: MICE situation in an area.

Please tick (√) a correct answer.

1. Do you understand the concept of MICE?
 - Very familiar

- Somewhat familiar
 - Unfamiliar
2. Do you think MICE is fully practice-able to this city?
- Yes
 - No
3. Do you agree that there is a potential of attracting more tourists in the study area through MICE?
- Strongly agree
 - Agree
 - Don't know
 - Disagree
 - Strongly disagree
4. Could you list three tourist attractions that found in Arusha city?
- i).....ii).....iii).....
5. List three tourist growth indicators i).....
- ii).....iii).....

Part III: Participation in MICE

Please tick (✓) correct answer.

6. What kind of MICE business do you perform frequently?
- Meetings
 - Incentives
 - Conferences or Convention
 - Exhibition
7. Do you meet tourists directly?
- Yes
 - No
 - If No Explain how
 -

8. Who do you think should make primary decisions concerning MICE practices?
- The whole community
 - A group of people in the community
 - People outside your community (e.g. government officials, tour operators, NGO's, financial contributors, etc.)

Part IV: MICE contribution to Tourist growth

The following question consists of statements. Please indicate to which level you agree or disagree with the statements by circling or **BOLD** the appropriate number.

1= Strongly disagree

2= Disagree

3= Neither disagree nor agree

4= Agree

5= Strongly agree

1. I believe that MICE will lead to tourism growth 1 2 3 4 5
2. MICE diversify the tourist attraction 1 2 3 4 5
3. MICE creates new markets for our local products 1 2 3 4 5
4. MICE promote cultural restoration and conservation
1 2 3 4 5
5. MICE invites other organizations to do business with the community
1 2 3 4 5
6. MICE makes Arusha community well known to outsiders
1 2 3 4 5

Part V: Political, Social and Institutional Support for MICE

Please tick (✓) correct answer.

1. Do tourism policy, planning and management promote MICE?
 - Yes
 - No
2. Does policy encourage community in the participation of MICE?
 - Yes
 - No

3. Does policy encourage public organization in the participation of MICE?
 - Yes
 - No

4. Is there any institution dealing with MICE?
 - Yes
 - No

5. Is there any organization providing a fund to facilitate MICE?
 - Yes
 - No

6. Does Tanzania government provide assistance in implementing MICE?
 - Yes
 - No

Do you have any other inputs or opinions on tourism activities? (*If you have any please write your comment*)

Thank you very much for your valuable time.

Mwjarubi, Lorna.B¹ and Sabulaki, N.P

¹ National College of Tourism – Arusha Campus, P.O. Box 6127 Arusha,
Tanzania

Mobile Phone: 0767048290, 0754808300, 0787048290 (*What's up only*)

Email: lorna.mwjarubi@nct.ac.tz

neema.sabulaki@nct.ac.tz

APPENDIX B

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

GENDER					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Female	21	35.0	35.0	35.0
	Male	39	65.0	65.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

COMPANY					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	University/ College	9	15.0	15.0	15.0
	Public organisation	15	25.0	25.0	40.0
	Travel Agency	6	10.0	10.0	50.0
	Hotel	18	30.0	30.0	80.0
	Private Association	12	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

WORK DURATION					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 10 years	42	70.0	70.0	70.0
	More than 10 years	15	25.0	25.0	95.0
	Just started Business	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

CONCEPT OF MICE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Familiar	39	65.0	65.0	65.0
	Somewhat Familiar	21	35.0	35.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE IS FULLY PRACTICE-ABLE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	42	70.0	70.0	70.0
	No	18	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

POTENTIAL OF ATTRACTING TOURIST THROUGH MICE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	42	70.0	70.0	70.0
	Agree	18	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE WILL LEAD TOURISM GROWTH					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Agree	30	50.0	50.0	60.0
	Strongly agree	24	40.0	40.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE DIVERSIFY TOURIST ATTRACTION					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	10.0
	Agree	36	60.0	60.0	70.0
	Strongly agree	18	30.0	30.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE CREATES NEW MARKETS FOR LOCAL PRODUCTS					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Neither disagree nor agree	3	5.0	5.0	15.0
	Agree	21	35.0	35.0	50.0
	Strongly agree	30	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE INVITES OTHER ORGANISATIONS TO DO BUSINESS WITH THE COMMUNITY					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	10.0
	Neither disagree nor agree	3	5.0	5.0	15.0
	Agree	21	35.0	35.0	50.0
	Strongly agree	30	50.0	50.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

MICE MAKES ARUSHA COMMUNITY WELL KNOWN TO OUTSIDERS					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	6	10.0	10.0	10.0
	Neither disagree nor agree	3	5.0	5.0	15.0
	Agree	18	30.0	30.0	45.0
	Strongly agree	33	55.0	55.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

TOURISM POLICY, PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT PROMOTE MICE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	33	55.0	55.0	55.0
	No	27	45.0	45.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

PRIMARY DECISIONS CONCERNING MICE PRACTICES					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The whole community	12	20.0	20.0	20.0
	A group of people in the community	6	10.0	10.0	30.0
	People outside your community	42	70.0	70.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

ORGANISATION PROVIDING FUND TO FACILITATE MICE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	27	45.0	45.0	45.0
	No	33	55.0	55.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

TANZANIA GOVERNMENT PROVIDING ASSISTANCE IN IMPLEMENTING MICE					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	45	75.0	75.0	75.0
	No	15	25.0	25.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

THE IMPORTANCE OF DESTINATION NETWORKS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

Jan-Erik Jaensson
The Open University of Tanzania
janerik.jaensson@out.ac.tz

Abstract

Organizational cooperation has obvious benefits in the tourism industry since the supply is fragmented and the consumption of tourism products are often bundled. In tourism networks, the interactions go beyond organizational boundaries and the boundaries of these strategic networks are simultaneously open and closed. This paper consists of a literature review and one case example from Swedish Lapland. The tourism offering (the "product") is a combination of outputs from many tourism firms (service providers) which demands coordination of activities in time and among the actors. The coordination in the case of Swedish Lapland involves actors from different organizations within and outside the formal network (national organizations, regional and local organizations as well as the activity based SMEs, providing the tourism experience). The process of arranging activities and connecting actor resources in this tourism business network was a challenge taken by the regional Tourism Board – Swedish Lapland Tourism. The main success activities were the new brand and the partnership for export. The economic support from regional actors was a significant factor for network formation and development.

Keywords: Destination network, network, tourism, cooperation, Swedish Lapland

Introduction

The international tourism industry has gone through a tremendous development in the latest decades with some trends affecting it, as for example, globalization of traveling and the technological development with the internet as a communication channel. Tourism is an export business and it is important for countries, regions, destinations, cities and local villages in rural areas. The objective of this paper is to analyze the importance of destination networks in the tourism industry with one case.

This chapter starts with a short presentation of the tourism industry, a discussion of destination networks followed by a case presentation with an analysis. The data for the case study was collected during six years of action research.

The tourism industry

The industry is important for the socio-economic development in countries since it generates export income (foreign currency), the growth of SME's and

creation of jobs. Worldwide, one of eleven jobs is directly or indirectly dependent on the tourism industry. (UNWTO, 2015).

Since the industry generates foreign exchange it is considered to be an export industry (Hjalager, 2007) and in Sweden, it generates more export earnings than the export of cars, wood and minerals. In Sweden most people take a domestic holiday, so to gain market shares in the domestic market is hard and the profit is also lower than in international markets. Therefore the interest has shifted from domestic competition to more of international competition with all its opportunities threats. According to Figure 1, the statistics for guest nights show that Swedish Lapland has increased their guests nights more than the country as a whole and especially concerning international guest nights. The international guest nights (export) has increased by 37.9% during a ten year period, which is a very high growth, compared to Sweden as a whole which increased by 35.3% which also is a very good figure.

Table 1. Statistics for guest nights in Sweden and in Swedish Lapland 2008-2017 (SCB database)

TOTAL	2008	2017	% increase
Sweden	50.097.388	63.208.164	26.1
Swedish Lapland	1.897.897	2.410.053	26.9

EXPORT	2008	2017	% increase
Sweden	11.963.917	16.190.730	35.3
Swedish Lapland	520.595	717.920	37.9

Methodology

This paper is based on a literature review with the key words: tourism, developing countries, networks, destination management, and cooperation in different combinations. The databases/Journals used for this was: Elsevier, Business Source Premier and Emerald Journals.

One model of cooperation will also be presented obtained from action research made during six years. The researcher was deeply involved in the creation and development of the brand “Swedish Lapland” and also involved in different groups forming a model to cooperate within the tourism industry in Sweden. One of the results of that work is presented in this paper.

Action research is a reflective process during which problems are solved in working with others to get a community of practice among the participants. The method seeks knowledge for social action among the people involved to find new solutions for arising/existing problems. The aim is to accomplish change in

social actions. In this case the research has been a participatory action research where the researcher has interacted heavily with the different stakeholders. (Lewin 1946; Ozanne and Saatcioglu 2008).

The researcher was employed as the Marketing Manager of the regional Tourism Board, Swedish Lapland Tourism, during six years (2006-2012). The possibilities to work as a change agent and to develop and implement strategies were substantial. Several projects took place during the research period and in this paper one of them is discussed.

Networks

Business networks are increasingly important for cooperation, business growth, employment, internationalization and socio-economic development (Rutashobya and Jaensson, 2004; Williams and Shaw, 2011). At a regional and destination level, tourism networks have a potentially significant contribution to make towards sustainable tourism including community and commercial interests.

Managing destination networks

Inter-organizational cooperation has obvious benefits in the tourism industry since the supply is fragmented, the consumption of tourism products are often bundled and many SMEs are active in the industry (Coviello, and Munro, H. 1997; Fyall et al., 2012; Scott et al., 2008). In most literature, destination management is viewed as an intra-organizational phenomenon and the destination is seen as a geographical area (Merilainen and Lemmetyinen, 2011). In tourism networks, the interactions go beyond organizational boundaries and the boundaries of these strategic networks are simultaneously open and closed. Because of this, the destination as a strategic network could be defined as "an inter-organizational, goal-oriented network embedded in the destination, comprising value-creating activities that are linked to each other through tourism business relationships, and that require the resources of tourism companies or other organizations" (Merilainen and Lemmetyinen, 2011: 26).

The tourism offering (the "product") is a combination of outputs from many tourism firms (service providers) and other organizations which demands coordination of activities in time and among the actors. The coordination in the case of Swedish Lapland involves actors from different organizations within and outside the formal network (public organizations, national organizations, regional and local organizations as well as the activity based SMEs providing the tourism experience). The process of arranging activities and connecting actor resources in this tourism business network was a challenge taken by the regional Tourism Board – Swedish Lapland Tourism.

The Swedish Lapland Case

The formal network organization

In 2002-2005 a process of organizing the touristic geographic area took place. It was a time consuming and sometimes difficult process. Many stakeholders had different opinions on how to organize it and how to allocate resources (money). However, the stakeholders finally agreed upon creating geographical destinations within the area of Swedish Lapland.

Privately owned destination companies were started with a mix of private and public money (the local Governments and the regional Government organizations supported this organization process with financial resources and it was topped up with money from the European Union Structural Funds). The private money came from the tourist entrepreneurs which became shareholders of the destination companies. The board of the destination companies consisted of tourist entrepreneurs (the majority) and one or two from the local Government.

The regional tourist board Swedish Lapland Tourism was also a private organization owned by the destination companies. In that way, there was an obvious link between the regional organization, the destination organizations and the entrepreneurs. The entrepreneurs felt ownership over the strategies and actions from both their destination company and the regional company. The governing of this network was through private organizations.

Figure 1 shows how the formal network organization worked from a marketing perspective. The marketing strategies at the destination companies were discussed and anchored among the tourist entrepreneurs. The regional marketing strategy was discussed and anchored among the destination companies. It was of course an iterative process to ensure that all strategies were linked to each other. The anchoring process took a long time, but in the end, almost all tourist entrepreneurs knew what to do to align with the common marketing strategies.

The figure also shows the ten destination companies (organizing about 600 tourism entrepreneurs, mostly SMEs) constituting the region Swedish Lapland. The destination companies coordinate their members (the tourism entrepreneurs' activities) and the regional coordination among the destinations is done by Swedish Lapland Tourism.

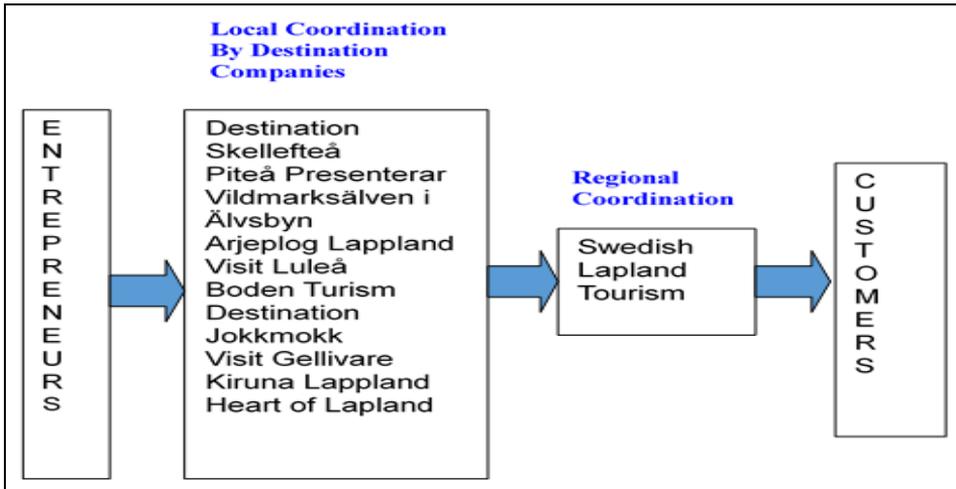


Figure 1. Organization of the domestic marketing of the tourism industry in Swedish Lapland (source: Internal document from Swedish Lapland Tourism)

Brand introduction and internationalization from 2006-2012

The Swedish Lapland brand was born in 2007 as an international attractive brand needed for internationalization of the tourism industry to attract more international guests. Swedish Lapland is about 25% of the surface in Sweden and it is the northernmost area in the country.

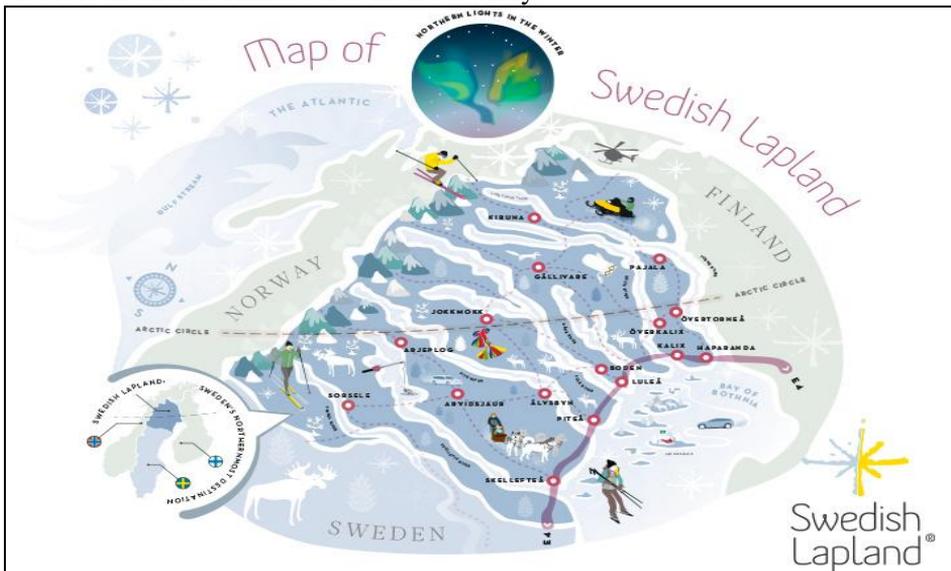


Figure 2. Map of Swedish Lapland (source: Swedish Lapland Visitors Board web.)

During this period the focus for the destination management organization (DMO) Swedish Lapland Tourism (the DMO also changed the name from Norrbotten/Lapland at the same time) shifted from organizing, to create activities to enhance the number of incoming tourists. This was made partly through a marketing budget where all destination companies together with Swedish Lapland Tourism discussed how to use the money most effective to increase tourism in the region. One other significant activity was the construction and implementation of a marketing strategy for the whole destination Swedish Lapland using the brand “Swedish Lapland”.

The creation of the common brand "Swedish Lapland" was a very important strategic activity. The implementation and education about the importance of a joint brand took place through many seminars around the region and the distribution of a brand book to let the entrepreneurs be a part of the brand. The "new" brand made tourism entrepreneurs to cooperate more instead of competing. This is extremely important for all international market activities. The basic idea was to provide a joint internationally strong brand which the entrepreneurs could use in combination with their own brand. Two of the logotypes are shown below where the symbol is a snowflake. The blue part is for the winter and the yellow part is for summer.



Figure 2. Swedish Lapland logotypes (Swedish Lapland internal material)

Swedish Lapland Tourism acquired market knowledge from both the national tourism organization VisitSweden, The Swedish Trade Council, tourism entrepreneurs already involved in export, from seminars, and from written materials. Workshops were arranged to disseminate the knowledge to entrepreneurs in the network interested in foreign markets.

Knowledge dissemination and capacity building in internationalization through the Swedish Trade Council and VisitSweden took place in a series of seminars hosted by Swedish Lapland Tourism. This knowledge building in the tourism network was summed up in a study visit to one of Europe’s most important trade shows (EIBTM in Barcelona 2010) with ten of those entrepreneurs. After the study visit, some of them realized that this was too difficult for them in the

stage they were in at the moment, but some of them pursued the entrance into foreign markets.

Internationalization activities

The tourism industry in Sweden was from 2006 organized so active partners could work together in specific projects from the national to the local entrepreneurial level in a “partnership model”. This was an innovation to help tourist companies to internationalize. All partners contribute with resources to the projects. To start a new partnership all organizations must be committed to working together for at least three years.

The initiative came from the national Swedish tourism organization “VisitSweden” in 2006. Since resources are scarce they came up with a suggestion to build cooperation in partnerships.

The partnership model is built upon some pillars (VisitSweden, 2012):

- Participation must be from VisitSweden, the regional tourism organization, the local tourism destination organization, and the local tourism entrepreneurs (and others if appropriate).
- The project should have at least a three-year horizon
- The project should have a budget of at least \$150.000 per year from all participants (VisitSweden contributes with up to 50% of the budget)
- There should be a steering committee and a marketing group working with the projects market plan (activities, dates, and responsibility), budget, and follow up of the results

The goal with these partnership projects was to build more export mature destinations and to increase incoming foreign tourists to Sweden through cooperation between all levels in the national touristic network – to internationalize.

The network system of organizing the tourism industry in Swedish Lapland will then look as in Figure 3 (marketing, information and knowledge building). At the national level, VisitSweden is the organization helping the tourism industry with its international marketing and knowledge sharing. Visit Sweden is owned by the Swedish Government and the tourism industry jointly.

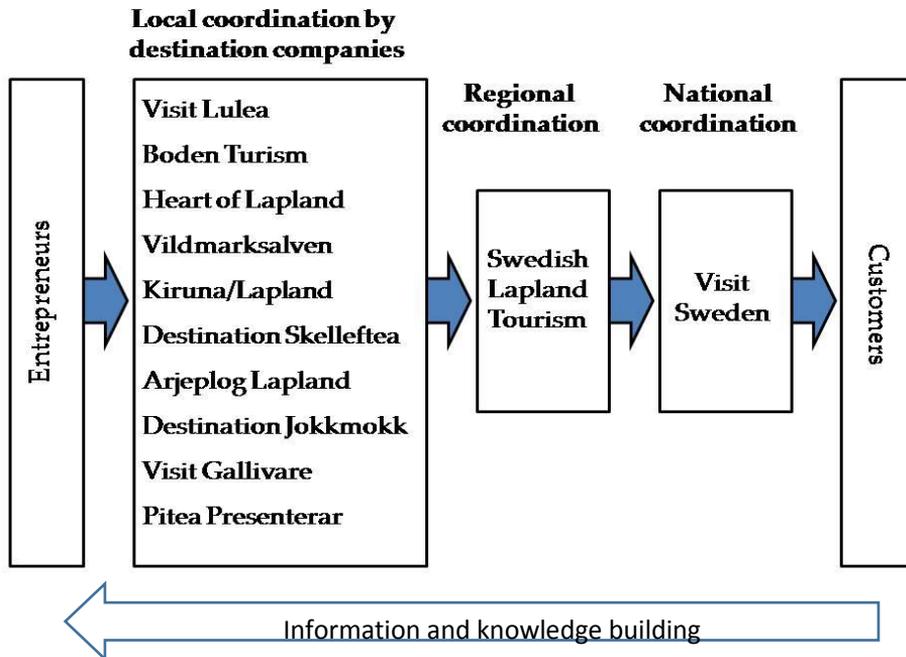


Figure 3. Organization of the international network for marketing, information, and knowledge sharing in Swedish Lapland (source: Internal document from Swedish Lapland Tourism)

Activities

A) Destination Kiruna in Swedish Lapland - Direct flights from London

One key factor for foreign tourists is to get to the final destination as easy as possible. The largest international touristic icon in Sweden is the ICEHOTEL in Jukkasjärvi, Swedish Lapland. To increase the number of tourists to the hotel they felt a need to make it easier for customers from the UK (London) to get there. Before they had to travel from London to Stockholm and wait for a connection from Stockholm to Kiruna. The goal, in this case, was to establish a direct flight from London to Kiruna, which would save about 3-4 hours of traveling time in each direction!

A partnership was made in 2007 with the participants: VisitSweden, Swedish Lapland Tourism (regional tourist board), Kiruna Lapland tourism (local tourist destination organization), ICEHOTEL (One of the major tourist attractions in Sweden), a number of other small and medium-sized tourist companies, and the Swedish airport authority SWEDAVIA.

A market plan was created based on the experiences the destination Swedish Lapland had to offer using the Swedish Lapland brand.

Within one year a direct flight was established together with the tour operator discover the World. It became a seasonal flight starting in December and ending in March, in all between 10-14 return flights. The airline serving the route was Scandinavian Airlines (SAS). The project was extended to four years and the direct flight is still working. The project generated a profit and an understanding that cooperation in a network could make even the SMEs internationalize even if they had very limited resources.

B) Swedish Lapland – tourists from Germany

Germany was identified as one priority market for Swedish Lapland. The partners in this project were: VisitSweden, Swedish Lapland Tourism, Destinations within Swedish Lapland, tourist entrepreneurs with export mature products and SWEDAVIA.

The marketing model above was the starting point for the project in 2010, and the budget was \$150.000 here also, from the beginning. The Swedish Lapland brand was used also in this activity. Already after one year, an interesting opportunity was arising – to get the prestigious Der Tour Academy to place its yearly event in Swedish Lapland! It was more than ten years since Der Tour Academy visited Scandinavia and there is a fierce competition among the destinations in the world to host this event.

With common efforts and an increased budget (public organizations in the region also contributed to the project budget) for this event of \$1.1 million, Der Tour Academy came to Swedish Lapland in November/December 2011! Already after one year, the number of tourists from Germany increased by 25%, and the project was a big success!

Analysis and conclusion

Through these activities of cooperation, the importance of SMEs in the tourism industry to participate in a destination network is obvious. The main activities in the case of Swedish Lapland were the creation of a mutual brand and the new way of cooperating in the national network to reach an international market. The marketing process became visible and possible to participate in also for the SMEs with limited resources of capital and knowledge about export business. It motivated many SMEs to start their internationalization process.

The destination management was in this case handled by Swedish Lapland Tourism. One reason for this was that the organization got a lot of its financing from public organizations and the European Union Structural Funds. Money talks and this was a strong incentive for the tourism destinations and

entrepreneurs to cooperate since the financial resources were channelized to the regional tourism board. Thanks to the strategic thinking from the regional public organizations (the financing organizations) the regional network in Swedish Lapland was able to start and develop in a very positive way.

These public actors, external to the tourism network, played a significant role in the development of the destination network. They were always involved in the overall strategic discussions about the development of the tourism industry.

NOTE: Swedish Lapland Tourism has now changed the name to Swedish Lapland Visitors Board

References

- Coviello, N., and Munro, H. 1997. "Network relationships and the internationalization process of small software firms." *International Business Review* 6(4): 361-386.
- Fyall, A., Garrod, B. and Wang, Y. 2012. "Destination collaboration: a critical review of theoretical approaches to a multi-dimensional phenomenon." *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management* 1(1): 10-26.
- Hjalager, A.-M. 2007. "Stages in the economic globalization of tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 34 (2): 437-457.
- Lewin, K. (1946) "Action Research and Minority Problems", *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol 2, 4 (34-46)
- Meriläinen, K. and Lemmetyinen, A. 2011. "Destination network management: a conceptual analysis." *Tourism Review* 66(3): 25 -31.
- Ozanne, J.L., & Saatcioglu, B. (2008) "Participatory Action Research" *Journal of Consumer Research*, Vol 35, 3 (423-439)
- Rutashobya, L., and Jaensson, J-E. 2004. "Small firms' internationalization for development in Tanzania: Exploring the network phenomenon." *International Journal of Social Economics* 31(1/2): 159 – 172.
- SCB database of guest nights in Sweden. Available at: http://www.statistikdatabasen.scb.se/pxweb/sv/ssd/START__NV__NV1701__NV1701A/NV1701T910Ar/table/tableViewLayout1/?rxid=bba665d3-4dc9-4a48-aba6-b05d812ffc07 Downloaded March 20, 2019.
- UNWTO. 2015. *Tourism Highlights*. Available at: <http://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284416899>. Downloaded February 12, 2016.
- Williams, A.M., and Shaw, G. 2011. "Internationalization and innovation in tourism." *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(1): 27-51.

POTENTIALS OF FORESTS ON NATURE BASED TOURISM IN TANZANIA: A CASE OF RAU FOREST RESERVE, MOSHI URBAN DISTRICT, KILIMANJARO REGION

Emmanuel Patroba Mhache
The Open University of Tanzania
emmanuel.mhache@out.ac.tz

Abstract

The role of forest in nature based tourism is very important. Tanzania has a large area of forest potential for Nature Based Tourism (NBT). This study explores the potentials of Rau Forest Reserve (RFR) on NBT in Tanzania. The paper was designed to discern the potential of forests on NBT in Rau Forest Reserve in Moshi District. The specific objectives of this study were two, to determine the potential of forest on NBT and to examine challenges facing forests as one of the avenue for NBT development. This study adopted a case study design and qualitative research approach. The sample of 20 people was identified for this study. In-depth interviews, focus group discussions and direct observations were used for data collection. Intensive literature review was done to get familiarity with the study. The study provides insights of the contribution of forests to diversify NBT in Tanzania.

Keywords: Diversification; Nature based tourism; Rau Forest Reserve; Tourism;

Introduction

The role of forest in nature tourism is very important (FAO, 2018; Pueyo-Ros, 2018). Tourism in forest or rural areas plays a crucial role to the local communities residing close to it (Nsukwini and Bob, 2016). Forest tourism is a source of employment for local people, it generate revenues and enhance the quality of life of people (Pueyo-Ros, 2018). Forest land is central to tourism development in different countries (FAO, 2018) including Tanzania. In some areas or countries, forests are converted to construction of tourist facilities while other forests are protected or conserved and used for tourism. Wildlife is another important resources provided by forest ecosystems around the world (FAO, 2018). Recreation has always been and continues to be a very important element of forests. However, tourism and recreation are non-timber products of forests (Suleiman *et al.*, 2017).

According to Jenkins and Schaap (2018), forest is one of the important natural resources in the earth. Forests cover 31% of the world's land surface, just over 4 billion hectares (one hectare = 2.47 acres) (FAO, 2018). This size is down from the pre-industrial area of 5.9 billion hectares (FAO 2018). The size of forest has been decreasing every year due to extraction and over-exploitation. However,

functions of forests vary from one continent to the other. Forests wherever they are; cycles nutrients, regulates climate, stabilizes soils, treats waste, sequesters carbon, clean air and are the source of water (catchment area) and is a home of different animal, plants and micro-organisms (Agbogidi and Eshegbey, 2008). Forests also offer opportunities for recreation and tourism. Some of the activities performed in the forests are not compatible to the forests such as lumbering, logging, grazing and others; they have negative effects on forests. At regional levels, forests vary in term of size, coverage and functions. Tropics are areas with big forests providing both direct and indirect benefits. Direct benefits of forests comprised fuel-wood, timber and poles while indirect benefits of forests include shade, regulate climate and sequester carbon. Tropical forests such as Congo forest have very big trees which attracts tourists and rainfalls. Activities executed in different forests such as lumbering and logging has attracted tourists viewing these activities, doing films and taking photographs.

As in other developing countries, Tanzania's forests and woodlands play a very crucial role in the survival of human beings (Luoga *et al.*, 2005; Linuma and Tang'are, 2018)). Tanzania has a large area of forest providing building materials, food, fodder, medicinal herbs, and fuel-wood (Mhache, 2012; FAO, 2018). According to Lawman & Sinu (2017), forests sustain different peoples' cultural, spiritual and religious values among others. However, these contributions are no longer sustainable due to population increase, high rate of exploitation and depletion of forests in Tanzania. The way benefits of forests are accrued is not sustainable, not compatible to it. The review of literature showed that, forests offers different products which are compatible to it, which does not degrade the environment. Forests, woodlands and trees provide what is termed as amenity services. These services attract people to visit forests and enjoy them. A proportion of the visits to forests can be classified as 'tourism' visits. Understanding the influence that forests and forestry practices have on tourism visits and associated expenditures is important. Thus, this study is designed to discern the potentials of forests on nature based tourism, a case of Rau Forest Reserve in Moshi District, Tanzania. The objective of this study is to explore the potential of forest on Nature Based Tourism; to examine the contribution of forests on NBT and to determine challenges facing forests as one of the avenue for the development of Nature Based Tourism.

Methodology

The study areas

This study was conducted in Rau Forest Reserve situated in Moshi Urban District in Kilimanjaro Region. Rau Forest Reserve is one of the urban forest in Tanzania located 3km South East of Moshi Town between Latitude 3° 23' S and Longitude 37° 22' E. Rau Forest Reserve was established by the Government of Tanzania in 1957. This forest covers an area of 570 hectares. Its boundaries are; to the north is bordered by Msaranga village; to the southern part is bordered by

Kaloleni village, Mabogini village and rice farms. To its East it border with Mwananguluwe tributary which is natural boundary; western part is bordered by Mjimpya and Njoro villages.

Data collection and analysis

Secondary data were collected from the reports, published and unpublished documents. Primary data was collected using interviews and direct observation in the villages situated close to the Rau Forest Reserve. Tourists and Tanzania Forest Services (TFS) staffs were interviewed. In this study 20 people were interviewed. Direct observation was done where different photos were taken. Content analysis was used to analyze the data collected and presented in boxes and narratives. This study adopted case study research design and opt for qualitative research approach.

Research Findings

Potentials of forests on the Nature Based Tourism in Tanzania

Forest is an important natural resource in Tanzania (Luoga *et al.*, 2005 in Mhache, 2012; Gross-Camp, 2017). Forest supports livelihoods of people in different angles. It offers both direct benefits and indirect services. Indirectly, forests regulate climate, sequestrate carbon and attract rainfalls. Forests whether reserve, protected or planted could be used for studies and for research. It is a source of building materials, fuel-wood, food, fodder, source of medicinal herbs and is a home of wildlife (FAO, 2018). Despite all these benefits, the potential of forests to tourism and recreation is missing. This section tried to establish the potential of forests on tourism development (Box 1).

Box 1: Potential of forests on tourism

“Among the potential of forests is its support to tourism development. House cannot be built on the air; this is the same to tourism that, forest is the base of tourism without which tourism in Tanzania is in danger”. Said one of the Forest Officer interviewed in Rau Forest Reserve. Forests have organisms (plants and animals) and features (water bodies, water-falls and others) which attracts tourists”, said chairman of Msaranga Ward.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Forests offer good environment and scenery (the natural feature of a landscape) for tourism development (Box 1). Most of forests are used for providing timber, fuel-wood and medicinal herbs. Forests are also sources of water, habitats of wild animals, attract rainfalls and regulates climate, to list some. All these benefits of forest support tourism and livelihoods of the people. Marketing through advertisement and promotion of forests can attract many people from different part of world to visit Tanzania and enjoy scenery of natural and planted forests. The Village Chairman of Mabogini Village had this to say,

“Natural environment is what attracts tourists from all over the world to visit or tour Tanzania. People travel long distances to Tanzania for watching birds, animals and their habitats i.e. forests. For the Rau Forest Reserve, people traveled long distances to view/ watch animals, plants and natural sources of water (springs) in the forest”.

Although it is not acknowledged, forest is the base of tourism development. Forests offer habitats for wild animals, plants and micro-organisms. Forest is where wild animals live; it is the home of animals and it is the breeding grounds of several animals. In promoting tourism in most cases, forests are not mentioned or cited. *“When promoting tourism we need also to consider habitats of animals and landscape supports their life i.e. forests, water bodies and others”*, said tour guide met in the Rau Forest Reserve. All in all, forest is the main stay of tourism without which, tourism is in danger. Forest offers areas for building tourist facilities such as houses, tents, camps and area for camping (Box 2). Thus, forests supports and can tourism in many ways.

Box 2: Importance of forests to tourism

The importance of forests to tourism cannot be ignored. Forests offer habitats for wild animals and offer spaces for building tourism facilities such as roads, houses, tents, camps and others. All in all, forests are important natural resources for the development of tourism in any nation.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Tanzania is among the country with many and big forests such as Amani Forest, Jozani Forest Reserve Rau Forest Reserve, Ngezi Forest Reserve, Uluguru Mountain Forest, Pugu-Kazimzumbwi Forests and others (Box 3). These forests and its natural features such as water bodies, water sources, trees of different sizes and species, landscape and others, are among the core features of the country’s attraction for tourists.

Box 3: Forests, a tourism attraction

Tanzania is blessed for big forests. Some of the forests in Tanzania are Amani Forest Reserve, Jozani Forest Reserve, Rau Forest Reserve, Pugu-Kazimzumbwi Forests and others. These forests and its natural features such as water sources, animals, big and tall trees, plant species and landscapes are among the core features of the tourism attraction. If these features are properly marketed can boost tourism industry in the country.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Ecotourism involves responsible travelling to natural areas, with the purpose of educating the traveler without exerting environmental and cultural impact which may compromise traditional tourism. Forests and their wildlife are among the primary settings for ecotourism activities; promoting forest preservation and

investing in ecotourism would be the way to attract more tourists to ecotourism. The tourist met in Moshi urban had this to say,

“I prefer ecotourism because it is positive to the environment, it consider nature and does not include destruction of the nature”.

Among African countries where forest tourism benefits from governmental support is Tanzania since the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism introduced the Tanzania Forest Services (TFS) among whose purposes is to support sustainable utilization of forest resources. Sustainability of forest would be achieved through rational use of forests and allowing only activities which are compatible to forests such as tourism, bee-keeping, research and others (Box 4).

Box 4: Inter-dependence of forest and tourism

Forest and tourism are like twins, thus forests must be used sustainably for the benefits of the present and future generation. Only activities which are compatible to forests must be encouraged, among the compatible activities with forests include tourism, bee-keeping, research, leisure (picnic) and recreation.

Source: Field survey, 2018

Nevertheless, at present, the benefits of ecotourism seem to outweigh the risks, specifically with regards to forest tourism, which has turned into a successful way of promoting forest conservation. One of the ways to further increase the positive influence of ecotourism is to ensure the involvement of local population into ecotourism services, which may be achieved through training and education. In addition, income from forest tourism should be used in order to promote sustainable forestry management. The Open University of Tanzania, Geography Field Practical students visited Rau Forest Reserve for tour and learning in 2018 (Box 5).

Box 5: Tourism cum studies

May last year 2018 Geography Field Practical students from the Open University of Tanzania had a study tour to Rau Forest Reserve. The visit had two objectives, the first objective was to study different species, animals and landscape of the forest and second objective was touring the forest. The forest had features which attract tourists such as milk-water, big and huge tree than any other tree in Africa and Rau River crossing the forest. Rau Forest Reserve offers a good area for studies, research and enjoyment.

Source: Field survey, 2018

The contribution of forests to Nature Based Tourism

Like in any other developing countries, Tanzania's forests and woodlands play a very important role in the survival of human beings (Luoga *et al.*, 2005) and tourism. Under current practices, the contributions of forests to tourism and human beings are not sustainable because forests are experiencing high rate of depletion. Despite the challenges encountered by forests, Rau Forest Reserve has different species and features which supports tourism. Observations made and interview made with the Rau Forest Reserve officials identified special sites, features, animals and plant species which attract tourists. *Melicia excelsa* (huge tree in the forest), milk spring water, River Rau and large freshwater springs are some of the things which attract tourist in the Rau Forest Reserve.

Melicia excelsa is a huge, biggest and tallest tree in the Rau Forest Reserve. *Melicia excelsa* (Plate 1) is the 50m tall tree considered to be the largest in Africa and found at the centre of the Rau Forest Reserve. The uniqueness of this tree becomes attractive icon to many tourists from different countries and some rituals are performed under it such as initiation, worshipping and other traditional rituals. The area is also used as a briefing place for students, researchers, tourist and other visitors to the forest. Plate 2 present students who visited the forest for studies, it was a study tour. Research and studies is allowed in the forest as a way of enhancing benefits of the Rau Forest Reserve.



Plate1: *Melicia excelsa*, a 50m tall tree found in the Rau Forest Reserve

It was further found that, several people organize a picnic in the forest. Picnic needs a cool place where people can sit, meet and do whatever they want including meetings, birthday party, wedding and others. Picnic is an occasion when a packed meal is eaten outdoors, especially during an outing to the countryside. In Rau Forest Reserve picnic is done anywhere but in most cases is done close to *Melicia excelsa*, a large and tallest tree in the forest (Plate 1).



Plate 2: Geography Field Practical students visited Rau Forest Reserve in 2018. At the back is the *Melicia excelsa*, a huge tree in Africa.

Another unique feature in the Rau Forest Reserve is milk spring water (Plate 3). To the south of the forest there is a pond whose water is milk-like colored which is one of the attraction site in the forest. According to the Rau Forest Reserve officials, milk-like colored water is believed to have its source from Mountain Kilimanjaro. People are interested to visit this area watching the water and taking photos.



Plate 3: Milk spring water found in the Rau River Forest.

River Rau is another feature found in the Rau Forest Reserve (Plate 4). The forest i.e. Rau Forest Reserve is named after this river which crosses the forest from North to the centre part of the forest. Plate 4 presents part of the Rau River. The water from the Rau River is used for paddy irrigation and for domestic activities. The Rau Forest Reserve is crossed by three rivers which are Rau River, Mamba River and Mana-nguruwe River. These rivers provide water for irrigation to the people living around these rivers.



Plate 4: River Rau, a river crossing the forest

Rau Forest Reserve is blessed with large freshwater springs. The forest has six large freshwater springs which are Mtomamba, Chem-chem ya Njoro, Chem-chem ya Bustani, Chem-chem ya Mamioni and Mwananguruwe. Water is collected in a reservoir at the east end of the reserve and used to irrigate about 250,000 ha of dry lowland area south of Rau Forest Reserve. The origin of these rich springs is on the slopes of Mt. Kilimanjaro. Water arrives underground through loose volcanic debris.

Species and features supporting nature tourism

The information collected using interviews and observation identified number of species and features suitable for tourism activities in the study area. The Rau Forest Reserve is composed of both natural species (Plate 5) and planted species. Some of the tree species found in the Rau Forest Reserve are Tabana Montana trees, Rouvovia catra trees, Trichelia Emetika Trees, Noutonia or Mkuti trees, Stately trees, Sederea Oduarata trees, Albizia tree (Mruka), Blideria maigrantha trees, Mahogany trees, Ficus trees, Tectona trees, Mango trees, Melicia excelsa trees, Stigma trees, Palm trees, Lemon trees, Guava trees, Eucalyptus trees, Makaranga trees, Syzygium trees and others. The forest has an exceptional or unique tree which could not be found anywhere in East Africa except in Rau Forest Reserve like *Oxystigma msoo* tree and *Lovoa swynnertonii*. These tree species is the only tree found in East Africa. Among the planted trees in Rau Forest Reserve including Tectona grandis trees (Mbudnuki tree) and Cyprus trees. Apart from plant species, different animals are found in the Rau Forest Reserve. The forest has different kinds of snakes such as Black mamba, Cobra, Green mamba, Swila and Python. Other animals found in the forest are Blue monkey, Colobus monkey, variety of butterflies, bees, antelopes, beetles and variety of birds.

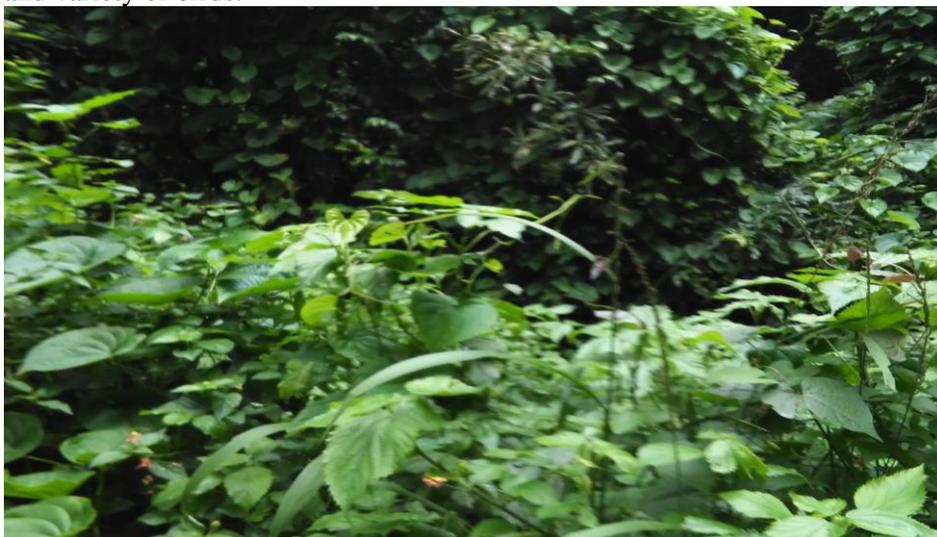


Plate 5: Natural plant species in the Rau Forest Reserve

Activities legally allowed in the Rau Forest Reserve

The study explored number of activities allowed in the Rau Forest Reserve. The first activity allowed in the forest is bee-keeping (Plate 6). Bee-keeping is compatible with the forest; it does not degrade the environment. At national level, Tanzania Forest Services provide rooms for other institutes like Forest Industry Training Institutes (FITI) to site hives in the forest reserve. At regional level TFS collaborates well with Moshi Municipal by supporting the beekeeping groups that site their hives within the reserve. The old man interviewed in the study area had this to say,

“Bee-keeping is one of the best economic activities in the forest. Bees help in pollination of plants. To prove this he further said, during the flowering of coffee you will see a lot of bees around”.

Rau Forest Reserve staff interviewed said this,

“Bee-keeping is allowed in the forest because it is compatible with the forest. It involves only hanging the beehives in the trees and leaves them there for sometimes before harvesting. Bees can be harvested twice a year”.



Plate 6: Bee hives used for bee-keeping is hanging on the tree

Nature walk is another activity allowed in the Rau Forest Reserve. Nature walk involves walking in the forest, watching natural plants, watching animals, watching birds and environment at large. Nature walk gives rooms for taking photos of plants, animals, birds and environment. Research and studies are compatible to environments. Research involves a way to enhance the benefits of forest. Research is a process of searching a new knowledge. Students are

allowed to conduct research for their studies in Rau Forest Reserve. Students have developed their thesis with focus to this forest. Other people have published papers with bearing to Rau Forest Reserve. TAFORI is allowed to conduct research in Rau Forest Reserve.



Figure 7: Tourism attractions and activities allowed in the Rau Forest Reserve

Photographing and films is among the activities allowed in the Rau Forest Reserve (Plate 7). Photographing is the process of taking picture of plants, animals, environments and other activities in the forest like beehives and water bodies. Films comprise the activity of making moves or films for the issues of interest in the forest. The tour guide interviewed in the forest had this to say, “Nearly all tourists visiting the forest do photographs and taking films in the

forest". After their visit they go with the photos and films to their country of origin and show them to their relatives and friends. By doing so, they are doing marketing of Rau Forest Reserve and Tanzania at large.

Challenges facing Rau Forest Reserve as tourism destination

Rau Forest Reserve is found at the centre of the Moshi Township which results to many challenges. Villagers living near or around the forest are not allowed to go inside the forest and harvest anything neither trees nor grasses without a permission of the Rau Forest Reserve authority. Rau Forest Reserve is located close to Moshi Town and is surrounded by different villages. These people are exerting problem to the forest. The first challenge facing Rau Forest Reserve is illegal hunting. People, who are not innocent, hunt animals found in the forest illegally. Animals hunted from the forest among others include monkeys, dik-dik and birds. The second challenge facing the forest is illegal tree cutting in the forest for different uses. Trees are cut for building houses, making timber and for firewood. These activities contributed to deforestations and loss of biodiversity. Another challenge facing the Rau Forest Reserve is accessing forest for fodder and grasses for feeding animals. This activity leads to biodiversity loss and species extinction.

Introduction of invasive species in the forest is also a challenge to the forest. The past illegal harvesting allowed much of the invasive species to grow and develop more than the indigenous species in some areas of the forest. There are very little management or control measures taken to increase the number of native species and reduce the spread of invasive plant species in the forest. The invasive species found in Rau Forest Reserve include *Lantana camara*, *Senna spectabilis* and *Codorata*. Other challenges facing Rau Forest Reserve is constant threat of human activities such as encroachment of forest for cultivation, forest fires, grazing and illegal tree cutting leading to losses of the vegetation cover and biodiversity as well as deterioration of the water catchment values.

There are different management challenges facing Rau forest reserve. Rau forest reserve is found at the centre of the Moshi Township which results on many challenges including encroachment for firewood collection, fodder for animals, poles for building purposes and firewood for bricks making. Scarcity of land to communities surrounding the forest reserve result to less participation on tree planting activities and cause pressure on forest produce needs. Another challenge facing the forest is inadequate capacity to manage the forest reserve in terms of funds, equipment and qualified personnel.

Discussion of the Findings

Conventionally, ecotourism products are developed based on the existing cultural and natural attractions. The study discovered that ecotourism is

practiced in Rau Forest Reserve. Eco-tourism is also termed as sustainable tourism. As an eco-tourist, you decide to travel in a way that shows respect to nature and does not contribute to its degradation. Additionally, ecotourism is a part of environmental conservation, and understanding what the needs of the people are, who are local to the area so that you can help to improve their quality of life. In most cases ecotourism aimed to improve livelihood of the local people. It also involves learning more about the history of other cities and preserving the historical landmarks. One of the main goals of ecotourism is to increase the awareness tourists have about the social conditions surrounding a travel destination. Ecotourism aims to expose tourists to the realities of social and economic climates in an area. Rau Forest Reserve have the potential to be developed and marketed as ecotourism destinations because this forest is endowed with many attributes of tourism attractions, including beautiful scenery, fresh-flowing rivers as well as diverse flora and fauna. The study identified number of tourism attractions found in the Rau Forest Reserve. Among the tourism attractions are *Melicia excelsa*, milk spring water, black and white colobus monkeys, blue monkeys, fresh water, and endemic and unique tree species. Tourism should be part of a broader development plans and emphasis should be given to sustainable forest tourism (Bori-Sanzi and Niskanen, 2002).

Forest supports tourism in different ways. It is the habitat of flora and fauna. Tourists, local and foreigners travel from one place to another visiting another country for leisure and enjoyment. Forest is potential in tourism as it offers different features for people to enjoy like wild animals, wild plants, water sources, landscape, birds, snakes and others. There are different categories of tourists. Some are interested in nature, just watching the natural environments and its components including fauna and flora. Other tourist prefers photographing and films in the forest. The specific challenge facing this forest reserve is constant threat by human activities such as encroachment for cultivation, forest fires, grazing and illegal tree cutting leading to losses of the vegetation cover and Biodiversity as well as deterioration of the water catchment values.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study concludes by emphasizing the inter-dependence between forests and tourism. Wild fauna and flora are found in the forest, all these attract local and international tourists. The existing national forest policy of Tanzania has placed great emphasis on sustainable tourism as well as on ecotourism. The study recommended that, a similar study, with a much wider scope in terms of sample size and coverage should be conducted. The sample should be as much as possible a true representative of the population. Therefore, the possibilities that ecotourism provides in terms of forest preservation and local economy need to be looked into, especially considering the extent to which some indigenous

communities depending on forests for their livelihood. In addition, ecotourism brings more income to local population than commercial conventional tourism that relies mainly on mass hotel chains and large tourist companies.

References

- Abdallah, J. M. and Monela, G. G. 2007. *Overview of Miombo Woodlands in Tanzania*. Working Papers of the Finish Forest Research Institute 50: 9-23.
- Agbogidi, O. M. and Eshegbeyi, O. F. 2008. *Forestry Development for Safe Environment* In: Onykwelu, J. C., Adekunle, V. A. J. and Oke, D. O. (eds). Proc. Of the 1st National Conf. of the Fo. And For. Prod. Soc. Of Nigeria (FFPN) held at the Federal Univ. of Technol., Akure, Ondo State between 16th -18th April, 2008. Pp. 95-98.
- Bori-Sanzi, M. and Niskanen, A. 2002. *Nature-Based Tourism in forests as a tool for Rural Development: Analysis of Three Study Areas in North Karelia (Finland), Scotland and the Katalian Pyrenees*. European Forest Institute.
- Burgess, N. and Clarke, G. 2000. *Coastal Forests of Eastern Africa*. IUCN, Gland, Switzerland and Cambridge, UK.
- Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO), 2018. *The State of the World's Forests: Forests Pathway to Sustainable Development*. Rome, Italy.
- Gross-Camp, N. 2017. Tanzania's community forests: their impact on human well-being and persistence in spite of the lack of benefit. *Ecology and Society* 22(1):37. <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-09124-220137>
- Lawman, M. D. And Sinu, P. A. (2017). Can the Spiritual Values of Forests Inspire Effective Conservation? *BioScience*. August 2017 / Vol. 67 No. 8 pg 688 – 690.
- Linuma, O. F. and Tang'are, J. 2018. Community Perceptions towards Participatory Forest Management, A Case of Kazimzumbwi Forest Reserve in Kisarawe, Tanzania in *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, Volume 8, Issue 10, October 2018, ISSN 2250-3153 Department of Geography & Environmental Studies, The University of Dodoma, P.O Box 395, Dodoma, Tanzania. DOI: 10.29322/IJSRP.8.10.2018.p8217 <http://dx.doi.org/10.29322/IJSRP.8.10.2018.p8217>
- Luoga, E. J., Witkowski, E. T. F. and Balkwill, K. 2005. *Land Cover and \Use Changes in Relation to the Framework and Tenure of Land and Resources in Eastern Tanzania Miombo Woodlands*. University of Witwatersrand, South Africa.
- Mhache, E. P. 2012. *Impacts of Population Change on Forests and Woodlands in Western Bagamoyo, Bagamoyo District, Tanzania*. PhD Thesis. University of Dar es Salaam.
- Nsukwini, S. and Bob, U. 2016. The Socio-Economic Impacts of Ecotourism in Rural Areas: A case Study of Nompondo and the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi

- Park (HiP). Arican Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure. SPECIAL EDITION Vol. 5 (3) - (2016) ISSN: 2223-814X Copyright: © 2014 AJHTL - Open Access- Online @ [http://: www.ajhtl.com](http://www.ajhtl.com).
- Pueyo-Ros, J. 2018. The Role of Tourism in the Ecosystem Services Framework. *Land Land* 2018, 7, 111; doi: 10.3390/land7030111. www.mdpi.com/journal/land.
- Jenkins, M. and Schaap, B. 2018. Forest Ecosystem Services. Global Forest Goals, United Nations: Forum on Forests.
- Suleiman, M. S.; Wasonga, O. V.; Mbau, J.; Suleiman, A. J. and Elhadi, Y. A. M. 2017. Non-timber forest products and their contribution to household's income around Falgore Game Reserve in Kano, Nigeria. *Ecological Processes* (2017) 6:23 Pg 1-14. DOI: 10.1186/s13717-017-0090-8

THE ROLE OF MFIS FINANCING IN FACILITATING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: REVIEW OF EMPRICAL LITERATURES

Joseph Magali
The Open University of Tanzania
joseph.magali@out.ac.tz

Abstract

This paper analyses the role of Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) financing in facilitating tourism development from the literature review by using the content analysis. Specifically, the paper analyzes the empirical studies which assess the role of MFIs financing in facilitating tourism development in order to establish the extent of knowledge shared from the published articles. The paper reveals that there are scant studies which assess the role of MFIs financing in facilitating tourism development. This paper recommends that there is an urgent need for researchers to conduct studies to assess the role of MFIs financing in facilitating the tourism development worldwide.

Keywords: MFIs financing, tourism development, Tanzania

Introduction

According to Khan, Sajid and Rehman (2011) and Bashier (n.d), Microfinance is the provision of financial services such saving, borrowing, remittance and insurance and non financial services such as training and marketing to the unemployed, low-income earners who previously had no access to such services. These services are usually provided by the microfinance institutions (MFIs) and target the disadvantaged and the poor people. The purpose of microfinance is to support production, promote assets' ownership, increase consumption, create employment opportunities and mitigate risks. Therefore, the ultimate goal of microfinance is to reduce poverty among clients and it contributes to the Gross National Product.

The concept of Microfinance has been given prominence since 1976 when Muhammad Yunus lent 27 dollars to help 42 poor women in Bangladesh. Because of the success obtained by his initiative, in December 1976, Muhammad Yunus established the Grameen bank to offer loans to the poor in Bangladesh. This stimulated the growth of MFIs worldwide (Valadez & Buskirk, 2015). Grameen bank promoted the group lending innovation because the group cohesion was used as collateral for the loan (Sengupta & Aubuchon, 2008). Sengupta and Aubuchon (2008) and Yunus (1999) further assert that microfinance has emerged because poor people lacked access to formal financial services.

Various scholars relates the theory of microfinance with definition, history, functions, advantages and challenges of microfinance and microfinance institutions (Bashier, n.d; Sengupta & Aubuchon, 2008; Valadez & Buskirk, 2015; Brennan n.d., Yunus, 1999; Omondi & Jagongo, 2018), just to list a few. Scholars also use several theories to explain MFIs functions and clients' behaviours. To list a few, Ashraf (2016) has explained the link between the MFIs clients' participation and the theory of planned behaviour in Bangladesh. Yadav (2019) maintained that the game theory can be used to explain the group lending methodology while Omondi and Jagongo (2018) related the microfinance services with financial sustainability theory, games theory and women empowerment theory. This paper associates MFIs financing with tourism development.

MFIs in developing countries play important role in providing credit access, developing a saving culture for clients and training Small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) owners in various issues (Osoro and Muturi, 2013; Omondi & Jagongo, 2018). Moreover, MFIs serve the disadvantaged group of youths and women and promote their SMEs growth and development than regulated formal financial institutions (Seeku, Jaabi & Chandran, 2017; Brown, Mackie, Smith & Msoka, 2015; Massele, Fengju & Masele, 2015; Manongi, 2013). Some scholars argue that microfinance has a potential of increasing poverty when clients default their loans (Brennan, n.d; Magali, 2013; Kato & Kratzer, 2013). However, this is beyond the scope of this paper.

Tourism increases the foreign exchange earnings, the national income and contributes to the economic growth and development of a particular country (Shodhganga, 2018). Ohlan (2017) affirmed that tourism promoted economic growth in India while the World Travel and Tourism Council (2018) reported that tourism and travel played significant roles in job creation, export facilitation, and prosperity generation worldwide. For example in 2017, tourism sector contributed to 10.4% of global GDP and 313 million jobs which was 9.9% of total employment worldwide. UNCTAD (2010) indicates that in the 1980s the gross tourism receipts accounted for less than 10% of total export earnings in Tanzania while it increased to 35% in 2000s. Moreover, the contribution of the tourism sector to the GDP in 2017 was Tanzanian Shillings (TZS) 10, 526.7bn (USD4, 721.0mn) which was 9.0% of GDP and it created 446,000 jobs equivalent to 3.3% of total employment. Furthermore, tourism invested a total of TZS 746.5bn which was 8.7% of total investment (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2018).

Peric, Mujacevic and Simunic (n.d) and Hawkins and Mann (2007) assert that financing of tourism through World Bank technical assistance has attracted the foreign direct investment of over \$2 billion in the tourism sector in more than 80 countries since 1956. Example of these countries are Tanzania, Uganda,

Ghana, Nigeria, Mozambique, Kenya, Cambodia, and Honduras. In these countries, tourism has resulted in job creation, growth in tax revenues, improvement in foreign exchange earnings, and opportunities for small businesses. Gautam (2008) finds that financing tourism through government funds and loans from banks and financial institutions positively influence economic growth in Nepal. Shahbaz, Benkraiem, Miloudi, and Tiwari (2018) link the financing of the tourism sector and economic growth in Malaysia. Moreover, Koutra (2008) and Yusuf and Ali (2018) link the tourism sector and poverty reduction in Ghana and Tanzania, respectively.

However, some scholars such as Seetanah and Sannasse (2015), Liao et al. (2018), and McGehee, Lee, O'Bannon, and Perdue (2010) assessed the contribution of the financial sector on tourism in Mauritius, China, and Virginia, respectively. Furthermore, some studies mention a lack of inadequate financial resources as a hindrance for the operation of tourism activities (Ribarić and Dadić (2017) in Croatia, Şafaklı (2003) in Northern Cyprus, and Lamont and Ferreira (2015) in South Africa; just to list a few).

Therefore, this paper synthesizes the studies done to assess the role of MFIs in financing and facilitating tourism development, in order to identify the gaps for further studies in Tanzania and other countries in the world.

Methodology

This paper used the African Journals OnLine, Directory of Open Access Journals, researchgate, Emerald, Jstor, SAGE, and Google Scholar databases to download articles. The following search words were used: Microfinance, tourism financing, MFIs, Microfinance Institutions, microcredit and tourism, Microcredit services, MFIs and tourism financing, MFIs and tourism financing and Tanzania, and MFIs and capital and tourism. 65 articles were retrieved by using the mentioned search words. Nevertheless, only 41 articles possessed the information on the contribution of tourism to economic development, the roles of MFIs' services, and the role of financial resources on tourism. Also, the major focus was on the studies which mentioned the role of financial resources or the role of MFIs' financing on tourism development. These concepts were classified into themes to indicate the study gaps. Since the paper used content analysis, two articles were used to explore the information on how to use the content analysis methodology. Gaps from previous studies were identified after presenting the empirical studies on the role of MFIs' financing in facilitating tourism development worldwide.

Qualitative content analysis, which allows text extraction from articles, was used (White and Marsh, 2006). Through content analysis, the researcher divided the contents into themes and classified the needed contents in the respective theme (Busch et al., 2016). These themes were contribution of

tourism to economic development, tourism financing and MFIs tourism financing and MFIs financing in Tanzania. However, the analysis did not focus on the frequency of occurrence of texts but only the relationship between the MFIs financing and tourism development was considered. This technique is called exploration of semantic relationship between variables (Busch et al, 2016).

Findings and Discussion

The findings show that various studies such as UNCTAD (2010), Shodhganga (2018), Ohlan (2017) and World Travel and Tourism Council (2018) analyse only the contribution of tourism to the economic growth. These studies were done in Nepal, India and Worldwide respectively. Moreover, studies which analyzed the role of tourism financing activities on economic growth include Peric, et al., (n.d), Hawkins and Mann (2007) and Gautam (2008). Studies which analysed the role of tourism financing on poverty reduction include Koutra (2008), Shahbaz et al. (2018) and Yusuf and Ali (2018), just to mention a few. These studies were conducted in developing countries, worldwide, Nepal, Ghana, Malaysia and Tanzania respectively.

Studies which assessed the contribution of the finance sector on tourism include Seetanah and Sannasee (2015), Liao et al. (2018), McGehee et al. (2010) and Lamont and Ferreira (2015), to mention a few. Moreover, Ribarić and Dadić (2017), Şafakli (2003) and Lamont and Ferreira (2015) reported lack of financial resources as barrier which hindered the tourism development. These studies were done in Mauritius, China, Virginia, Croatia and South Africa respectively and focused on the role of regulated and formal MFIs in promoting the tourism development.

The studies which analyze the role on MFIs tourism financing on facilitating the tourism development have been presented in Table 1. The analysis of findings in Table 1 indicates that, to the best of the author's knowledge, none of studies have been done in Tanzania to assess the influence of MFIs financing in facilitating the tourism development.

The empirical literatures indicate that only Ngoasong and Kimbu (2016) assessed the influence of informal microfinance institutions and development-led tourism entrepreneurship in Cameroon. However, the study did not involve the influence of semi-formal MFIs such as Savings and Credits Cooperatives societies (SACCOS) and NGO MFIs on financing the tourism activities in Cameroon. Also Lamont and Ferreira (2015) assessed the challenges facing management and development of tourism in the Eden District, South Africa where lack of enough funds was observed as one of the challenges which face the tourism development.

Furthermore, Shodhganga (2018) assessed how the tourism financing is done in Nepal. The study revealed that the tourism sector in Nepal financed their activities from various sources including government, MFIs, and banks and this promoted tourism development. However, this study did not assess adequately how MFIs financing influence the tourism financing in Nepal.

Other studies have combined MFIs financing and other variables, for example, World Tourism Organization (2005) analyzed the link between the tourism, microfinance and poverty alleviation worldwide. Since there were many variables and the study was wide, the coverage on the influence of the MFIs on tourism development concentrated only in Morocco where the study revealed that MFIs promoted the rural tourism projects in Morocco but the influence of MFIs on the urban tourism projects was not covered. Moreover, Akmesse et al. (2016) and Van der Sterren (2008) assessed the link between financial performance and social media for tourism Enterprises in Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST) and financial markets, microfinance and tourism in developing countries in Greece and Philippines, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic respectively. In both cases the studies did not examine how MFIs financing facilitated the tourism development. Akmesse et al. (2016) also indicated that Micro and small tourism businesses were not covered in MFIs assessment, despite they were important contributors to poverty reduction in tourism destinations.

The two remaining studies in Table 1; Nuwagaba (2015) and Anderson (2018) linked the MFI financing and facilitation of the development where the concentration was only on either of the variables. In this case, Nuwagaba (2015) examined the influence of Non Performing Loans (NPL) on MFIs lending activities in Zambia where the study mentioned that tourism is the one of the loan activities which is affected if MFIs have high number of NPL while Anderson (2018) assessed the linkages between tourism and agriculture marketing for inclusive development in Tanzania. This study covered only the marketing limitations of community based tourism and the role of MFIs on community based tourism was not explored.

The empirical literature review indicates that there are scanty studies done to assess the influence of MFIs financing in facilitating the tourism development. Based on the analysis of empirical literature review, the author reveals that there are many opportunities to conduct studies which link the MFIs and tourism development or operations. For example, studies may be conducted to assess the repayment performance for loans used to finance tourism activities, impacts of loans used to finance the tourism activities, the empowerment caused by loans taken to finance the tourism activities, the sustainability of loans used to finance the tourism activities and the credit risk mitigation techniques for such loans. Also the studies may focus various categorizes of MFIs such as formal, informal

and semi-formal. Moreover, studies may be conducted to compare the performance of loans between micro, medium and large tourism enterprises and comparison of loan performance between the rural and urban tourism enterprises. Furthermore, Seeku, Jaabi and Chandran (2017; Mtamakaya, Kessy, Jeremia, Msuya and Stray-Pedersen (2018) argue that if MFIs are not managed properly, they cannot promote the positive impacts to the beneficiaries. Hence, more studies may be conducted to assess the performance of MFIs which serve tourism SMEs in Tanzania. The author views that informal MFIs such as Village Community Banks (VICOBA) and semi-formal MFIs such as Savings and Credits Cooperative Societies (SACCOS) and other microlenders serve 72% of Tanzanians (FinSCOpe, 2017). Therefore, they have potentials of financing the tourism activities and the studies may be conducted to assess how they finance the tourism activities and facilitate the tourism development in Tanzania and other countries in the world. Table 1 presents the studies related with the title of the paper and indicates the study gap for each study.

Table 1: Studies Done To Assess the Role Financial Resources in Facilitating Tourism Development

Name of Author (s), year of publication and country(ies) of study	Title	Findings	MFIs Financing Issues the study did not cover
World Tourism Organization (2005) in Worldwide	Tourism, Microfinance and Poverty Alleviation: Recommendations to Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises (SMEs) and to Microfinance Institutions (MFIs).	Tourism has promoted the growth of MFIs and poverty reduction. The major focus was on how MFIs finance the tourism rural projects by the use of microcredit in Morocco.	The study did not focus on influence of MFIs on urban tourism projects. Therefore, the focus was narrow
Nuwagaba (2015) in Zambia	Micro Financing of Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) in Zambia	Non Performing Loans has forced the MFIs to reduce their lending activities in Zambia	The study did not concentrate on tourism financing despite the study recommended the government's micro loan subsidization and full microfinance insurance coverage for the important loan activities such as agriculture, mining and tourism
Akmese, Aras and Akmese (2016) in Greece	Financial Performance and Social Media: A Research on Tourism Enterprises Quoted in Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST)	The use of social media positively influenced the net profit, market value, market value to net sales ratio and price to earnings ratio for tourism enterprises	The study concentrated on the use of social media and not the role of MFIs in financing the local tourism activities
Van der Sterren (2008) in Philippines, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic	Financial markets, microfinance and tourism in developing countries; the cases of the Philippines, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic	Lack access to credit and other financial services constrain the tourism sector and other foreign direct investments projects which promote the tourism activities.	The extent of influence of MFIs on tourism financing has not adequately being explored. Micro and small tourism businesses were not covered in MFIs assessment. They may contribute to poverty reduction in tourism destinations.
Ngoasong and	Informal microfinance institutions	Informal microfinance institutions	Semi-formal and formal MFIs were not

Kimbu (2016) in Cameroon	and development-led tourism entrepreneurship.	served many small tourism firms than formal financial institutions.	covered and the study is qualitative
Lamont and Ferreira (2015) in South Africa	Challenges facing management and development of tourism in the Eden District, South Africa.	Lack of additional funds as one of the challenges facing management and development of tourism in the Eden District in South Africa.	The role of MFIs on financing the tourism activities was not covered
Shodhganga (2018) in Nepal	Tourism finance: an impact analysis	The tourism sector in Nepal financed their activities from various sources including government, MFIs, and banks and this promoted tourism development.	No specific exploration on how MFIs financing promoted the tourism development
Anderson (2018) in Tanzania	Linkages between tourism and agriculture for inclusive development in Tanzania.	The marketing limitations of community based tourism were poor marketing skills, lack of markets and information and poor roads	No coverage on the role of MFIs on promoting community based tourism

Conclusion and Recommendations

The empirical literature indicates that there are many opportunities to conduct studies which link the MFIs financing and tourism development because there are sparse literatures conducted to assess the same. Therefore, the paper recommends that adequate studies should be conducted to assess how MFIs financing facilitates the tourism development worldwide, particularly in Tanzania.

Policy implications

The promotion of tourism activities should be matched with strengthening the MFIs institutions which serve majority of citizens in developing countries. Also commercial banks should devise loans with affordable conditions which fit the tourism sector. Siddo (2017) reported that local commercial banks' risk aversion, lack of understanding of the tourism economic sector, building costs and profit expectations threatened the tourism financing in Africa. Therefore, the governments worldwide should establish a special policies and regulations which will promote the tourism financing by MFIs.

References

- Akmese, H., Aras, S., & Akmese, K. (2016). Financial performance and social media: a research on tourism enterprises quoted in Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST). *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 39(2016), 705–710. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671\(16\)30281-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2212-5671(16)30281-7)
- Anderson, W. (2018). Linkages between tourism and agriculture for inclusive development in Tanzania. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 1(2), 168–184. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JHTI-11-2017-0021>
- Ashraf, M.A. (2014). The theory of planned behavior and microfinance participation: from the perspective of nonparticipating rural poor in Bangladesh. *Research Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 5(7), 159-168.
- Bashier, H. H. (n.d). Microfinance theory. A renew from theoretical reflection. Retrieved from: https://www.slideshare.net/hebabashier/micro-finance-theory?from_action=save, on 17/03/2019
- Brennan, T.(n.d). Theory of microfinance. Retrieved from: <https://www.scribd.com/document/298754396/Theory-of-Microfinance>, on 17/03/2019
- Brown, A., Mackie, P., Smith, A., & Msoka, C. (2015). Financial Inclusion and Microfinance in Tanzania. ESRC Report. Retrieved from: https://www.cardiff.ac.uk/__data/assets/pdf_file/0010/592129/Tanzania-Feb-2015-FINAL.pdf, on 24/12/2018
- Busch, C., Maret, P.S., Flynn, T., Kellum, R., Le, S., Meyers, B., Saunders, M. White, R. & Palmquist, M. (2016). Content analysis. Writing@CSU. Colorado State University. Available at

- <http://writing.colostate.edu/guides/guide.cfm?guideid=61>, Accessed 14/03/2019.
- FinSCOpe (2017). Finscope Tanzania 2017 Report. Retrieved from: <http://www.fsdt.or.tz/wp-content/uploads/2017/09/FinScope-Tanzania-2017-Insights-that-Drive-Innovation.pdf>, on 3/4/2019
- Gautam, B. P. (2008). Economic impact of tourism finance in Nepal. *NRB Economic Review*, 20, 62–73.
- Hawkins, D. E., & Mann, S. (2007). The World Bank's role in tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 34(2), 348–363. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2006.10.004>
- Khan, S., Sajid, M.R., & Rehman H. (2011). Women's empowerment through microcredit: a case study of district Gujrat, Pakistan. *Academic Research International*, 1(2), 332-343.
- Kato, M. P., & Kratzer, J. (2013). Empowering women through microfinance: evidence from Tanzania. *ACRN Journal of Entrepreneurship Perspectives*, 2(1), 31-59.
- Koutra, C. (2008). Financial capital for tourism development and wealth creation. Retrieved from: http://www.atlas-webshop.org/epages/61492534.sf/en_GB/?ObjectPath=/Shops/61492534/Products/ATL_00077, on 24/12/2018
- Lamont, A. J., & Ferreira, P. N. (2015). Challenges facing management and development of tourism in the Eden District, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 4(2), 1-20
- Liao, K. C., Yue, M. Y., Sun, S. W., Xue, H. B., Liu, W., Tsai, S. B., & Wang, J. T. (2018). An evaluation of coupling coordination between tourism and finance. *Sustainability (Switzerland)*, 10(7). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10072320>
- Magali, J.J. (2013). Factors affecting credit default risks for rural savings and credits cooperative societies (SACCOS) in Tanzania. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(32), 60-73.
- Manongi, N. (2013). Impact of microfinance institutions in development of textile industries in Tanzania: The case of PRIDE Tanzania. Unpublished MBA Dissertation, the Open University of Tanzania
- Massele, J., Fengju, X., & Masele, J. Z. (2015). The role of government microfinance credit scheme in Tanzania a case of NEDF-SIDO. *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 17(7), 8–22. <https://doi.org/10.9790/487X-17710519>
- McGehee, N. G., Lee, S., O'Bannon, T. L., & Perdue, R. R. (2010). Tourism-related social capital and its relationship with other forms of capital: An exploratory study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(4), 486–500. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0047287509349271>
- Mtamakaya, C., Kessy, J., Jeremia, D., Msuya, S., & Stray-Pedersen, B. (2018). The impact of microfinance programmes on access to health care, knowledge to health indicators and health status among women in

- Moshi, Tanzania. *Tanzania Journal of Health Research*, 20(2), April 2018, <https://doi.org/10.4314/thrb.v20i2.7>
- Ngoasong, M. Z., & Kimbu, A. N. (2016). Informal microfinance institutions and development-led tourism entrepreneurship. *Tourism Management*, 52, 430–439. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2015.07.012>
- Nuwagaba, P. A. (2015). Micro financing of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) in Zambia, *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 4(8), 48–56.
- Ohlan, R. (2017). The relationship between tourism, financial development and economic growth in India. *Future Business Journal*, 3(1), 9–22. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbj.2017.01.003>
- Omondi, R. I. A. & Jagongo, A. (2018). Microfinance services and financial performance of small and medium enterprises of youth SMEs in Kisumu County, Kenya. *International Academic Journal of Economics and Finance*, 3(1), 24-43.
- Osoro, K. & Muturi, W. (2013). The role of micro financial institutions on the growth of SMEs in Kenya: A case study of micro financial institutions in Kisi Town. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 16(1), 83–93. <https://doi.org/10.9790/0837-1618393>
- Peric, J., Mujacevic, E., & Simunic, M. (n.d.). International financial institution investments in tourism and hospitality. *Journal of International Business and Cultural Studies*, 1–18.
- Ribarić, H. M., & Dadić, L.(2017). Identifying the impacts of NPOs on tourism in order to increase their financial sustainability, *Tourism in Southern and Eastern Europe*, 4, 115–132.
- Şafaklı, O. (2003). The impact of Cyprus-European union integration on the financing of investments in the tourism sector of northern Cyprus. *Journal of Hospitality Financial Management*, 11(1), 65–83. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10913211.2003.10653772>
- Seeku, A. K., Jaabi & Chandran, V. G. R. (2017). Microfinance institutions in rural Gambia : Case study of village savings and credit associations credit associations. *International Journal of Development Research*, 5(04), 4162-4169
- Seetanah, B., & Sannasee, R. V. (2015). Marketing promotion financing and tourism development: The Case of Mauritius. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 24(2), 202–215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19368623.2014.914359>
- Sengupta, R., and Aubuchon, C. P. (2008). The microfinance revolution: An overview. Retrieved from: <https://files.stlouisfed.org/files/htdocs/publications/review/08/01/Sengupta.pdf>, on 17/03/2019
- Shahbaz, M., Benkraiem, R., Miloudi, A., & Tiwari, A. K. (2018). Tourism-induced financial development in Malaysia. *Tourism Economics*, XX(X) 1–22. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1354816618806123>

- Shodhganga (2018). Chapter – iv-Tourism finance: an impact analysis. Retrieved on 08/03/2018, From: <http://shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in/bitstream/>.
- Siddo, S.(2017). Investing and financing tourism in Africa. The first-ordinary session of the African union specialized technical committee on transport, infrastructure, energy and Tourism. Lome, Togo, 13 - 17 March 2017.
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD, 2010). The contribution of tourism to trade and development. Geneva. www.unctad.org/en/docs/cid8_en.pdf. Accessed on 25 December 2018
- Valadez R. M. & Buskirk, B. (2015). From microcredit to microfinance: a business perspective. *Journal of Finance and Accountancy*, 1-17. Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/268059202_From_Microcredit_to_Microfinance_a_business_perspective [accessed Mar 17 2019].
- Van der Sterren, J. (2008). Financial markets, microfinance and tourism in developing countries; the cases of the Philippines, Nicaragua and the Dominican Republic. *Revista ARA*, 1(2), 35–44.
- Vellas, F. (2005). Tourism, microfinance and poverty alleviation: recommendations to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and to microfinance institutions (MFIs). Retrieved from: https://www.microfinancegateway.org/sites/default/files/mfg-en-paper-tourism-microfinance-and-poverty-alleviation-recommendations-to-small-and-medium-sized-enterprises-smes-and-to-microfinance-institutions-mfis-2005_0.pdf, on 22/03/2019.
- White, M. D., & Marsh, E. E. (2006). Content analysis: A flexible methodology. *Library Trends*, 55(1), 22–45
- World Tourism Organization (2005). Tourism, microfinance and poverty alleviation: recommendations to small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and to microfinance Institutions (MFIs). Retrieved on 25/12/2018, from: <https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/>.
- World Travel & Tourism Council (2018). Travel & Tourism Economic Impact 2018 Tanzania. Retrieved from: <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2018/world2018.pdf>, on 24/12/2018.
- Yadav, V. K.(2019). Microfinance mechanism: a literature review. *International Journal of Research in Humanities, Arts and Literature*, 7(2). Retrieved from: <https://www.scribd.com/document/400244924/1-Microfinance-Mechanism-a-Literature-Review-2019-02-05-10-04>, on 22/03/2019.
- Yunus, M. (1999). *Banker to the poor: Microlending and the battle against world poverty*. New York: Public Affairs.
- Yusuf, S., & Ali, M. M. (2018). Tourism and poverty reduction: evidence from Tanzania. *International Journal of Asian Social Science*, 8(12), 1130–1138. <https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.1.2018.812.1130.1138>

ENVIRONMENTAL ATTITUDES OF VISITORS TO NATURE BASED TOURISM DESTINATIONS; OBAFEMI AWOLOWO UNIVERSITY BIOLOGICAL GARDEN IN PERSPECTIVE

Ajayi O. O., Alarape A. A. and Oluyisola O. O.
University of Ibadan, Nigeria
omololaajayioa@gmail.com

Abstract

The paradigm of sustainable tourism is partly based on the idea that visitor attitudes, choices and behaviour about the environment critically influence sustainability. Biological gardens are traditional sites for nature-based tourism attracting large volume of visitors. The environmental attitudes of these visitors are however rarely studied. This study therefore examined the environmental attitudes of visitors to a nature based tourism destination in Nigeria, specifically Obafemi Awolowo Biological Garden. The New Environmental Paradigm scale consisting of 12 factors was employed. A total of 383 copies of structured questionnaire were administered to visitors and analysed. Visitors showed high percentage agreement with the factors; 'humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs', and 'mankind was created to rule over the rest of nature'. They displayed the highest percentage disagreement with the factors; 'humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs', and 'we are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support'. Visitors to the garden displayed anthropocentric beliefs and human dominance over the rest of nature.

Keywords: Biological Garden, Environmental Attitude, Nature- based Tourism

Introduction

Nature-based tourism (NBT) or decisive travel to natural areas and attractions has shown significant growth over the past two decades (Kuuder et al., 2013; Balmford et al., 2009). Such areas include National Parks, Biological Gardens, Game Reserves, etc. These areas have been reported by various scholars as consistently capable of attracting large numbers of visitors. Törn et al. (2009) noted that the type of visitors and their activities in natural areas play an important role in determining environmental impacts. Issues of sustainability are particularly crucial for NBT because of its utmost reliance on the continuous availability of her natural resources. The paradigm of sustainable tourism is based on the idea that tourist attitudes, choices and behaviour about the environment critically influence sustainability and should therefore be taken into consideration (Weaver and Lawton 2004; Swarbrooke 1999). Also, Honey (2008) opined that the sustainable development of natural and cultural heritage sites, wildlife attractions in and outside protected areas is based not only on the

measures taken by the government and administrative units, but also on the environmental attitudes and behaviour of tourists during their visits.

Attitudes are generally understood as an individual's degree of favorableness or unfavorableness towards an object or a concept (Ajzen and Fishbein, 2000; Kotler, 2000). When this concerns the environment, it is termed 'environmental attitude'. While no generally accepted definition of environmental attitude exists to date, this concept has always been regarded as being similar to or covered by the concept of environmental consciousness, environmental awareness, and environmental affection. Kaiser et al. (1999) for example divided environmental attitudes into three dimensions: environmental knowledge, environmental values, and ecological behaviour intention. Meanwhile, environmental attitudes incorporate four dimensions: environmental protection, environmental resource, environmental study, and environmental sustainability, according to Lu and Liu (2008). The hierarchical structure of environmental attitudes was proposed to consist of two second order factors; preservation and utilization by Wiseman and Bogner (2003). Preservation is a biocentric dimension that reflects conservation and protection of the environment where individuals with this attitude place priority on preserving nature in its original state, and should not be altered by any human use. The utilization group is an anthropocentric dimension which reflects the use of the natural resources.

The most commonly used measure of environmental attitudes in tourism studies is the new environmental paradigm (NEP) (Dunlap et al., 2000). It is used widely in environmental education, outdoor recreation, tourism, and other domains (Dunlap et al., 2000; Lee and Moscardo, 2005). NEP recognizes the detrimental effect of human-influenced interactions with their surrounding natural environment. It is the opposite to Dominant Social Paradigm (DSP) which favours economic growth, scientific development, competition, free market economy, care for the present population without thinking about the future, exploiting the grow-or-die principle, combining financial and political resources and enduring risks (Kostova et al., 2011). NEP measures three environmental factors, humans over nature, limits to growth, and ecocrisis that combine to form a composite measure of environmental attitudes. The NEP assumes that:

Human beings are but one species among the many that are interdependently involved in the biotic communities that shape our social life; There are linkages of cause and effect and feedback in the web of nature, producing many unintended consequences from purposive human actions; The world is finite, so there are potent physical and biological limits constraining economic growth, social progress, and other societal phenomena.

Many research works on tourist environmental attitudes exist such as Ewert et al. (2005), Hashimoto (2005), Lee and Moscardo (2005), Bjerke et al. (2006),

Swanagan (2010) and Mensah and Mensah (2013). However, none of these examined environmental attitudes of visitors in biological gardens. In another light, some factors have been identified as determinants of environmental attitudes; these according to Leonidou et al. (2014) include deontological action, law obedience and political status. The factors are based on the premise that an individual's daily activities such as morals, obedience to laws of the land and participation in social political issues go a long way in influencing the environmental attitude of such individual. For example, a law abiding individual, as a visitor in a nature based tourism destination will obey the laws of the environment and would not litter the environment. This study took a case study approach in assessing environmental attitudes of visitors to a biological garden in southwest Nigeria, as well as the antecedent factors.

Methodology

Study area

Obafemi Awolowo University Biological Garden is located on latitude 7.4667°N and longitude 4.5667°E (Ajibade et al., 2010), Osun State, Nigeria. The Garden was established in 1968 and situated at the Zoology Department, Faculty of Science of the institution and occupying a land area of 13 hectare. The garden is comprised of zoological and botanical sections. Generally, a small number of exotic mammals and bird species as well as native fauna are kept in small breeding groups in small enclosures, in conditions as near as possible to their respective natural habitats (Omonona and Ayodele, 2011). It is primarily a facility for biological studies and at the same time for recreation (Omonona and Ayodele, 2011).

Research Design and Methods

The target respondents were visitors to the garden. Data was collected primarily from three hundred and eighty three (383) visitors (18 years and above) using systematic random sampling technique. The sample size was determined from the yearly adult visitors' estimate of 9180, using Yamane formula of sample size determination for a known population.

Scale development for the constructs used in this study was based on prior studies in this field. Environmental attitude was assessed using the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) as developed by Dunlap et al. (2000). The NEP is divided into three subscales namely Human over Nature (HON), Limits of Growth (LOG) and Ecocrisis (EC). The antecedents of environmental attitudes (influential factors) were adopted from Leonidou et al. (2014). This is divided into three subscales: Deontological status (DES), Law obedience (LOB) and Political action (PAC). Both scales were measured on a five point Likert scale of Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree, where mean scores of 1.0-1.7, 1.8-3.4 and 3.5-5.0 signified agreement, indifference and disagreement, respectively.

Following Thompson (2013), this put the visitors as either Pro-ecological, Mid-ecological or Anti-ecological.

In order to determine the reliability of the scales, the Cronbach's alpha was determined for each scale. The various Cronbach's alpha (included on the result tables) showed internal consistency for all the scales.

Two statistical tools; Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 and R (Programming language) version 3.5.0., were used in analyzing the data obtained. The data were subjected to: Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentage, means and standard deviation)
Inferential statistics: Structural Equation Modelling with statistical significance set at $\alpha 0.05$.

Findings and Discussions

Environmental attitudes of the visitors

This is outlined on Table 1. NEP being the most common measure of environmental concern in tourism studies and generally acknowledged as a reliable multiple-item scale for environmental attitudes (Dunlap, 2008; Filby, 2015; Kostova et al., 2011; Ogunbode, 2013) was used for the study. The NEP features four factors that depicts anthropocentric beliefs, they are 'Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs', 'Mankind was created to rule over the rest of nature', 'Plants and animals exist primarily to be used by humans' and 'Humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs'. It is otherwise called the Dominant Social Paradigm. Agreement to these factors therefore portrays human dominance. Other factors reflect ecocentrism (Dunlap et al., 2000), and agreement with them favours the environment. For these two groups, it is reflected in low mean values in this study.

Respondents showed the highest level of agreement with the HON factors (Composite Mean {CM} = 1.84) such as 'Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs' at 59.8% and 9.9% (Strongly agree (SA) and Agree (A) respectively). The associated mean score (1.72) was the lowest. Others were 'Mankind was created to rule over the rest of nature' at 49.3% (SA) and 27.2% (A) and a mean score of 1.74; 'Plants and animals exist primarily to be used by humans' at 46.7% (SA) and 18.5% (A) with a mean score of 1.91; and 'Humans must live in harmony with nature in order to survive' at 41.3% (SA) and 21.7% (A) and a mean score of 1.99. This HON scale features three of the four anthropocentric statements on the NEP scale, and visitors largely agreed to these statements.

The LOG scale had the second highest level of agreement among respondents (CM = 2.34). 24.5% and 31.3% indicated 'strongly agree' and 'agree'

respectively for the factor 'The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset' at an associated mean score of 2.21. This is followed by other factors: 'There are limits to growth beyond which our industrialized society cannot expand' (SA = 16.4%, A= 23.8%); 'The earth is like a spaceship with only limited room and resources' (SA = 19.1%, A= 32.4%); and 'To maintain a healthy economy we will have to develop a "steady-state' economy where industrial growth is controlled' (SA = 17.2%, A= 30.3%), and 'with mean scores of 2.25, 2.32, and 2.37 respectively. The scores were all in the indifference category.

The EC scale had the least level of agreement among respondents (CM = 3.13). 5.7% and 17% indicated 'strongly agree' and 'agree' respectively for the factor 'Mankind is severely abusing the environment' at an associated mean score of 2.94. This is followed by other factors: 'When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences' (SA = 7.8%, A= 5.2%); 'We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support' (SA = 2.6%, A= 10.2%); and 'Humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs' (SA = 1.6%, A= 6.8%) and 'with mean scores of 3.01, 3.15, and 3.39 respectively. All the mean scores under the EC scale were in the 'undecided' Likert class. This indicates a high level of indifference of the visitors to the abusive use of the environment which results in various detrimental effects. Generally, the rank order showed the factor 'Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs' as the factor with the highest level of agreement while the factor 'Humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs' as that with the lowest level of agreement.

The results exonerate the anthropocentric beliefs of the visitors to the biological garden above ecocentrism. According to Wiseman and Bogner (2003) classification of environmental attitude individuals, the visitors to the garden belong to the utilization group which reflects the use of the natural resources. Largely, these visitors favour the dominance of man and the use to which its resources can be used above care of the environment and sustainability. This agrees with Touhino (2002) who opined that environmental attitudes can be said to be a cultural or social capital rather than as a real concern for nature where there is more or less an intentional or unintentional disregard for the environment. Following the division of Thompson (2013), the visitors were largely mid-ecological.

Table 1: Environmental Attitude of visitors to OAU Biological Garden

Factors	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean	St.D	Order*
Human over nature ($\alpha=0.895$)						1.84	0.79	1 [^]
Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.	59.8	9.9	28.5	1.8	0.0	1.72	0.94	1
Mankind was created to rule over the rest of nature.	49.3	27.2	23.2	0.3	0.0	1.74	0.82	2
Plants and animals exist primarily to be used by humans	46.7	18.5	32.1	2.6	0.0	1.91	0.94	3
Humans must live in harmony with nature in order to survive	41.3	21.7	34.2	2.9	0.0	1.99	0.93	4
Limits of growth($\alpha=0.926$)						2.34	0.72	2 [^]
The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.	24.5	31.3	43.1	1.0	0.0	2.21	0.82	5
To maintain a healthy economy we will have to develop a "steady-state" economy where industrial growth is controlled.	17.2	30.3	51.2	1.3	0.0	2.37	0.78	8
The earth is like a spaceship with only limited room and resources	19.1	32.4	46.2	2.3	0.0	2.32	0.80	7
There are limits to growth beyond which our industrialized society cannot expand	16.4	23.8	58.2	1.6	0.0	2.25	0.78	6
Ecocrisis ($\alpha=0.654$)						3.13	0.54	3 [^]
When humans interfere with nature it often produces disastrous consequences.	7.8	5.2	61.4	24.5	1.0	3.01	0.81	10
Humans need not adapt to the natural environment because they can remake it to suit their needs.	1.6	6.8	44.1	46.0	1.6	3.39	0.71	12
Mankind is severely abusing the environment.	5.7	17.0	56.1	20.4	0.8	2.94	0.80	9
We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support	2.6	10.2	60.8	22.5	3.9	3.15	0.75	11

(SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree; St.D = Standard Deviation * and ^: Rank order by descending mean in total sample)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Antecedent factors of environmental attitude of visitors to OAU Biological Garden

The result is presented on Table 2. Under the DES scale (CM = 2.51), the factor 'I am interested in conserving natural resources' had the highest percentage agreement of 32.9% (SA) and 20.9% (A) with a mean score of 2.34. This was followed by the factors: 'I try to create and provide a better living environment for future generations' (SA = 17.8%, A = 26.1%), 'I reduce unnecessary waste' (SA = 18.5%, A = 24.8%), and 'I am concerned about the environment for my future personal convenience' (SA = 7.8%, A = 20.4%) at mean scores of 2.45, 2.47 and 2.78 respectively.

Under the LOB scale (CM = 2.66), the factor 'I try to avoid committing bribes in my transactions' had the highest percentage agreement (SA = 19.3%, A = 50.4%) and a mean score of 2.14. This was followed by the factors 'I show respect to the laws and especially those for the environment' (SA = 6.3%, A = 29.5%, M = 2.77); 'I abide by the safety law for the protection of the environment' (SA = 4.7%, A = 20.6%, M = 2.83), and 'I try to avoid companies that use misleading environmental practices' (SA = 3.7%, A = 18%, M = 2.83). The factor 'I boycott companies that are not environmentally responsible' had the highest percentage agreement under the PAC scale (SA = 0.5%, A = 17%) and a mean score of 3.40. Other factors: 'I often intervene with the media in order to combat environmental degradation', 'I support environmental pressure groups in order to combat environmental degradation' and 'I lobby political representatives to support green issues' with mean scores of 4.06, 4.08 and 4.16 were indicators of the 'Disagree likert class of 4. CM was 3.93. The rank order showed the LOB factor 'I try to avoid committing bribes in my transactions' as the factor with the highest level of agreement while the PAC factor 'I lobby political representatives to support green issues' as that with the lowest level of agreement.

The composite mean values for visitors under the influential factors of environmental attitude were 2.51, 2.66 and 3.92 for DES, LOB and PAC respectively. Following Thompson (2013), this analysis portrays OAU Biological garden visitors as mid-ecological (for DES and LOB) and anti-ecological (for PAC). This finding corroborates Santos et al. (2016).

Table 4.14: Antecedent factors of environmental attitude

Factors	SA	A	U	D	SD	Mean	St.D	Order*
Deontological status (DES) ($\alpha=0.838$)						2.51	0.76	1 [^]
I am interested in conserving natural resources	32.9	20.9	27.7	16.2	2.3	2.34	1/16	2
I reduce unnecessary waste	18.5	24.8	48.0	8.6	0.0	2.47	0.89	4
I try to create and provide a better living environment for future generations	17.8	26.1	49.3	6.8	0.0	2.45	0.86	3
I am concerned about the environment for my future personal convenience	7.8	20.4	58.2	13.6	0.0	2.78	0.78	6
Law obedience (LOB) ($\alpha=0.838$)						2.66	0.61	2 [^]
I try to avoid committing bribes in my transactions	19.3	50.4	27.7	2.6	0.0	2.14	0.75	1
I show respect to the laws and especially those for the environment	6.3	29.5	44.9	19.3	0.0	2.77	0.83	5
I abide by the safety law for the protection of the environment	4.7	20.6	61.9	12.3	0.5	2.83	0.72	7
I try to avoid companies that use misleading environmental practices	3.7	18.0	62.7	15.7	0.0	2.90	0.69	8
Political action ($\alpha=0.850$)						3.92	0.65	3 [^]
I often intervene with the media in order to combat environmental degradation	0.0	3.1	13.1	58.5	25.3	4.06	0.71	10
I support environmental pressure groups in order to combat environmental degradation	0.0	3.7	12.5	55.6	28.2	4.08	0.74	11
I lobby political representatives to support green issues	0.0	2.6	12.5	51.4	33.4	4.16	0.74	12
I boycott companies that are not environmentally responsible	0.5	17.0	36.6	33.9	12.0	3.40	0.92	9

(SA = Strongly Agree, A= Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree; St.D = Standard Deviation * and ^:

Rank order by descending mean in total sample)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Test of Hypothesis

There is no significant relationship between visitors' environmental attitude and their determining antecedent factors (deontological action; law obedience; and political status).

This is presented on Table 3. The model was considered satisfactory as Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) of 0.9275 was reported. However, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) of 0.2270 and Standardized Root Mean Residual (SRMR) of 0.1485 was recorded. Most of the influential factors of environmental attitude (IEA) (deontological status, law obedience and political action) had positive estimates, and were statistically significant. All the factors under the environmental attitude variable had positive estimates and were statistically significant.

There was a significant relationship between visitors' environmental attitude and their (a) deontological; (b) law obedience; and (c) politically active statuses ($Z = 6.5123$, $p = 0.000$). The null hypothesis is therefore rejected. In other words, the environmental attitudes of the visitors can be predicted by one or more of the three categories. An increase in any of these, translates to a more developed environmental attitude. This finding corroborates Leonidou et al. (2014), Dolnicar et al. (2008), Kilbourne and Pickett (2008), Barr (2007), Sparks and Merenski (2000).

Table 4.22: Test of Hypothesis

Variables	Op	Factors	Estimate	SE	Z value	P value	CI lower	CI Upper
AEA	=~							
DES		IEA 1	1	0	NA	NA	1	1
		IEA 2	0.7904	0.0571	13.8446	0.0000	0.6785	0.9023
		IEA 3	0.7901	0.0547	14.4321	0.0000	0.6828	0.8974
		IEA 4	0.5592	0.0527	10.6210	0.0000	0.4560	0.6624
LOB		IEA 5	0.4996	0.0485	10.2911	0.0000	0.4044	0.5947
		IEA 6	0.8018	0.0572	14.0261	0.0000	0.6898	0.9139
		IEA 7	0.6751	0.0547	12.3377	0.0000	0.5679	0.7824
		IEA 8	0.5973	0.0528	11.3159	0.0000	0.4938	0.7007
PAC		IEA 9	0.0498	0.0491	1.0137	0.3107	-0.0465	0.1462
		IEA 10	0.0871	0.0517	1.6861	0.0918	-0.0142	0.1884
		IEA 11	0.0541	0.0514	1.0523	0.2927	-0.0467	0.1549
		IEA 12	0.7429	0.0619	11.9963	0.0000	0.6215	0.8643
EA	=~							
HON		EA1	1	0	NA	NA	1	1
		EA2	0.9267	0.0758	12.2272	0.0000	0.7781	1.0752
		EA3	1.0427	0.0878	11.8691	0.0000	0.8705	1.2148
		EA4	1.1443	0.0894	12.8035	0.0000	0.9691	1.3195
LOG		EA5	1.1415	0.0829	13.7741	0.0000	0.9791	1.3039
		EA6	1.1003	0.0792	13.8922	0.0000	0.9451	1.2556
		EA7	1.0897	0.0806	13.5200	0.0000	0.9318	1.2477
		EA8	1.0804	0.0792	13.6417	0.0000	0.9252	1.2356
EOC		EA9	0.2970	0.0708	4.1925	0.0000	0.1582	0.4359
		EA10	0.2790	0.0622	4.4838	0.0000	0.1570	0.4010
		EA11	0.6892	0.0725	9.5033	0.0000	0.5471	0.8314
		EA12	0.4354	0.0670	6.5028	0.0000	0.3041	0.5666
EA	~	AEA	0.2947	0.0452	6.5123	0.0000	0.2060	0.3833

Test of Hypothesis

(GFI = 0.9275, RMSEA = 0.2270, SRMR = 0.1485, *=statistically significant, EA – Antecedents of Environmental Attitude, EA – Environmental Attitude)

Source: Field Survey, 2018

Implications, Conclusion and Recommendation

Visitors to Obafemi Awolowo University Biological Garden primarily displayed anthropocentric beliefs above ecocentrism. These visitors were largely mid-ecological, showing a great level of indifference to issues of the environment. The environmental attitudes can be said to be a cultural or social capital rather than as a genuine concern for nature, that is, there is more or less an intentional or unintentional disregard for the environment. This study established that environmental attitude can be predicted by the antecedence of deontological; law obedience; and politically active statuses that is an increase in any of these, translates to a more developed environmental attitude. In increasing this, environmental education is very crucial. It is recommended that viable environmental awareness campaigns be carried out through various avenues – social media, print media, mass media, word of mouth, etc. In the face of the terrorizing impacts of climate change, unrepentant harvesting of forest resources without planting and replanting, unsustainable exploitation of wildlife resources, development without planning and an ever increasing population, there is an urgent need to enlighten the populace on the need for developing real concern for the environment upon whom human existence depends on.

References

- Ajibade W. A., Adeyemo O. K., Agbede S. A. (2010). Cropoloical survey and Inventory of animals on Obafemi Awolowo University and University of Ibadan Zoological Gardens. *World Journal of Zoology* 5(4):266-271, 2010.ISSN1817-3098@ IDOSi publications 2010.
- Ajzen, I., and Fishbein, M. (2000). Attitudes and the attitude-behaviour relation: Reasoned and automatic processes. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 11(1), 1–33.
- Balmford, A., Beresford, J., Green, J., Naidoo, R., Walpole, M., and Manica, A. (2009). A global perspective on trends in nature-based tourism. *PLoS Biology*, 7(6), e1000144.
- Barr, S. (2007). Factors influencing environmental attitudes and behaviors: A U.K. case study of household waste management. *Environment and Behavior*, 39(4), 435–473.
- Dolnicar, S., Crouch, G. I. Long, P. (2008). Environment-friendly tourists: What do we really know about them? *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(2), 197–210.
- Dunlap, R. E. (2008). The New Environmental Paradigm Scale: From Marginality to Worldwide Use. *The Journal of Environmental Education*, 40(1), 3–18.
- Dunlap, R., Van Liere, K., Mertig, A., Jones, R. (2000). Measuring endorsement of the new ecological paradigm: A revised NEP scale. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56, 425–444.
- Ewert A, Place G, Sibthorp J. (2005). Early-life outdoor experiences and an individual's environmental attitudes. *Leisure Science*, 27, 225-239.

- Filby, N. E., Stockin, K. A. and Scarpaci, C. (2015). Social science as a vehicle to improve dolphin-swim tour operation compliance? *Marine Policy*, 51, 40-47.
- Hashimoto A. (2000). Environmental perception and sense of responsibility of the tourism industry in Mainland China, Taiwan and Japan. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 8, 131-146.
- Honey, M. (2008). *Ecotourism: Who owns paradise?* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Island Press.
- Kaiser F G, Wolfing S., Fuhrer U. (1999). Environmental attitude and ecological behavior. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 19, 1-19.
- Kilbourne, W. and Pickett, G. (2008). How materialism affects environmental beliefs, concern, and environmentally responsible behavior. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(9), 885-893.
- Kostova, Z., Vladimirova, E. and Radoynovska, B. (2011). The environmental concern of nine-grade students from a secondary professional school, *Bulgarian Journal of Science and Education Policy*, 5 (1), 178–218.
- Kostova, Z., Vladimirova, E. and Radoynovska, B. (2011). The environmental concern of nine-grade students from a secondary professional school, *Bulgarian Journal of Science and Education Policy*, 5 (1), 178–218.
- Kotler, P. 2000. *Marketing management: Millennium edition* (10th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc.
- Kuuder, C.W. Bagson, E. Aalangdong, I. O. (2013). Assessment of Visitor Satisfaction in Mole National Park, Ghana. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure* 2. 3.
- Lee, W.H., Moscardo, G. (2005). Understanding the Impact of Ecotourism Resort Experiences on Tourists' Environmental Attitudes and Behavioural Intentions. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 13 (6). 546-565.
- Leonidou L., Coudonaris D., Kvasova O., Christodoulides P. 2014. "Tourist environmental attitude and behavior: Antecedents, moderators, and outcomes" <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/261596468>. Downloaded on 9th of November, 2016.
- Lu J. and Liu L. (2008). On the essence of environmental consciousness and its effects. *Ecological Economy*, 1, 40-49
- Ogunbode, C. A. (2013). The NEP scale: measuring ecological attitudes/worldviews in an African context. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*, 15 (6), 1477–1494.
- Omonona, A. O. and Ayodele, I. A. 2011. *Principle of Zoo management in Nigeria* 1st ed, Ibadan University press Publishing House, University of Ibadan: 1-144.
- Santos N., Vasconcelos J., Lopes S. and Mouga T.(2016). *Tourism environmental attitudes in Berlengas Biosphere Reserve, Portugal*. School of Tourism and Maritime Technology, Tourism Research Group, Polytechnic Institute of Leiria Publication

- Sparks, J. R. Merenski, P. J. (2000). Recognition-based measures of ethical sensitivity and reformulated cognitive moral development: An examination and evidence of nomological validity. *Teaching Business Ethics*, 4(4), 359-377.
- Swanagan J. S. (2010). Factors Influencing Zoo Visitors' Conservation Attitudes and Behavior. *The Journal of Environmental Education* Volume 31, 2010 - Issue 4. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00958960009598648>
- Swarbrooke, J. & Horner, S. (1999). *Consumer behavior in tourism: An international perspective*. UK:
- Thomson, J. (2013), *New Ecological Paradigm Survey 2008: Analysis of the NEP results*, Waikato Regional Council Technical Report 2013/11. New Zealand.
- Törn, A, Tolvanen, A., Norokorpi, Y., Tervo, R., P. Siikamäki (2009). Comparing the impacts of hiking, skiing and horse riding on trail and vegetation in northern boreal and subalpine areas. *Journal of Environmental Management* vol. 90, 1427–1434.
- Touhino (2002). *Environmental awareness and environmentally friendly behaviour - case Sulkava Rowing Event* Savonlinna Institute for Regional Development and Research. Savonlinna Finland
- Weaver, D. B. and Lawton L. J. (2004). Visitor attitudes towards tourism development and product integration in an Australian urban-rural fringe. *Journal of Travel Research* vol. 42, 286–296.
- Wiseman M. and Bogner F. X. (2003). A higher order model of ecological values and its relationship to personality. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 34, 783-794.

ASSESSMENT OF THE SERVICES PROVIDED BY SMALL AND MEDIUM SIZED HOTELS IN KINONDONI DISTRICT, DAR ES SALAAM REGION

Mariam Kobelo Chuma
Tanzania Forest Services Agency
Mrmsakawa@Yahoo.Co.Uk
Emmanuel Patroba Mhache
The Open University of Tanzania

Abstract

The aim of this paper was to assess services provided by small and medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District in Dar es Salaam Region. The study used questionnaires, focus group discussion, in-depth interview, direct observation and documentary literature review in data collection. The data was collected from 90 respondents from 10 small and medium sized hotels. The study involved 10 hotel operators, 30 employees and 50 local and international guests. The study found that small and medium sized hotels are facing a lot of challenges such as lack of trainee staff, lack of staff motivation, lack of accuracy and access to information, lack of excursion and security. Other challenges are lack of enough facilities, lack of job security, and lack of financial support, poor technology and poor marketing strategies. The study suggests several measures to address challenges facing small and medium sized hotels such as; the government should take measure of insisting learning and education to stimulate business management marketing strategy. The hotel operators should carry regular trainings to their staff. Furthermore, there should be employee's motivation, job, excursion and enough facilities. The government should provide conducive working environment for the small and medium sized hotels to operate.

Keywords: Hotel, Kinondoni Municipality, Operators, Small and medium size hotel, Service

Introduction

Small and medium size hotels offer various services such as catering, accommodation, attraction activities and transportation (Mbise, 2009). Many people depends on the services provided by these hotels especially internal and international guests. Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (UNWTO, 2011).

Tourism has a vital role in Tanzania's economic development. Currently, tourism is number one foreign currency earner among all sectors of the economy. Five years ago, the mineral sector was the main foreign exchange earner, but it was progressively superseded by tourism. In 2014 alone tourism generated around USD 2 billion which constitutes 25% of all the forex that came to Tanzania (<https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/tourism>). The industry is still underexploited and poorly linked to other sectors in the economy despite its potentiality to the economy.

The hotels ought to provide the best customer services to sustain tourism. This industry plays an important role in maximizing revenue and reduces unemployment. Basically, service failure in small and medium hotels may occur in different stages like reception, ordering, consumption, and checkout-which suggests how commonplace service failure could be in public settings, as these settings are inherently people driven with high customer-employee interactions (Namkung & Jang, 2010). This suggests that, different recovery efforts may have different impacts on customers (Silber et al., 2009). Service failure ruins the tourism industry.

Bad communication is an aspect of service failure. Lack of communication between employees, and between employees and customers could stagnate the business. Employees should be trained to acquire good communication skills. Appropriate lines of communication should be established between employees and management (Cranage, 2004:212). Hotel Managers should examine the physical environment and facilities in which services are delivered. The service offered should meet the needs and demands of guests whose turnover is the measure of service satisfaction. The quality services assure guests with healthy destination. This study assessed services provided by small and medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District and came up with the possible solutions for revealed challenges.

Dar es Salaam leads in accommodation facility investments, mostly big hotels of international standards like Serena Hotel, Southern Sun, Peacock Hotel, and Sea Cliff Hotel (Apolinari Tairo, 2012). These hotels contribute significantly to Tanzania's economic development. Destination image is crucial for tourism development. For any travel situation, consumers are spoilt by choice of available destinations. The images held of destination play a critical role in purchase decisions. Destination image therefore plays a major role in the competitiveness of travel destinations (Pike, Steven 2016). The prosperity of the industry depends on hotels quality services. However, studies on the services offered by the hotels show the magnitude of the problems is still high, hence, the need for more studies.

Literature Review

Definition of concepts

(i) Tourism and Tourist

Tourism refers to “traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes” (UNWTO, 2010). A tourist is a person who travels away from their normal residential region for a temporary period of at least one night, to the extent that their behaviour involves a search for leisure experiences from interactions with features or characteristics of places he chooses to visit” (Leiper, 2004).

(ii). Hotel

According to Mackenzie and Chan, (2009) a hotel is an establishment held out by the proprietors as offering sleeping accommodation to any person, who is able and willing to pay a reasonable sum for the services and facilities provided.

(iii) Small and medium sized hotels

According to Ingram et al, (2000) a small hotel can be defined as one having up to 50 rooms, a medium-sized hotel can be defined as one having 51–100 rooms and a large hotel is one having over 100 rooms. Small hotels are hotels which encompass full-service properties, apartment hotels as well as ecologies and other niche accommodations with 4 to 25 rooms while medium hotels are with 26 to 99 rooms (Clayton et al. 2012 & Ramsey, 2015).

(iv) Customer service

A customer service is the commitment to providing added services to external and internal customers, including attitude knowledge, technical support and quality of service in timely manner (Macha and Tonya, 2010).

(v) Customer satisfaction

The most comprehensive definition of satisfaction has been offered by Kotler and Keller who define satisfaction as “person’s feeling of pleasure or disappointment which resulted from comparing a product’s perceived performance or outcome against his/ her expectations” (Kotler & Keller, 2006). Customer satisfaction has been treated as one of the most important factors for all company and firms that provide products or services. It is all company’s goal to achieve customer satisfaction and through that the company will gain competitive advantages to stay survival. In addition Marketers consider satisfying customers as a key element of business activities especially in competitive market (Anderson, 2005).

About the definition of customer satisfaction there are a lot of idea as well as theories. In 1997 Oliver had stated that customer satisfaction is the consumer’s fulfillment response. It is a judgment that a production or service feature,

or the product or service itself, provide a pleasurable level of consumption related to fulfillment. There are 2 level of fulfillment, under or over-fulfillment. While Oliver stated that customer satisfaction is about fulfillment, in contrast, Kotler (2000) defined customer satisfaction as: “A person’s feelings of pleasure or disappointment resulting from comparing a product’s perceived performance in relation to his/ her expectations”. According to that, some researcher stated that: there are 3 stages of satisfaction, customer feel satisfied when the product performance better than expectation of customer, and they fell disappointed when product performance lower than expectation, they feel neutral when the performance meet the expectation.

Theoretical Literature Review

The study employed the Power-Dependency Theory to assess services provided by the small and medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District in Dar es Salaam. The theory is suitable for the study as it is directly related to the theme of the study. As for the Power-Dependency Theory, both dependency and power are crucial in appreciating the relationship that exists between buyer and seller. Quality delivery and consistency as well as reduction of cost will be brought by a good and durable relation between supplier and buyer (Caniels and Gelderman, 2007). In essence, the powerful firm opts to share the control of the firm with a less powerful firm so as to cultivate a democratic relationship. Thus, power determines cooperation and coordination amongst them.

This study looked upon the relationship between the small and medium size hotels so as to assess the service they provide as well as what challenging them in providing quality service. The theory fits in this study as it is essential to examine Power-Dependency Relationships between small and medium sized hotels as to a large extent helps to recognize the challenges.

Buyer’s dependence on a supplier is a potential supplier power source and that the primary outcome of relative dependence is relative power. They conclude that the relative power of a party is the result of the net dependency on the other party (Caniëls & Gelderman, 2007).

Empirical Literature Review

Different authors have conducted studies concerning hotel industry. Milohnic and Ceroviczdenko (2007) conducted studies about benchmarking and quality of small hotels in Croatia. They explored the co-dependency of benchmarking and quality based on numerous interviews of 60 managers of small hotel in Croatia. Findings show that management of small hotels rarely applies the comparison of business success regarding domestic and foreign competitors, therefore fails to understand that this is a way to improve one’s businesses.

Rose and Patricia (2013) studied the entrepreneurial challenges facing the hospitality industry in Kericho, Kenya using a triangulation of both descriptive and exploratory design that involved 30 hotels employees as well as 20 supervisor and 10 managers/owners was used. A self-reporting structured questionnaire was used, the findings show that small hotel sector face shortage of competent manpower, financial constraints, high competition and problems with suppliers.

A descriptive study have also shown that operating micro economy in Tanzania's small hotels may not be at their optimum levels due to scale and location effects, and an inefficient use of labor input. A descriptive analysis of evidence from Tanzania highlighted factors that possibly lead to market failure for small hotel financing. The study showed that availability of finance remains an obstacle to small hotel businesses in sub-Sahara region (Sharma & Upneja, 2005).

In Tanzania small businesses are important source of economic and link to entrepreneurial activity, innovation, and job creation (Sharma, 2006). Tarimo (2007) examined the effect of cooperate social responsibility in the hotel industry in Arusha. Findings revealed that property rights, traditional and shared expectations might affect level of corporate social responsibility performance.

Binkowsk (2005) conducted a study on the effect of hotel's image towards customer loyalty. He used the combination of methodology that was documentary analysis, observation and questionnaire to group leaders. Research findings were; Image and loyalty were closely interrelated as positive image affect customer's loyalty.

Riman (2008) conducted the study on revenue management within Swedish hotels. The methodology used was both descriptive quantitative and qualitative. Results showed that there was misperception that revenue management was the same as simply offering discounted room prices.

Empirical Review

Various studies have been conducted concerning the issue of services provided by small and medium sized hotels. Milohnic and Ceroviczdenko (2007) conducted studies about benchmarking and quality of small hotels in Croatia. They explored the co-dependency of benchmarking and quality based on numerous interviews of 60 managers of small hotel in Croatia. Findings show that management of small hotels rarely applies the comparison of business success regarding domestic and foreign competitors, and so fails to understand that this is a way to improve one's businesses.

The study by Mbise, (2012) pointed out that, designing the service quality package poses a big challenge to the hotel managers; the study further stated

that, guest requirements is the most important aspect in meeting service quality, hence guest satisfaction.

The study by Molohnic and Crzinic, (2010) showed that the management of small hotels rarely applies the comparison of business success regarding domestic and foreign competitors, and therefore fail to understand that this is the way to improve one's business. There is a direct link between service quality and business (Zenithal, 2000). The link is perceived to be either through marketing by attracting new customers or defensive marketing by retaining the existing customer base leading to an increasing popularity of quality improvement programs and quality service becoming a strategic issue in services.

A descriptive study showed that operating micro-economy in Tanzania's small hotels may not be at their optimum levels due to scale and location effects and inefficient use of labor input. A descriptive analysis of evidence from Tanzania highlighted factors that are possibly leading to market failure for small hotel financing. The study also showed that availability of finance remains an obstacle for small hotel businesses in sub-Saharan region (Sharma and Upneja, 2005).

The study by Hill and Stewart, (2000) found out that hurdle that small firms faced especially in the developing countries including Tanzania is lack of carrier structure which did not guarantee promotion on training. Small firms have difficulties to progress and compete with larger firms whereby the employees have low motivation to perform.

The study by Sharma, (2006) showed that availability of financing remains a critical obstacle for small hotel businesses in sub-Saharan region. The study by Rose and Patricia, (2013) found that small hotel sector face shortage of competent manpower, financial constraints, high competition and problems with suppliers.

Tarimo, (2007) examined the effect of cooperate social responsibility in the hotel industry in Arusha. His findings revealed that property rights, local traditional and shared expectations might affect level of corporate social responsibility performance.

Challenges Facing Hotels

Lack of support and capital

Most hotels fail to access approved credit from various financial institutions, they lack enough budgets to run the business operations. They generate capital from other sources like stakeholders, friends and family members, the capital is not enough to expand the business. Hotel owners conduct business in renting premises, so cannot apply loan in financial institutions due to lack of title deed.

Poor Technology

This impedes hotels development. Some hotel managers fail to embrace current technology in assisting their business. Technology like E-marketing, use of credit cards, online booking and e-magazine. Application of technology would simplify business operations and maximize profit.

Poor market and marketing strategy

Some hotels do not consider marketing as an important strategy for expanding their business due to their lack of knowledge on marketing. They fail to channel their budget into marketing activities and operations. Some of the hotels use brochures, internet banner, social networking, and blog spot to advertise their business.

Low level of wages and salaries

Most small and medium sized hotels pay low wages and low salaries to their employees and that slow their morale to work and minimize the quality of service provided. Hotel owners prefer to take cheap labor so that they can pay low salary. This is the secret behind poor services delivery.

Poor training of staff

Hotel owners and managers do not train their staff thus their employees lack new skills and knowledge which could improve their performance. Some Hotel Managers consider staff training wastage of money and resources. They take for granted that; the staff have experience. (Ngirwa, 2006) Most African work organizations do not have staff training policies at their disposal.

Poor communication

This hinders provision of quality customer services. Most hotels lack good communication systems from managerial to the lower level. The upper level treats the lower level as mere subordinates; hence subordinates feel inferior and segregated. (Hartog & Verburg, 2002) Communication with emphasis on the norms and values is related to service quality in an organization.

The problem of language

Language is important in provision of quality service. Language barrier deters communication with customers. The employees must be well versed with Swahili, English and even other international languages in order to accommodate with both internal and international guests.

Policy Review

Tanzania introduced small and medium enterprise development policy which is under Ministry of Industry and Trade. The vision of the SME Development Policy is to have a vibrant and dynamic SME sector that ensures effective utilization of available resources to attain accelerated and sustainable growth. The objective of the National Vision 2025 is to transform the predominantly

agricultural economy to a semi-industrialized one. The SME sector has a significant role to contribute towards attaining this goal. It is on this basis that the Sustainable Industrial Development Policy identified specific strategies targeting at stimulating the SME sector to be able to play this crucial role (URT, 2012).

Small and medium enterprises faced challenges such as lack of entrepreneurship and business trainings, lack of enough information, poor technology, poor marketing, and limited access to finance, inadequate working premises as well as having low skills and knowledge to operate the business. Also, there is no umbrella association for SMEs. Likewise, the institutions and associations supporting SMEs are broken, weak and uncoordinated because of lack of clear guidance and policy for the development of the sector.

Certain measures are undertaken by the government to create conducive environment for small and medium enterprise development, the measures include implementing a program on Business Environment Strengthening for Tanzania- BEST, implementing a 'Competition Policy' review of tax regime, simplification of licensing procedures, maintaining microeconomic stability.

The hotels help in income generation, poverty alleviation and employment creation. The sector is estimated to generate about a third of GDP, employs about 20% of the Tanzanian labor force and has greatest potential for further employment generation. However, Tanzania has no specific policy focusing at the development of SME sector. The different policies have uncoordinated programs and interventions aimed at supporting the sector with limited impact. It has resulted in a number of gaps leading to inability to address the core constraints impeding the growth of the sector. This obstructs exploitation of the existing potentials for acceleration of SME development and limits its ability to exploit the exciting potential of SMEs to accelerate growth (URT, 2012).

Research Gap

The study by Livanga and Shitundu, (2003) on the role of tourism in poverty alleviation in Tanzania, suggested that if well managed tourism can help in poverty alleviation and improve the social, cultural and economic conditions of the people and Nation at large.

Livanga and Shitundu, (2003), dealt with the challenges facing small and medium sized hotels and showed that there are various challenges such as poor laundry services, environment changes, lack of infrastructure, and lack of trained staff, security and poor administration. The studies anticipated that, the quality of service would be improved if the number of tourist increase, however that is not the case as the actual outcomes suggests that service quality have relation with interaction of employees in the hotel, capacity and environment, employee understanding of customers to needs.

Adenso et al, (2002) did study on the service provided by hotels and advice that customers should be well handled and satisfied with the services they pay for. Firms should strive eliminate service failures as it risks services provided and the whole business environment (Yen et al. 2004). Still, the survival of the hotel depends on how best it satisfies customers in terms of quality and reliable services. There are still challenges facing the hotels in Kinondoni District in spite of the efforts made including formulating policies, regulations and several studies done., This is the research gap the study is geared to fill.

Statement of the Problem

Poor service standards have been a concern to both the Government and other stakeholders including small hotels owners, tour operators and Tanzania development partners such as the European Union and the World Bank (URT, 2002). The hotels are very crucial to domestic and international guests as they offer various services such as porters' service, laundry service, and use of facility for furnishings and decorations, food and beverage, accommodation service as well as transport and communication.

Dar es Salaam leads in accommodation facility (Apolinary, 2013). Most hotels with national and international standards, including Serena, Nelly Inn, Southern Sun, Hyatt Kilimanjaro, Giraffe Ocean View, Peacock, Sea Cliff, Brunei executive resort, Protea hotel and apartments, Jangwani Sea breeze, Sea Scape and Green lodge hotels are in Dar es Salaam. Small and medium sized hotels have the potential to contribute significantly to Tanzania's economic development.

The hotels provide facilities for the transaction of business, meetings and conference, recreation and entertainment, foreign currency earner as well as providing outlets for the products of other industries such as furniture, food, and drinks. They buy products from farmers, fishermen, and utility services such as gas, electricity and water (Sharma, 2006).

Various studies have been conducted concerning the issue of services provided by small and medium sized hotels. Adenso et al. (2002) did study on the service provided by hotels and suggests that, customers desire to be handled as equal associates with civility and efficiency hence it is necessary for the firms to impress the customers by offering prices that worth the value of the services offered. Hotels need to go beyond customer satisfaction to ensure their happiness.

Yen et al., (2004) suggested that service failures can be understood by requesting guests to provide insight into the causes of problems as well as questioning employees who deal with customers, and simply through observing

service processes and challenges encounters. In order for tourism to prosper there must be good quality service from the hotels.

However, there are few studies on the services provided by the hotels and still the magnitude of the problems is heightening. Hence, the need of conducting more studies to supplement efforts of enhancing services provided by these hotels. This study assessed services provided by small and medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District in Dar es Salaam Region.

Objectives

- To identify services provided by small and medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District.
- To examine the quality of services provided in small and medium sized hotels in relation to customer satisfaction.
- To examine the customer perception on the quality of hotel services
- To examine challenges facing small and medium sized hotels in provision of quality services in Kinondoni District.

Methodology

The Study Area

The study was carried out in Kinondoni Municipality which is one amongst the five districts of Dar es Salaam Region. Kinondoni is a Municipality within the City of Dar es Salaam. The GN. No. 4, 2000 issued by the President's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government established the Kinondoni Municipal Council (KMC) as an autonomous body. The Municipality was selected as the area of this study due to the concentration of several small and medium sized hotels available in Kinondoni as mentioned earlier.

The Municipality is bordered by the Indian Ocean to the North East; Ilala District to the South; Ubungo District to the North. It is well linked by roads and other communication networks to the rest of the city and other parts of the country. It was selected as the area of this study because of its geographical location as the district is nearby JNIA. It receives many tourists from different parts of the world, easy access to information due to improved transport and communication and availability of tourists' infrastructure. It has distinctive urban characteristics with a modified type equatorial climate that makes it hot and humid throughout the year with an average temperature of 29°C. The hottest season is from October to March while May and August are relatively cool.

Research Design

The paper adopted descriptive research design which is concerned with describing the characteristics of a particular individual, or of a group. The intention was to measure characteristics described in research questions and represents efforts to provide a precise description of a particular situation or

phenomenon. For the purpose of the study, descriptive research design was suitable as it helped to get the wider picture of the employees, customers and stakeholders' opinions, challenges and suggestions on the services provided by the hotels with the aim of giving recommendations and solutions to lessen the problem. It enabled the researcher to report what was happening and what happened by collecting information for critical analysis, evaluation, interpretation, discussion, conclusion and recommendation of the material.

Target Population

The target population is the collection of subjects in which the sample is drawn (Kothari, 2009). The study involved both domestic and international guests who visited small and medium hotels, employees and managers of five small and five medium sized hotels in Kinondoni District.

Data Collection

Questionnaire

Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents by the researcher then collected after being filled. The respondents were left free to answer questions. The technique was used to the internal and international guests of the Hotel.

It was used to collect information concerning gender, level of education, marital status, age of the respondents, name of the hotel, attendance and caring of the staff to the guests, how do guests rate the services provided by the hotel, quality of the services provided by the hotel, the challenges behind provision of quality services to the guests, trainings of the employees, motivation of the employees, also if the employees have any channel to raise the complains to the management, employees facilities, employees work experience, services provided to the clients, and employees and the guests recommendations towards the services provided by the hotel.

Focus Group Discussions

A focus group is working well when participants begin to talk to one another and build on each other's comments rather than continually responding directly to the moderator (Kruger et al. 2000). Participants were engaged, and the focus group became a forum for their own discussion. The moderator stimulated discussion with comments or subjects. The data produced were the transcripts of the group discussions, the moderator's reflections and annotations.

It was used to collect information on facilities to host disabled guests, staff trainings, hotel equipment, convenience of services provided, marketing strategy, financial challenges, technology, employees and customers satisfaction, level of customers services, key hotel services, employees' motivation, measurements to observe the standards of the services offered to the customers

and challenges in quality services delivery to customers and ways to overcome the challenges.

In-depth Interview

This technique was used to collect information concerning the kind of services offered, measurements used to observe the standards of the services offered to your customers, challenges in delivering quality services, employees' motivation, type and number of customers, customers satisfaction, employees' satisfaction, employee's trainings and ways of minimizing challenges. In depth interviews were conducted to 10 Hotel Operators. In-depth interview is a qualitative research technique that involves conducting intensive individual interviews with respondents to explore their perspectives on a particular idea or situation (Boyce & Neale, 2006).

Direct Observation

Hotel bills and menu, cleanliness, food quality, customer caring, rooms' quality, security, the kitchen, transport and communication were observed through direct observation. The researcher prepared the list of things to observe so that she does not miss the information. An observation is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction of phenomena as they occur (Kumar, 2005).

Documentary Literature Review

The study employed Documentary Review to collecting secondary data to supplement the primary data. The researcher consulted various documents reliable for the betterment of the study and collected information from various sources like books, internet, reports and papers. The review helped in gathering information about the services provided by small and medium sized hotels. It helped to understand the past and present in order to predict the future situation.

Sampling

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

The study employed random and non-random sampling techniques to identify the sample in order to achieve the expected results. The sample method involved taking a representative of the population and using the data collected to answer research questions. The researcher made sure that each sampled unit represented the characteristics of a known number of units in the population.

The study used probability sampling to select 5 small and medium sized hotels from the target population of 26 small sized hotels and 5 medium sized hotels from target population of 23 medium sized hotels. All small and medium sized hotels were written on the piece of paper and put in two different boxes. Two individuals were each to pick five pieces of paper from the boxes. Then, the researcher selected hotels for the study the picked papers.

Random sampling was used to get the sample of 30 employees out of 100 employees and 40 local and international guests out of 200. The formula used was: $f = n/sn$, Where f = frequency interval; N = the total number of the wider population; sn = the required number in the sample. The computation was: the sample of 30 employees needed out of 100 employees; $F= 100/30$ which is equal to 3.3 approximately 3 and that means the study collected information after every 3rd person. From 200 local and international guests the sample of 50 was needed, the computation was: $F=200/50$ which equals to 4, a study had to collect information after every 4th Person.

There were 50 hotels with one operator each. The study used purposive sampling to get information from the 10 hotel managers. The researcher used purposive sampling that enabled her to use judgment to select samples that would best enable her to answer questions and meet objectives.

The researcher selected a sample on the basis of her own knowledge of the population, its elements, and the nature of her research aims. The researcher was able to select participants based on internal knowledge of the said characteristics. This method was useful because the researcher wanted to study a small subset of a larger population in which many members of the subset were easily identified but the enumeration of all was nearly impossible.

Sampling Frame and Sample Size

The sample size was 90 respondents from 10 small and medium hotels in Kinondoni ward. From the population of 26 small sized hotels the sample was 5 hotels, from the population of 23 medium sized hotels the sample was five hotels, from the population of 50 hotel operators the sample size was 10 hotel operators, from 100 employees the sample size was 30 employees and from 200 hundred internal and international guests the sample size was 50 internal and international guest. That made the number of hotels to be 10 small and medium sized hotels. Sample size is 30 employees, 10 hotel operators and 50 guests. The total sample size was 90 respondents.

Findings

Demographic Findings

Gender	Frequencies	Percentages
Female	55	61.1
Male	34	37.8
Total	90	100.0

Table 4.2 Level of education of the respondents (Source: Field data, 2017)			Table 4.3 Marital Status (Source: Field data, 2017)		
Level of education	Frequency	%	Marital category	Frequency	%
Non-formal education	4	4.4	Single	22	24.4
Primary education	9	10.0	Married	38	42.2
Secondary education	15	16.7	Widow	4	4.4
Collage education	45	50.0	Separated	21	23.3
University education	17	18.9	Divorced	5	5.6
Total	90	100	Total	90	100

Table 4.4 Age of the respondents (Source: Field data, 2017)			Table 4.5 Occupation of the respondents (Source: Field data, 2017)		
Age Category	Frequency	%	Position	Frequency	%
18-29	21	23.3	Hotel operator	12	13.3
30-39	15	16.7	Local guest	23	25.6
40-49	29	32.2	International guest	25	27.8
50-59	16	17.8	Receptionist	6	6.7
60+	8	8.9	Waiter/Waitress	8	8.9
Total	90	100	House keeper	5	5.6
			Cook	6	6.7
			Security	5	5.6
			Total	90	100

Employees responses	Frequency	%	Employees responses	Frequency	%
Attended training	13	43.3	Yes, staff are motivated	15.0	50.0
Have not attended training	17	56.7	Staff are not motivated	15.0	50.0
Total	30	33.3	Total.	30	100

Are facilities adequate (staff)	Frequency	%	Are facilities adequate (guests)	Frequency	%
Yes	13	43.3	Yes	23	46.0
No	17	56.7	No	25	50.0
Total	30	100	Total	50	100

Table 4.9 Respondents response on job security (Source: Field data, 2017)		
Do you have job security	Frequencies	Percentages
Yes	7	23.3
No	23	76.7
Total	30	100

Findings on Objectives 1&2

Table 4.10 Service provision in hotels (Source: Field data, 2017)			Table: 4.11 Response on excursion and security (Source: Field data, 2017)		
Services Status	Frequency	Percentage.	Response	Frequency	percentage
Good	18	36.0	Excellent	3	6
Poor	32	64.0	Good	15	30
Total.	50	100	Poor	32	64
			Total.	50	100

Table 4.12 Services offered by small and medium hotels (Source: Field data, 201)		
Services	Frequencies	Percentages
Food and beverage service	16	32.0
Business center facilities	7	14.0
Transfer facilities and day trip tour	8	16.0
Meeting and conference facilities	10	20.0
Entertainment and recreation	9	18.0
Total	50	100

Discussion of the Findings

Determinants of Customer Service

Providing customers Preferred services is a step towards customer satisfaction. A fairly easy way to determine customers' preferred services is simply to ask them (Su (2004). Determinants of customer services that lead to customer satisfaction are convenience of location, prompt service, safety and security, employee's friendliness as well as room quality and value.

Room cleanliness makes the customer feels comfortable and have the reason to come back again. A satisfied customer becomes the good ambassador wherever he or she goes. This helps to attract more customers. Convenience of location of the hotel makes it easier for the customers to reach the hotel and in that sense, it attracts more customers as it is easily reached.

Quick services impress and attracts more customers to the hotel. Customers dislike to waste time. Safety and security make the customer feels safe and secure that their belongings and staffs are in safe hands. Employees' friendliness makes customers feel at home and act as good ambassadors when leave the hotel. The room quality and value are important. Low quality rooms are unattractive to customers. Usually, hotels with high quality rooms and affordable prices attract more customers.

Factors Affecting Customer Service

Shortage of trained staff in the hotels hinders tourism development. Trained staffs are essential as they possess required knowledge and skills to deliver the quality customer service. The study indicates that the training level of the SMHEs at the managerial level is not satisfactory (Cevdet, 2003). This inhibits success in management and productive hotel operation.

Employees' anxiety of losing their jobs increases at the times of economic instability to the business. In this situation, job security becomes the most effective factors of job motivation as it eliminates employees' anxiety. Job security is encouraging employees' commitment. Job motivation and job security are both related to work. A higher level of job security corresponds to a higher level of job satisfaction beside a higher level of well-being (Sverke, et al, 2005). Research reveals that an employee's ability only partially determines his productivity. So, motivation is inevitable for improving job performance.

Lack of finance is a challenge for most hotels due to unbearable conditions for getting loans which could boost their activities and operations. The study in Ghana revealed that there are substantially increased banks' lending to the private sector but limited access to credit, high interest rates and prohibitive collateral requirements still inhibit the growth of many hotels. (USAID's DCA Ghana Impact Brief, 2009).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Conclusion

This paper attempted to explain challenges that the small and medium sized hotels face. It highlighted the importance of customer retention management in the hotel industry. Service failure management and service recovery are presented as integral parts of successful customer retention management in the industry. Based upon the literature alluded to in this paper, several customer retention activities relating to service failure management and recovery are presented. Service failure management activities to retain customers range from identifying possible service failure points before they occur to conducting interviews with guests when they leave the hotel. It has shown that customer retention activities involve putting programmes and strategies in place to win back guests who have experienced service failures, and making it easy for guests to complain.

Recommendations

Employees should professionally deal with guests when addressing service failure and put a service recovery process in place to win back guests who have experienced service failure.

Hotels that aim at surviving and prospering in the current environment need to focus on the retention of customers as an important part of their competitive strategy.

Employees with potentially good communication skills who might serve guests proactively should be identified, trained and maintained at all costs.

Training Programmes should be developed to provide employees with good communication skills that will enable guests to be served proactively.

The government should develop plans to support small and medium sized hotels by providing affordable conditions for taking loans, eliminating unnecessary taxes, providing good environment and infrastructures.

Hotel managers should retain employees who have the sense of humour and friendliness that makes customers feel at home and become good ambassadors when leave the hotel.

The hotel owners should consistently motivate employees so as to improve job performance.

Hotel personnel should cultivate the habit of offering quick services in order to impress and attracts more customers to the hotel

This study recommends for more studies on the aspect of challenges facing small hotels in other areas in the country as it may come up with different outcomes.

References

- Apolinary, T. (2017). Tanzania needs more classy hotels: Tanzania Standard Newspaper: www.dailynews.co.tz. Dar es Salaam.
- Bazeley, P. (2003). Computerized data analysis for mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 385-422). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Boyce, C and Neale, P. (2006). *Conducting in-depth interview: A Guide for Designing and conducting In-Depth Interviews for Evaluation Input* Pathfinder International.
- Cevdet Avcikurt, (2003) "Auditing managerial training needs of Turkish small and medium- sized hotel enterprises", *Managerial Auditing Journal*, Vol. 18 Issue 5, pp.399-404.
- Crane D 2004. Plan to do to right: and plan for recovery. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(4):210-219. <https://www.tanzaniainvest.com/tourism>.

- Kothari, C. R. (2009). *Research Methodology*, 2nd Ed. New Age International Publisher
- Kotler, P & Keller, K, 2006, "Marketing Management", twelfth edition, Prentice-Hall
- Krueger, R. A. and M. A. Casey. 2000. *Focus Groups: A Practical Guide for Applied Research*. 3d ed. Thousand Oaks, Cal.: Sage.
- Kumar, R. (2005). *Research Methodology, Step by Step Guide for Beginners*, Sage Publication, India Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi.
- Mbise, N. (2012), *The Quality of Service Standards and Related Factors in Tourist Hotels in Arusha, Tanzania*, Kenyatta University.
- Namkung & Jang, (2010) "Effects of perceived service fairness on emotions, and behavioral intentions in restaurants", *European Journal of Marketing*, Vol. 44 Issue: 9/10, pp.1233-1259, <https://doi.org/10.1108/03090561011062826>
- Sverke, M; et al., (2005). "No security: A meta-analysis and review of job insecurity and its consequences". *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*. 7 (3): 242–264.
- Pike, Steven (2016). *Destination Marketing Essentials* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Routledge.
- Silber et al., (2009) *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, Volume 18, 2009 - Issue 7 Published Online: 03 September, 2009
- Su, A.Y.-L. (2004). Customer satisfaction measurement practice in Taiwan hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 23: 397-408.
- UNCTAD (2008), *FDI and Tourism: The development dimension*. East and Southern Africa. United Nations, New York and Geneva.
- "UNWTO technical manual: Collection of Tourism Expenditure Statistics" (PDF). World Tourism Organization. 1995. p. 14. Archived from the original (PDF) on 22 September 2010. Retrieved 26 March 2009.
- USAID'S Development Credit Authority (DCA) Ghana Impact Brief, April, 2009.
- Vroom VH (1994) *Work and motivation*. Wiley, USA.
- Winborg, J / Landstrom, H – Financial Bootstrapping in Small Businesses: Examining Small Business Managers' Resource Acquisition behaviour – *Journal of business venturing* 16, 235- 254, 2000

ROLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMPETENCE IN PROMOTING CUSTOMER SATISFACTION IN FIVE STAR HOTELS IN ZANZIBAR

Perpetua Ishika and Dawson Kyungai
National College of Tourism
perpetuaishika@gmail.com

Abstract

Competence is a fundamental quality of a person which results in effective performance on the job in relation to knowledge, skills and attitude. This study explores the role of language competency in promoting customer satisfactions in hotel business. The impact of poor language competence and communication abilities can hugely affect the hotel business. Customers are not only sensitive to price but also to the quality services. Customer satisfaction can be promoted if service is delivered accordingly and employees have English Language competencies. This study used questionnaires and sample of 5 hotels each with 10 customers. Descriptive analysis was used to analyze data and variance and means used to present data. The study shows the importance of language competency in promoting customer satisfaction and suggested ways on how to mitigate the effect of lack of language competency in hotel business. These skills enable employees to understand and provide quality services that are required by the customers.

Keywords: Competence, satisfaction, hotel

Introduction

English language is an important means to communicate within tourism organizations. Buckley (2015) pointed out that English plays role in facilitating communication in hotel business. Consequently, high level personnel with language skills are becoming more and more necessary to corporate efficiency and success in tourism. It is true that the hospitality industry includes a variety of career opportunities for progression and promotion. But, most of the times they are out of reach unless a person who is pursuing them is a proficient and a confident user of the English language. It is more than just important to effectively communicate in English, no matter where in the world you live, travel or work. Certainly speaking fluently in a language is imperative when working in an English speaking nation. (Buckley 2015).

Pop-Anamaria (2016) emphasize that language has great importance in the dialogue and understanding between tourist and tourism facilities. English today is international language and most of the tourist establishments require employees to speak English in addition to their local language. Without any symbol of doubt, the universally accepted language of hospitality is English. It doesn't matter whether you are a housekeeper or a manager; it is almost

guaranteed that you will be expected to have not only a passive understanding of English, but also confidence in actively using it.

Having English language skill is very important for personal development and career progression. English language competency helps promote customer satisfactions but also create friendly environment for the business development for hoteliers. English language competency is very important in a daily basis while working. It keeps the English speaking customer comfortable while receiving services and they tend to like the service and get satisfied. (Pop-Maria, 2016).

Does English Language competence promote the satisfaction of customer in five star hotels in Zanzibar? This study evaluates the role of English Language competencies in promoting customer satisfaction.

Study objectives and significance

The general objective of this study was to evaluate the role of English Language competence in promoting customer satisfaction and specific objective were; to examine English language needed for customer satisfaction, to establish English language competencies that are important in service delivery and to assess role of English language competencies in relation to customer satisfaction. The significance of this study include; to improve service delivery in Hospitality business, improve Hospitality and Tourism curricular, to improve hotel staff output in the hotel business and to create confidence to employees while fulfilling their daily operations.

Theoretical foundation

Spicer (2009) define competency as the sets of skills, abilities, knowledge and attributes or characteristics that allow employees to accomplish their job successfully. The concept of competency management is suggested to be applied to the hotel industry because the nature of hotel business is labour focused and people oriented. Thus, if the employees have competencies at work, then the outcome is in a positive aspect to the hotel (Lee et al 2008). Therefore employees' knowledge, skills and abilities need to be developed in terms of competency because their job performance creates significant impact on the service quality and hotels' productivity. (Kim et al., 2011).

Satisfaction is the customers' feeling of contentment. Customer satisfaction recognizes the different between customer expectations and customer perceptions. Satisfaction may be developed quickly or it may be cultivated over a period of time (Harris, 200). The customers have many concerns and the job of a hotel business is to reduce as much stress as possible and create a pleasant customer experience while also providing current information and helping to solve problems for the customers (Ramsey and Sohi, 1997) The customer may

think back on the experience and realise how pleasant it was (Harris, 2000). Thus customer satisfaction is a function of performance relative to the customer's expectations.

In most service activities, customer satisfaction depends largely on the direct interaction with service provider. (Carlos P, et al 2018) .In case of Tourism, an interaction often occurs between people from different countries and whose mother tongues are different. In this context language context plays the key role in the customer satisfaction. Customer perceive a higher or at least equal level of interaction quality when the employees choice of language adheres to their preference than when the employee switches to their preferred language after missing it initially. This industry demands highly developed communication skills from its employees, as 5-star hotels deal with guests from foreign countries. (Carlos P, et al 2018).

Language plays central role in interactions between employees and customers and often forms the basis for their evaluation of service encounter. (Holmqvist et al., 2017). The use of language in intercultural service encounters is further exacerbated by the fact that language can imply inclusion or exclusion with respect to a social group. (Linke, 2004; Miller, 2000). As globalization and multiculturalism continues to broaden, the socio-political consequences of choice and use of language will increase. (Heller, 2010). The appropriate choice and use of language can reduce the misunderstandings that permeate intercultural service encounters and lead to better service outcomes, including customer satisfaction. (Zolfagharian, 2018).

There are important competences that are needed to promote customer satisfaction. Language competencies play key roles during service delivery. Ciotti 2018 identifies those language competences as patience, attentiveness, clear communication skills, knowledge of the product, ability to read customers, a calming presence, goal oriented focus, ability to handle surprises, persuasion skills, tenacity, closing ability, empathy, willingness to learn among others. One of those competencies discussed by Ciotti is clear communication skills which is the most required in service delivery and customer satisfactions. Customer satisfaction with a company's product or services is often seen as the key to a company's success and long-term competitiveness. Customer satisfaction determines the economic return of the business (Thurau, 1997). Hence English language competency should not be taken for granted when it comes to satisfaction and service delivery. Those daily interactions are determined by good language competencies and clear communication.

Further, Thurau 1997 argues that long term business satisfaction has an effect on the profitability of nearly every business. Hence long term business depends on the customer satisfaction during service delivery. Language competencies

play the most important role towards customer satisfaction. Hotel business depends on customer interactions towards services that are delivered daily (Thurau, 1997). Customer daily feedback on the quality of service delivery is the most important thing in hotel business. Hotel business serves different customers from different cultures and backgrounds. These customers are changing every day and every time. A hotel will only retain its customers if the services delivered to them are good. These services depend on good command of language and communication skills (Harzing et al, 2017).

Customer satisfaction results can help to identify important customer requirements. Identification of the specific customer requirements for promoting customer satisfaction is useful at a very fundamental level. The organization is able to clearly focus efforts in those areas that are most important to the customers. For an organization to remain solvent, information regarding customer satisfaction must be adequately collected and analyzed. One of the dimensions of service quality is empathy which includes access, approachability, ease of contact, communication with customers and understanding customers 'need. (Ilieska, 2013). Retention of customers depends much on the satisfaction of services that are given to them on daily basis.

Thorough understandings of how business gain and maintain long term relationship with clients is critical in today's environment (Ilieska, 2013) Listening is a highest order construct composed of three dimensions; sensing, evaluating and responding. Customers perceive a high level of listening behavior by a salesperson and leads to greater anticipation of future interaction. (Ramsay et al, 1997). English Language competencies are important elements of hospitality industry. Understanding of performance expectations are keys to achievement of tourist satisfaction. Good oral and written skills are the top skills important to hospitality practitioners at different position levels. (Kostic Bobanovic M. & Grzinic J 2012).

English Language competency is vital in the development of hotel business but also a key to customer satisfaction. Promoting customer satisfaction in hotel or any tourism business, communication abilities of the employees and the entire organization is very important. English has become an international language in the globalised business world because people from all around the world use English as a tool of communication; for example in trade industry, tourism, universal organization etc (Jitjen, 2015).

Language should be a policy for tourism organizational management (Dhir&Goke-Pariola, 2002; Lauridsen, 2006; Spolksy, 2004; Tange& Luring, 2009:218). A language policy can be defined as systematic activities and efforts done in a company or organization with the purpose of supporting the goal of the company (Simonsen, 2009:203)

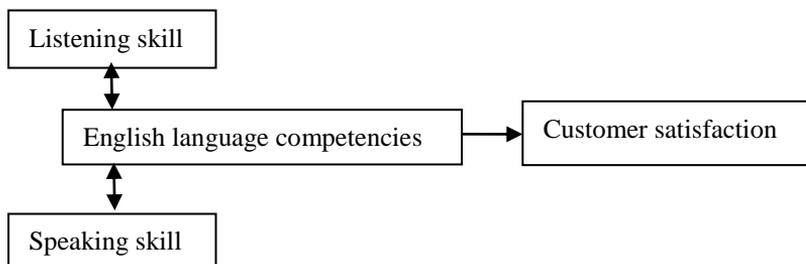
Any country that determines to access the global community must ensure that its citizens possess satisfactory proficiency in English language. Good English language contributes to effective communication and it is among essential employability skills needed in the 21st century. (Mohd.Zulkifli Mohd Yunus et al 2012).

Recent studies have provided ample support for the long held notion that listening skills is one of the most important competencies to become successful in sales (Anaza et al, 2018). Review of the listening literature shows that salesperson's listening is related to customer attitudes towards the salesperson in form of satisfaction and trust. (Ramsay & Sohi, 1997, Ruyter & wetzels, 2000). Recent findings also demonstrates that salesperson's listening affects customer perception of the organization namely service quality. (Hani & Inyang, 2015; Park et al, 2015.) Listening is critical in building relationships with customers. (Ramsey & Sohi, 1997).

For listening skill, knowledge of English provides communication with directions that serves their needs. (Clark et al. 1986). Only careful listeners can respond to the intention conveyed directly. A lack of competence in English listening skill results in misinterpreting the message. People may not have considered the eye to be important tool in listening but yet what someone sees when someone is speaking is sometimes as important as what is heard. A smile, a glance, the expression of being bored and cheerful, all the facial expressions and manners of the speaker has an effect on the meaning of the message. (Ramsey&Sohi, 1997).

In hotel business, successful business people not only need to speak directly and effectively but proficiency of speaking skill always helps facilitate communication and it also promote customer satisfaction. Jamieson and Arnold (1985) suggest three speaking skills; speak clearly: Language should be simple and direct, words, ideas should be well organized, speaking accurately: words must convey the intended meaning, facts should be correct and language should be polite and friendly.

Listening and speaking are equally important in the communication between staff and customer. Based on the literature reviewed I propose the following model (Figure 1) that will examine the relationship between English language competence and customer satisfaction during service delivery.



Importance of English Language in general

Language is a system of spoken or written symbols that communicate ideas, emotions and experiences. Understanding the role of language, organization can improve the coordination skills, operate better, new technology, develop customer satisfactions and have effective management in tourism industry (Al-Saadi, 2015). Language creates greater interest and it is a significant factor that influences competitiveness. So it is very crucial for an organization to have communicative competence throughout the organization.

Al-Saadi (2015) point out that there is a need in language skills in organization and it relates to performance like the ability to increase customer satisfaction, the ability to enhance and maintain language competency of tourism people motivate international tourists, better understanding on demand, culture and ability to create effective internal and external communication. Ignoring the important roles of English language may lead to loss of resources and limitations to tourism organizational and managerial development due to lack of communication and knowledge sharing.

Bloch (2005) pointed out that language skills are demanded in various occupations within organizations. English competence is a requirement for reaching managerial level in any tourism organization

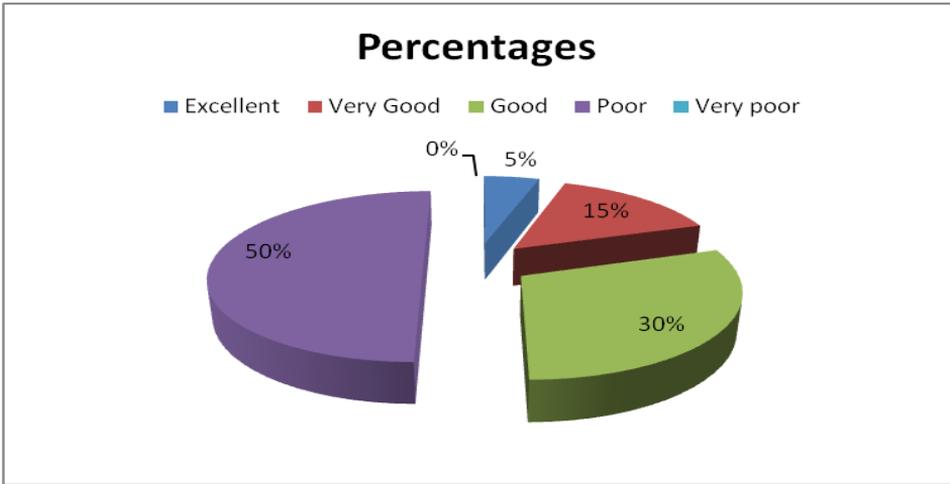
Language problems can lead to negative consequences and misunderstanding which will further lead to incorrect tourism business decision

Research Design/ Methodology

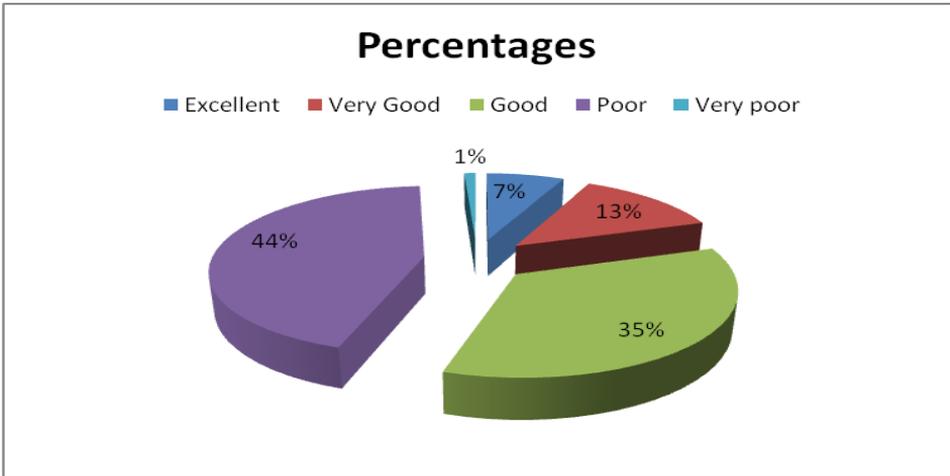
The study employed a quantitative research design and Zanzibar was selected to conduct this study because of many five stars' hotels available, uniqueness of the island and employees who are working in those hotels. Duration of working in those hotels was also considered. This study used questionnaires and sample of 5 hotels each with 10 customers. Total number of 50 customers was asked to fill in the questionnaires. These customers were sampled from different five stars hotel and validity and reliability were accepted. The closed questions were used in a questionnaire to collect the presented data

Findings

The rates of English Language usage from the hotels were rated as shown in the diagram. As shown below only 30% of employees were good in using English language.



The rates of customer satisfaction with the services that they received from hotels that they visited were as indicated in the diagram:

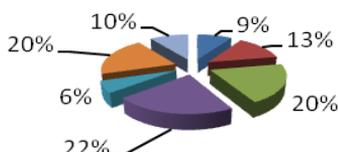


The rate of service satisfaction was poor in 44%, good in 35%, 13% very good and 7% was rated excellent and 1% was rated poor.

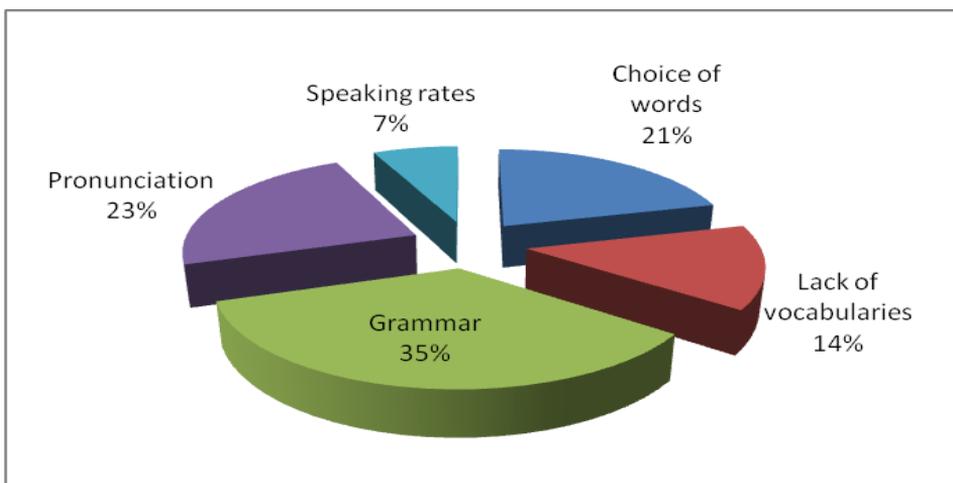
The frequency use of the following items in the hotel while receiving services were rated as has shown in the diagram however it shows that hotel employees were not good in speaking English however they understood the request of the customers. 9% understood the request, 13% responded very well, 20% could promptly assist without any verbal response, 22% could assist a customer without any verbal response and 6% they responded verbally to the request very promptly.

Percentages

- They understand the request
- They responded the request very well
- They promptly assist without any verbal response
- Assisted customer without any verbal response
- They verbally responded to the request promptly

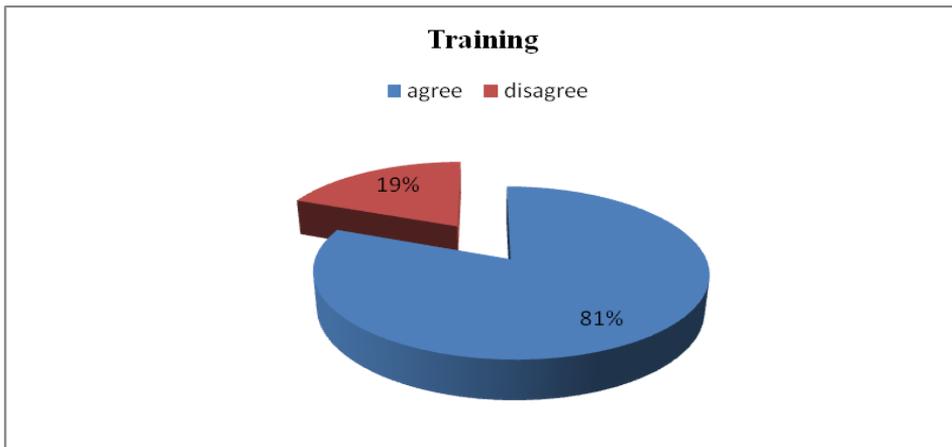


Difficulties to understand hotel staff when they speak English during service delivery showed the following results as follows:

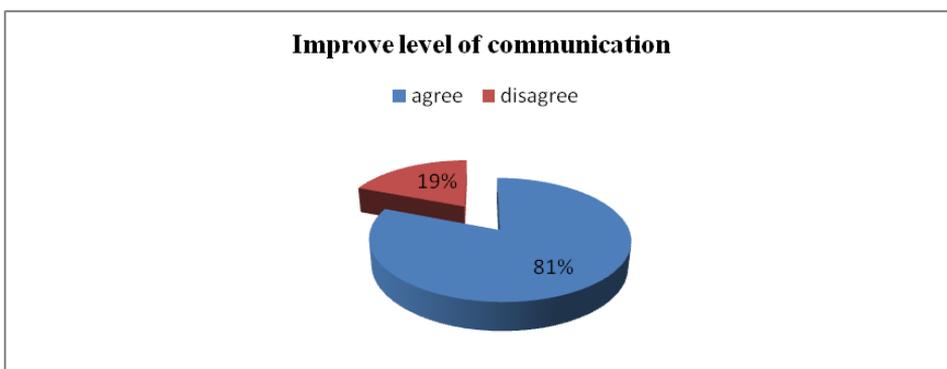


The results shows that 35% faced difficulties in grammar, 14% lack of vocabularies, 21% choice of words, 7% speaking rates and 23% pronunciation difficulties.

The researcher also wanted to find out whether training in speaking and listening skills should be provided and the response was 87% agreed that there must be training while 13% so that there was no need to have such trainings in the hotel.



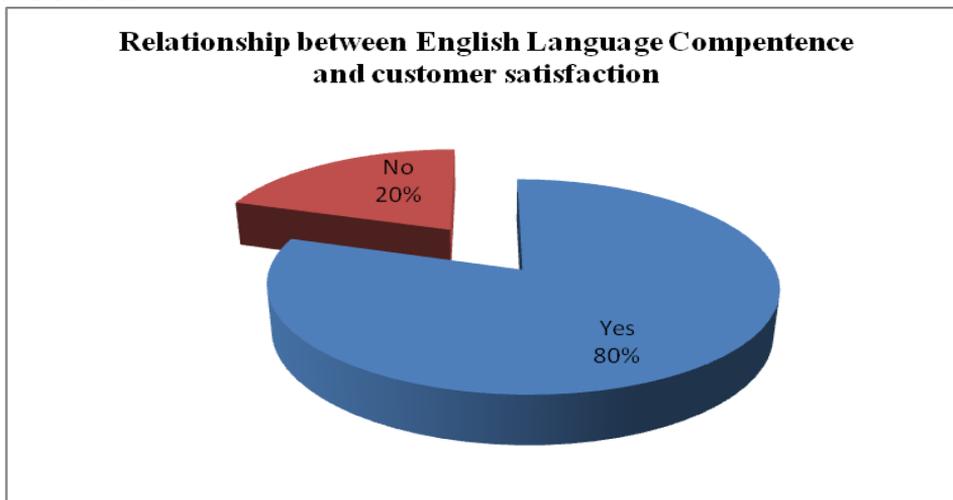
The study also wanted to find out whether the level of communication using English language should be improved or not. And the results were 81% agreed that it should be improved and 19% responded that there was no need to improve. The diagram below shows the results:



The results show that for customers to be satisfied, employees who offer services should have English language Competencies. Competence in English language is important in hotel business especially for communication with customers, others companies and organizations, suppliers and other stakeholders. In Zanzibar, English language usage is a must in the hotels and it helps to create comfort and satisfaction if used well. This study shows that employees face challenges when communicating in English and they also like important competence to perform their duties better. Those with poor language competence and lack confidence while a working is not competitive and customers saved by them cannot be satisfied.

The study also wanted to find out if there is a relationship between English language competence and customer satisfaction. The result shows that there is

80% relationship between English Language competence and customer satisfaction. On the other hand 20% shows that there is no direct relationship of having English Language competence and customer satisfaction. The diagram below shows the link between English Language competence and customer satisfaction



With these results, customer satisfaction depends much on the listening and speaking competencies. Employees in the hotels need English language competence to deliver the required services and to create their own confidence while working. Customers were satisfied with service providers who could understand English language and who could speak the language well. Customers were happy with the employees who could express themselves very well but also those who could understand the order without hesitations. The study shows that those who could respond correctly verbally made their customers happy and satisfied English language competence was indicated by the study as a very important need in hotel operations despite the struggle using it from some of the employees.

Conclusions and Implications

Customer satisfaction in the hotel determines the prosperity of the business but yet English language competence is a challenge. There study shows that there is great link between English Language Competence and customer satisfaction in five star hotels in Zanzibar. The study has also shown that employees with English Language competence are good in promoting customer satisfaction. Basic language for interactions in the hotels in Zanzibar is English. Employees need to have the required English language competence to promote customer satisfaction but also for the prosperity of the business. The success of hotel business can be easily measured by customer satisfaction. Zanzibar has rapidly developed hospitality facilities that attract many foreign and English language users from all over the world.

Graduates from hospitality programmes should have best ability to communicate in English and acquire as best competence as possible so as to promote customer satisfactions. Good language skills relates to good performance. Hotel business is very competitive and competence in English language creates interests to visit those facilities and ultimately customers can be satisfied. For hoteliers, English language competence is very important in daily basis and it keeps the customers satisfied with the service. Hotels are very important entity in the development of Tourism industry and hence customer satisfaction is very crucial for its development.

Recommendations

The study has shown there is a need to improve English language skills to employees of hotels in Zanzibar. This study was based on listening and speaking competence only and selected few hotels to collect data. I would recommend other researchers to concentrate in all competences like reading and writing and sample as more respondent as possible. I would also recommend the same study to be conducted in other areas in Tanzania like Northern Circuit and other circuits. Also this study concentrated on English Language competence only. I would recommend other researchers to conduct the same research in other languages that are used in the hospitality and tourism organizations and facilities.

References

- Aichhorn, A. & Puck, J. (2017). Bridging the Language gap in Multinational Companies: Language strategies and the notion of company-speak. *Journal of World Business*, 52, (3), pp 386-403
- Aichhorn, A. & Puck, J. (2017). ‘ I just don’t feel comfortable speaking English’. *Foreign anxiety as a catalyst for spoken language barriers in MNCs. International Business Review* 26 (I 4), pp. 749-763
- Al Saadi, N. (2015). The importance of Language in the Development of Tourism Management. *Academic Journal of Accounting and Economics Researches*, 4(1), 33-45
- Bobanovic, M & Jasmina Grzinic. (2012).The importance of English Language skills in the Tourism Sector: A comparative study of students/ employees perceptions in Croatia
- Bloch, B. (2005). Career enhancement through Foreign Language skills. *International Journal of career Management*; 7, (6), pp 15-25
- Carlos P, et al (2018). Cultural differences, Language, attitude and tourist satisfaction: A study in the Barcelona hotel sector. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 4(2), 133-147
- Ciotti, G. (2018). 16 Customer service skills that every Employee Needs: *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25, (2), pp.137-139
- Harzing, A. & Pudelko, M. (2013). Language competencies, policies and practices in Multinational corporations. A comprehensive review and

- corporations of Anglophone, Asian, Continental European and Nordic MNCs. *Journal of World Business*, 48, (1)
- Hennig-Thurau T & Klee, A. (1997). The impact of customer satisfaction and relationship quality on customer retention. A critical reassessment and model development. *Journal of Psychology and Marketing*, 4(8), 737-764
- Jitjenkarn, W. (2011). Foreign Customers' Satisfaction towards the ability of bank of Ayudhya Staff's English Oral Communication. Language Institute, Thammasat University
- Lauring J and Anders Klitmoller. (2015). Corporate Language-based Communication avoidance in MNCs. A multi-sited ethnography approach. *Journal of World Business*, 50, (1)
- Ilieska, K, (2013). Customer satisfaction index - as a base for Strategic Marketing Management, *TEM Journal*, 2 (4), pp. 327-331
- Tenzer, H and Pudelko, M. (2015). Leading across Language barriers: Managing Language – Induced emotions in multinational teams: *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26 (4), pp. 606-625
- Thitthongkam, T and John Christopher Walsh. (2014) Roles of Language in Tourism Organizational Management. *Asian Journal of Management Research*. 1(1), pp. 184-199
- Ramsey R & Sohi, R.S. (1997). Listening to your customer: The impact of the perceived salesperson-Listening behaviour on relationship outcomes. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 25 (2), pp.127-137
- Simonsen, H. (2009). Communication policy, corporate policy and corporate information portal. A Holy Trinity on corporate communications?, Article in *Journal of communication management*, 13 (3), pp. 200-217
- Sundaram, D. & Cynthia Webster, (2000). The role of non-verbal communication in service encounters. *A Journal of Services Marketing*, 14(5), pp 378-391
- Yunus, M. et al. (2012). The need of English Language training programs in continuing education. *Procedia-Social and behavioural sciences*, 56, pp 396-404
- Zolfagharian M. (2018) Customer response to service encounter linguistics. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 32(5)

TOURISM DINING EXPERIENCES IN TANZANIA: AN INTERNATIONAL TOURISTS' PERSPECTIVE

Bahati D. Mbilinyi
The Open University of Tanzania
Bahati.mbilinui@out.ac.tz

Abstract

Tempting and exciting a tourist is the main responsibility of any tourism establishment set out to provide some memorable tourism experiences. Tourism dining is increasingly acknowledged as one of the key tourist activity potential to unleash touristic travel experiences. The goal of this article is to explore the diversities by tourists in describing various experiences in the tourism dining context. The data was collected from 34 respondents by interviews in Arusha, Kilimanjaro, Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar and analysed using phenomenology - qualitative data analysis. Results indicate seven attributes used by tourists' to evaluate their Total Dining Experiences (TDE) including adventurous (escape), lifetime experience (pleasure/fun), sampling more unique local flavours (novelty), memorability, part of culture (authenticity & social inclusion), varieties of new ingredients (learning) and satisfaction (goal achievement).

Keywords: Dining experiences, experiential value, touristic/peak experiences, food tourism

Introduction

Tourists' food consumption is increasingly considered as a source of memorable and an exciting encounter potential to unleash some intense fulfilment of a travel. Since almost all tourists must eat when travelling, tourism dining constitutes major means of experiencing destinations' culinary offerings. Food consumption takes place in various dining settings which are considered the best place for attainment of enjoyment, relaxation and socialization and this calls for a distinction between eating for pleasure and eating for necessity (Gustafsson et al., 2006). While eating for necessity has been related to functional or utilitarian approach to dining resulting to an ordinary experiences, eating for pleasure is closely related to hedonic experience, a more fun and entertaining dining likely to produce no ordinary to extra-ordinary experiences (Josiamama & Henry, 2014). Therefore, tourism consumption is expected to be a deviation from routines and engagement in non-ordinary and extraordinary experiences (Hansen and Mossberg, 2013). This is because tourists search for unique, exciting and memorable encounters and moments potential to transform their individual state of mind (Uriely, 2005) commonly referred to 'escape' out of mundane. Nevertheless, tourism establishments only create an environment for tourists to experience and never can they create experiences into the tourists (Mossberg, 2007). For example, a theme can transform a service into an experience

(Mossberg, 2007; Schmitt and Zarantonello, 2015). This underlines the importance of how dining setting is staged to amuse tourists as a result of creation of experiential benefits.

The periodical exposition of experience economy concept has been introduced to tourism research adding to the dimensions which interprets tourist experience (Oh et al., 2007). One of the early classification criterion in the phenomenology of tourist experiences was searching for self-identity as a tourist (Cohen 1979). Particularly where tourists are classified as peak consumers in pursuit of dreams hardly to be realized in daily reality (Wang, 2002). The core aspect of tourism experiences entails individuals' transformation from ordinary to non-ordinary/extra-ordinary experiences after participating in tourism activities at destinations (Quan and Wang, 2004; Walls, Okumus, Wangb, & Kwunb, 2011; Hansen and Mossberg, 2013; Goolaup and Mossberg, 2017). This is because tourism and destinations in particular has been at the forefront in staging experiences (Oh et al, 2007).

The Structural Model of Tourism Experiences (SMTE) by Quan and Wang (2004) related peak tourism experiences with supportive consumer experiences and daily experiences (ordinary experiences). The supportive consumer experiences (fundamental experiences for basic needs e.g. Food) and peak touristic experiences (hedonic experiences which forms a major travel motivation/enjoyment). Other studies refer the later to experiential/ and the former as functional dimensions (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). The SMTE model posited that relationship between the two dimensions can be differentiated, interchanged or related to daily experiences. The differentiation relationship occurs when the peak touristic experience of an attraction/activity is irreplaceable by a supporting consumer experience, while the interchangeability relationship represent certain circumstances where some components of supporting consumer experience can turn to be peak experience. The later can be achieved by incorporating experiential attributes into functional services that warrants for unique competitive edge (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). The local cuisines aspects of dining provide for a good example of this interchangeability (Tsai and Lu, 2012).

The relationship between peak and supportive experiences can further exist through their respective relationships to the 'daily experience' under contrast, intensification, and extension dimensions. The 'peak touristic experience' is considered to exist in sharp 'contrast' to the 'daily experience' (Quan and Wang, 2004) whereby, food consumption in tourism can become a peak touristic experience when proved to be a major motivation for travel or when it turns to be a source of an extraordinary, memorable or intensified tourist experience. The 'supporting consumer experience' exists through the 'extension' and 'intensification' of the daily experiences since, in this case, food consumption in

tourism is to meet the basic need of the body, hence it is simply extending or intensifying the daily experience and may not necessarily evoke some emotional reaction. Generally, the peak and supportive experiences are only separated conceptually, but they constitute an organic whole (Quan and Wang, 2004). This is because, when tourists are participating in a dining activity, they are likely to exhibit all the three conceptual distinctions, the differentiation, the interchangeability and the daily experience, especially in particular circumstances where tourists search for food experiences beyond the margins of routine in quest for experiential fulfilment.

Despite the excitement of novel dining experiences, tourists hold different levels of tolerance. Markedly, a number of studies reveal travel dining as an impediment due to some nutritional, tasty, hygienic and culturally acceptable aspects of food to tourists. For instance, Cohen and Avieli (2004) reveal that Israelis tourists in Asia were worried on hygiene and culturally unaccepted cuisines such as dogs and cats. The authors also found that western countries tourists avoided traditional carved fish since it was still shaking on a plate and felt uneasy. Gyimóthy and Mykletun (2009) further exposed some tourists' fear due to some perceived objective risk of infection with scarpie disease in beef while on vacation, and also for the foods that are considered inappropriate for human consumption and perceived to bring about potential health problems by some societies. Since tourists tend to search for novel experiences through direct engagement or distance appreciation of tourism activities, perception of encounters forms a vital component of evaluation process (Walls et al., 2011 and Smith and Costello 2009). The encounters are also referred to as facilitators of experience since they form part of interactions to facilitate tourists' extraordinary experiences (Mossberg, 2007) or Imersion (Hansen and Mossberg, 2013).

A number of dimensions of dining experiences have been exposed by several studies, represented by their multidimensionality of the concept, reflecting those aspects which are internal to individual tourists and those which are facilitators. Therefore, those attributes related to individuals attitude and emotions are highly related to those aspects internal to an individual. For instance, Adongo et al. (2015) who focused on international tourists' local food experiences found out that dining experiences is explained by; Hedonism, Novelty, local culture, knowledge and adverse experiences. In another study, Goolaup and Mossberg (2017) revealed some elements important in creating an extraordinary nature-based experience for food tourists to include; non-ordinary, togetherness, insightful, hospitality, luxurious, genuine and peripheral. However, those attributes related to individuals perception towards performance of a particular dining activity is closely related to those aspects external to an individual, the facilitators. These may include studies by Chang, Kivela, and Mak (2011) who established some attributes considered important by the Chinese tourists when

evaluating their travel dining experience to include; tourists' own food culture, the contextual factor of the dining experience, variety and diversity of food, perception of the destination, service encounter and tour guide's performance. Similarly, the room, meeting, products, the atmosphere and the management control system was the five aspects of a meal (Gustafsson, Öström, Johansson, & Mossberg, 2006). Jang and Namkung (2009) on the other hand found that, restaurant specific stimuli for dining experience includes food, service and atmosphere. Andersson and Mossberg (2004) found that social needs (good company) and physical environment tend to satisfy during dinner while the physiological needs (food and fine cuisine) are more important for consumers at lunch.

Previous studies have been conducted in various contexts including; restaurants with a particular products such as local food (Adongo et al., 2015), general restaurants (Gustafsson, Öström, Johansson, & Mossberg, 2006; Andersson and Mossberg, 2004; Jang and Namkung, 2009), nature based food experience (Goolaup, 2017) and guided tours (Chang et al., 2011). Studies also targeted various respondents such as food tourists from Sweden (Goolaup, 2017), Chinese tourists in an all-inclusive tour package (Chang et al. 2011), and international tourists (Adongo et al., 2015). These generally gives an impression of controlled dining environment which may have an influence in the nature of experiences perceived by tourists. In some studies such as Chang et al. (2011), the interviews were conducted in a hotel room after a day visit and therefore it dwells on tourists' memory of the entire daily dining activities. Since tourists participate in various dining occasions in their entire travel, which is expected to evoke different cognitive and emotional reactions unlike the previous authors, this study focused on all international tourists, who participated in diverse dining contexts (tented camps, food markets, food trails, food stalls, restaurants and by the beach sides), in various food/dining related products and right at the dining place immediately after a particular dining activity. This study therefore seeks to (1) Explored the dimension and attributes of the dining experiences, in an effort to find out tourists lived experiences while participating in various dining activities and (2) develop a framework that will present conceptualization of the nature of experiences across diversities of dining activities.

Methodology

The phenomenological approach was adopted in an attempt to provide for a common description of individuals' lived experiences by collection of information from individuals who have experienced that phenomenon in selected tourists' in a dining setting (Creswell, 2007). This provided an insight and a deeper understanding about the features of phenomena - Dining Experiences. Holbrook and Hirschman (1982) also acknowledged a phenomenological methodological approach as suitable in studying experiential consumption because the subjective aspects of consciousness – the experiential benefits, can

be addressed as an object of study. A total of 34 participants from four regions (Arusha, Kilimanjaro, Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar) were interviewed from selected dining places with main consideration on types of dining places and tourists' food choices. Six different types of dining places were selected including restaurants (theme and non-theme/casual and formal), open market, food stalls, tented camps, food trails and local homes. Selection of various dining settings was inspired by an existing wide range of tourism dining activities, particularly with tourists who were participating in mountain climbing, landscape, food trails and wildlife safaris where meals were consumed alongside such as in restaurants, tented camps or in local communities' homes residing close to the places visited (GDS, 2008; TTB, 2012). Similarly, some dining took place by the beach sides and at open food markets, commonly practiced in the coastal regions and more pronounced in Zanzibar and Dar es Salaam.

In-depth interviews and non-participatory observation methods were used by the study. In-depth interviews were conducted to tourists by use of semi-structured interview guide to ensure collection of uniform information. The researcher ensured that questions were asked in a specific order since answers of previous questions could build onto the later responses. Each interview used approximately 30 minutes per respondent, and it was conducted at different occasions depending on the interviewee's comfort, including at restaurants/dining table, outside the dining area or at the resting area after the dining sessions. Respondents were recruited and interviewed immediately after finishing their meals, while having their last course/meal, or while waiting for payments or when on exit. This was also suggested to be a strategic posture to capture customers' feelings of the food just consumed (Sukalakamala and Boyce, 2007); also, so close to stimuli that evokes visitors' emotions (Bigné et al., 2005) because evaluations are not replaced by other functional benefits (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). On participants' consent, some interviews were tape recorded.

Alongside the interviews by a researcher, a trained research assistant engaged in non-participant observation. This method was useful to supplement the data since it gives a clue of the dining activities and environment which may have influenced tourists' experiential benefits. The observation diary was used to record physical setting of the dining, participants' dining activities and expressions, interaction between the visitors, various displays, sound, dining location, service staff costumes and behaviours and interior and exterior decor.

Table 1: Profile of respondents

Id.no.	Age	Gender	Residence	Duration/day	Lunch/dinner	Meals chosen	Dining place
ARS-01	Early 20s	Female	Europe	20(14)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
ARS-02	Early 30s	Female	America	14(09)	Lunch	Local	Tented camp
ARS-03	Early 30s	Male	America	14(09)	Lunch	Foreign	Tented camp
ARS-04	Late 50s	Female	Australia	08(05)	Lunch	Foreign	Restaurant
ARS-05	Late 20s	Male	Africa	07(05)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
ARS-06	Early 40s	Female	Europe	13(08)	Lunch	Local	Food trails
ARS-07	Late 50s	Female	Europe	13(08)	Lunch	Local	Food trails
ARS-08	Late 60s	Female	Asia	06(04)	Lunch	Local	Restaurant
DSM-09	Early 30s	Female	Asia	08(05)	Lunch	Local	Food stalls
DSM-10	Late 20s	Male	Europe	18(11)	Lunch	Foreign	Beach side
DSM-11	Early 50s	Female	America	22(15)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
DSM-12	Early 30s	Male	America	22(15)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
DSM-13	Late 40s	Male	Asia	12(09)	Lunch	Foreign	Beach side
DSM-14	Late 30s	Male	Europe	14(09)	Dinner	Foreign	Restaurant
DSM-15	Early 20s	Male	Europe	10(07)	Lunch	Local	Food stalls
DSM-16	Early 40s	Female	Africa	10(06)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
KLM-17	Late 40s	Female	Australia	08(05)	Dinner	Foreign	Restaurant
KLM-18	Late 20s	Male	Africa	13(12)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant
KLM-19	Early 50s	Female	America	16(12)	Lunch	Local	Tented camp
KLM-20	Late 30s	Female	Europe	12(08)	Lunch	Local	Tented camp
KLM-21	Late 30s	Female	Europe	12(08)	Lunch	Local	Tented camp
KLM-22	Early 50s	Female	Africa	07(04)	Lunch	Local	Restaurant
KLM-23	Early 40s	Male	America	14(11)	Lunch	Foreign	Tented camp
KLM-24	Late 30s	Male	Asia	21(15)	Lunch	Local	Tented camp
ZNZ-25	Early 40s	Female	Australia	09(07)	Dinner	Foreign	Restaurant
ZNZ-26	Early 20s	Female	Australia	09(07)	Dinner	Local	Restaurant

ZNZ-27	Late 40s	Female	Europe	14(12)	Dinner	Local	Local home
ZNZ-28	Early 30s	Male	Africa	07(04)	Lunch	Foreign	Restaurant
ZNZ-29	Early 20s	Male	Asia	05(03)	Dinner	Local	Food market
ZNZ-30	Early 30s	Female	America	12(08)	Lunch	Local	Beach side
ZNZ-31	Early 60s	Female	America	12(08)	Lunch	Foreign	Beach side
ZNZ-32	Late 20s	Male	Europe	10(07)	Dinner	Local	Food market
ZNZ-33	Early 40s	Female	Europe	10(07)	Dinner	Local	Food market
ZNZ-34	Late 30s	Male	America	28(20)	Lunch	Local	Local home

Respondents were required to provide description of that particular dining experience on what they experienced (various types of food chosen, activities participated), how they experienced (various levels of participation and fulfilment of dining activity) and the reason behind such experiences. These were followed up by questions to probe on examples of described dining experiences including aspects of dining which they perceive to have contributed to the expressed fulfilment with the dining session (the researcher had to probe in respect of specific encounters). As depicted in Table 1, the participants were highly heterogeneous; there were 20 women and 14 men, aged from 20 to 60, mostly from America and Europe, 21 consumed lunch and 13 dinner, 24 consumed local meals 19 consumed foreign food and dining took place across a diverse span of dining places. For example, Hall and Sharples (2003) reported tourists do frequent their dining at local food markets, festivals, local restaurants, and also on food trails (Telfer and Hashimoto, 2003). Furthermore, a number of authors (Kruger, 2015; Mkono, 2012; Mkono et al., 2013; Sharpless, 2003) also reveal that tourists were gratified with dining at national parks due to the natural background which in this case was easily reflected in the cuisines offered.

An existential-phenomenological analysis was employed where description of various dining experienced were vivid. In the beginning, the researcher with the help of a research assistant transcribed and recorded the data in the computer using Microsoft excel by generating extended matrix of questions against participants' responses and observation diary notes. The interview transcripts are interpreted following an iterative process with the intention to describe common patterns in the interviewees' experiences of the phenomenon under study, also referred to as themes (Thompson et al., 1989). The researcher therefore went through the interview transcriptions and highlighted some significant statements, also referred to as horizontalization in Creswell (2007) which expressed how respondents experience particular dining activity. This process was followed by clustering of statements of similar meanings as a result of development of meaning units or themes. Textual description (what they expressed to have experienced) and structural description (what influenced how they experienced their dining) were then developed. Yin (2011) posited that phenomenological studies can possibly use any qualitative design analysis, where potential need for thematic analysis was highlighted for capturing and interpreting participants' words while organizing participants' original and transformed textual information.

The data reduction process was simplified by using a computer program, NVIVO which facilitated organization and description of unstructured and non-numerical data producing key themes and categories. In this process, phrases or statements (mass descriptive codes) were reduced to conceptually abstract codes (single indicative concept). Prior literature and researchers' experience facilitated the process of matching the codes against the themes, although high degree of freedom was exercised to ensure manifestation of respondent based dining

experiences from the collected primary data. An output suggested a number of attributes likely to explain tourists' total dining experience. In contextualizing the links between themes and categories, some patterns reflecting existence of some relationships were processed and exhibited.

Findings and discussions

The main findings covered the five evolving themes representing the dimensions of the Dining Experiences categorized in five themes manifesting across the three categories of dining experiences. These include food offered, service offered, environment where the dining took place, price offered and presence of other guests in a particular dining occasion. The five themes are discussed alongside the three categories, ordinary, non-ordinary and extra-ordinary dining experiences. Supporting transcripts are used to support the discussions.

Food offered

A number of issues were raised, including, good tasty food, well presented food, original/traditional flavours of food, fresh foods, well cooked food, menu varieties with wide selection from local to other food types, healthy food, local food and safe food. A follow-up question required respondents to give their opinion on their evaluation of a particular dining just had before the interview. In addition to those issues raised in a previous question, some more aspects were raised including, Tanzanian original food, spicy foods, good mix of national and international foods, indigenous foods with local ingredients and the wide use of local ingredients in food preparation. The following examples illustrate tourists' opinion on their experiences with food.

“...the food felt original, very fresh, tasty and well presented...” (ARS-08)

“...it was easy since in most places you can find both local and foreign food...I ordered whole roasted tilapia with ugali and vegetables...there was great varieties...could not try everything...” (ARS-05)

“...we were a bit sceptical to eating...‘mtori’...mashed plantains mixed with beef...everything is mixed and mashed...but it was so tasty” (KLM-22)

“...the food was very hot and spicy...it feels fresh and healthy...” (ZNZ-29)

“...the food was well arranged...so attractive...dishing the food was like distracting the pattern...” (DSM-11)

The expressions of standards and excitement about food is so obvious and clearly represent a feeling of an escape from mundane, quenching a quest for novel food experience. This matches the Quan and Wang criteria of interchangeability from food being a supportive to peak experience, and also a contrast between peak experiences and daily experiences. However, even though in some cases tourists were sceptical, such as respondent KLM-22, fascination of new ingredients with tourists may also be limited to their own ‘culinary precepts’ in their evaluation (Chang et al., 2011).

Service offered

Type of services received was another aspect of dining that was reported to describe tourists' dining experiences. For example, some respondents mentioned speed of service and accuracy to be satisfactory as posited by one tourist: "...it didn't take much time...I was served what I ordered..." (ZNZ-25). Moreover, some tourists expressed their fulfilment with the dining in respect of staff politeness, good customer care, staff service oriented, their informative and attractiveness. Moreover, some visitor called for more information and clarification of menu items, and particularly on local foods, drinks and their historical/thematic backgrounds. It was contended by one tourist that:

"...it was difficult to recognize local food...I had to ask several times before I chose what I wanted to eat...a lot of staff were friendly and passionate to help..." (ARS-01).

In respect of historical background of local food, drinks and other interior designs, one visitor remarked that:

"... when I saw a drawing of a big pot on the wall, very well decorated, so fascinating, ...I then saw the same pot carving ... I mean a real pot, I was curious to see how it fitted on a stove and what types of food are cooked in it ...when the food was served I asked the guy who was serving me food if they used that pot to prepare the food I ordered, unfortunately he had no idea of what I was talking about..." (ZNZ-26).

Another interesting finding was revealed by some visitors regarding choice of eating tools. This was more pronounced in some places, especially when tourists were having their meals at locals' homes or cultural themed restaurants with completely localized dining setting whereby tourists were supposed to use their bare hands to eat. One visitor commented that: "...guests must be given opportunity to choose whether they want to use cutleries or hands" (ZNZ-27). In fact, culinary setting in Tanzania varies across the country displaying different ways of serving food and eating habits and use of bare hands to eat is a common practice, although it varies across the country. Even when a general trend witnesses an increase in the use of cutleries, however, reasonable number of people still maintain their tradition of dining.

Despite the touristic nature of questing for novelty, tourists still hold their differing cultural backgrounds which may act as impediment into perceiving an experience (Cohen and Avieli, 2004).

Environment aspects

Various expressions were brought forth in respect to environmental aspects, particularly cleanliness of the dining place, location of the dining place, interior and exterior design and decorations, appearance of staff and the local music/dances performances as asserted by one traveller "...we even joined the

band in dancing while breaking for desert...” (DSM-12). More excitement was expressed when the dining was carried out on sea shores, in the tented camps, at the farms and at the parks as reported in the following statements;

“...feeling like eating on a sailing boat...so enjoyable” (ZNZ-32)

“...dining in the wilderness...just like what we watch on movies...what a dream” (ARS-02)

“...it was so close to the farm, we picked vegetables and cooked immediately...” (ARS-06)

“...easy access since it is located in the city and close to my lodging...” (KLM-18)

In terms of the interior and exterior designs, many visitors seemed to be attracted to the local Tanzanian architectures and designs. These include Maasai carvings, beads and corals decorations, different animals, people and map carvings and drawings, animal print table cloths, thatched roofs, sandy floor and local designed wooden furniture. One tourist posited that:

“...‘Maasai’ people received us by the door, we stopped a bit to look at the dressing and the decoration on them...amazingly smart...just like the one we saw at Manyara national park” (DSM-11)

These expressions qualifies particular environment dimensions as source of peak experiences since they widely reflect memorability, adventurous and escape experiences (.....).

Cleanliness of the environment and especially of the toilets were of a great concern to many. Some complained that private rooms (toilets) were dirty, which eventually impaired their enjoyment with everything they had encountered in that particular restaurant. The following statement substantiate this response, “...we were disappointed with the washrooms...they are dirty, and we have children with us...this spoiled our phenomenal moment here...” (ZNZ-28).

Much as tourists may quest for excitement of their travel, basic standards still forms part of their expectations in their total travel evaluation.

Price Offered

Price offered for food and drinks is also considered as important in experiencing the dining activities. Majority of respondents perceived prices to be reasonable and even remarked that dining in Tanzania is very cheap compared to many places they visited before. However, some respondents revealed that local and native Tanzanian food were relatively more expensive than other familiar foods. In a related incidence, some respondents revealed that a local running chicken (fowl) was more expensive than a beef burger. For instance, one lady noted that:

“... to my expectation, you do not need to transport your own food long distances from the farm to the hotel, I did not expect to see local food more expensive than other foods...” (KLM-24).

On a different note, some respondents complained on overcharging of the bills, where some tourists felt that they were sometimes charged higher than normal. In some cases, they relate it with their colour or language they speak. One respondent asserted that:

“...they inflate the prices because we are ‘mzungu’....” meaning white people “...they think we have so much money to spend” (ARS-05)

This happened in places where there was no menu displayed, only written on the book/leaflet, where they commonly say there is a change of price for particular meals but the menu is not yet reviewed. In this case, respondents suggested that dining places should display the prices on a board where it is easy to review whenever changes occur.

Other issues raised include delays in bill preparation which delays their tour programs set for the day. One respondent remarked that, “...we nearly left before they brought the bill...”(ZNZ-34). A general respondents’ description of price offered for the meals taken in different dining places reflected on a fair pricing and therefore many tourists suggested that it was worth it dining at various places, with exception of a few instances as revealed here above.

In this case, the dining experience revealed quite an extension and intensification of daily experiences from the peak experiences as per Quan and Wang conceptualization. Literally, any dining must as well be able to fulfil tourists’ functional experiences since the main motivation of dining fulfils both supportive and peak experiences.

Other guests

Respondents described presence of other visitors in their dining occasions as one of important aspects in their dining experiences. At different occasions, respondents revealed their excitement acquired by dining with family members, other travellers and local people around visited places. In respect to dining with family members, respondents posited that it offers an exciting feeling of enjoyment since when travelling, they get an opportunity to spend most of the time together which gives them opportunity to explore further while enjoying their stay, as commented by one visitor:

“...as you can see, we are even sharing the food, tasting each other’s food chosen, we get an opportunity to taste more food varieties....if I was alone I could not order four different types of foods at a go, but here, we managed to taste four different types of foods...” (ARS-04).

Similarly, dining with other travellers creates more confidence on a place, product and service since most tourists rely on recommendations from other experienced travellers and tour operators who have more knowledge of a place. Meeting other travellers in a particular place was perceived as reflection of assurance which guaranteed safety and comfortability of the offerings. It was revealed by one tourist that: "...I usually meet many foreigners in this restaurant ...though the ratings are high...I feel more comfortable having many dinners here." (ZNZ-33). Dining with locals was revealed by respondents to stimulate some wonderful dining memories since majority related it with legitimate destination offerings and therefore a feeling of closeness to the Tanzanian people and their culture.

The other guests dimension provides for all dimensions of the conceptualization of the tourist experience. The family dining provides for an extension of daily experiences as well as differentiation from dining being a supportive experience and turning it into peak experience. Presence of other guests as well as presence of locals in the dining offers for interchangeability of the dining occasion from a mere supportive to enhancement of peak experiences.

Implication, Conclusion and Recommendation

The interviews generally gives light into dimensions of dining experience which forms a holistic structure of a meeting place where the dining is actually taking place, the dining encounter. It contains all the components potential for any dining occasion. As it is argued by... that despite the nature of a tourist, for questing for extraordinary experiences, a number of aspects in the dining occasion should fall into required standards while also offering an element of experiential value, which is a key motivation to ravel. This is important if at the end of the experience process, a tourist is expected to acquire some touristic experiential satisfaction, as a key motivation to travel.

This study therefore propose a conceptual model of Dining Experiences by suggesting that, the dining encounter dimensions have potential to explain the Dining experiences of tourists participating in various dining occasions in Tanzania.

This study therefore paves way to destination marketers and dining establishments to use the identified dimensions in their actual operations in understanding of customer description of their offerings to increase tourists' experiential benefits with their dining encounters. This is because the measurements reflect destination - specific offerings and situations.

Similarly, the relationship between food and tourism represent a significant opportunity for product development and rural diversification of food products since outsider interest in local aspects of food may stimulate local community's

awareness and interest in producing and providing local food to visitors coming to their destinations, and hence, locals' economic empowerment and sustainable tourism is enhanced.

References

- Anderleeb, S.S. & Conway, C. (2006). Customer Satisfaction in the Restaurant Industry: an examination of the transaction-specific model. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 20 (1), pp. 3-11
- Cetin, G., Akova, O. & Kaya, F. (2014). Components of experiential value: Case of hospitality industry. 10th International Strategic Management Conference. *Procedia - Social and Behavioural Sciences* Vol. 150, pp. 1040 – 1049.
- Cohen, E. & Avieli, N. (2004). Food in Tourism, Attraction and Impediment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 31, (4), pp. 755 - 778
- Goolaup, S. and Mossberg, L. (2017). Exploring the concept of extraordinary related to food tourists' nature-based experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*. vol. 17, no. 1, 27–43
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/15022250.2016.1218150>
- Gustafsson, I., Öström, Å, Johansson, J. & Mossberg, L. (2006). The Five Aspects Meal Model: a tool for developing meal services in restaurants. *Journal of Foodservice*, Vol. 17, pp. 84–93.
- Ha, J. & Jang, S.C.S. (2012). The Effects of Dinning Atmospheric on Behavioural Intentions through Quality Perceptions. *Journal of Services Marketing*, Vol. 26 (3), 204-215.
- Ha, J. & Jang, S. S. (2010). Effects of service quality and food quality: The moderating role of atmospherics in an ethnic restaurant segment. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29 (3), pp. 520-529.
- Harrington, R., Ottenbacher, M. & Kendall, K.W. (2011). Fine-Dining restaurant selection: direct and moderating effects of customer attributes. *Journal of foodservice business research*, Vol. 14, pp. 272-289.
- Jang, S.C.S. & Namkung, Y. (2009). Perceived Quality, Emotions, and Behavioural Intentions: Application of an Extended Mehrabian – Russell Model to Restaurants. *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 62, pp. 451-460.
- Kim, W.G., Ng, C.Y.N. & Kim, Y. (2009). Influence of institutional DINESERV on customer satisfaction, return intention, and word-of-mouth. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28, pp. 10-17.
- Kim, N. & Lee, M. (2012). Other Customers in a Service Encounter: Examining the effect in a restaurant setting. *Journal of services marketing*, Vol. 26 (1), pp. 27-40.
- Kivela, J. & Crotts, J.C. (2006), Tourism and Gastronomy: Gastronomy's Influence on How Tourists Experience a Destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, Vol. 30 (3), pp. 354-377.

- Liu Y. 1. & Jang, S. S. (2009). The effects of dining atmospherics: An extended Mehrabian–Russell model. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 28 pp. 494–503
- Mossberg, L. (2007). A Marketing Approach to the Tourist Experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, Vol. 7 (1), pp. 59-74.
- Mehrabian, A. & Russell, JA. (1974). *An approach to environmental psychology*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Sims, R. (2009). Food, Place and Authenticity: Local Food and the Sustainable Tourism Experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 17, (3), pp. 321-336.
- Sperdin, A.B., Peters, M. & Strobl, A. (2012). It is all about Emotional State: Managing Tourists' Experiences. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 31, pp. 23-30
- Spielmann, N., Laroche, M. 1. & Borgesa, A. (2012). How service seasons the experience: Measuring hospitality servicescapes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 31 (2), pp. 360– 368
- Thompson, C.J., Locander, W.B., and Pollio, H.R. (1989), Putting consumer research back into consumer behaviour: The philosophy and method of existential phenomenology. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 16(2), 133–146.
- Wijaya, S., King, B. & Nguyen, T. H and Morrison, A. (2013). International visitor dining experience: A conceptual framework. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, Vol. 20, pp. 34-42.
- Josiana, B.M. & Henry, W. (2014), Eatertainment: Utilitarian and hedonic motivations for patronizing fun experience restaurants. 5th Asia Euro Conference. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 144, pp.187 – 202.

Session 2b Tourism and Economic Development

CHALLENGES FACING TOURIST HANDICRAFT ENTREPRENEURS AT GREENMARKET SQUARE, CAPE TOWN

Thereza Israel Mugobi
Open University of Tanzania
tmugobi@gmail.com/ thereza.mugobi@out.ac.tz

Abstract

South Africa is facing challenges in eradicating poverty to meet the millennium development goals by 2025. Among the major one, is exploitation of the marginalized groups who are unfortunate masses by the fortunate few such as the rich (tourists). Because of this mass exploitation, the number of people living below the poverty line is increases (Okech, 2016). By tracing the lifestyle of the informal traders as the reflection of their income, the finding shows that, most of traders use their profits to sustain their livelihood and 64% were not making sustainable profit, only 11% of traders confirmed that the business generated sustainable profit. Among all the challenges high operation cost ranked number one as a hindering factor sin growing their business as it recorded 57.5 percent. The monthly spending of from what is earned is being distribute to different activities not related to their business such as sending back home to their original country, paying of their children school fees and spending in glossaries leaving traders into a viscous poverty cycle. These results suggest that traders at Green Market square have higher gross profit than average profits. This study is considered important because there is a rising emphasis on handicrafts in South Africa because crafts are an essential aspect of the development of micro businesses that are required if the South African economy is to experience fast growth. There is a need for continuous promotion of projects, to enhance the development of handicraft products in order to; paves a way for the marginalized youth to develop merchantable skills, to protect their cultural heritage and strengthen their sense of direction and confidence.

Introduction

Tourism industry and its related business such as handicrafts has become one of the key sectors that drives the South Africa economic development and transformed the country over the two decades. The industry has also emerged as significant development option in the post-apartheid era, it is the primary source of employment for workers, source of income with low barriers to entry particularly for those who are relatively disadvantaged in the labor market such as unskilled or low skilled, female, impaired, and older workers (Nuru & Devi, 2016).

The growth of international tourism has resulted into generation of employment opportunity to many disadvantage groups in the country (Statistics South Africa, 2017). The country has 30% rate of unemployed active group whom most of them engages in handicraft related business to gain an income that sustain their livelihood. The craft sector is estimated to employ about 1.2 million people and contribute a significant contribution of about R 3.4 billion to the economy every year (Godfrey et al., 2006).

Informal handicrafts related businesses are among the three major sectors (agricultural, craft & textile and tourism) that could improve livelihoods of the marginalized group in a community. Its perpetuation and growth has been largely due to the weak capacity of the formal private sector to produce sufficient job and earnings (Nuru & Devin, 2016). Therefore, “tourism is the 21st century’s number one industry, and handicraft is one of the fastest growing activities. Together they make a logical and powerful combination” (John, 2014.p3).

In South Africa, the formal sector has low ability in providing jobs to the entire economic active group, together with increasing number of job seekers for that reason, informal sectors are the entry point of the economies and they are considered to be the most important sector in absorbing large number of unemployed group (Godfrey et al., 2006; Russouw & Ferreira, 2016).

The present study involved informal traders at Greenmarket Square in Cape Town, which was one of the ten most visited tourist destinations in Cape Town (Binns & Nel, 2002). Greenmarket Square attracts not only local entrepreneurs, but also a large number of migrants from other parts of the African continent. The migrants engage in the informal handicraft trading as an opportunity of expanding their business skills and gaining income to support their families back home. The trade also significantly contributes to the growth of the national economy (Crush & Peberdy, 1998). The informal traders in Greenmarket Square were selected due to the relative concentration of the poor population in handicraft trading activity (Sibhat, 2017).

Despite the contribution of the tourism handicraft industry in employment and poverty reduction; national policies, services and institutional support programmes are rarely accessible to the sector in South Africa. Question still remains as to what extent the sale of handicrafts is able to sustainably support the livelihoods of the informal traders themselves, who form the backbone of the market. While it has the potentials to graduate to micro and small scale enterprises a number of constraints currently inhibit the development of the informal sector and its integration with other sectors of the South Africa economy.

To this end, there is a need of exploring whether informal handicraft traders make sustainable profits to sustain their livelihood, and for viable and feasible

policy recommendations to ensure their survival. South Africa is facing challenges in eradicating poverty to meet the millennium development goals by 2025. Among the major one, is exploitation of the marginalized groups such as artisans, petty business people and disabled people who are unfortunate masses by the fortunate few such as the rich such as tourists. Because of this mass exploitation, the number of people living below the poverty line is increases (Okech, 2016).

Most of the vulnerable population in South Africa has low level of education and poor production skill as they cannot qualify to be part of the formal sector employment and there is limited job position for this group (Tovey, 2009). Craft industry is well thought-out to be one of the beneficially sector that embrace the population of women which was historically excluded in formal economy as well as in all the development activities (Elphick, 2007). It's a sector that doesn't require experience rather innovative, production and traditional skills, which simplify women involvement and integrating their household duties (Ruskin & Morris, 2015). Therefore, large number of women from disadvantage backgrounds engages in production and selling of curious to tourist for them to gain income and reduce dependence as well as to become economic active group in the society.

However, the sector lacks 'industry' identity, traders do not belong to any labour union and there are no business associations (Elphick , 2009). In addition, due to seasonality nature of tourism industry, traders consider themselves to be part time workers, operating informally without paying income tax, and their business are not registered (Rogerson, 2002). Nevertheless, their production is home-based and in low scale and they are not earning enough income as well as their contribution in livelihoods growth is not yet depicted in official statistic data (Lewis, 2011).

Government agencies, private sectors and international organizations around the globe have seen this and have to set out critical measures to ensure that low income and marginalized groups meet their basic needs on a sustainable basis (Ke & Liying, 2015). One way to achieve this could be through well planned, supported and managed tourism sectors and subsectors that would lead to substantial poverty alleviation (UNCTAD & WTO, 2014; Markwick, 2015). In addition, informal handicraft industry is one of the tourism sectors which are a potential source of employment, leading to empowerment and, economic development (Binns & Nel, 2016; Follad, 2017).

Therefore, the fundamental aims of this study is to analyze the value chain of the informal handicraft products sold on Greenmarket Square, so as to gain more of an understanding of the constraints within the chain that hold back the growth and competitiveness of the industry in supporting the livelihoods of informal traders.

Methods

Study design

The present study was conducted through a cross sectional quantitative descriptive research design which was concerned with describing the characteristics of informal traders. The research approach was carried out in order to understand more on the constraints within the chain that hold back the growth and competitiveness of the industry in supporting the livelihoods of informal traders.

Study Area

The setting for this study was at Greenmarket Square which is located at the heart of the Cape Town central business district. Greenmarket Square is the oldest market in Cape Town that incorporates both formal and informal traders (flea market) and surrounded with different tourist street. With regard to the spatial arrangement of the market, the area is not well arranged; it is congested and traders work in a small cubic space. Additionally, due to large number of traders who are flourishing into the city from other part of Africa in search for better livelihoods, this area is today saturated due to the fact that it accommodates a large number of traders. Therefore, the area is regarded as unsafe, poorly arranged and tourists fail to distinguish products from one trader to the other as they mostly sale similar products.

Study population and sample techniques

The population size was 197 traders at Greenmarket Square but the study selected a sample size of 40 informal handicraft traders. A systematic sampling technique was used to select traders for the interview as according to Kanpur (2016),it ensure that each unit has equal probability of inclusion in the sample.

Data collection

A pilot study was carried out to collect preliminary data so as to ascertain whether the questionnaires would fit what we intended to collect from the informal handicraft traders. The pilot study found some mistake and we corrected before the official collection. The questionnaires were self administered by the interviewer and interviewer alone was responsible for collection of the data; however interviewee were asked to fill a consent form to show that they have agreed to participate in the study (the consent form is attached as appendix). The chairperson of the market was contacted and CCDI to make an appointment for the date and time for the interview. The first interview started with informal traders.

Data analysis

The completed questionnaires from the informal traders were first coded then entered into SPSS version 19. Different themes were explored based on respondent profile, the relationship between variable were also established

which allows the change from one descriptive to explanatory analysis. The raw data were created into variables with their respective codes of categories within it. Some questions had more than one response so we employed the multiple response menu of the SPSS to enter them as different variables but under one main variable.

In order to present the finding from quantitative data, two different approaches were applied into this study: Incise of central tendency (use of standard deviation) and indices of response patter (use of frequency and percentage) (Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000; Rogelberg, 2002).

Results

This section presents and analyzes data obtained from the informal traders engaging in sale of tourist handicraft at Green market square, Cape Town from 2011 to 2013.

Profitability generated by sale of handicraft

The researcher only considered gross profits of the business (taking into equation only income and expenses) and disregard other types of profitability, like economic profits and accounting profits. Mean monthly spending in regular activities like transport to and from the work, education, food and drinks, groceries and clothing and footwear were R 4,348.46 and the median was R 2,550. Spending in these items was slightly positive skewed (Skewness = 2.55) (Figure 1). While spending patterns of these items is grouped into different form, about 67.5% (n = 27) spent between R 0 to R 4,999 (Table 1).

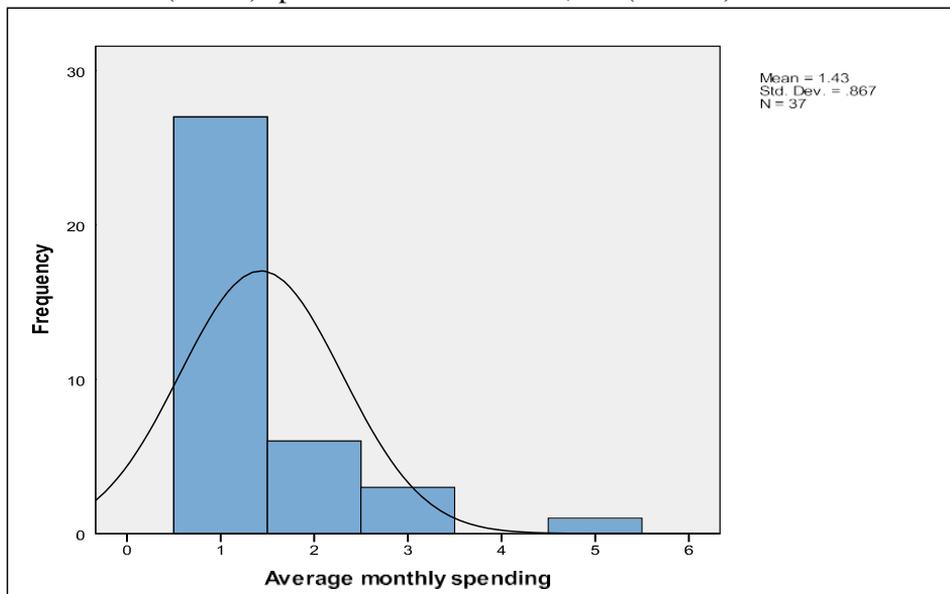


Figure 1: Monthly spending distribution of traders at Greenmarket Square

Table 1: Monthly spending distribution of traders at Greenmarket Square

Monthly spending	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
R0 - R4999	27	67.5	73.0
R5000 - R9999	6	15.0	89.2
R10000 - R14999	3	7.5	97.3
R20000 and above	1	2.5	100.0
Total	37	92.5	
System	3	7.5	
Grand Total	40	100.0	

Operating cost

In operating costs items like suppliers and materials costs, logistics costs, and storage and premises costs, we found an average spending of R 4,835.08 and a median of R 2,850. The distribution of operating costs was slightly positive skewed (Skewness = 1.47) (Figure 2). When we grouped all the costs, we found about 57.5% (n = 23) spent between R 0 and R 3,999 and only 5% (n = 2) spent between R 12,000 and R 15,999 (Table 2).

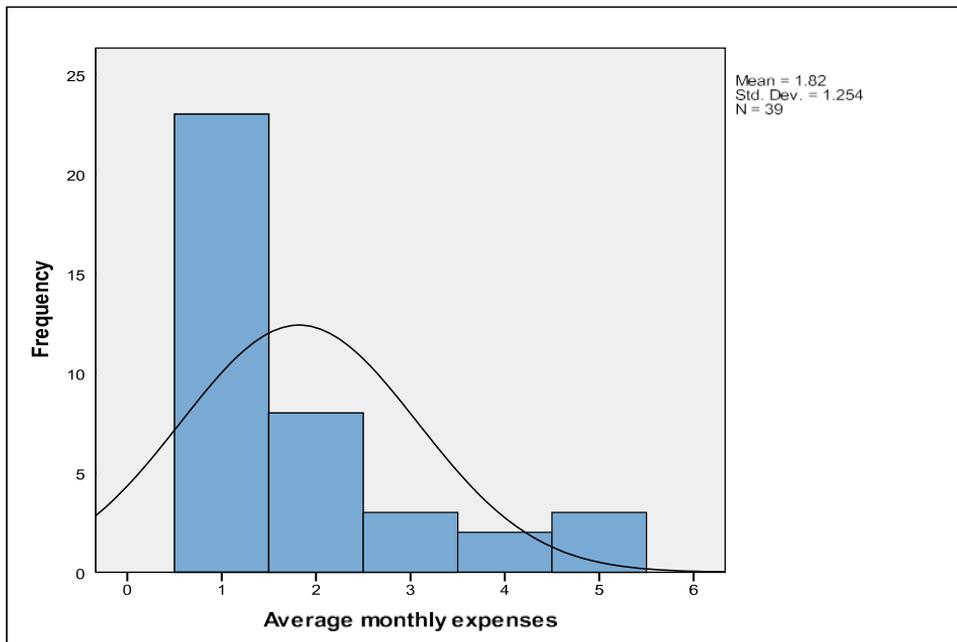


Figure 2: Monthly expenses of the traders at Greenmarket Square

Table 2: Monthly expenses of the traders at Greenmarket Square

Monthly expenses	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
R0 - R3999	23	57.5	59.0
R4000 - R7999	8	20.0	79.5
R8000 - R11999	3	7.5	87.2
R12000 - R15999	2	5.0	92.3
R16000 and above	3	7.5	100.0
Total	39	97.5	
System	1	2.5	
Grand Total	40	100.0	

Monthly Income

The average monthly income for the two seasons (winter and summer) was R 19,925.89 and median of R 11,550. The income distribution was also positively skewed (Skewness = 1.61) (Figure 3). About 32.5% (n = 13) generated income between R 0 and R 9,999 for both seasons (Table 3).

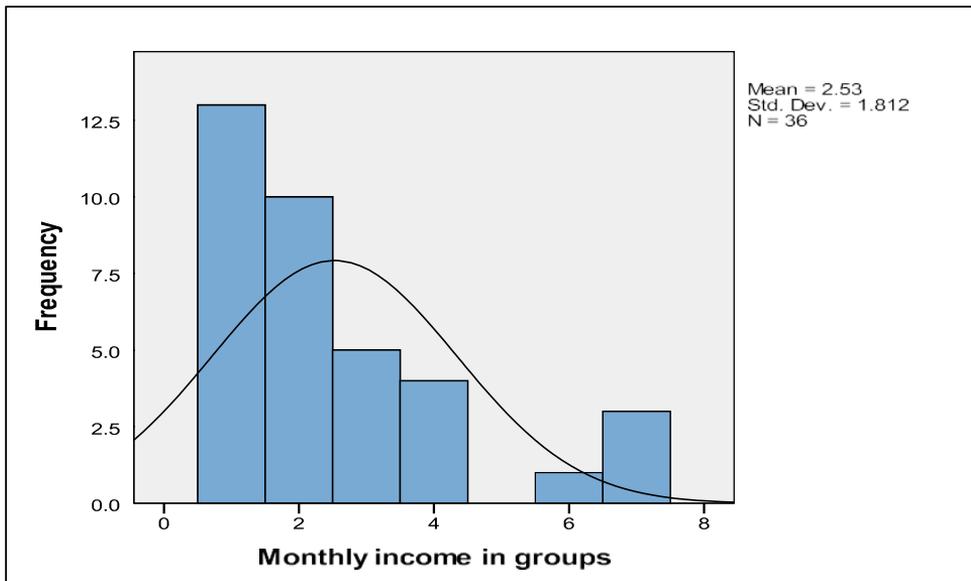


Figure 3: Average income of the traders at Greenmarket Square

Table 3: Average Monthly Income of the Traders at Greenmarket Square

Average Income	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
R0 - R9999	13	32.5	36.1
R10000 - R19999	10	25.0	63.9
R20000 - R29999	5	12.5	77.8
R30000 - R39999	4	10.0	88.9
R50000 - R59999	1	2.5	91.7
R60000 and above	3	7.5	100.0
Total	36	90.0	
System	4	10.0	
Grand Total	40	100.0	

Gross profits

The total income generated by traders from handicraft selling was R 717,332 while the total operating costs was R 188,568 resulted into operating profits of R 528,764. On the other hand the total spending was R 160,893 which gave a gross profit of about R 367,871 (Table 4).

Table 4: Total profits generated by all traders at Greenmarket Square

Activity	Amount
Sales	R 717,332
Operating costs	R,-188,568
Operating profits	R 528,764
Spending	R -160,893
Gross profits	R 367,871

However, when we considered individual respondents we found other traders were not making sustainable profits. Only 4(11%) traders on the positive side did not make sustainable profits, the maximum profit generate was R 60,710 per annum, while 22(64%) traders on the negative side did not make any profit and the minimum profit generated was R -14,900 per annum (Figure 4).

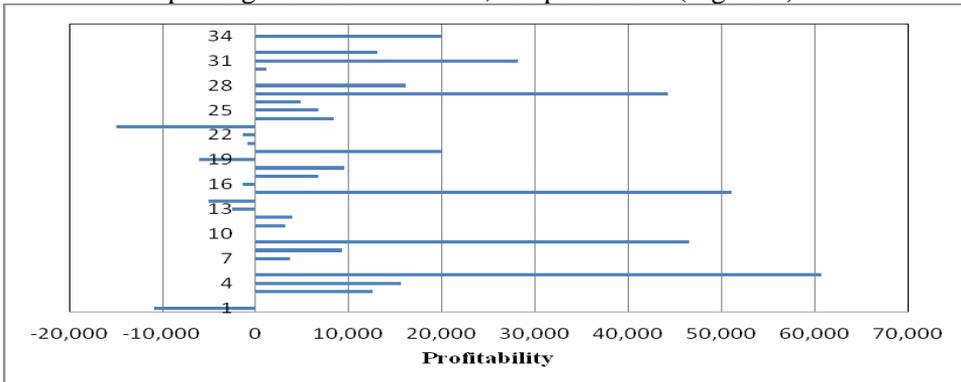


Figure 4: Profitability of the traders at Greenmarket Square

The Lifestyle of traders

Different lifestyle persuaded by the traders at Green Market Square, however 26.7% (n = 16) used their profits to expand their business, 26.7% (n = 16) send some of their profits to support their family at their country of origin and the remaining 46.7% (n = 28) used their profits to sustain their livelihood at their usual places of residences (Table 5).

Table 5: Spending pattern of traders at Greenmarket Square

Spending of the profits generated	Responses	
	Frequency	Percent
Expand business	16	26.7
Send back home	16	26.7
Sustain own livelihood	28	46.7
Total	60	100

For traders using their money to sustain livelihood at their usual place of residences, about 23.6% (n = 35) spent in groceries, 23.6% (n = 35) in food and drinks (Table 6).

Table 6: Lifestyle persuade by traders at Greenmarket Square

Different life style persuade by tradersa	Frequency	Percent
Groceries	35	23.6
Clothing and footwear	33	22.3
Food and drinks	35	23.6
Transport	31	20.9
Education	14	9.5
Total	148	100

Discussion

The focus of this article was to assert whether sufficient profits are being generated to sustain the livelihoods of the of informal handicraft traders on Greenmarket Square. By tracing the lifestyle of these traders as the reflection of their income, the finding above shows that, most of traders use their profits to sustain their livelihood. In this case we found that, the mean monthly spending in regular activities like transport to and from the work, education, food and drinks, groceries and clothing and footwear was at R 4,348.46 and the median was at R 2,550. According to Statistic South Africa (2017), the amount of Rand that is an average to sustain a standard living in South Africa with the main components of that expenditure coming from housing and utilities, transport, food, and miscellaneous goods and services between the year 2014 and 2015 was R8600 monthly earning. This finding supports our main research argument

that, the benefits derived by informal traders from handicraft sales is not enough to be reflected in their livelihoods.

Profit generated from sale of handicraft

Profit generated from sale of handicraft relate to assert whether sustainable livelihood is being generated to sustain the livelihoods of the of informal handicraft traders on Greenmarket Square. Handicraft sector has an enormous potential to generate sustainable profit to unemployed people and has an unlimited potential for economic development of a country/region (John, 2014). Fillis & Oyekunle (2016), in their study on profitability generated from sale of handicraft product by informal traders in Western Cape in 2016, observed that almost half (70) of the traders confirmed that the business was a profitable venture and 84% believes that the handicraft sector has the capacity to generate wealth and jobs. However, the finding of the present study indicate that 64% informal traders at Greenmarket Square were not making sustainable profit and only 11% of traders confirmed that the business generated sustainable profit. On the other hand, Writer (2016) observed that 38% small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are unprofitable in South Africa. The present study concurs with Writer (2016) because large proportions of traders are under some distress and they don't make profit. Therefore, handicraft micro-enterprises can reduce poverty under proper conditions and with adequate support toward sustainable development.

In South Africa, one of the ways for human resources development is through micro-enterprise, through informal training, in which skills are attained through apprenticeship and training. Therefore, if more of the South African youths are involved in handicraft micro-enterprises, then the unemployment situation will be reduced to some extent (Berry, 2001). Eradicating poverty involves, creating employment and income generating opportunities for the youth. Tourism handicrafts related business improves livelihoods of the poor, eradicates poverty and empowers large number of women. This business could be imperative in the attaining of some of the Millennium Development Goals by 2025 (UNCTAD & WTO, 2009). If the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector does not perform well during the next couple of decades, overall economic performance will also be unsatisfactory especially in the areas of employment creation and income distribution (Berry, 2001).

The majority of trader's spending pattern or financial flow is used to sustain their livelihoods at usual place of residence (Cape Town), while the remaining is send back home of their origin countries. This corresponds with the amount of income they generate monthly daily on their business. The money generated from sale of handicraft products is not a salary, rather it's the source of income most of traders have (Fillis & Oyekunle., 2016). If traders could through their business enjoy some form of income, that means they will be able to afford some

basic necessities of life for their families and that will help in poverty alleviation (Agyapong, 2010). The study shows that informal handicraft industry, if managed and supported well have high potentials to speedily increase income by means of direct employment for the traders and contributing to sustainable livelihood. However, what is gained from the sale of handcraft to traders at Greenmarket Square cannot be used to generate sustainable livelihood.

Operating Cost

Informal traders all over the world are faced with lots of challenges in their day to day business operation and this was not different from the responses received from the traders at Green Market Square. Traders were asked to identify the major challenges facing their daily business, among all the challenges high operation cost ranked number one as a hindering factor in growing their business as it recorded 57.5 percent. The present study concurs with OECD report that indicated high operation cost in Netherlands linked to regulations limits them to expand their business operations (OECD, 2017). Similar study in Pakistani Handicraft Industry found that, the main obstacle for handicraft entrepreneurs in rural areas is the increase of operation cost due to poor infrastructure leading to uncompetitive business environment in the domestic as well as international markets (Yang et al., 2018). This means that among all the problems faced by SMEs in their day to day business operation ranging from competition, high utility tariffs, infrastructure among others, traders sees high operation cost as the major constraint hindering their growth.

Monthly Income

SMEs are often the vehicle by which the people who earn the lowest income in the South African society gain access to economic opportunities (Berry, 2001). In Colombia, the handicraft sector is given a high level of importance as it provide a yearly income of approximately US\$ 400 million and provide a monthly income of approximately US\$ 510 to traders after all the expenses have covered (Richard, 2007). Likewise, in Kenya, SMEs entrepreneurs generate an average of Ksh 6,008 per month, almost 2.5 times higher than the then minimum wage (UNDP, 2015). Key success factors were the innovation on product design and strict quality management. The present study concurs with the above authors, because the average monthly income for traders in the two seasons (winter and summer) was R 19,925.89 (US\$ 1380.75) before the deductions of operation expenses. From the above data, there is no doubt that the traders at Green Market square sell all kinds of individual felt products, mostly souvenir products produced and supplied by the craftsmen as they thought it would be interesting for tourist. However, the monthly spending of from what is earned is being distribute to different activities not related to their business such as sending back home to their original country, paying of their children school fees and spending in glossaries leaving traders into a viscous poverty cycle.

Gross Profits

Measuring the Gross profits of traders has focused on variables for which information was easy to gather. the use of gross profitability to measure performance is in line with the assumptions of profit maximization and utility maximization (Chimucheka, 2014).SMEs performing well are characterized to have been established in recent years compared to those with poor performance (Fitzsimmons et al., 2005; O'Regan et al., 2002), This is consistent with other results showing profits to yield higher variance for younger entrepreneurs (e.g. Cowling (2004)). These results suggests that traders at Green Market square have higher gross profit than average profits, however, they still struggles to expand their business and maintain their competitive advantage. SBP Alert (2013), in South Africa, small traders spends some 4% of their gross profit on compliance costs. And because it tends to impose "fixed" costs, it is felt more severely by the traders and hence they cannot invest in growing their business. Small traders with above gross profit average will attract competition from either new or existing players. Although gross profit per trader is a single measure, it nevertheless provides multiple metrics of a SME's performance. Still, it is believed that a 'multiple assessment' of a SME's performance ought to consist of a variety of measures so as to provide a broader picture (Sawang et al., 2018).

Lifestyle of Traders

Lifestyle of traders is grounded in their ability to obtain a health balance between their desires to engage fully in the labour market while sharing their earning to their loved ones (Belhadi et al., 2018).Traders perceives themselves as examples for their community members. For example, in Burundi, trades perceive their lifestyle can be observed by conducting business with people from different background regardless of their different political interest and provide service to customers from different countries such as Serbs, Albanians and Roma (Jagt and Winters, 2013). The present study concurs with Jagt and Winters because, traders in Green market square originate from different countries such as Zimbabwe, Malawi, Ethiopia, Somalia, Namibia and they work together to provide service to customers from different counties. For the case of this study, lifestyle of traders can be observed from their spending pattern as it can be observed from the finding traders spends their profit to sustain their livelihood at their usual place of residence. This finding are supported by Straka (2015) who observed that, small traders spend their profit in paying for their children education, transport, grocery and drugs as well as sport facilities. Many traders do not want to grow, are happy with staying small and at one end of the continuum, some are simply 'buying' themselves employment

Conclusion

The focus of this study was to assert whether sufficient profits are being generated to sustain the livelihoods of the of informal handicraft traders on Greenmarket Square. It is observed that 38% small and medium enterprises

(SMEs) are unprofitable in South Africa. The operation cost ranked number one as a hindering factor. These traders have higher gross profit than average profits, however, they still struggle to expand their business and maintain their competitive advantage. It was observed that, many trader do not want to grow, are happy with staying small. This study is considered important because there is a rising emphasis on handicrafts in South Africa, from individuals, non-governmental and governmental organizations. Stevens (2007) state that, in the near future, the crafts sector can be built through a social process whereby: large number of people can engage in its profession as a means of livelihood; capacity-building to promote the quality of the work; and capacity measure to develop entrepreneurial and marketing skills.

Recommendations

Development agency and strategies need to recognize the importance of youth as stakeholders in the development process. Therefore, as emphasized in this study, supporting the informal handcraft industry which creates employment should be taken into consideration as a strategy to sustainable livelihood. There is a need for continuous promotion of projects, to enhance the development of handcraft products in order to; paves a way for the marginalized youth to develop merchantable skills, to protect their cultural heritage and strengthen their sense of direction and confidence.

There is a need to improve access to credit as the best way to empower the informal sectors and increase their income generation opportunities, i.e. micro-finance. At the local level, an intervention in the form of projects targeted to increase employment for the youth to help them generate sustainable livelihood are proposed. This calls for capacity building intervention.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my very great appreciation to Dr Mark Boeksetin of the Western Cape University for his valuable and constructive suggestion during planning and development of this research paper. His willingness to give his time so generously has been very much appreciated. I would also like to thank Professor Kigadye of the Open University of Tanzania, for his advice and assistance in keeping my progress on schedule, encouragement and useful critiques of this research work. My grateful thanks are also extended to traders at Green Market square for enabling me to visit their office to observe their daily business operations. Special thanks should be given to Khamis for his assistance with the statistics used in this report. Finally, I wish to thank my family for their support and encouragement throughout the project.

References

Alvesson, M., & Sköldbberg, K. (2009). *Reflexive Methodology: New Vistas for Qualitative Research*. London: SAGE.

- Alvesson, M., & Sköldbberg, K. 2009. Reflexive methodology: new vistas for qualitative research
. London: SAGE.
- Banaka of Tanzania, (BOT). (2011). Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey: The 2009 International Visitors' Exit Survey Report. Dar es Salaam: National Bureau of Statistics.
- Binns, T., & Nel, E. (2002). Tourism as a local development strategy in South Africa. *The Geographical Journal*, 168, 235-247.
- Binns, T., & Nel, E. 2002. Tourism as a local development strategy in South Africa. *The Geographical Journal*. 168:235-247.
- Blain, C., Levy, S. E., & Ritchie, B. J. (2005). Destination Branding: Insights and Practices from Destination Management Organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43(4), 328-338.
- Chambua, G. (2010, 05 21). Tourism and Development in Tanzania: Myths and Realities. Retrieved 03 15, 2013, from International Institute for Peace through Tourism ...:
<http://www.iipt.org/africa2007/PDFs/GeofreyChambua.pdf>
- Charles, H., & Gareth, J. 2009. Strategic Management Theory: An Integrated Approach. South Western: Cengage Learning.
- Choy, D. J. (1993). Alternative roles of national tourism organizations. *Tourism Management*, 14(5), 357-365.
- Crush, J., & Peberdy, S. 1998. Trading Place: Cross-Border Traders and the South African Informal Sector. Cape Town: Idasa.
- Curry, S. (1990). Tourism Development in Tanzania. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17, 133-149. DACST. 1998. The South Africa Craft Industry Report. Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology. South Africa: Cultural Industries Growth Strategy (CIGS).
- Donovan, T. 2008. Applying the Value Chain Approach to Tourism Development on Road NO 9 in Lao PDR and Viet Nam. Lao PDR and Viet Nam: UNWTO. Duy Can, N., Duong, L. T., & Van Sanh, N. 2002. Livelihoods and Resource Use Strategies of Farmers in the Mekong Delta and the External Environment. Vietnam: Mekong Delta Development Research Institute.
- George, R. 2003. Tourist's perceptions of safety and security while visiting Cape Town. *Tourism Management*. 24:575-585 .guide, m. s. (2012, 05 18). Desk Research - Methodology and Techniques. Retrieved 4 14, 2013, from Management Study Guide:
<http://www.managementstudyguide.com/desk-research.htm>
- Ibrahim, E. B., & Gill, J. (2005). A positioning strategy for a tourist destination, based on analysis of customer's perceptions and satisfactions. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 23(2), 172-188.
- Joffe, A., & Newton, M. 2008. The Creative Industry in South Africa. Pretoria: CAJ: Culture, arts and jobs.

- Kaiser, A. 2004. The Scope of the Craft Industry in the Western Cape. Cape Town, Western Cape, South Africa.
- Kaplinsky, R. 2004. Spreading the Gains from Globalization: What Can Be Learned from Value- Chain Analysis? *Problems of Economic Transition*. 47:74 - 115.
- Kaplinsky, R., & Morris, M. 2001. *A Handbook for Value Chain*. Sussex: University of Sussex Institute of Development Studies.
- Kawulich, B. B. (2005). Participant Observation as a Data Collection Method. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung*, 6(2), 43.
- Ke, L., & Liying, W. 2010. *Study on Pro-Poor Tourism Based on Supply Chain Management Theory*. Washington, DC, USA: IEEE Computer Society.

COMPETITIVENESS OF BOTSWANA AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

Phetogo Sechele- Mosimanegape and JJ Prinsloo
North West University in Mafikeng, South Africa
phetsech@gmail.com

Abstract

The tourism industry continues to play a critical role in the development of global national economies. Furthermore, it is one of the fastest growing industries in the world and future prospects of its growth remain positive (WTTC 2012). Though Botswana is the third most popular travel destination in Southern Africa it seems there is a gap in understanding the balance between the demand and a problem in understanding the concept of marketing of tourism within the Botswana tourism industry (Morupisi 2017; Pansiri, 2014). The purpose of this study is to develop a suitable tourism competitiveness model to enhance global competitiveness of the Botswana tourism industry by adopting a mixed methods approach. The sample population will consist of stakeholders in the tourism industry such as hotel and lodge management and owners, the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism, Department of Tourism, Hotel and Tourism Association of Botswana, and tourists visiting Botswana for more than 2 nights. Data is gathered through structured questionnaires and personal interviews. The research adopts a post-positivism paradigm utilising both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The study is ongoing, and when completed a destination competitiveness model for Botswana as a tourist destination will be presented. The study is an extraction of my Phd proposal and therefore the study is ongoing.

Keywords: Destination Competitiveness, Destination Marketing, Tourism industry.

Introduction

Destination competitiveness refers to the ability of a destination to deliver a better sustainable tourism experience to tourists compared to other destinations. It also refers the sustained ability of a destination to increase tourism expenditure and capacity to attract visitors while providing them with satisfying, memorable and unique experiences in a profitable way, as well as the ability to enhance the well-being of residents and to preserve the natural capital of the destination for future generations within a changing macro environment (Lubbe and Douglas, 2015; Ritchie and Crouch, 2003). Moreover, Zouni and Kouremenos (2008) and Pansiri (2014) suggest that destination competitiveness can be enhanced through an accurate matching of tourists' assessments and those of the providers.

The tourism industry continues to play a critical role in the development of global national economies. Furthermore, it is one of the fastest growing industries in the world and future prospects of its growth remain positive (WorldTravel and Tourism Council, 2012). Competitiveness in tourism can be achieved through designing appropriate competitive strategies for determining market forces and enhancing the understanding of international tourist movements in various regions (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999; Dwyer & Kim, 2003; Enright & Newton, 2004; Kozak & Rimmington, 1999; Lee & King, 2006; Omerzel, 2006).

The challenge faced by managers and local tourism authorities is the ability to be globally competitive. Thus, competitive advantages are no longer situated in natural resources, but how these resources are managed and to what extent they are complemented with man-made innovation and quality service (Swart, S. 1997: White Paper on Tourism, 1996:5: Du Plessis, 2002).

The importance of a market-oriented approach to tourism development is increasingly recognized as the global tourism marketplace matures and tourism consumers become more selective, especially with many travel choices on offer, and competition among tourism destinations constantly increasing.

The purpose of the study is to therefore examine destination competitiveness of Botswana from both the demand and supply side.

Background

Botswana is a premier safari destination in Africa, offering some of the best wildlife viewing areas on the planet. This offering is prevalent in and around the Chobe and Okavango Delta region, as well as the Kalahari Desert where the San or Bushman culture is another great attraction.

Botswana is the third most popular travel destination in Southern Africa and is home to one of Africa's beautiful wildernesses. A popular offering is the world's largest inland delta, known as the Okavango Delta. Another is the Chobe National Park also found in the Northern part of the country with an astonishing proliferation of wildlife.

Botswana Tourism Organisation is the newest WTTC's, the first African Destination Partner. Travel and tourism is an important part of Botswana's economy as it contributes 11.5% of the nation's economy, also sustaining 76,000 jobs (WTTC, 2018). This partnership could create a competitive advantage for Botswana as a destination.

Notably, Moswete and Dube (2009:1) caution that Botswana's tourism destinations might not be sustainable in future, due to climate change. Moreover, Nare (2017:1) suggests that Botswana tourism should be diversified to improve

destination competitiveness, to overcome the issue of seasonality, and to distribute tourist to other areas - thereby ensuring the industry's sustainability.

In 1990 the government of Botswana lamented its over-dependence on a few key industries (diamonds and beef). The government has since invested more financial and human resources into the tourism industry, as part of an economic diversification programme, and as an endeavour to promote tourism as Botswana's future engine of economic growth (Kalikawe 2011:1).

Botswana's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita income in nominal terms currently stands at US \$ 3500, which is one of the highest in Sub-Saharan Africa. This figure places Botswana within the world's middle-income group of countries by the World Bank ratings (<http://www.gov.bw/en/Business/>). This has potential of promoting and sustaining domestic tourism as the majority of the people of Botswana can afford the tourism services. The Botswana Pula, is convertible and pegged against a basket of major currencies. It is strongly tied to the South African Rand. Botswana operates a fully liberalised exchange control regime, which gives visitors and investors doing business in the country the option to operate foreign currency bank accounts for smooth facilitation of international transactions (<http://www.gov.bw/en/Business/>).

Political competitiveness, positions Botswana as a safe and stable tourism destination. Politics is also one of the prominent factors that determine the administration and development of a tourist destination. Furthermore, the administrative organization of a country's tourism destination creates additional value of the tourism products and helps to increase the quality of tourism's competitiveness. Therefore, stable politics, peace and tranquillity have given Botswana's tourism industry competitive advantage and have helped the country to grow economically (Ketshabile 2015:27). However, Botswana must find creative ways to become a favourable tourism destination and this could be done by investing on tourism attraction areas in order to attract potential tourists (Wondowossen 2014:75). Additionally, tourism can contribute directly and indirectly to Botswana's economy. For example, in 2011 the trade, hotels and restaurant sector contributed approximately 15.0% to the Botswana's GDP, while tourism provided an estimated 10.6 % of all jobs in Botswana (WTTC 2008:63; Winterbach, 2015:2).

Currently, tourism contributes 3.8% to Botswana's GDP and is expected to grow by 4.5 % per annum by 2028 (WTTC, 2017). In particular, wildlife and safari tourism have brought many benefits to the country in the form of employment, tax and royalty revenues. Current issues with regard to the proposed lifting of the hunting ban in Botswana, could further stabilise the competitive advantage in the Botswana Tourism Industry.

The growth of tourism has also offered opportunities for investment and has led to improvements in infrastructure and services (Mbaiwa, 2002; WTTC, 2007; Dube, 2013; Saarinen, 2014).

Problem Statement and Core Research Question

There seems to be a gap in understanding the competitiveness of the Botswana tourism destination and the motivation of tourists or the balance between the demand and the supply of tourism. Tourists have their own perceptions about a destination's competitiveness and about their motivation to travel. On the other hand, providers of tourism products have their own ideas about what tourists need (Headley & Choi, 1992; Pansiri, 2014).

The demand side deals mainly with the degree of risk in terms of expectation which tourists are willing to take in their travel experience in exploring the available resources and attractions in the host destination. It deals, for example, with marketing aspects such as segmentation, tourist demand, behaviour and motivation (Al-Masroori, 2006:2). The supply side on the other hand, assesses the tourist attraction and resources by canvassing the opinion of the different private and public stakeholders, to identify resources or elements that are the most important to the tourist. It focuses, for example, on the role of government, destination lifecycle, and destination planning and development as noted by (Al-Masroori 2006:2).

Thus, the problem accumulated to the discrepancy between tourism product offering supply and product offering demand.

Research Objectives / Specific Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to develop a suitable tourism competitiveness model to enhance global competitiveness of the Botswana tourism Industry. The proposed model should then assist in improving Botswana tourism as a competitive destination, which will lead to better customer satisfaction, retention, and profit growth in the tourist industry.

In accordance with the goal of this study, the following specific objectives are formulated:

- To identify and explore stakeholder perceptions on the Botswana tourism.
- To investigate the key strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats in the Botswana tourism.
- To review and evaluate destination competitiveness and destination marketing and management in terms of demand and supply side.

Research Questions

This study will ask the following questions:

- How do different stakeholders perceive destination competitiveness?
- What are the strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and threats within the Botswana tourism industry?

- How can the competitiveness of a destination be measured from both the demand (tourist) and supply (government and non-government organisations) side from the marketing and management perspective?

Research Methodology

Harding (1987:2) defines methodology as a “theory and analysis of how research should proceed” while methods are “techniques for gathering evidence”. Methodology is where assumptions about the nature of reality and knowledge, values, theory and practice on a given topic come together (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012). Carter and Little (2007) argue that epistemology; methodology and method should provide the framework for planning, implementing and evaluating the quality of research. The researcher’s approach will depend on how he/she thinks about the problem and how it can be studied (Chilisa & Kawulich, 2012) such that the findings are credible to the researcher and other in the discipline. Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) further indicate that every researcher has his/her own view of what constitutes truth and knowledge. Furthermore, Schwandt (2001) in Chilisa and Kawulich (2012) elaborates that these views guide the researcher’s thinking, beliefs and assumptions about society and they frame how people view the world around them, generally refer to as a paradigm.

Research Paradigm

Methodologies are influenced by what is commonly called research paradigms (Creswell 2009). A paradigm is a cluster of beliefs, and dictates which scientists in a particular discipline use to influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted (Bryman, 1988). In terms of research, a paradigm guides the conceptual framework that researchers use in seeking to understand and make sense of reality (Creswell, 2009). Paradigms thus set boundaries for researchers in terms of the manner in which they can execute the research process, with regards to research methods, strategies for social inquiry, as well as the purpose and use of knowledge (Creswell, 2009). In that way, paradigms influence what researchers regard as accepted knowledge and ways of doing research (Bryman, 1988) and shape the researchers’ perceptions and practices within their research disciplines (Creswell et al., 2007). Bryman and Bell (2015) indicate that the most common paradigms applied in business research include interpretivism, constructivism and post-positivism. Due to the complexity of destination competitiveness, this study will follow the post positivism paradigm as there will be need to thoroughly investigate the cross-culture and leadership challenges encountered by Botswana joint ventures.

Research design

This study adopts a mixed method approach. A mix method research approach is a class of research where the researcher mixes and combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts and language

into a single study (Panda & Gupta, 2013). Bartholomew and Brown (2012) concluded that a mixed method is an integral means to ask complex culturally psychological questions, without imposing bias. According to Panda and Gupta (2013) these methods should complement each other (qualitative and quantitative), if employed systematically.

Based on the set empirical approach, in depth interviews will be held with identified destination management organisations in the Botswana tourism industry (supply of tourism). Consequential to the interviews, surveys will be distributed amongst selected tourists visiting Chobe, Maun and Gaborone.

Data collection

The proposed research data collection in this study heavily relies on in-depth interviews (qualitative) and questioners (quantitative).

As an attempt to develop an effective study the following activities will be undertaken:

- An interview guide will be developed to facilitate an effective face-to-face interview process.
- Data collection will be done using researcher administered face-to-face interviews and self-administered questionnaires.
- Both Interview guide and the questionnaire will be pre- tested on a group of participants and typical respondents, which hold similar characteristics with those of the target population.
- The outcomes from the pilot studies for both questionnaire and interview guide will then be used to refine the final documents to be used for the study.

Theoretical Background of Tourism Theories

A number of theories are applicable in destination competitiveness. The theoretical underpinning for this research includes the Stakeholder Theory and Destination Competitiveness Theory. The Destination Competitiveness Advantage Theory relates to both the Comparative Advantage Theory and the Destination Competitive Advantage Theory. The Comparative Advantage Theory is more concerned with the endowments of production, where destinations will make their resources available for exploitation by local residents and tourists. On the other hand, the Competitive Advantage Theory is concerned with the ability of a destination to use those resources to achieve long term sustainable benefits. Destinations that lack natural or industrial attributes find it difficult to compete against those destinations that have a wealth of natural attractions (Ritchie & Rouch 2003; Al Masroori, 2006:67). The Destination Competitiveness Advantage Theory will focus more on destination management and destination marketing approaches and activities.

The Comparative Advantage Theory and the Destination Competitive Advantage Theory deal with the destination's ability to compete in a very competitive industry which is the basis of this research. On the other hand, according to Al Masroori (2006:54), the Stakeholder Theory suggests that stakeholders tend to interact and exchange with tourism at different levels and modes to maximise their perceived benefits and minimise their perceived cost. Therefore, in this research the stakeholders will be consulted and evaluated. The Social Exchange theory is an extension of the Stakeholder Theory and suggests that there is normally an exchange between demand and supply. That means the supplier is motivated by profits while the customer is motivated by satisfaction, and therefore there is an exchange between the two parties.

Data Analysis

Qualitative data analysis

Kolbe and Burnett (1991) define content analysis as an observational research method that is used to systematically evaluate the symbolic content of all forms of recorded communication. Data obtained from the in-depth interviews (qualitative) will be processed and analysed through content analysis. The researcher will also use computer software QSR NUD.IST as it has been found to be popularly used by researchers who use content analysis (Gauber, 2012). Kolbe and Burnett (1991) recommended that researchers should benchmark their content analysis with Kassarian's work that offers directives for improvement in the areas of objectivity, systematization, coding, quantification, sampling and reliability. By content analysis this study aims are to investigate and establish concepts, patterns, meanings and themes from the data gathered. A comprehensive and suitable coding system will be applied throughout the process. Triangulation of data will be done to answer the research questions. Panda and Gupta (2013) define triangulation as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon".

Quantitative data (questionnaires) will be analysed, in conjunction with the Statistical Services department at the North-West University.

Conclusion

The Botswana tourism industry contains a degree of untapped organic growth potential that will be unlocked over the medium- term to 2023. Government's promotional efforts coupled with infrastructure investments will yield dividends in the years ahead. Botswana stands to benefit from strengthening reputation with significant tourism attractions based around wildlife safari, natural attractions and eco-tourism. Additional drivers underpinning growth will include growing demand for air travel, rising disposable incomes in key source markets and a supportive political environment (Fitch Solutions Botswana Tourism Report, 2019).

The study is therefore anticipated a feedback on Botswana's destination competitiveness from tourist expectation before and after tourism experience in Botswana. Tourists will rate issues such as pricing, safety, infrastructure, the Botswana tourism policies, the much anticipated lifting of the Hunting Ban and visa flexibility. Botswana has become the latest country on the African continent to announce plans to start offering tourist visa on arrival, this was an announcement by President Mokgweetsi Masisi when addressing the 45th meeting of the High- Level Consultative Council (HLCC) in Gaborone (Southern Times Newspaper, 2018).

From the supply side the study anticipate feedback on Botswana's destination competitiveness with regard to Tourism Policies i.e the anticipated lifting of the hunting ban and the marketing of tourism products. The issue again will be a discussion of why Botswana left the regional tourism organisation of Southern Africa. Factors which contribute to the competitiveness of Botswana as tourist destination will be up for discussion.

References

- Al-Masroori R.(2005) Thesis. Destination Competitiveness: Interrelationships between destination planning and development strategies and stakeholders's support in enhancing Oman's tourism industry.Griffith University.(Thesis PhD).
- Anuar, A. N. A., Ahmad, H., Jusoh, H., & Hussain, M. Y. (2013). Policy and tourism development strategy towards tourist friendly destination in Kuala Lumpur. *Asian Social Science*, 9(2), 180.
- Andersen, P. H. (2005). Relationship marketing and brand involvement of professionals through web-enhanced brand communities: The case of Coloplast. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 34(1), 39-51.
- Bartholomew, T. T., & Brown, J. R.(2012).Mixed methods, culture, and psychology: A review of mixed methods in culture-specific psychological research. *International Perspectives in Psychology: Research, Practice, Consultation*, 1(3), 177.
- Basupi, B., Pansiri, J. and Lenao, M., 2017. Botswana Tourism policy Landscape–successes and challenges. *Botswana Journal of Business*, 10(1), pp.83-96.
- Brierley, J.A., 2017. The role of a pragmatist paradigm when adopting mixed methods in behavioural accounting research. *International Journal of Behavioral Accounting and Finance*, 6(2), pp.140-154.
- Botswana tourism Okavango Delta. Available on :(<http://www.botswanaturism.co.bw>) Cited date 20/05/2018
- Bryman, A. (1992). Quantitative and qualitative research: further reflections on their integration. *Mixing methods: Qualitative and quantitative research*, 57-78.

- Bryman, A., & Bell, E.(2015). Business research methods. Oxford university press
- Carter, S. M., & Little, M. (2007).Justifying knowledge, justifying method, taking action: Epistemologies, methodologies, and methods in qualitative research. *Qualitative health research*, 17(10), 1316-1328.
- Chen, C. F., & Chen, F. S.(2010).Experience quality, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions for heritage tourists. *Tourism management*, 31(1), 29-35.
- Chen, J. S., & Gursoy, D.(2001).An investigation of tourists' destination loyalty and preferences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 13(2), 79-85.
- Chilisa, B., & Kawulich, B, B. (2012). *Selecting a Research Approach: Paradigm, Methodology and Methods*.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
- Creswell, J. W., Hanson, W. E., Plano, V. L. C., & Morales, A.(2007). Qualitative research designs selection and implementation. *The counseling psychologist*, 35(2), 236-264.
- Dwyer, L & Kim, C. 2010. Destination Competitiveness: Determinants and Indicators. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 6:5 371
- Fitch Solutions; Botswana Tourism Report 2019.
- Giddings, L.S., & Grant, B. (2006). Mixed Methods Research for the Novice researcher, content Management (Pty) Ltd, *Contemporary Nurse*. 23, 3-11.
- Guba, E,G., & Lincoln, Y.S. (1994). Competing paradigms in Qualitative research, *Handbook of Qualitative research*, 105-117
- Harding, S. G. (1987). *Feminism and methodology: Social science issues*. Indiana University Press.
- Headley, D.E. and Choi, B., 1992. Achieving service quality through gap analysis and a basic statistical approach. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 6(1), pp.5-14.
- Kalikawe, M.C., 2001, March. Botswana: Integrating biodiversity into the tourism sector. In A presentation made to the UNEP International Workshop on Best Practices and Country Case Studies, Mexico City (pp. 29-31).
- Kaynak, E., & Marandu, E. E. (2006). Tourism market potential analysis in Botswana: a Delphi study. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 227-237.
- Klein, P. D. (1998). *Epistemology*.
- Kolbe, R. H., & Burnett, M. S. (1991). Content-analysis research: An examination of applications with directives for improving research reliability and objectivity. *Journal of consumer research*, 243-250.
- Manwa,H 2011.Do Botswana's resturants meet customers's expectations?African journal of marketing management,3(1):14-21

- Mbaiwa, J. E.(2002).Enclave tourism and its socio-economic impacts in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 26(2), 157-172.
- Morupisi, P. and Mokgalo, L., 2017. Domestic tourism challenges in Botswana: A stakeholders' perspective. *Cogent Social Sciences*, 3(1), p.1298171.
- Moswete, N & Mavondo, F.(2003).Problems facing the tourism industry of Botswana. *Botswana Notes and Records*, 35, 69-77
- Murphy, M.J (2013). <http://www.mmegi.bw/index>
- Nare A.T, Tourism diversification in Botswana:a stakeholder perspective, *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(3).
- Novais,M.A.(2017)Tourism Destination Competitiveness: A Supply and Demand Perspective. The University Of Queensland. pp5.
- Papadopoulos, S. I. (1989). A conceptual tourism marketing planning model: part 1. *European Journal of Marketing*, 23(1), 31-40.
- Panda, A & Gupta, R,K (2013) Using Mixed Methods Approach in Cross-Cultural Studies; Lessons of a Research Experience, *National Academy of Psychology (India)*. 58(3), 289-307.
- Pansiri, J.(2014) Tourist Motives and Destination Competitiveness: A Gap Analysis Perspective, *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*,15(3), 217-247.
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, J. I. (2000). The competitive destination: A sustainability perspective. *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 1-7.
- Roberts, K., Varki, S., & Brodie, R.(2003).Measuring the quality of relationships in consumer services: an empirical study. *European Journal of marketing*, 37(1/2), 169-196.
- Saayman, M. and Du Plessis, E., 2003. Competitiveness of South Africa as a tourist destination. *South African journal for research in sport, physical education and recreation*, 25(2), pp.57-65.
- Subramanian, A., & Wei, S. J.(2007). The WTO promotes trade, strongly but unevenly. *Journal of international Economics*, 72(1), 151-175.
- UNWTO World Tourism Barometer and Statistical Annex, April 2015.
- UNWTO World Tourism Barometer and Statistical Annex, January 2015.
- World Development Report 1998/1999: Knowledge for Development
- Zeithaml, V. A., Bitner, M. J., & Gremler, D. D.(2006). *Services marketing: Integrating customer focus across the firm.*

POVERTY ALLEVIATION THROUGH TOURISM ACTIVITIES: A CASE OF AMANI AND ULUGURU MOUNTAIN NATURE RESERVES

Michael Patrick
The Open University of Tanzania
michael.patrick@out.ac.tz

Abstract

Tourism is one of the world's fastest growing industry and for many countries, especially those in the developing world it holds impressive economic potential. Both government and international donor agencies now promote the use of tourism to alleviate poverty among local communities. The Tanzanian government has embraced tourism as a meaningful and sustainable economic activity and diversification opportunity, which now ranks third after mining and agriculture in its contribution to the country's gross domestic product. The study explores the perceptions of stakeholders on the opportunities that would be created for the local communities by opening up Tanzanian's nature forest reserves for tourism activities. Data was collected through mixed methods involving in-depth interviews with government departments, local communities, quasi-government organizations and the Tanzania Tourist Board. Focus group discussions were also held with community's member living adjacent to Amani and Uluguru nature reserves. The findings indicate that opening up Tanzanian nature forest reserves for ecotourism has the potential to alleviate poverty among the disadvantaged groups living adjacent to forest reserves through direct employment, small- and medium-sized enterprises, secondary (linkages/partnerships) and dynamic effects (sustainable livelihoods). The study concludes by cautioning that whilst pro-poor tourism may yield short- and medium-term benefits, in keeping with sustainability objectives, participants in the programme need to be mindful of forestry encroachment and come up with strategies to ensure the sustainability of the Tanzania forest reserves.

Keywords: Nature forest reserve; pro poor tourism; local communities; ecotourism; Tanzania

Introduction

Many developing countries have long regarded tourism as an industry which could successfully foster economic and human development and help alleviate rural poverty. Building on new political paradigms of people's participation, the ownership and operation of tourism ventures by local communities themselves is now increasingly seen as one of the seven mechanisms by which tourism could efficiently help reduce poverty (United Nations World Tourism Organization UNWTO, 2013, Mbaiwa, J.E 2011). For many years, Tanzania's economy is largely driven by its natural resource base; a system that is necessary for development of key sectors of the economy including tourism, mining and

agriculture. Tourism industry has shown an impressive growth over the past few years and increasingly, the sector becomes an effective means of macro-economic diversification from the traditional reliance on agriculture. Despite this economic leap, not everybody has benefitted. It has been reported that, countrywide, majority of the population live below the poverty line and poverty has been particularly persistent in the most remote areas of the country. The volatility of agriculture activities (which many people rely on) has prompted many Tanzanian to look for alternative and sustainable economic activities. Tourism has been perceived as a meaningful diversification of the economy. More importantly, tourism is professed as being able to alleviate poverty among the poor, the majority of whom live in tourism resource-rich areas.

Therefore, tourism becomes an ideal candidate for poverty alleviation in Tanzania, due to its labour-intensive nature, which enables it to employ disadvantaged members of the community with very little formal training, e.g., women and youth. In addition, tourism utilizes natural and cultural resources of the poor, whereby they can utilize these resources for their benefit. However, tourism industry is a private sector business and therefore it is controlled by market forces. By its very nature, tourism is geared to serve the interests of the tourists and investors and therefore does not automatically improve the welfare of the poorer members of the community. In addition, tourism can be viewed as a form of development strategy whose agenda is driven by multinational corporations promoting neo-colonial states in the least developed countries, and thus, caution should be exercised when advocating for tourism as a one-size fits all strategy for poverty alleviation, Anderson, W. (2011). This study aims to build on the extant literature on pro-poor tourism development. This is achieved through an investigation of how the Tanzania Nature Forest Reserves can be instrumental in alleviating poverty among local communities through the use of pro-poor tourism strategies. The study uses Mitchell and Ashley's framework, to analyze the potential opportunities that would be created for the poor through the opening of Tanzania Nature forest reserves for tourism activities.

The paper draws its data from the views of the Tanzania nature forest reserves' stakeholders. In particular, the paper is guided by the following research questions:-

- What attractions prevalent in the nature forest reserves could be used for ecotourism development?
- What are the likely costs and benefits to the communities from ecotourism development in the Tanzania nature Forest Reserves?
- Are there differences in the roles that can be played by the private sector vis-à-vis the roles of the local communities in ecotourism development in the reserves?

The Tanzania nature forest reserves were chosen due to the bulk of tourism research in Tanzania having been concentrated in wildlife based tourism activities with little effort directed towards other tourism facets, such as cultural tourism and forest-based tourism. The paper provides a brief survey on the literature on pro-poor tourism, followed by background information on the case study areas. The next section outlines the main methodological approaches and then presents the results and discussion section. The study concludes by cautioning that, whilst pro-poor tourism may yield short and medium-term benefits in keeping with sustainability objectives participants in the programme need to be mindful of forestry encroachment and come up with strategies to ensure the sustainability of the Tanzania nature forest reserves.

Theoretical Framework

The impact of tourism in poverty alleviation is now a growing area of research. This is demonstrated through case studies from many different parts of the world. Its roots are embedded in the sustainable tourism framework which in turn is derived from the overarching field of sustainable development. According to Hearne, R., & Santos, A. (2017), sustainability can be defined as growth that does not encourage resource depletion or social unrest. In the tourism context, this means a level of development that is in equilibrium with the carrying capacity of the destination and that does not alter the current ecosystem, whilst not disadvantaging future generations through resource depletion. Sustainability has tended to focus on broad ecological maintainable principles, policy objectives and management techniques employed in destination management. There has been significantly less academic literature on the equitable distribution of natural resources and the accrual of externalities from the resources in question. Pro-poor tourism has been put forward as a means of addressing this gap through fostering development that is inclusive of under-privileged members of society, with the proceeds from its activities going towards improving the welfare of the community members (Ashley, C, 2000a, Ashley, C, 2000b). Pro-poor tourism is now advocated as a means of alleviating poverty in developing economies (Ashley, C & Goodwin, H, 2007).

The pro-poor framework has generated a lot of interest and promotion, not only among researchers, but also amongst international and donor organizations. For example, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation has come up with the Sustainable Tourism Eliminating Poverty Initiative (STEP), which began in 2002. The focus of STEP is to encourage the promotion of activities that promote sustainable tourism (social, economic, ecological) with a focus on alleviating poverty through the development and creation of jobs for people living on less than a dollar a day. The Department for International Development (DFID) in the United Kingdom has defined pro-poor tourism as “tourism that generates net benefits for the poor” (i.e., benefits are greater than costs). DFID further clarifies that benefits should be viewed as holistic and should not be

restricted to economic benefits, but should also include social, environmental and cultural benefits. In addition, pro-poor tourism should not be viewed as a tourism product, but rather as an approach to tourism development and management through which linkages are developed between tourism businesses and poor people as a way of leveraging and increasing the tourism benefits to the poor (DFID. 2011). Mitchell and Ashley (2014) have extended the understanding of how to determine the impacts of tourism on poor communities through the development of a framework that uses three pathways through which the benefits of tourism can be transferred to the poor, they categories these into direct effects, secondary effects and dynamic effects. Direct effects are realized through direct employment in the tourism industry. Examples of this include community employment by tourism businesses, investing in community land, the establishment of business enterprises, such as curio shops or craft markets by community members, and cultural tourism. Whilst many authors note that direct effects can increase economic benefit to the community in a variety of ways, Mitchell and Ashley (2014) caution that externalities are not always positive, with losses of livelihood to the community occurring in some instances.

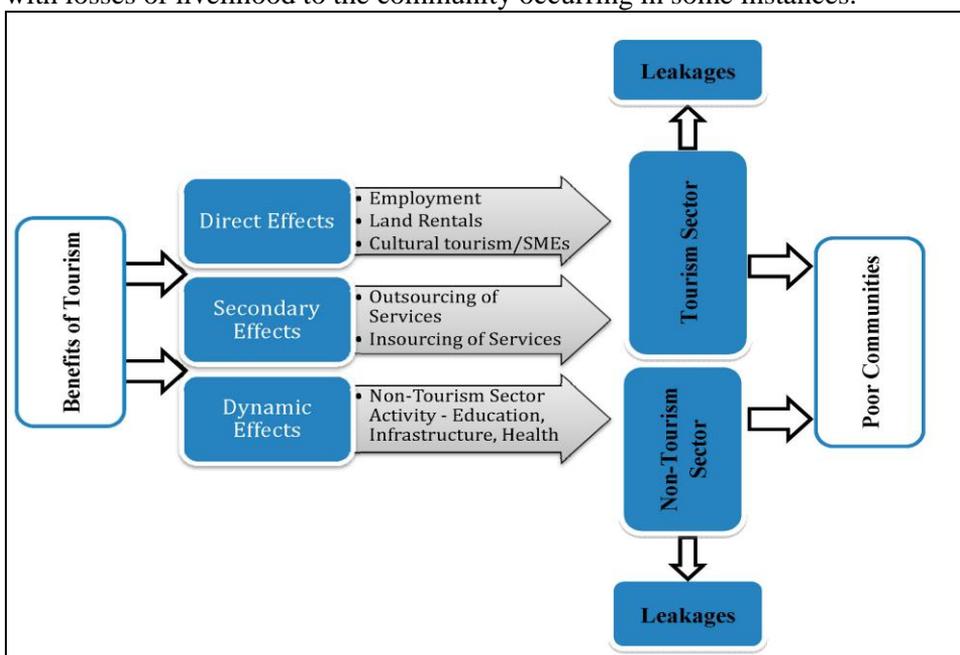


Figure 1. Pathways of benefits to the poor adapted from Mitchell and Ashley, 2014. SMEs, small- and medium-sized enterprises.

Methods

Study Area

This paper is based on a study that was carried out in two Nature reserves namely Amani and Uluguru Nature reserves. Nature Reserves category of Protected Area in Tanzania offers the highest level of protection under the Forest

Act in Tanzania. They are state state-owned and managed by Tanzania Forest Services (TFS) Agency. No extraction of forest resources is allowed in nature reserves and activities are generally restricted to research, education and nature based tourism.

Amani Nature reserve (see figure 2) lies within latitudes 5805'S and 5814'S and longitudes 38840'E and 38832'E. It forms the southern and largest forested mountain block of the East Usambara Mountains, which are part of the Eastern Arc Mountains chain. The reserve constitutes 8380 Ha of land and it is bordered by 18 villages, which support a total population of over 31,469 people (NBS, 2017). The majority of villagers are subsistence level farmers and farming for both food and cash is an important occupation of the majority of people living adjacent to Amani nature reserve. Uluguru Nature forest Reserve (see figure 2) lies at the heart of the Eastern Arc Mountains comprises Uluguru North, Uluguru South, Bunduki I and Bunduki II forest reserves and Bunduki 'gap' corridor. Uluguru Nature Forest Reserve has an area of 24,115.09 Ha with a boundary length of 197 kms and surrounded by 62 villages, comprising of 91,426,000 persons, surround the Nature Reserve.

Wildlife viewing and safari hunting dominate the tourism activities that are undertaken in Tanzania. Consequently, this activity has resulted in congested development in the form of Lodges, tented camps and hotels, all competing for wildlife resources. Using nature forest reserves for ecotourism would open up alternative tourism development in Tanzania, which would alleviate the pressure on the wildlife based tourism activities which is concentrated in Northern tourism circuit.

The study therefore explored tourism in nature forest reserves as a sustainable tourism option for communities to benefit from using the Mitchell and Ashley Framework as the analytical tool. The study focused on three villages located near Amani nature reserve and four villages in Uluguru nature reserve.

Tanzania forest reserves comprises Twelve (12) nature forest reserves that have been gazetted: Amani (8,380ha), Uluguru (24,115ha), Kilombero (134,511ha), Nilo (6,225ha), Rungwe (13,652ha), Chome (14,283ha), Magamba (9,283ha), Mkingu (23,388ha), Uzungwa (32,763ha), Rondo Plateau (14,000ha), Minziro (25,000ha) and Mt.Hanang (5,871ha).

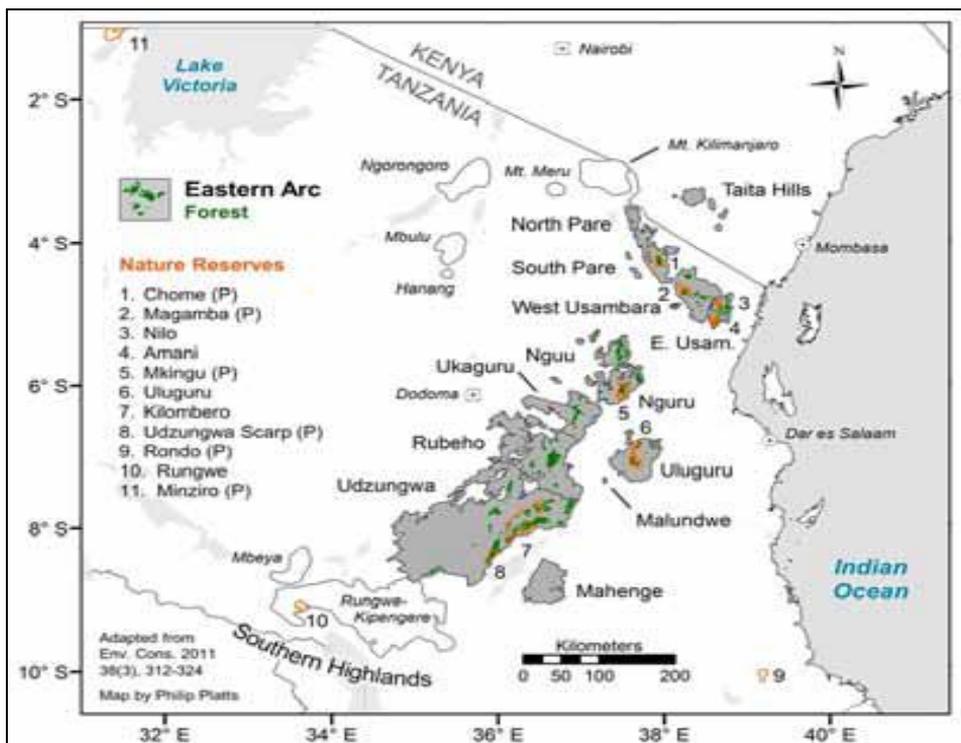


Figure 2. Location of Amani and Uluguru nature reserves

Data Collection

Data were collected through triangulation or mixed methods using a combination of secondary and primary data sources. Secondary data constituted existing literature, government reports and official documents, book chapters and other relevant documentation. Primary data was derived by means of thematic interviews targeted senior officials from Ministry of natural resources and tourism, Tanzania forest services, as well as focus group discussions with community leaders. A total of 46 people were interviewed. The interviewees represented 3 government departments, 4 non-government organizations, 21 community leaders, 10 tourism private sector organizations and 2 intergovernmental organizations that deal with conservation. The interviews, whose duration ranged between 30 and 40 min, were held between December and February, 2019. The interview guidelines addressed the study questions as follows:-

What attractions prevalent in the nature reserves could be used for ecotourism development? The questions covered tourism activities taking place in the reserves, natural and cultural resources in the nature reserves and what tourism activities and facilities should be developed in the nature reserves. Also included were the perceptions on the nature reserves' potential for ecotourism development.

What are the likely costs and benefits to the communities of opening the nature reserves for ecotourism development? Among the areas covered were potential conflict, possible costs and benefits to local communities of opening up the reserves for ecotourism. Opinions were sought on how conflicts and the cost of conflicts could be minimized? Other areas of interest included community empowerment through ecotourism development and community attitudes towards nature reserves and their use.

Are there differences in the roles that can be played by the private sector vis-à-vis the roles of the local communities in ecotourism development in the Botswana Forest Reserves? The interviews assessed perceptions on the types of ecotourism projects that could be developed by communities and the private sector. Questions relating to location were posed, as well as questions relating to the diversification and improvement of local livelihoods.

Results

The aim of the study was to investigate stakeholder perceptions on how Tanzania Nature Reserves can be instrumental in alleviating poverty among local communities through the use of pro-poor tourism strategies. The perceptions of the respondents of the study were presented according to the research questions, which guided the study as reflected in Table 2. The results were then further refined, as shown in Table 3, in terms of the perceived effects using the Mitchell and Ashley framework

Table 1. Pro-Poor Tourism Themes

Resources	Potential ecotourism products
Wildlife	Photographic safaris, bird watching, night walks, nature walking trails, night walks
Infrastructure	Tented camps, lodges, temporary structures
Cultural tourism	Historical sites, dance groups, food, way of life of surrounding villages
Agriculture	Crop farming, availability of wild fruits and thatched grass
Cost	Loss of traditional livelihoods, depletion of forest resources (e.g., medicinal plants, wild fruits), exploitation and leakages of wealth
Benefits	Development of facilities, improved livelihoods, employment opportunities, development of community-based tourism businesses, development of small- and medium-sized enterprises, partnerships with the private sector to run tourism businesses
Community involvement	Contribute as part of the workforce, formation of community-based tourism companies (CBT), formation of partnerships with the private sector
Private sector involvement	Provision of tour companies (safari companies), marketing of destination (including community-based), training and empowerment (Human capital), development of packages including CBTs

Table 2. Nature reserves activity classification

Direct Effects

Tourism Activity	Tourism Sector	Leakage	Perception
Game drives, photographic safari	Wildlife viewing	Yes	Employment with multiplier effect on the community; transfer of business skills, but not in all circumstances; community-run; direct impacts on livelihoods; human capital development
Private-run lodge/tented camp Development	Accommodation	Yes	Supply labour and outsource some functions of the lodge (e.g., agricultural produce)
Accommodation facilities operated by local people	Accommodation	No	Accommodation, use of local materials, capacity building and empowerment
SMEs (crafts, artifacts, souvenirs)	SME	No	Quality issues; lack of business skills, e.g., bookkeeping and marketing
Secondary Effects			
Sourcing of food supply from local community	Hotels/Restaurants	No	Promote self-sufficiency and an increase in food production; sustainable livelihoods
Village tours, selling of artefacts, souvenirs, local cuisine, dance troupes/groups	Cultural and Heritage Tourism	Yes	Promote cultural awareness and job creation; fair trade; lacking in administrative skills and access to tourists
Dynamic Effects			
Community Related Activity	Sector	Leakage	Perception
School	Education support	No	Empowerment of the community
Clinics	Medical support	Yes	Improved livelihoods and productivity
Infrastructure development	Roads and infrastructure	Yes	Additional employment

Perceptions on Tourism Attractions and Ecotourism Development

The perceptions from the study were that the Tanzania Nature Reserves are rich in wildlife (including birds). Ecotourism activities that could be undertaken in the forest reserves included photographic safaris, bird watching, game drives, walking safaris and walking trails. Cultural and heritage tourism was another

ecotourism attraction emphasized by the stakeholders. The forest reserves are rich in cultural resources. In addition, the respondents highlighted that the local communities have a unique culture in terms of food, dance and arts, which could be incorporated into the cultural experience of tourists to the nature reserves. This would ensure that tourists stayed longer and, as a result, spend more money at the destination. Another perceived attraction in the forest reserves was the natural tranquil environment populated by natural grasses, including thatching grass, natural trees and wild fruits. This would not only be an attraction in its own right for tourists looking for tranquility in a natural setting, but would also be an ideal location for the construction of environmentally-friendly accommodations, such as campsites, lodges and mobile safaris.

Perceptions of Impacts of Development of Ecotourism: Costs and Benefits

Due to population increase most of the nature reserves are surrounded by villages where land is a big challenge. This has resulted in a dire need for more land, since most land is reserved for conservation. There was a strong feeling, especially among the local communities, that parts of the forest reserves should be designated for communal resettlement to avail more land for construction, agriculture and cattle grazing. The study revealed that community members had limited access to the forest resources. For the development of tourism to take place, facilities, such as roads, electricity, water and shopping facilities, must be in place. The respondents noted that ecotourism development would bring about positive infrastructure developments, such as schools, clinics, roads, electricity and water, to their area.

Perceptions on Roles of the Private Sector vis-a-vis Local Communities

The perceptions of the respondents of the study were that both the private sector and the local communities should play a role in ecotourism development in the Tanzania nature Reserves. In Chome and Rungwe Nature reserves, it was suggested that there should be private-public partnerships with the involvement of the community in the interpretation and preservation of cultural tourism resources and link the resources available in the villages and the reserves. Both the reserves have potential sites that could be developed into tented campsites, wildlife viewing and photographic sites. Respondents also perceived cultural tourism to be the preserve of the community in terms of ownership and management, whilst the private sector's role would be in the packaging and marketing of the product. Further perceptions by community members were that the opening up of ecotourism companies would offer employment to local communities within the accommodation and tour guide sectors. Communities acknowledged the importance of the private sector in running successful tourism establishments in Tanzania. At different forums, the participants saw the private sector having a role to play in empowering communities to be successful participants in ecotourism businesses. The respondents suggested a partnership between the community and the private sector, where the private sector would

go into a joint venture with the community, so as to train and develop the community in business management skills. Other benefits mentioned were the linkages between local farmers and the tourism industry, where local communities would provide food to the ecotourism operators from their farm produce.

Discussions

Based on the perceptions of study respondents, the opening up of the Tanzania Nature Reserves for tourism activities would create opportunities for the poor. Using Mitchell and Ashley's framework, the benefits were classified according to three categories; direct effects, secondary effects and dynamic effects.

Direct Effects

One of the main drivers of pro-poor tourism is the private sector. This was confirmed by the perceptions of the respondents of the study, who supported the existence of a private sector to run tour operation businesses, as well as accommodation facilities in the form of lodges and campsites. This would allow for low-skilled workers to be employed by lodges and campsites as drivers, cleaners and general hands, with the local economy benefitting through the multiplier effect generated by the circulation of their earnings through the community. There was also a recognition that public-private partnerships could contribute towards the generation of physical and human capital. However, legislation would need to be revised to ensure that capacity building and the development of human capital actually occur, as previous such partnerships have not yielded much success in building human capital. Instead, communities have acted as silent partners who only receive rent from land leased to the private sector.

The stakeholders expressed the view that some areas of the nature forest reserves can have direct benefits to communities. They pointed to the fact that the large tour companies already and individuals have shown an interest in building lodges and camps in Amani nature reserve.

These developments would increase human capital, with communities being employed and acquire business operations skills and in the process, increasing their skill sets. Studies undertaken in other parts of Tanzania have shown that some community-based cultural tourism enterprises projects have not resulted in the improvement of the livelihoods of communities. The reasons for failure have been attributed to the insufficient capacity to run such projects, since communities do not have the capital, management and business skills to run a successful tourism business.

Secondary Effects

The results show two mechanisms of private sector companies/individuals investors can source various goods and services from local communities and the

use of cultural tourism to alleviate poverty among the local communities. The end product would be the sustainable livelihood of communities adjacent to nature reserves. The informants in Amani nature reserves suggested the development of partnerships and linkages between local communities and tour companies to develop cultural tourism in the villages adjacent to the forest reserves. Some of the suggestions included guided tours of the villages, where tourists would sample local cuisine and partner with local dance groups as part of the tour package. Communities could also be availed opportunities to sell cultural artefacts/souvenirs to tourists. For cultural tourism to succeed, the private sector would need to be more deeply engaged, providing access to their marketing resources, as well as their established international networks. Anderson, W. (2013) emphasizes that, for these linkages to qualify as pro-poor, the private sector must be able to impart basic business skills to the community.

Dynamic Effects

Communities were positive that the development of ecotourism in Amani and Uluguru nature forest reserves would result in the improved livelihoods of the communities. Some of the externalities would be the construction of roads to facilitate access to the tourism facilities and hospitals that would support the region. Population growth would then result in increased pressure for the government to build schools, health centres and other supporting facilities.

Implications for NGOs and Government

Communities do not have the resources to run successful business operations and would therefore require the support of NGOs, who have in the past also played a pivotal role of providing funding and technical support to pro-poor initiatives. In Northern tourism circuit, for example, NGOs have provided support for local communities living adjacent to national park to establish community based cultural tourism enterprises. The government would be required to complement the activities of NGOs and the private sector by developing the legislative framework to guarantee the participation of the poor. It would also be vital that the implementation of pro-poor strategies is monitored to ensure fair play, so that communities were not unnecessarily disadvantaged.

Conclusions

The aim of the study was to investigate the potential for pro-poor tourism development in Tanzanian nature reserves as a means for poverty alleviation. The study has shown that Tanzanian nature reserves hold great potential for the development of pro-poor tourism and other pro-poor activities. The study agrees with the suggestions of Mitchell and Ashley that the Tanzanian Nature Reserves can contribute to the alleviation of poverty through ecotourism via three pathways of direct, secondary and dynamic effects. Direct effects that have been discussed in the study include employment creation and the provision of accommodations to tourists. Accommodation would fall under private sector

owned and operated, community owned or a partnership between the private sector and communities. The third direct effect would be through the operation of community-owned SMEs specializing in selling crafts and curios/souvenirs. Secondary benefits would arise from the multiplier effect of tourism, whereby villagers would supply agricultural produce to tourism businesses operating in the forest reserves and partnerships in cultural tourism. Lastly, the dynamic effects would be an improved standard of living and sustainable livelihoods. In conclusion, experiences from elsewhere show that local benefits from protected areas need to exceed the local costs of maintaining the forest in order to reduce the threat of forestry encroachment.

References

- Anderson, W. (2011), "Challenges of tourism development in the developing countries: the case of Tanzania", *Journal of Tourism*, Vol. 12 No. 2, pp. 17-36.
- Ashley, C, 2000a. Applying livelihood approaches to natural resource management initiatives: Experiences in Namibia and Kenya. ODI Working Paper 134. Overseas Development Institute, London.
- Ashley, C, 2000b. The impacts of tourism on rural livelihoods: Namibia's experience. ODI Working Paper 128. Overseas Development Institute, London.
- Ashley, C & Goodwin, H, 2007. 'Pro poor tourism': What's gone right and what's gone wrong? Overseas Development Institute, Opinion 80. ODI, London.
- Ashley, C.; Roe, D. Making tourism work for the poor: Strategies and challenges in South Africa. *Dev. S. Afr.* 2002, 19, 61–82.
- UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization), 2004. *Tourism and Poverty Alleviation: Recommendations for Actions*. UNWTO, Madrid.
- Scheyvens, R. Pro-poor tourism: Is there value beyond the rhetoric? *Tour. Recreat. Res.* 2009, 34,191–196.
- Schilcher, D. Growth versus equity: The continuum of pro-poor tourism and neoliberal governance. *Curr. Issues Tour.* 2007, 10, 166–193.
- Mitchell, J.; Ashley, C. *Tourism and Poverty Reduction: Pathways and Prosperity*; Earthscan: London, UK, 2014.
- Mbaiwa, J.E.; Sakuze, L.K. Cultural tourism and livelihood diversification: The case of Gcwihaba caves and Xaixai village in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *J. Tour. Cult. Chang.* 2009, 7, 61–75.
- Mbaiwa, J.E.; Stronza, A.L. The effects of tourism development on rural livelihoods in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *J. Sustain. Tour.* 2010, 18, 635–656.
- Mbaiwa, J.E. Changes on traditional livelihood activities and lifestyles caused by tourism development in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Tour. Manag.* 2011, 32, 1050–1060.

- Keitumetse, S.O. The Eco-tourism of Cultural Heritage Management (ECT-CHM): Linking heritage and “environment” in the Okavango Delta regions of Botswana. *Intern J. Herit. Stud.* 2009, 15, 223–244.
- Hunt, H. and Rogerson, C.M. (2013), “Tourism-led development and backward linkages: evidence from the agriculture-tourism nexus in southern Africa”, in Visser, G. and Ferreira, S. (Eds), *Tourism and Crises*, Taylor and Francis, Hoboken, NJ, pp. 159-179.
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2015), *Tourism Statistical Bulletin 2015*, Tourism Division, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Dar es Salaam.
- Netherlands Enterprise Agency (2015), *Tanzania Horticulture Sector Outlook Opportunities and Challenges*, Ministry of Economic Affairs of the Kingdom of Netherlands, AC Den Haag.
- Sakata, H.; Prideaux, B. An alternative approach to community-based ecotourism: A bottom-up locally initiated non-monetised project in Papua New Guinea. *J. Sustain. Tour.* 2012, doi:10.1080/09669582.2012.756493.
- Matarrita-Cascante, D.; Brennan, M.A.; Luloff, A.E. Community agency and sustainable tourism development: The case of La Fortuna, Costa Rica. *J. Sustain. Tour.* 2010, 18, 735–756.
- Ashley, C.; Roe, D. Making tourism work for the poor: Strategies and challenges in South Africa. *Dev. S. Afr.* 2002, 19, 61–82.
- Scheyvens, R. Pro-poor tourism: Is there value beyond the rhetoric? *Tour. Recreat. Res.* 2009, 34, 191–196.
- Erskine, L.M.; Meyer, D. Influenced and influential: The role of tour operators and development organisations in tourism and poverty reduction in Ecuador. *J. Sustain. Tour.* 2012, 20, 339–357.
- Spenceley, A.; Meyer, D. Tourism and poverty reduction: Theory and practice in less economically developed countries. *J. Sustain. Tour.* 2012, 20, 297–317.
- Pillay, M.; Rogerson, C.M. Agriculture-tourism linkages and pro-poor impacts: The accommodation sector of urban coastal KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Appl. Geogr.* 2013, 36, 49–58.
- Saville, N.M. Practical strategies for pro-poor tourism: Case study of pro-poor tourism and SVN in Humla West Nepal, Pro-Poor Tourism 2001, Working paper 3. Available online: <http://www.propoortourism.inf/documents/Saville2003WkP3.pdf> (accessed on 24 March 2014).
- Ashley, C.; Hayson, G. From philanthropy to a different way of doing business: Strategies and challenges in integrating pro-poor approaches into tourism business. *Dev. S. Afr.* 2006, 23, 265–280.
- Trejos, B.; Chiang, L.N. Local economic linkages to community-based tourism in rural Costa Rica. *Sing. J. Trop. Geogr.* 2009, 30, 373–387.

IMPACTS OF POLITICAL INSTABILITY ON THE FUTURE OF TOURISM GROWTH: THE CASE OF TANZANIA

Elias Mseti and Halima Kilungu
The Open University of Tanzania
elias.mseti@out.ac.tz/ msetielias@gmail.com

Abstract

Tourism is one of the world's fastest growing economic sectors. Nonetheless, political instability is regarded as a challenge for its growth. The implications of political instability on tourism growth in Africa are significant but poorly assessed; this is the case in Tanzania. This paper reviews and reflects on the effects of political instability on tourism growth in African Countries, particularly in Tanzania. The paper shows that the number of tourist arrivals decreased by 50% soon after the war between Tanzania and Uganda in 1978/79, and by 25% soon after terrorist bombing the Tanzanian American Embassy in 1998. Likewise in Congo, tourist arrivals decreased by 80% in 2017 soon after the war of 2016. Because the tourism growth is partly measured by the number of tourist arrivals, this review provides insights that may help African countries learn from and avoid unnecessary and unexpected factors that may trigger political instability. This paper argues that the growth of the tourism in Africa is contingent to its political stability.

Keywords: Tanzania, Tourism, political instability

Introduction

Worldwide, tourism has emerged as a crucial sector having substantial developmental impacts in employment, income, foreign exchange earnings, growth of indigenous sectors and the spread of infrastructures that it entails. Tourism is considered as one of the world largest and fastest growing economic sector. Tourism plays an important role in both developed and developing countries, and it has become a significant social and economic (Issa& Alnitay, 2006).

According to the World Tourism Organization 2015, the number of international travellers worldwide has grown from 764 million in 2004 to over 1.32 billion in 2015. It is estimated that by 2025 international travellers will be 1.7 billion per year (WTO, 2015). In addition to this, the international tourism revenues have grown from US dollar 484 billion in 2004 to over 1.4 trillion US dollar in 2015. This earning represents an average growth rate of six percent.

Although the share of this earning is still little in Africa, tourism is growing rapidly in African developing countries, and increase foreign earnings from

tourism leapt from less than US\$ 50 billion in year of 1990 to more than US\$ 260 billion in year of 2007 (Jackson, 2007). Thus, tourism remains as a principal foreign exchange earner for 83 percent of the developing countries (Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership, 2004).

Tanzania being one of the African countries which is 'politically stable' recorded 10.42 percent increase of tourist arrivals in 2016 when 924,442 tourists visited the country from January to October. According to the World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2017) the direct contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP in Tanzania was TZS4, 585.5bn (USD2.1bn) in 2016 equivalent to 13.3% of GDP in 2016. The contribution is forecasted to rise to TZS26, 403.0bn (USD11.8bn), equivalent to 13.6% of GDP in 2027.

According to Hall (1994), political stability is an essential prerequisite for attracting international tourists to a destination and a fundamental precondition to the successful establishment, growth and survival of a tourist industry. Despite the good improvement in recent years, the growth of tourism industry has not been smooth as, beyond economic reasons such as fluctuations of demand or rising transport costs due to changes in the international price of oil, wars, terrorism, and political instability and political tensions. Incidents of terror- attacks, like that at the World Trade Centre in New York City on September 11, 2001, disturbed air travel worldwide. Likewise, the number of political instability that had occurred in Africa had been lowering the number of tourist's arrivals to specific or nearby countries. For instance, in Kenya, the political war (2007), Somalia terrorist in Kenya (2012-2017), Political conflict in Sudan (2002 & 2005), Political war in Congo (2003), Political war in Nigeria, Political war in Northern Uganda are few examples that had had decreased the number of tourist arrivals in these countries. Tourism is thus one of the victims that suffer from political instabilities.

Political instability has been a barrier towards the African tourism growth yet poorly assessed. This paper explores the effects of political instability on tourism growth in African countries and discusses how the country should embrace its political stability for its successful tourism growth. In this paper, we study the trends of tourism growth based on the number of tourist arrivals and earnings and reflect on the fall of tourist arrivals or earning by linking this with political instability incidents in a particular period. This review paper provides case studies' insights that may help African countries to avoid unnecessary and unexpected political instability to grow at its fastest rate.

Identification of the dimensions of political instability

Despite the central role of political instability as a determinant of the tourism flows in a given country, this remains a primitive construct. The definition and, at a later stage, selection of the indicators of political instability were made from

a collection of political instability, political violence and terrorism-related literature. Political instability for this study was identified as Civil War, terrorist attacks, bombings, war, Riots, threat of war with another country, restriction of political rights, Censoring of media, Assassinations (political), Political Instability in neighboring countries, Mass, Arrests, Change in government, Arrests of significant persons and Imposition of martial law. As noted before, political instability is a multidimensional concept. Thus, each dimension of political instability has a different magnitude and impact on the tourism industry.

Data sources and methodology

In this paper, a systematic literature review was used. We used keyword search words, such as “political instability and tourism in Africa. All papers found with similar search key words were taken. We also reviewed yearly data for foreign tourist arrivals in Africa. We obtained aggregate tourist arrivals data from the World Development Indicators (WDI) database, Tanzanian National Bureau of Statistics (NBS), UNWTO and MNRT-Tourism Department. We also collated information from case studies in Africa. We integrated and synthesized the collated information on tourist arrivals trends and linked them with incidences of political instability and unrest of a specific country.

Since the results of this study are based only on the online available literature, they should not be generalized and applicable to other destinations. However, this study should be considered as a preliminary step towards a more general empirical investigation of the relationship between tourism and political instability in Africa.

Results

Political Instability and its impact on tourism

One of the central propositions in this study is that political instability or terror attack reduces the number of foreign tourists flow in a country. Political instability (international or national or tribal), substantially affects tourism sector. Although occasionally, political instability is attributed to reducing the number of tourist arrivals in many African countries. The effect is observed in the subsequent years soon after the instability had occurred.

The findings show that in Congo, the war of 2016 and 2017, resulted in a loss of 139,000 tourists and 157,000 tourist's receipts of the year 2016 and 2017 respectively. In 2016 Congo received 224,000 tourists, a drop from 363,000 in 2015 and only 206,000 tourists were recorded in 2017. Experience from political-related violence in Kenya decreased the number of tourist arrivals significantly. Political instability caused a loss of 613,733 tourists in 2008. In 2007 Kenya received 1,816,957 tourists, a drop from 1,816,957 in 2007 and only 1,203,224 tourists were recorded in 2010 (Kenya Bureau of Statistics, 2008).

In the study by Basu and Marg (2010) on the impact of political instability and terrorism in the tourism industry of the three Middle East countries of Egypt, Jordan and Lebanon found that tourism industries in these countries, which attracts a huge number of tourists from all across the globe, plays a very important role for their overall economic development. Nonetheless, the study concludes that the impacts of political-related violence for one month in Egypt decreased the number of tourist arrivals significantly. For instance, the Sharm-el-Sheikh incident caused a loss of 8 percent of foreign tourism receipts in 2004 and 0.56 percent of GDP in 2005. Similarly, Dahab bombing caused a total loss of 8 percent of foreign tourism receipts of 2005 and 0.53 percent of GDP of 2006.

Findings by Enders and Sandler (1991) in Spain, in the study attempt to estimate the impact of terrorism on tourism for the period 1970–1988. The authors found that terrorism affected tourism. Similar the study by Enders et al. (1992) estimated the impact of international terrorism on domestic tourism in countries like Austria, Italy and Greece for the period of 1974–1988. They found terrorist activities not only reduced tourism in the targeted countries but also affected the neighbouring countries negatively.

Drakos and Kutan (2003) showed that international terrorism has a negative impact on tourism in countries like Turkey, Greece and Israel for the period of 1991–2000. The impact of terrorism on tourism industry in Turkey was also examined by Yaya (2008). For the period of 1985–2006, the author found that the impact of terrorism on tourism is negative but the magnitude of reduction of foreign tourist inflow is small. Moreover, the duration of the impact is observed approximately within one year. It also shows that terrorism has caused a loss of 6 million tourists in the span.

Terrorism in Italy had a significant negative impact on tourism over the period 1995-1997 and the impact was greater in case of large cities when compared with small cities. Moreover, the study confirmed that the impact of terrorism on economic and tourism activity is transitory in nature and is confined largely to a period of 3–9 months after an event. The study measured the impact of terrorist activity on domestic as well as foreign tourist arrivals and it has pointed out that impact of terrorism is more on foreign lodging (Greenbaum and Hultquist, 2006) Similarly, Hazbun (2006) is of the opinion that while there is a general notion that tourism economies are generally vulnerable to political violence, tourism patterns in the Middle East may call for a subtle revision of our understanding of how that relationship plays out. According to Hazbun (2006), in the 1970s and 1980s, an “incident” (as for example, terrorist attacks/ political violence) anywhere in the region would have a sizeable negative impact on tourism receipts across much of the Middle East and North Africa as Western tourists reconsidered their travel plans. He further pointed out that in the post-9/11 era,

however, such a broad neighbourhood effect is mitigated by other factors. Our review found out that despite the civil war in Iraq and the global tensions over Iran's nuclear program, the United States' posting its most serious "travel warnings" for locations across the far East region (i.e. Lebanon, Israel, the Palestinian territories, Iraq, Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Yemen), little had occurred to dampen the expansion of regional tourism. Places like Dubai still received high number of tourist arrivals. The author cited the World Tourism Organizations' (UNWTO) Report of 2005, which clearly stated that, 'in terms of consumer behaviour, it is quite evident that travelers have been undeterred by external threats. At the global level, the impacts of such shocks have been negligible. Yet at local level the impact are substantial. Incidences of political instabilities have led to temporary shifts in travel flows, but they have not stopped people travelling. At the local level, the impact can be severe in the affected areas, but in most cases, surprisingly this is short lived.

Political instability and its impacts on Tanzania tourism sector

Since the 1970s, tourism played a central role in the restructuring and diversification of the Tanzanian economy. In the 1960s tourism activities were largely centered in Northern tourism circuit, the city of Dar-es-salaam and historical island of Zanzibar (Kweka, Morrissey and Blake, 2003). The International tourism in Tanzania started to expand in early 1970s. The expansion was highly influenced by state owned hotel programme. The first sharp fall in tourism arrivals and receipts was between 1977-1985, this was a result of closing the border with Kenya and war with Uganda in 1979 (Curry, 1986; Kilungu et al, 2014) and recovered from late 1980s. Following government initiative in the 1990s tourism sector expanded partly. Following major changes in public sector in the 1990s when major institutional changes were implemented and when private sectors were allowed to participate in improving national economy, the tourism sector was promoted. As table 1 indicates, the rise in tourist arrivals has been spectacular; from 131117 in 1970-1979 to 2.03 million in 1998. Information on recent trends for tourism in Tanzania is provided in Tables 1 and 2. Nominal earnings from foreign tourism increased from US\$95m in 1991 to over US\$500m in 1998, compared with tourist arrivals of 186800 and 482331 respectively. Tourism earnings as a share of GDP increased significantly, from about one percent in the 1986-92 periods to over six percent in the 1993-98 periods. Comparable data for the East Africa region and African countries on average show that tourism earnings as a share of GDP increased marginally from 1.5 per cent to about two per cent over the same period (World Tourism Organization, various years).

Table: 1. Growth of International Tourism in Tanzania 1970s-1998

Year(s)	Arrivals	Nominal earnings (US\$)	Real Earnings	Real GDP	Tourism employment
1970-1979	131117	14.7			
1980-1985	74522	14.8			
1986-1990	131089	43.3			
1991	186800	94.7	100	100	100
1992	201744	120.0	163	103	111
1993	230166	146.8	227	104	147
1994	261595	192.1	241	104	191
1995	295312	259.4	283	105	213
1996	326188	322.4	292	110	222
1997	359096	392.4	305	108	244
1998	482331	570.0	429	115	293

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, and Tourism Department 1999

Table 1 illustrates smooth progress and development of Tanzania tourism continued from 1970 until July 1979 when Tanzania and Uganda entered into war. After the war and the partition of between Tanzania and Uganda, all economic activity came to a standstill. Tourism suffered devastating consequences since most of economic activities were destroyed; there were no peace therefore tourism suffered devastatingly. Table 1 illustrates a breakdown of tourist arrivals in Tanzania on a yearly basis for the period 1970-1998. A careful examination of the table shows that the normal seasonal fluctuation of the tourism movement in Tanzania was heavily disrupted during the period 1980 to 1985. During this period, tourism arrivals dropped to minimal levels (74522 in 1980,) and real earning was 14.8% (National Bureau of Statistics, and Tourism Department 1999). The effects of the invasion had a crippling effect on the economy but tourism suffered disproportionately because of the concentration of the main tourist's resorts and infrastructure in the occupied areas and the subsequent fall in the number of tourist arrivals and receipts.

Conclusions and Recommendations

In Africa, the tourism sector is growing fast, and its contribution to growth is significant. As a result, it has attracted investment and policy initiatives to support its development. In this paper, we reviewed various papers. The results indicate that the impacts of political instability on tourism growth are substantial. The results reveal that political instability has a significant impact on tourism. Basing on the political instability between Tanzania and Uganda and experiences from other African countries, we conclude that the impacts of political instability on tourism growth are enhanced by backward linkage effects on the economy. As such, the relationship between political instability on African tourism growth should not undermined even in countries that are considered as 'politically stable' like Tanzania. Moreover, the existence of

political instability in Africa leads to a negative effect on a tourism industry of a nearby region/country (spillover effects). We argue that tourism managers and policy makers need to be aware of the dimensions of political instability and its likely impacts on their tourism industry. Such awareness would enable tourism managers/planners and policy makers to design and implement policies to counterbalance/reduce the negative effects of political instability. As noted before, political instability is a multidimensional concept. Each dimension of political instability has a different magnitude and impact on the tourism industry. This study should be considered as a preliminary step towards a more general empirical investigation of the relationship between tourism and political instability in Africa and in particular Tanzania. It is hoped that future researchers will expand the review and apply the proposed model on a comparative basis to different socio-economic settings in order to test the pattern of differences that may exist between the empirical dimensions of political instability between different tourist destinations.

References

- Abahre, S.S.J & Raddad, H.S. (2016). Impact of Political Factor on the Tourism Development in Palestine: Case Study of Sabastiya Village American Journal of Tourism Management 2016, 5(2): 29-35
- Aly, Y.H. and Strazicich, M.C. (2000) Terrorism and Tourism: Is the Permanent or Transitory? Time Series Evidence from Egypt and Israel, Working Paper No. 2010, College of Business and Administration, University of Central Florida, USA.
- Araña, J. E., & León, C. J. (2008). The impact of terrorism on tourism demand. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35(2), 299-315.
- Askjellerud, S. (2003). The tourist as messenger of peace? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 741-744.
- Baggio, R., & Klobas, J. (2011). *Quantitative methods in tourism. A handbook*. Bristol: Channel View Publications.
- Basu, K. & Marg, S.V. (2010). Impact Of Political Instability And Terrorism In The Tourism Industry Of Three Middle-East Countries: An Econometric Exploration.
- Bianchi, R. V. (2004). Tourism restructuring and the politics of sustainability: a critical view from the European periphery (The Canary Islands). *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 12(6), 495e529.
- BOT, MNRT, NBS, IMMIGRATION DEPARTMENT, ZCT (2011), Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey Report
- Clements M.A, Georgiou, A. (1998).The impact of political instability on a fragile tourism product. *Tourism Management*, 19 (3), 283-288.
- Farmak, H. et al. (2014) Politics and sustainable tourism: The case of Cyprus Politics and sustainable tourism: The case of Cyprus: *Tourism Management* 47 (2015) 178e190.

- Kilungu, H., Pantaleo, M., Leemans, R., & Amelung, B. (2014). Wildlife safari tourist destinations in Tanzania: Experiences from colonial to post-colonial era. *International Journal of Current Research and Academic Review*, 2, 240-259.
- Kenya Bureau of Statistics. <http://www.knbs.or.ke>
- Mansfeld, Y. (1994) 'The Middle East Conflict and Tourism to Israel, 1967-90', *Middle Eastern Studies*, Vol. 30, No. 3, pp.646-667.
- United Republic of Tanzania. Tanzania bureau of statistics <https://www.nbs.go.tz>
- United Republic of Tanzania. 1999. Input–Output Table of Tanzania for 1992. National Bureau of Statistics: Dar es Salaam.
- United Nation World Tourism Organization (2013), *World Tourism Barometer*; Volume 11, January 2013
- United Nation World Tourism Organization (2013), *World Tourism Barometer*; Volume 11, April 2013
- World Travel and Tourism Council (2010) 'Travel and Tourism Economic Impact: Middle East', an online bulletin: <http://www.wttc.org/bin/pdf/temp/middleeast.html>; accessed on: 12th February, 2012, World Travel and Tourism Council.
- World Tourism Organization. (Various years). *Yearbook of Tourism Statistics*. World Tourism Organization

ENTREPRENEURIAL ORIENTATION AND TOURISM FIRM'S PERFORMANCE IN TANZANIA: REFLECTIONS INTO THE FUTURE

France Shayo and Hawa Uiso
Open University of Tanzania
france.shayo@out.ac.tz/hawa.uiso@out.ac.tz

Abstract

The study investigated the relationship between entrepreneurial orientation and tourism firm performance in selected regions in Tanzania mainland and Zanzibar. Structural equation modeling using AMOS was used in data analysis. Findings revealed that employee autonomy is the most important dimension to explain tourism firm performance, followed by innovativeness and proactiveness. Competitive aggressiveness did not produce significant relationship with tourism firm performance. Similarly, Risk taking did not have significant relationship with tourism firm performance. The study calls for tourism firms to promote employee autonomy, and become more innovative and proactive in overcoming the future challenges of tourism.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial orientation, Future of Tourism, Firm performance

Introduction

Tourism is considered to be the world's largest industry and its revenues support a significant proportion of the economies of many nations with an enormous contribution to millions of employment opportunities (Farkhondehzadeh et al. 2013). Tourism includes various services, facilities and attraction that generate a lot of entrepreneurial opportunities (Nicoletta, 2018). Kumasaru and Kumara (2016) assert that the tourism sector has a multiplier effect on the local community. In addition, tourism generates employment and government's revenue through tax and foreign exchange (Jaensson and Uiso, 2015). For consecutive seven years effective 2011, tourism's direct growth outpaced the global economic growth (WTTC, 2018). In Tanzania, the direct contribution of tourism to GDP was TZS 4,405.7 billion (USD 1,975.9 million) which was 3.8% of the total GDP in 2017 and was projected to rise by 7.2% p.a from 2018 to 2028 (WTTC, 2018). This progress calls for companies and businesses engaging in tourism to become more entrepreneurial than ever in serving the future markets.

Most studies that were conducted regarding tourism and entrepreneurship focused on assessing entrepreneurial behavior of individuals rather than the entrepreneurial orientation of the firms in general (Nieto, et al., 2011). The few studies that focused on the firms EO suggest that entrepreneurial orientation dimensions (innovation, risk taking, proactiveness, aggressiveness, and

employee autonomy) have bearing on tourism firm performance (Fadda, 2018). This paper addresses the question of which Entrepreneurial Orientation dimensions are more important today in driving tourism firm performance and gives way to reflect into the future of tourism. To the best of the researchers' knowledge; such a study has not been conducted in Tanzania where tourism is predominantly for export, targeting foreign tourists. It then looks into the extent to which tourism companies might need to adapt the EO dimensions in order to survive the future challenges of tourism.

Conceptualization of the Entrepreneurial Orientation Concept

Miller in 1983 identified entrepreneurial orientation as a phenomenon consisting of three main dimensions; Innovativeness, risk-taking, and proactiveness. Later on, Lumpkin and Dess (1996) introduced two more dimensions namely competitive aggressiveness and employee autonomy hence making up five components of EO. Most studies combined these dimensions into one single factor i.e unidimensional measure (Walter et al., 2006). Studies on entrepreneurial orientation suggests that firms have to introduce innovations in existing products, services and processes and be more proactive compared to competitors in all aspects (Fadda, 2018; Kallmuenzer and Peters, 2018; Thomas & Wood, 2015). Recently, many scholars have followed the five dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation model presented by Lumpkin and Dess (1996).

Shayo (2018) defined entrepreneurial oriented firm in terms of five attributes including engaging in product market innovations, undertaking somewhat risky ventures, embracing autonomous idea generation, and being first to come up with 'proactive' innovations while aggressively taking offensive stance in dealing with competitors. Much of the published work on EO investigate firms entrepreneurial behavior and reason behind it, its consequences, the cultural and contextual factors that affect corporate entrepreneurial behaviour and whether antecedents and moderating influences differ from those of conservative firms (Fadda, 2017).

The Future of Tourism

Pinnock (2014) predicted a shift of tourists from less industrialized destinations to the newly industrialized one due to market globalization, intensified competition, economic recession, and the dynamic evolution of new technologies and increasingly man-made tourism. The adoption of information communication technologies (ICT) in tourism facilitates accessibility to tourists and helps tourism service providers to offer customized services and compete effectively (Farkhondezhadeh et al. 2013). These developments of the tourism industry call for the need to have firms which are more innovative and proactive and ready to take relatively high risks than competitors by allowing a degree of autonomy on the part of employees to act aggressively in the ever increasing competition in the tourism industry. This is partly supported by Fadda (2018) who found a significant and positive relationship between innovativeness,

proactiveness and autonomy on one hand and tourism firm performance. On the other hand she found non-significant relationship between risk-taking and competitive aggressiveness and tourism firm performance.

Farkhondehzadeh et al. (2013) stressed that since travelers do not have possibility to pre-test the product or receive their money back if the trip does not meet up to their expectations, access to accurate, reliable, timely and relevant information was essential to help them make an appropriate choice. The rapid shift between 'traditional tourism sector' and 'new tourism industry' has made technology a strategic role in reshaping the value chain in the industry and in the process, consumers continue to adapt to the new values, lifestyles and new tourism products, which are re-engineered by the new technologies.

Firm Innovativeness and Tourism Firm Performance

Innovation is the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, or a new marketing method, or a new organizational method in business practices, workplace organization or external relations (OECD, 2005). Firm innovation is one of the five dimensions that determines the firm's entrepreneurial behavior and is said to play a vital role in the current tourism industry. Booyes and Rogerson (2016) contemplate further that innovation by tourism firms is pervasive, although it is largely incremental in nature. Accordingly, Thomas & Wood (2015) stresses the importance of innovation in tourism because of strong competition in order to build competitiveness. They caution that tourist firms do not spend significantly on in-house research and development but rely on suppliers, customers and business networks to express their doubt on whether mere existence of networks promotes innovation.

Slivar et al. (2016) assert that innovation represents an improvement and a desire to develop an enterprise and adapt its offer to the market needs. Sources of innovation in the tourism industry may originate from outside the tourism sector. One such example is information and communication technology (ICT) which is primarily responsible for innovative tourism development (online services such as e-check-in and online reservation systems). From the aforementioned studies, it is imperative that innovativeness is inevitably one of the important dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation that will continue to shape the tourism industry. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between innovativeness and tourism firm's performance

Firm Proactiveness and Tourism Firm Performance

Fadda (2018) and Kallmuenzer and Peters (2018) suggest firm proactiveness and the advantages of being the first mover as one of the EO dimensions that explain tourism firm performance. Accordingly Kallmuenzer and Peters (2018) add that

proactive monitoring of the business environment is the major factor for survival of tourist firms. Micro firms might face difficulties in either implementing proactive efforts due to the limited workforce, expected margins or limited financial means to exploit these proactive capabilities. This leads to Hypotheses H2 which states that there is significant positive relationship between firm proactiveness and tourism firm performance

Employee Autonomy and Tourism Firm Performance

Autonomy refers to the right employees have in making independent decisions through considerable discretion, freedom, and independence in scheduling work, determining work tasks, and choosing methods (Langfred and Moye, 2004). Tourism employees achieve autonomy by being in charge of their daily tasks. They informally take advice and seek support from peers and junior experts rather than following formal rules. Kumarasuru and Kumara (2016) claimed that employee autonomy is positively related to tourism firm performance. Based on these arguments, the following hypothesis was stated.

H3: There is a significant and positive relationship between employee autonomy and tourism firm performance.

Competitive Aggressiveness and Tourism Firm Performance

Stambaugh et al. (2011) refer to competitive aggressiveness as the willingness to challenge and outperform rivals through the firm's orientation toward competitive actions. Competitive aggressiveness is more rival-focused. According to Kumarasuru, and Kumara (2016) competitive aggressiveness is among the most influential dimensions in determining the entrepreneurial orientation. The following hypothesis is therefore stated:

H4: There is a significant positive relationship between competitive aggressiveness and tourism firm performance

Risk Taking and Tourism Firm Performance

Risk-taking reflects a firm's inclination towards supporting investments in which the expected returns are uncertain (Walter et al. 2006). According to Kallmuenzer and Peters (2018), long-term orientation leads to the rather risk-averse behavior of rural tourism family firms. However, Kumarasuru and Kumara (2016) suggest that risk-taking is the most influential factor in explaining tourism firm performance. The following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: There is a significant positive relationship between risk-taking and tourism firm performance

Methodology

This study used primary ordinal data collected from randomly selected 202 firms operating in Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Mwanza, Tanga and Zanzibar using

structured questionnaire. The companies involved were tour guide operators, tourist hotels, air charter operators, campsites and travel agents who operate in the selected study area. Measures of tourism firm performance were based on the managers' perception using nine items as suggested by Zou et al., (1998). Multidimensional measure of EO was adapted in order to capture each individual dimension's influence rather than their cumulative influences. The EO scale was adapted from Lumpkin and Dess (1996) and customized to fit the Tanzanian socio-economic context.

Structural equation modeling using AMOS software was used to test the relationships between the entrepreneurial orientation dimensions and tourism firm performance. Exploratory Factor Analysis through Principal-axis factor extraction was conducted to determine the factor structure using SPSS software prior to conducting confirmatory factor and structural analysis.

Results

Exploratory factor analysis produced six (6) factor structure through retention of factors with Eigenvalues greater than 1. All the communality values were above 0.6. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) was satisfactory at 0.871, indicating that the sample size was sufficient to proceed with factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant at $p = 0.000$ indicating that there were correlation between variables. All items loaded fairly well into their respective constructs with factor loadings above 0.45. Cases of cross loading and low factor loadings were dealt with through deletion. The remaining indicators are presented in appendix 1.

Normality test produced good measures of skewness and kurtosis both having absolute values below 1.5. There were no Multicollinearity issues as the factor correlation matrix (Appendix 2) showed lack of high correlation between the constructs; the highest correlation coefficient being 0.466. Missing data were handled through listwise deletion method. Composite reliability (CR) produced 0.883, 0.813, 0.917, 0.822, 0.896 and 0.90 for firm performance, firm innovativeness, firm proactiveness, firm risk-taking, employee autonomy and firm's competitive aggressiveness respectively suggesting that the scale used was a reliable measure of the constructs.

Convergent validity using Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was 0.656, 0.592, 0.789, 0.619, 0.744 and 0.750 for firm performance, firm innovativeness, firm proactiveness, firm risk-taking, employee autonomy and firm's competitive aggressiveness respectively. Discriminant validity was achieved by ensuring that all redundant items were constrained as a free parameter and the correlation between all constructs was lower than 0.90. To confirm discriminant validity, Fornell-Lacker criterion was used to ensure that the AVE estimate for each construct was greater than the squared correlation estimate for each pair of constructs (Awang, 2011).

CFA model was fitted by achieving the following fit indices; CMIN/DF = 2.565, TLI = 0.902, GFI = 0.853, CFI = 0.922 and RMSEA = 0.088 (Refer to Appendix 3).

Hypothesis Testing

Results from the structural model analysis (Appendix 4 and 5) supported hypothesis 1 that there is a positive and significant relationship between tourism firm's innovativeness and performance by producing a significant value of $p = 0.004$, standardized regression weight = $+0.283$, and critical value = 2.878 .

Hypothesis 2, proactiveness and tourism firm performance was supported with $p = 0.007$, standardized regression weight was $+0.228$, and the critical ratio of 2.705 .

Hypothesis 3, employee autonomy and tourism firm performance was strongly supported with $p = 0.000$, standardized regression weight was $+0.357$ and the critical ratio was 3.492 .

Hypothesis 4, Competitive aggressiveness and tourism firm performance was not supported as p-value was nonsignificant at 0.762 , standardized regression weight was $+0.026$ and Critical ratio was 0.303 .

Hypothesis 5, risk-taking and tourism firm performance was not supported with a nonsignificant p-value of 0.223 and negative standardized regression weight of -0.95 .

Conclusion

The findings of this study have revealed the important interplay between EO and tourism firm performance. First, we have identified three EO dimensions that are important to drive tourism firm performance which are employee autonomy, proactiveness, and innovativeness. Secondly, it has further identified that competitive aggressiveness does not have a significant bearing on tourism firm performance. Lastly, the study has found out that risk-taking tends to have a negative nonsignificant relationship with tourism firm performance.

Recommendations

It is recommended therefore that, tourism firms should adapt autonomy by encouraging employees to come up with new ideas and implement them. Employee involvement in decision making is among the ways to cultivate autonomy in organizations. Allowing a degree of discretion in implementing strategies and programmes is of paramount importance. The fact that tourism firm performance is negatively related (although nonsignificant) to risk taking calls for companies to carefully make investment and risk analysis prior to engaging into any tourism business.

Directions for future research

Since EO is context specific, future research could moderate its relationship using the type of tourism whether cultural or nature in order to see whether these

relationships differ. Secondly, future research may be geared towards looking into the influences of owner-managers individual characteristics such as education level, experience in business, gender etc on this relationship.

References

- Awang, Z. (2011). *A Handbook on SEM: Structural Equation Modelling* 2nd Ed., Kelantan: Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Booyens, I. & Rogerson, C.M. (2016). Tourism Innovation in the Global South: Evidence from the Western Cape. South Africa. *International Journal of Tourism Research*
- Fadda, N. (2018). The Effects of Entrepreneurial Orientation Dimensions on Performance in the Tourism Sector. *New England Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 21(1)
- Fadda, N. & Sørensen, J.F.L. (2017) "The importance of destination attractiveness and entrepreneurial orientation in explaining firm performance in the Sardinian accommodation sector", *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(6), 1684-1702
- Farkhondehzadeh, A., Karim, M.R.R., Roshanfekar, M., Jamshid Azizi, J., & Hatami, F.L. (2013). E-Tourism: The role of ICT in the tourism industry. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 2(3), 566-573
- Gupta, V. and Gupta, A. (2015). The Concept of Entrepreneurial Orientation. *Foundations and Trends in Entrepreneurship*, 11(2), 55–137
- Hoe, S. L. (2008). Issues and Procedures in Adopting Structural Equation Modeling Technique. *Journal of Applied Quantitative Method*, 3 (8), 79-83.
- Jaensson, J.E. & Uiso, H. (2015). Assessing the link between market orientation and Poverty reduction in the tourism industry: The case of Tanzania. *International Journal of Business Tourism and Applied Sciences*. 3 (1), 57 – 64
- Kallmuenzer, A. & Peters, M. (2018). Entrepreneurial behavior, firm size and financial performance: The case of rural tourism family firms. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 43(1), 2-14
- Kumasaru, J. and Kumara, A. (2016). Impact of Entrepreneurial Orientation on Entrepreneurial Performance of Tourism Enterprises – A Study with reference to Southern Province of Sri Lanka. *Amity Journal of Entrepreneurship* 1(2), (34-43)
- Langfred, C.W. & Moye, N.A. (2004). Effects of task autonomy on performance: An extended model considering motivational, informational, and structural mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 89(6), 934–945
- Lumpkin, G.T., and Dess, G.G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. *Academic of Management Review*, 21(1), 135-172.

- Miller, D. (1983). The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms. *Management Science*, 29(7), 770-791.
- Nieto, J., Maestro, R.M. and Gallego, P.A. (2011). The influence of entrepreneurial talent and website type on business performance by rural tourism establishments in Spain. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 13, 17–31
- OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development). 2005. *Oslo Manual: Guidelines for Collecting and Interpreting Innovation Data*. OECD: Paris.
- Pinnock, F. (2014). The future of tourism in an emerging economy: The reality of the cruise industry in the Caribbean. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 6(2), 127-137
- Shayo, F. A. (2018). Effect of entrepreneurial orientation on the Tanzanian firms export performance: The moderating role of firm structure. (Unpublished Doctoral thesis), Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam.
- Slivar, I., Bozic, S., & Batkovic, A. (2016). Innovation in Tourism: Perception of Tourism Providers from Croatia and Serbia. *Review of Innovation and Competitiveness*. 2(4). 37-56
- Solvoll, S., Alsos, G. A., & Bulanova, O. (2015). Tourism Entrepreneurship – Review and Future Directions. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 15(1), 120-137.
- Stambaugh, J.E, Yu, A. & Dubinsky, A.J. (2011). Before the attack: A typology of strategies for competitive aggressiveness. *Journal of Management Policy and Practice* 12(1), 49 - 63
- Walter, A., Auer, M. & Ritter (2011). The impact of network capabilities and entrepreneurial orientation on university spin-off performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21, 541– 567
- World Travel & Tourism Council (2018). *The economic impact of global travel & tourism – Tanzania, Report*.
- Wuensch, K. L. (2017). *Conducting a Path Analysis with SPSS/AMOS*, East Carolina University, Greenville, NC
- Zou, S., Taylor, C. R., and Osland, G. E. (1998). The EXPERF Scale: a cross-national generalized export performance measure. *Journal of International Marketing*, 6(3), 37-58.

Appendix 1: EFA Pattern Matrix

	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
IN1					-.620	
IN2					-.708	
IN3					-.583	
IN4					-.651	
IN5					-.813	
PR1			-.870			
PR2			-.498			
PR3			-.820			
PR4			-.775			
RT1		.660				
RT2		.510				
RT3		.899				
RT4		.686				
RT5		.790				
EA1						-.738
EA2						-.734
EA3						-.594
EA4						-.403
AG1				-.548		
AG2				-.807		
AG3				-.822		
AG4				-.574		
AG5				-.484		
P1	.816					
P2	.817					
P3	.721					
P4	.559					
P5	.930					
P6	.678					
P7	.505					
P9	.473					

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 12 iterations.

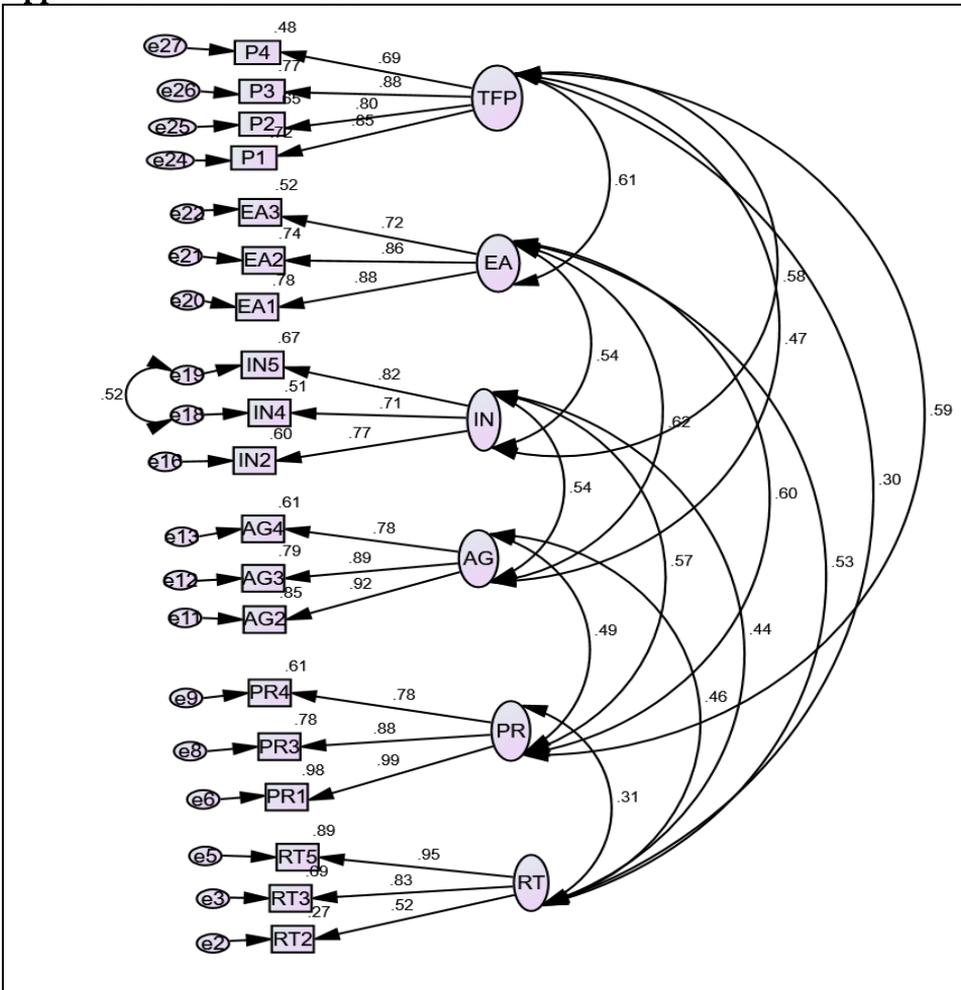
Appendix 2: Factor Correlation Matrix

Factor	TFP	RT	PR	AG	IN	EA
TFP	1.000					
RT	.198	1.000				
PR	-.314	-.303	1.000			
AG	.459	.280	-.264	1.000		
IN	.412	.182	-.358	.367	1.000	
EA	-.466	-.280	.417	-.410	-.376	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

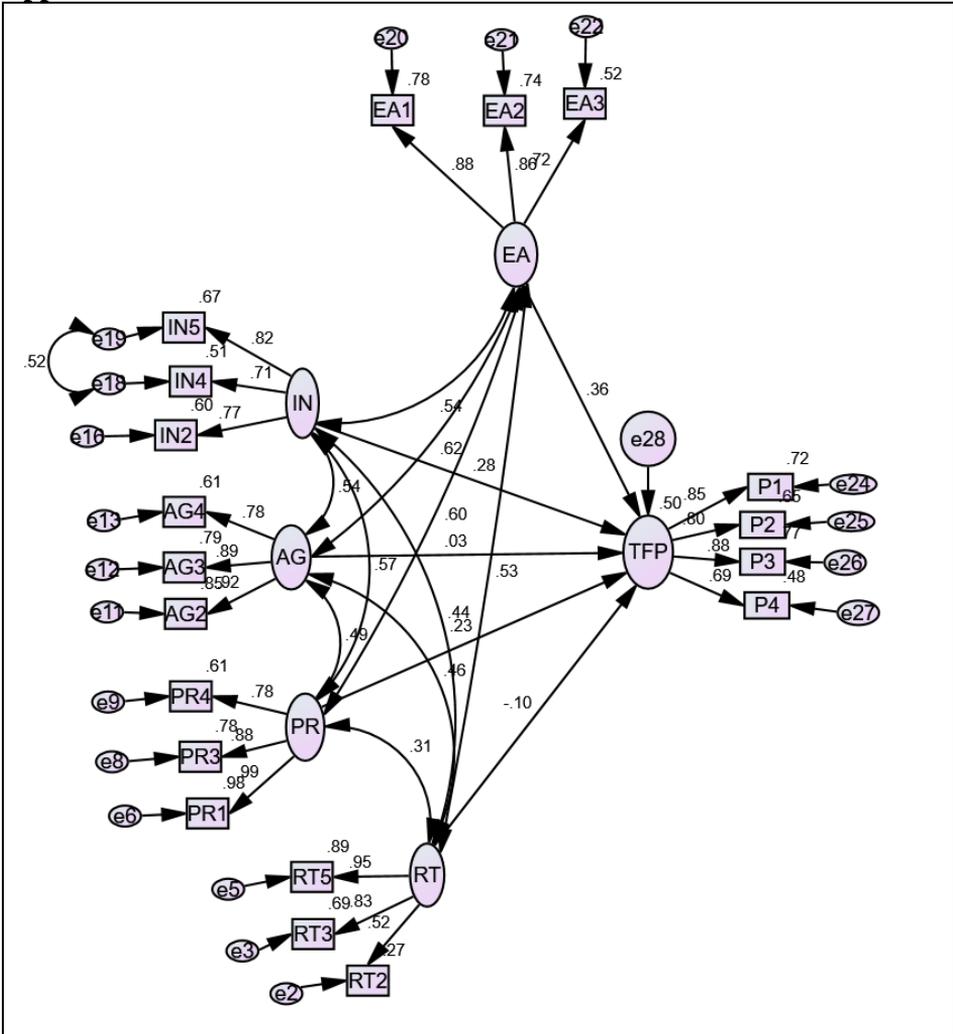
Appendix 3: The CFA Model



Appendix 4: Standardized and Unstandardized Estimates

			Unstandardized Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Estimates
TFP	<---	EA	.328	.094	3.492	***	.357
TFP	<---	IN	.282	.098	2.878	.004	.283
TFP	<---	AG	.023	.077	.303	.762	.026
TFP	<---	PR	.175	.065	2.705	.007	.228
TFP	<---	RT	-.108	.088	-1.219	.223	-.095

Appendix 5: The Structural Model



Session 2c Policy, Sustainability and Culture in Tourism

**STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS ON SUSTAINABILITY OF TOURISM
ATTRactions DEVELOPMENT IN ZIMBABWE**

Forbes Kabote, Zororo Muranda, Patrick, and Walter Mamimine
Chinhoyi University of Technology, Zimbabwe
fkabote@cut.ac.zw or kabote123@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper aims to assess stakeholder views on sustainability of tourism developments taking place in Zimbabwe with emphasis on nature of attractions. In-depth interviews with randomly and conveniently selected twenty five domestic tourists and twenty tourism suppliers from Zimbabwe major commercial cities (Harare and Bulawayo) and major tourism destinations (Victoria Falls and Kariba) were held. Using thematic analysis built on NVivo 11 outputs, the study revealed three major themes. Firstly the need to develop new attractions, secondly physical alterations to existing attractions and thirdly noted threats to existing attractions as major highlights affecting the sustainability of tourism development in Zimbabwe. In conclusion tourism stakeholders perceive the development of tourism attractions in Zimbabwe as being under threat from the need to modernise compromising the long standing quality and quantity the destinations are known for. This also compromises the ability of future generations to enjoy these attractions in their original state.

Keywords: Sustainable Development, Tourist Attractions, Stakeholder Perceptions

Introduction

Attractions are the primary elements that draw travellers to visit a particular place for tourism purposes. These can be classified in many ways such as natural, man-made or human modified among others (Wall, 1997).

However, a destination may gain its popularity building on a single or multiple attractions. For example Hall (1989) looked at hallmark events as key tourism attractions. He concluded that there is need to go beyond economic analysis and examine the physical and social impacts of events on the destination. Bessière (1998) researched on the role of traditional food and cuisine as key attractions to rural areas. The conclusion was that food and gastronomy can be used to solve identity crises among rural area residence as they turn to what is common among them and sell it to incoming tourists. Seemingly, the nature of attraction is important in addressing the success or failure of destination as it determines the type of clientele that will visit that particular destination.

Other scholars such Benckendorff and Pearce (2003) researched on the impacts of tourist attraction planning and its effects into the long term existence of the destination. They concluded that attractions that are well planned have higher levels of perceived performance and faced the future with better growth prospects and business confidence. Thus the development, growth and management of attractions play a pivotal role in destination competitiveness.

A number of studies have been done in developed countries with very few having been done in developing countries. That being the case most attractions in developing countries have developed without proper management risking them to loss of value due to lack of development track record and management (Benckendorff & Pearce, 2003). In order for an attraction to develop fully and correctly, various stakeholders have to contribute. Thus the stakeholder theory will be used to guide this study as it seeks to assess stakeholder views on sustainability of tourism developments taking place in Zimbabwe with emphasis on the attractions.

Stakeholder Theory

The Stakeholder theory was developed as a replacement model to the economic model of the firm. It was developed since 1980's (Asher, Mahoney, & Mahoney, 2005; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Egels- Zandén & Sandberg, 2010; Freeman, 1994, 1999, 2004). Two principal questions emerge from this theory. Firstly; what is the purpose of the firm? This question generates answers that help management address organisational performance issues and how they affect the stakeholders? Secondly; what responsibility does management have to stakeholders? This question generates answers that deals with relationships between organisations and stakeholders to deliver on their promises, having communities where everyone strives to give their best to deliver the value the firm promises. The stakeholder theory has been applied in tourism studies since 1999 focusing on four broad areas.

Defining and classifying tourism stakeholders,

Tourism stakeholders are those people, organisations and any other interested party whose way of life is affected or affects the tourism industry (Freeman, 1994). The tourism industry affects and is affected by many stakeholders to different extents and appreciating the roles of these various stakeholders will help in the development of tourism attractions at destinations. Such appreciation will also help decision makers know whom, when and how to deal with on attraction development issues such that less time is used in making critical decisions that affect the future of the tourism industry.

Stakeholders' issues on planning, management and marketing

Lack of planning, uncontrolled development and management and uncoordinated marketing has resulted in different stakeholders communicating

different and sometimes conflicting messages to tourists visiting a destination. The divergent communications has negative effects for attractions and destinations as customers are left uncertain of what exactly the attraction represents in the tourism industry. This study therefore also benefited from stakeholder theory through understanding how the various issues linking the various stakeholders are addressed in planning, management and marketing of tourist attractions. Further application was made in how such issues can also be applied in future planning, management and marketing of tourism attractions within the country.

Stakeholder's issues on tourism environmental ethics and sustainable development

When addressing sustainable development, issues such as environmental ethics are very important. Stakeholders make decisions that affect the environment around attractions as they conduct their own businesses. Business ethics becomes critical as businesses strategises on how to deal tourists visiting the attraction, their marketing of the attraction and how they balance the interests of the tourists and the need to conserve the attraction. Ethical practices by the stakeholders through combined competition and cooperation will enable the tourism industry through the attractions to move forward.

Stakeholders' issues on community tourism and its collaboration with others

Stakeholders have different perceptions on community involvement in attraction development. However, attractions are found within communities ensuring that tourism development has a direct effect on the community which could be positive or negative (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). Tourism attraction development affects different stakeholders differently and without proper collaboration conflicts may arise which are detrimental to sustainable tourism development within the destination.

The tourism industry has many stakeholders. Each has a part to play in the success of the industry. The stakeholders include tourists, travel promoters, hospitality establishments, transporters and providers of other goods and services deemed critical in the tourism industry. The application of this theory in this study will help in assessing the stakeholder views on sustainability of tourism developments taking place in Zimbabwe with emphasis on the attractions.

Research Methodology

This study was part of a broader study on domestic tourism and sustainable tourism development in Zimbabwe. Interviews lasting about one hour were held with twenty six domestic tourists conveniently sampled at public parks in Zimbabwe's metropolitan cities of Harare and Bulawayo and public places in

Zimbabwe two major destinations of Victoria Falls and Kariba. The sites were chosen based on the guide by Sirakaya-Turk, Ingram, and Harrill (2008) who argued that population of metropolitan cities can be taken to represent the diversity of the whole nation. The same interview guide was also administered to fourteen people representing the tourism supply side. These were drawn from Ministry of tourism, Zimbabwe Tourism Authority, Tour operators and travel agents conveniently sampled in Harare, Bulawayo and Victoria Falls. Data was collected over a three week period. Interviewing both tourism consumers and suppliers allowed for data triangulation.

The interview guide had three broad questions as follows;

- How would you describe the nature of tourism development in Zimbabwe?
- Where do you see the tourism industry in the short to medium to long term future given these developments?
- What is your understanding of sustainable tourism development?

Data collected was entered into NVivo software 11th edition. Analysis started soon after the first interview with emerging themes being added until the researcher felt that the study had reached saturation as no new themes were emerging after twenty two tourists and ten suppliers. The additional four from both consumers and suppliers yielded no new themes and the interviews were stopped. The researcher also had unplanned observation during tours to various attractions within destinations noting developments taking place that are later compared to historical data.

Results

The objective of the study was to assess stakeholder views on sustainability of tourism developments taking place in Zimbabwe with emphasis on the attractions. Data from fieldwork is presented and discussed as follows starting with stakeholders understanding of the concept of sustainable tourism development. The next section presents and discusses the key developments noted that are taking place within Zimbabwe's tourism industry that are affecting the attractions.

Conceptualisation of sustainable tourism development

The interviewees' own understanding of 'sustainable tourism development' is captured in the following cross-section of responses obtained from the field:

This is when the destination will be there as long as we do not pollute the environment, not kill the animals rampantly that are used for game viewing and destroy the attractions that brought in the tourists (Tourist).

It is the preservation of tourism resources (Tourism Supplier).

Zimbabwe is a sustainable destination, Culture is still intact (Tourist).

It is about us enjoying travel within Zimbabwe and attracting foreigners to our country by our behaviour (Tourist).

There seems to be a shared meaning on the views given by respondents on sustainable development. The common thread being that sustainable development entails continued existence of tourism resources, the industry and associated benefits. These will benefit today's generations and future generations to a similar extent and the benefits are economic, environmental and social (Pegas, Weaver, & Castley, 2015). This understanding of sustainable development resonant well with the generally accepted definition by Brundtland (1987). Brundtland (1987) define sustainable development as that development which meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations meeting their own needs.

Attraction diversity

Attractions are the primary elements that draw travellers to visit a particular destination for tourism purposes. Attractions are so diverse and unique varying as one moves from one destination to another making it almost impossible to recreate another them at other destinations. (Wall, 1997).

Building on Butler (2006)'s destination life cycle concept, Zimbabwe as a domestic tourism destination still has a lot to offer with potential for further development. Emphasis on development was placed on the need to 'increase areas of interest by creating new attractions and revamping old attractions making them appeal'.

Respondents proffered different types of attractions such as imitating what is happening elsewhere. For example what is happening in Venice where: The most popular activity is prostitution and they never close, operate 24 hours and no one frowns at such activities as they are accepted. Prostitution is ok and should be considered legally as the only reason we are not doing it is a moral one (Tourism Supplier).

This signifies an increasing demand for activities that are already practised globally though unacceptable in Zimbabwe (Jones, 2010; Mabvurira, Chigevenga, Kambarami, Chavhi, & Nyoni, 2017; Masvawure, 2010; Wasosa, 2011). By suggesting non-conventional tourism forms like sex tourism, it is a call for Zimbabwe to liberalise her tourism industry to reflect trends in developed countries as predicted in the modernisation theory that says all communities are always seeking to be like developed countries (Morrison, 2013). Perhaps, sex tourism in Zimbabwe may add a strand to tourism service products widening the value and hence helping towards long-term existence of the tourism destination as has become the case with other destinations worldwide (Omondi & Ryan, 2017).

There was also shared sentiment on the need to have attractions at various destinations in Zimbabwe being accessible for 24 hours. Zimbabwe has

destinations such as Victoria Falls that offers highly popular day activities such as game drives, bungee jumping, white water rafting, Crocodile Cage dive, Elephant back safaris, lion walks, cruises, tour of the falls, village tours and themed dinners. There are also some night activities such as night game drives, sunset tours that extend into the night, traditional dance, cruises, lunar tours and gambling.

Although most of the activities are not available throughout the country an increase in night time activities in other destinations within the country would likely lure more tourists who would enjoy their holiday in full without spending time being idle. However, activities in environmentally sensitive areas should continue to be limited at night to allow for natural regeneration of the flora and fauna. At Victoria Falls where there is controlled access, the only night activity which is lunar tours are limited to two and half hours and being experienced at most three nights per month and subject to weather conditions. Conservationists believe natural regeneration will sustain the attraction (Newsome, Moore, & Dowling, 2012).

Some new attractions were also launched at other destinations to add value to the tourists' experience of both domestic and international tourists. These included skywalks, gorge swings, zipline, rafting and kayaking in Nyanga. These are posing threat to major destinations like Victoria Falls and Great Zimbabwe by taking away some tourists who would have visited them for similar activities. By attracting tourists away from the major destinations, small and emerging destinations are playing a crucial role in spreading tourists throughout the country. This dilution of the major destinations' appeal is important for sustainable tourism development as risk is spread across all destinations within the country. Competition is also good for the customer as it improves quality of service to the customer increasing the tourist's overall tourism experience within Zimbabwe.

Skydiving was launched in 2017 in Victoria Falls to add variety to already existing attractions. It renewed interest from Zimbabweans to visit Victoria Falls just to watch others sky dive. It also offered old clients to Victoria Falls an opportunity to revisit the destination to experience the new attraction. As a result the destination remained popular with returning tourists ensuring sustainability of the destination's appeal.

There were other destinations like mines, protected villages and plantations (tree and sugarcane) among others that were seen as secondary to primary destinations like Victoria Falls, Great Zimbabwe, Kariba and Nyanga. They were not being given much attention by authorities reducing their exposure to tourists and potential investors to modernise them. However, they were slowly becoming popular through promoting tourism in transit towns as complimentary

packages to add value and tour experience for the tourist. There seemed to be consensus among tourism suppliers that; as tourists visit the major destinations, they should pass through these hardly known attractions along the way and experience something new and unique.

Small and new destinations that were located within the vicinity of tourists' source markets and offering cheap tourism services were becoming popular with domestic tourists.

Physical alterations to attractions

There were also notable attractions in the form of physical structural developments at destinations such as the 'Lookout Café' built on the banks of the Zambezi River in Victoria Falls. Looking into the future of the destination and possible emergence of similar facilities, the destination will be transformed from a natural environment into a man-built environment. Evidence from Niagra Falls suggest that continued developments similar to the café are counter sustainable tourism development as the destination losses the natural beauty that characterised it for generations denying future generations of the same.

Tourists are also engaging in damaging activities whose cumulative effects to Victoria Falls could be against sustainable destination development. For example at the Victoria Falls Bridge on security fence attached to the railings meant to safeguard tourists watching the water fall from the bridge, there are locks being locked there (see picture collage below).



Figure 1: Sample locks at Victoria Falls Bridge

Two different schools of thought explain the deposition of locks on bridges. Firstly, it is associated with dissent where the depositor is not happy about something and or express their power over what authorities are demanding of

them (Hammond, 2010). With most messages inscribed on the locks pointing more to love than rage, it seems this thinking does not apply in Victoria Falls. The second ideology was that locks on bridges signal substantial emotions and intrinsically connected with personal love relationship and special events (Houlbrook, 2017). Judging from Hearts drawn on the locks and two names suggest love relationships. Victoria Falls is becoming a symbol of love where tourists in love visit to celebrate their relationships and leave a footprint (lock) on the bridge as a sign of their love for each other. Such depositors always come back to celebrate their relationships assuring the destination of a constant supply of clients into the future.

However, the continued accumulation of locks on the bridge can also be counter sustainable tourism development. The locks create eyesores and may lead to the collapse of the physical structures upon which they are hung depending on the cumulative weight of the locks as was experienced at Paris Bridge that collapsed under the heavy weight of keys deposited by tourists over a number of years (MacDowall, 2014). When the French authorities finally decided to remove them they weighed a massive 45 tonnes which is far more than what the bridge was designed to carry as extra load.

Threats to Attractions

In Zimbabwe there seems to be some reactionary developments whose effects are negatively affecting tourism attractions. Land reform programme which was meant to normalise land allocations that were distorted during colonialism (Moyo, 2011) is one example. However; 'some new farmers ended up in Safari Areas' compromising the tourism resources and conservation efforts and practices. The new farmers 'went for the animals (key tourism attraction) killing them for food and turning the land once reserved for wild animals into agriculture land' limiting land available for tourism purposes.

There were also incidents of aggravated vandalism of tourism resources by community members targeted at tourism items perceived to be against local community values. Examples of such were aptly summarised by one tourism supplier who commented about local people's behaviour when they get to Matopo:

Some people want to deface by writing some stuff on the graves, deface what is written on the graves. Others want to urinate on the graves because they are angry. The political opinions and feelings take a part and this happens mainly with domestic tourists who feel Cecil John Rhodes is their enemy. Local people feel the colonisers killed their Ancestors, Rhodes and his people colonised us and invaded our burial place reserved for respected people. That grossly undermined our power and authority (Tourism Supplier).

The local people felt closely connected to the grave site and were not happy with colonisers being buried there. The views expressed by community members towards a national heritage site seems to portray a relationship between hosts and conservationists built on coercion than mutual participation based on appreciation of tourism value. This is common in developing countries as statism takes centre stage in planning and management with decisions being made at the top and pushed down to the communities for implementation (Midgley, 1987). If this systematic destruction of tourism resources continues, the tourism economic value will go down as less and less tourists would visit such heritage sites.

Destinations like mines that were not developed with tourism in mind do not offer ideal tourism services such as having a tour guide, accommodation or restaurant. In some cases tourists to these places loose 'valuables to muggers now resident at these abandoned mines involved in illegal scavenging of minerals who take advantage of the absence of police in such places'. As a result tourists are no longer comfortable visiting such attractions.

Conclusion

The various stakeholders seem to agree that Zimbabwe as a destination has many smaller destinations within it. At each of the small destinations are unique attractions that makes the core of the destination. However, they noted the need to diversify the attractions at some destinations in order to add value and regenerate the destinations giving them a new lease of life. Concerns were also raised over physical alterations to existing attractions as business people try to innovate and generate more business for themselves. Also threats were noted at some attractions. In conclusion tourism stakeholders perceive the development of tourism attractions in Zimbabwe as being under threat from the need to modernise compromising the long standing quality and quantity the destinations are known for. This also compromises the ability of future generations to enjoy these attractions in their original state.

Future Research

Further research can be carried out in other developing countries especially those in Africa where there seem to be desperate measures by authorities to attract tourists to their attractions. This is despite apparent indications that some of the developments are having negative effects on the tourism industry. Researchers may also want to explore the extent to which each of the unique developments at attractions are affecting the image of the destination in the eyes of the tourists.

Acknowledgements

The authors would want to thank Chinhoyi University of Technology for funding this research.

References

- Asher, C. C., Mahoney, J. M., & Mahoney, J. T. (2005). Towards a property rights foundation for a stakeholder theory of the firm. *Journal of Management & Governance*, 9(1), 5-32.
- Benckendorff, P. J., & Pearce, P. L. (2003). Australian tourist attractions: The links between organizational characteristics and planning. *Journal of Travel research*, 42(1), 24-35.
- Bessière, J. (1998). Local development and heritage: traditional food and cuisine as tourist attractions in rural areas. *Sociologia ruralis*, 38(1), 21-34.
- Brundtland, G. (1987). *Our common future: Report of the 1987 World Commission on Environment and Development*. United Nations, Oslo, 1-59.
- Butler, R. W. (2006). *The tourism area life cycle (Vol. 1): Channel View Publications*.
- Donaldson, T., & Preston, L. E. (1995). The stakeholder theory of the corporation: Concepts, evidence, and implications. *Academy of management Review*, 20(1), 65-91.
- Egels-Zandén, N., & Sandberg, J. (2010). Distinctions in descriptive and instrumental stakeholder theory: A challenge for empirical research. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 19(1), 35-49.
- Freeman, R. E. (1994). The politics of stakeholder theory: Some future directions. *Business ethics quarterly*, 409-421.
- Freeman, R. E. (1999). Divergent stakeholder theory. *Academy of management Review*, 24(2), 233-236.
- Freeman, R. E. (2004). The stakeholder approach revisited. *Zeitschrift für Wirtschafts-und Unternehmensethik*, 5(3), 228-241.
- Hall, C. M. (1989). The definition and analysis of hallmark tourist events. *GeoJournal*, 19(3), 263-268.
- Hammond, C. I. (2010). Renegade ornament and the image of the post-socialist city. *Halb-Vergangenheit. Stadtische Raume und urbane Lebenswelten vor und nach der Wende* [Half-past. Urban space and urban lifestyles before and after the turn] edited by Timea Kovacs, 181-246.
- Houlbrook, C. (2017). Lessons from love-locks: The archaeology of the contemporary assemblage. *Journal of Material Culture*, 1359183517745715.
- Jones, J. L. (2010). 'Nothing is straight in Zimbabwe': The rise of the kukiya-kiya economy 2000–2008. *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 36(2), 285-299.
- Mabvurira, V., Chigevenga, R., Kambarami, F., Chavhi, R., & Nyoni, C. (2017). The realities of children in prostitution in Zimbabwe: A case of Beitbridge and Plumtree border towns. *Child Abuse Research in South Africa*, 18(2), 68-76.
- MacDowall, L. (2014). *Graffiti, street art and theories of stigmergy. The uses of art in public space*. London: Routledge, 33-48.

- Masvawure, T. (2010). 'I just need to be flashy on campus': female students and transactional sex at a university in Zimbabwe. *Culture, health & sexuality*, 12(8), 857-870.
- Midgley, J. (1987). "Popular participation, statism and development". *Journal of Social Development in Africa*, 2(1), 5-15.
- Morrison, A. M. (2013). *Marketing and managing tourism destinations*: Routledge.
- Moyo, S. (2011). Three decades of agrarian reform in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Peasant Studies*, 38(3), 493-531.
- Newsome, D., Moore, S. A., & Dowling, R. K. (2012). *Natural area tourism: Ecology, impacts and management (Vol. 58)*: Channel view publications.
- Omondi, R. K., & Ryan, C. (2017). Sex tourism: romantic safaris, prayers and witchcraft at the Kenyan coast. *Tourism Management*, 58, 217-227.
- Pegas, F. d. V., Weaver, D., & Castley, G. (2015). Domestic tourism and sustainability in an emerging economy: Brazil's littoral pleasure periphery. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(5), 748-769.
- Sirakaya-Turk, E., Ingram, L., & Harrill, R. (2008). Resident typologies within the integrative paradigm of sustaincentric tourism development. *Tourism analysis*, 13(5-1), 531-544.
- Wall, G. (1997). Tourism attractions: Points, lines, and areas. *Annals of tourism Research*, 24(1), 240-243.
- Wasosa, W. (2011). Prostitution in selected colonial and post-colonial Shona novels. *Journal of African Studies and Development*, 3(2), 25-32.
- Zaei, M. E., & Zaei, M. E. (2013). The impacts of tourism industry on host community. *European journal of tourism hospitality and research*, 1(2), 12-21.

THE ROLE OF TOURIST HOTELS IN THE CONSUMPTION OF CULTURAL TOURISM IN TANZANIA- A FOCUS ON TOURIST HOTELS IN KILIMANJARO REGION

Kundy, Andrew Morris
The Open University of Tanzania
andrew.kundy@out.ac.tz

Abstract

Tourism is Tanzania's leading foreign exchange earner, yielding the country over US\$1 billion annually. The industry contributes over 15% of the GDP to the national economy and directly employs around 600,000 people and up to 2 million people indirectly. Tanzania's wildlife resources are considered among the finest in the world and include the Serengeti plains which host the largest terrestrial mammal migration in the world, the Ngorongoro Crater, the world's largest intact volcanic caldera and home to the highest density of big game in Africa, and Africa's highest mountain Kilimanjaro. However, there is a general feeling that the tourism industry in Tanzania needs to avoid over reliance on wildlife and diversify its tourism product base. The industry stakeholders (led by the government) are seeking means and strategies of differentiating the tourism product offering in order to become a destination of choice in international markets. It is with the foregoing in mind that this study focused on investigating the possibility of incorporating cultural tourism as a means of augmenting and diversifying Tanzania's tourism product. This is in view of the fact that the country has a vast ethnic diversity with a total of more than 120 cultural groupings. The study established that many hotels have taken various specific measures in support of cultural tourism including: architectural designs and layouts that depict the surrounding culture; incorporation of local culture in branding and naming of facilities; inclusion of traditional tastes and choices in food; selection of staff uniform based on traditional designs and colors; emphasis on cultural uniqueness in overseas marketing campaigns; and formation of lobby groups seeking government support for cultural tourism.

Keywords: tourist hotels, consumption, cultural tourism

Introduction

The tourism industry in Tanzania is growing at very fast pace and is the leading foreign currency earner. While in 2007, the country received about 644,124 tourists and US \$ 950 million, it received 1,284,279 tourists and more than US \$ 2 billion dollars in 2017 (URT, 2017).

Cultural and creative industries is a prominent beneficiary of rapidly expanding tourism sector worldwide and as such, it has become one of the most increasingly growing sectors in the global economy with a growth rate of 17.6 % in the Middle East, 13.9 % in Africa, 11.9 % in South America, 9.7 % in Asia,

6.9 % in Oceania, and 4.3 % in North and Central America. Expanding the sector requires enough capital investment so that there is a direct impact on vulnerable populations, including women (UNESCO, 2012).

Cultural tourism is a growing sector of tourism worldwide, making up about 37% of all tourism trips in the world (WTO, 2015). Cultural tourism is made up of processes which take into account the ideas and ways of life of people and the outcomes of those processes including buildings, arts, artifacts, customs, beliefs, traditions, habits and values (Richards, 2013).

Cultural tourism programmes initially started as a loose network of five community business groupings of Maasai tribe in the Northern circuit in Tanzania. It was the initiative of a group of young Maasai who solicited assistance from the Netherlands Development Organization in 1994 in order to develop cultural tourism in their villages (Salazar, 2011).

Currently there are about 50 Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTEs) in Tanzania that Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) has helped establishing. Basically the CTEs govern different cultural and natural attractions, activities and provision of services in a given local community. Most CTEs provide cultural experiences consisting of traditional dances/ceremonies, sampling of local cuisine, home-stays, daily homestead chores, handicrafts, community development initiatives, indigenous knowledge, historical heritage, nature walks, and local folklores. (<http://tanzaniaculturaltourism.go.tz/>)

Theoretical Base

Being a component of the hotel industry and a beneficiary of the booming tourism industry, hotels have played a crucial role in cultural tourism consumption. Hotels take specific measures in support of cultural tourism including architectural designs and layout that depicts the surrounding culture, incorporation of local culture and branding and naming facilities, inclusion of traditional tastes and choices in food, selection of staff uniform based on traditional designs and color and emphasis on cultural uniqueness in overseas marketing campaign (Wadawi et al., 2009).

Wadawi et al., (2009) additionally argue that even though hotels are renowned for local culture consumption in that they reflect the authentic experiences and surroundings of their host locality, there have not been adequate studies carried out to explore their actual role in realizing their full potentials. A study conducted by McCarthy (2014) is in support of this argument and calls for more studies to explore the area.

General Objective

The general objective of this research is to establish the role of tourist hotels in culture tourism consumption.

Specific objectives

- To identify the specific measures employed by hotels in local culture consumption
- To assess the challenges facing tourist hotels in employing the specific measures for local culture consumption
- To assess the perception of tourists in their consumption of local culture

Research Methodology

The study Area

Tanzania is a country in eastern Africa within the African Great Lakes region. It borders Uganda to the north; Kenya to the northeast; Comoro Islands at the Indian Ocean to the east; Mozambique and Malawi to the south; Zambia to the southwest; and Rwanda, Burundi, and the Democratic Republic of the Congo to the west. Mount Kilimanjaro, Africa's highest mountain, is in north-eastern Tanzania. Its total area cover is 947,303 km².

Tanzania has more than 50 million people with more than 120 different tribes with a variety of cultures as per 2012 census. The country has a tropical climate with two major rainfall regions. One is uni-modal (December to April) and the other is bi-modal (October-December and March-May). Because the country lies close to the equator, the climate is generally hot and humid and the easterlies winds cause rainfall in the Easter coastal region.

The country is endowed with unique and diverse natural and cultural attractions. These include 16 national parks and world heritage sites such as Zanzibar stone town, Kilwa Kisiwani and Songo Mnara, Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Serengeti National Park, Kilimanjaro Mountain National Park and many others. There are about a hundred 3-5 star tourist hotels in the country and about 50 Cultural tourism enterprises. (Lwoga, 2011).

Study design and Sampling techniques

The research sample was six (6) of Kilimanjaro's 3 to 5 star rated tourist hotels randomly picked from more than ten (10) hotels of the 3 to 5 star category. A playing card method was used to randomly pick the hotels. Twenty (20) tourists randomly picked from each hotel in the sample were interviewed. Ten (10) hotel staff members from each sampled tourist hotel were also picked.

Data collection techniques

Three different data collection techniques were used to collect primary data such as questionnaires, semi-structured interview and observation. However, written materials were used too as secondary data sources.

Primary data collection technique

These are first hand data or data collected at the field.

Semi structured interview

Semi-structured interview technique was used in collecting information from the tourists and hotel staff. This technique has enabled the interviewer to probe for details or discuss issue which are more sensitive due to trust developed among them. Also it is flexible allowing new questions to be brought up during the interview as a result of what the interviewee says and complex information being handled and clarification being done.

Observation

Observation was used as a way of collecting information on how the culture was observably depicted by the hotels for tourist consumption.

Secondary data

This data was collected by the use of literature reviewing techniques that involve uses of written materials or documents.

Also other materials from books, internet, journals, and proceedings paper relevant to the topic were used as supplement on the information that missed during data collection.

Data analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed. Likert scale analysis, descriptive and multiple response analysis were all employed for data collected from each objective.

Findings and Discussions

Specific measures employed by tourist hotels in cultural tourism consumption

Questionnaire was used to get data on this objective but also observation was used to counter check where possible. The responses from each the hotel in regards to the measures each uses in promoting cultural tourism consumption is presented in a table and responses are put in percentages (see table 1 below). Multiple response analysis was employed.

Table 1

Measure	Percentage
Displaying cultural tourism information on hotel notice boards, booklets for offer to tourists and word of mouth	2.73
Facilitating local tours	12.73
Playing local songs	16.26
Cooking local food	30.9
Using Swahili words in naming facilities for branding purposes	9.09
Selling of local culture artisans	10.91
Architectural design and layout	12.73
Selection of staff uniform	5.46

Cooking of local food as a measure has a 30.9 response percentage which is the highest response measure employed by the tourist hotels where as displaying of cultural tourism information on hotel notice boards, booklets for offer to tourists and word of mouth has a 2.73 response percentage which is the lowest. This implies that cooking of local food is employed most by the tourist hotels as a measure of cultural tourism promotion than the rest of the common measures. This bears similarity with Lwoga (2016) and McCarthy (2014) who both cite local food consumption by tourist as the most predominant technique employed by many tourist hotels in the promotion of local culture. This could be because food service is the leading income generating avenue of most hotels and therefore easier to showcase local culture through its offering and ultimate consumption by tourists.

Some of the most famous traditional delicacies offered by tourist hotels include roasted banana and cooked banana and roasted goat meat (ndafu) predominantly consumed by Chagga people as well as Nyakyusa and Haya tribes. Also popularly on offer are ‘‘Ugali’’ and ‘‘Chips Mayai’’.

The challenges faced by the hotels in the promotion of cultural tourism

Data for this objective was collected through interviews with Hotel Managers for each hotel. Data collected was analyzed through multiple response analysis. Results were then presented in a table (see Table 2 below)

Table 2

Challenge	Percentage
Limited space for showcasing cultural tourism artifacts	36.4
Most tourists are interested in experiencing other forms of tourism eg wildlife tourism	21.4
Lack of pro-activeness by locals in collaborating with hotels in selling of products	11.3
Limited time by tourists as they involve themselves with many forms of recreational activities	3.7
Poor communication skills of some hotel staff	17.4
Poor infrastructure to the cultural attraction sites (tours)	8.8

From the results above in table 2, limited space for showcasing cultural tourism artifacts seems to be the leading challenge to hotels in the promotion of cultural tourism. It has 36.35 response percentage among hotel managers through employment of multiple response analysis technique. This implies that to most hotels in Tanzania, displaying of artifacts in facilities is not a priority simply because they are offered by local vendors away from hotels and also because it is not traditionally a basic hotel product like food and rooms. Wadawi et al., (2007) argues that most Kenya tourist hotels have taken an initiative of providing space for showcasing local artifacts for consumption by tourists. Also,

since tourists are normally involved with multiple recreational activities with a relatively short stay then consumption of cultural tourism becomes a challenge. Lwoga (2016) argues that wildlife tourism is the predominant form of tourism enjoyed by most tourists arriving in Tanzania which makes consumption of cultural tourism a relatively challenging phenomenon.

Perception of tourists in regards to cultural tourism consumption in hotels

Data from this objective was collected through questionnaire featured with lickert scale administered to tourists found in the hotels and picked randomly at the time of the study. Data collected was then analyzed through lickert scale analysis. See Table 3

Table 3: Cultural tourism consumption is a necessary experience during hotel stay

	Frequency	Percent
Strongly disagree	19	15.8
Disagree	25	20.8
Undecided	17	14.1
Agree	30	25.0
Strongly Agree	29	24.2

From the results above in Table 3, the tourists when given the statement “cultural tourism consumption is a necessary experience during hotel stay”, about 25% agreed which was the highest count on the lickert scale while only 15.8% disagreed. This implies that a majority of the tourists interviewed (at least 49% agree to the statement) treasure cultural tourism as a form of tourism which can be readily enjoyed by any tourist. I enjoyed cultural tourism consumption during my hotel stay

Table 4

	Frequency	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	28	23.3
Disagree	25	20.8
Undecided	12	10.0
Agree	39	32.5
Strongly Agree	16	13.3

From the results above in Table 4, the tourists when given the statement “I enjoyed cultural tourism consumption during my hotel stay”, 32.5 per cent which is the highest score, agreed with the statement while 10 per cent were undecided. Generally, there is a very small difference between the number of those who were satisfied and those who weren’t. This implies that tourist hotels need to do the needful so as to make tourists enjoy more in the consumption of cultural tourism. McCarthy (2014) argues that, guests are looking for a luxury experience from hotels but oftentimes they are also looking for an authentic cultural experience as well. Furthermore, he adds that guests in locally favored

past-times can reflect the local culture and that even luxury hotels have tapped into these experiences as well.

Conclusions and Recommendations

From this study, the following conclusions can be made;

The study concludes that Tanzania hotels have the essential role in the development of cultural tourism. Again, hotels contribute to national and personal development in a number of ways. They provide employment directly and indirectly. Some of the good hotels and lodges located in the rural areas maintain roads linking them to main roads to the benefit of local population. Hotels also attract other services, which the government would not consider viable to provide to the rural areas such as telephone and electricity. Some of the hotels have built schools and dispensaries that are used by the local communities. In this regard, the presence of hotels in some regions such as Kilimanjaro hotel, Lake Tanganyika Hotel, Keys Hotel, Leopards hotel, Ngurdoto hotel and other famous hotels in Tanzania has actually ignited development by attracting various service providers. Hotels provide recreational facilities such dance halls, entertainment parks and sometimes sport facilities.

There is a very unsatisfactory employment of strategies for the local culture promotion with many of the tourists' hotels missing out on curio shops establishment for souvenirs selling which seems to be the most appealing local culture item to tourists. Also the strategies that have been employed by all of the hotels are not satisfactory and that there is always room for initiation of more strategies as asserted by Wadawi et al (2007) who contend that hotels can play many local culture consumption roles than those mentioned above.

There is a poor training and development of the staff in the tourism and hospitality industry particularly the guides who the study reveals have poor communication skills ability and therefore end up providing poor customer service which leads to poor customer retention as it distorts the image of a company. Some of the hotel managements complained about the inadequacy of tour guides with proficient communication skills claiming that it has always been a source of customers' complaints.

There is unsatisfactory participation of local people in the consumption of local culture as most of the local people are busy engaged in businesses in towns as they are largely unaware that local culture consumption can itself be a business undertaking as it is also profitable. The Maasai people for instance operate scores of cultural bomas in their localities where they display the Maasai culture and also the Makonde people spend much of the time crafting local artisans as compared to the Chagga people who instead only like being employed as waiters, managers, receptionists among other positions not to talk of entrepreneurial roles to which they are particularly famous at The souvenirs which include items like local hats, sandals, bracelet among other handy items

are particularly highly appreciated and sought after by tourists as compared to other local culture items and therefore hotels managements in have ensure that they invest heavily in this avenue as it is very promising and a guarantor of high returns.

Recommendations

Hotels need to invest massively in building or renting of spaces as curio shops for selling souvenirs as it is the most appealing local culture item to most tourists instead of forsaking it for other local culture items like local foods. From the study it is only Keys hotel that has a curio shop and therefore it is highly recommended that other hotels follow suit.

There needs to be more sensitization and awareness creation to the locals on the part of the Government and other stakeholders in the industry so that the locals in the area can be fully committed to local culture consumption as it is also highly rewarding and a means of instill pride to the local people as well.

There needs to be training of guides and other staff in the tourism and hospitality industry as evidenced by the lack of competent tour guides in communication skills in some of the hotels which largely undermines the quality of the customer service provided and hence reduces the possibility of customer retention or repeated business.

Hotels need to perform more of market segmentation and of course undertake many market researches so as to know what the tourists mostly prefer as far as local culture is concerned. It seems that most of the hotels are unaware of the tourist preferences and that is why they keep on complaining about lack of positive response to the local items they are selling every now and then. It is notable that hotels engaged cultural tourism consumption have registered increased domestic tourism, which is able to cushion the tourism system from effects of seasons of low international tourist arrivals.

This research has attempted to justify that indeed hotels play a major role in cultural tourism consumption. The major objective was to stimulate further research in this area of cultural tourism. There is a need for more quantitative approaches in this area of study. There is also a need for more comprehensive assessment of the quality of cultural experiences as well as relative importance of culture when compared with other attractions from the tourists' perspective.

References

- <http://tanzaniaculturaltourism.go.tz> (Accessed on 23rd January 2019, 1900 hrs).
- <http://www.luxurydaily.com/luxury-hotels-capitaliza-on-local-environment-to-rise-above>. (Accessed Carlino, L., Heras, N. A., & Daly, J. (2013).
- Egyptian Military Offensive In The Sinai Follows Tourist Massacre on 27th January 2014, 2100 hrs).

- Chen, C. M., & Lin, Y. L. (2019). The weather and macroeconomic determinants of whale-watching tourism: a Markov regime-switching analysis. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(4), 476-485.
- Fang, B., Ye, Q., & Law, R. (2016). Effect of sharing economy on tourism industry employment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57(3), 264-267.
- Kyando, M., Ikanda, D., & Røskaft, E. (2017). Hotspot elephant- poaching areas in the Eastern Selous Game Reserve, Tanzania. *African Journal of Ecology*, 55(3), 365-371.
- Lwoga (2016), Cultural heritage tourism and the community in Tanzania, University of Dar es Salaam Press
- Lwoga, N.B (2011), Tourism: Meaning: Practices & History, Dar es Salaam University Press
- Mendieta-Peñalver, L. F., Perles-Ribes, J. F., Ramón-Rodríguez, A. B., & Such-Devesa, M. J. (2018). Is hotel efficiency necessary for tourism destination competitiveness? An integrated approach. *Tourism Econ*
- McCarthy (2014), R. (2015). Nature-based tourism and neoliberalism: Concealing contradictions. *Tourism Geographies*, 17(4), 529-543.
- omics, 24(1), 3-26.
- Mintel (2009), International Hotel Industry Report.
- Mariani, M. M., Borghi, M., & Gretzel, U. (2019). Online reviews: differences by submission device. *Tourism Management*, 70, 295-298.
- Moss, D. (2004). *The Tourism Challenge- Africa Perspective* Richmond Publishers, Toronto.
- Mariani, M. M., Borghi, M., & Gretzel, U. (2019). Online reviews: differences by submission device. *Tourism Management*, 70, 295-298.
- Mbwambo, L., Eid, T., Malimbwi, R. E., Zahabu, E., Kajembe, G. C., & Luoga, E. (2012). Impact of decentralised forest management on forest resource conditions in Tanzania. *Forests, Trees and Livelihoods*, 21(2), 97-113.
- Saner, R., Yiu, L., & Filadoro, M. (2019). Tourism development in least developed countries: challenges and opportunities. In *Sustainable Tourism: Breakthroughs in Research and Practice* (pp. 94-120).
- Sakurai, R., Jacobson, S. K., Kobori, H., Primack, R., Oka, K., Komatsu, N., & Machida, R. (2011). Culture and climate change: Japanese cherry blossom festivals and stakeholders' knowledge and attitudes about global climate change. *Biological conservation*, 144(1), 654-658.
- Tourism Western Australia (2006), what is cultural tourism, Western Australia Government office.
- Salazar N.B (2011), Community Based Cultural Tourism: Issues, threats and opportunities, *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*
- UNESCO (2001), Convention for safeguarding Intangible cultural heritage report, New York USA.

LAND DEGRADATION AND ITS IMPACTS ON CULTURAL TOURISM AMONG THE INDIGENOUS PEOPLES IN TANZANIA: A CASE OF THE HADZABE

Henry Sweddy Moshi, Asantiel E. Makundi and Reguli Baltazar Mushy
The Open University of Tanzania
hmoshi10@yahoo.com

Abstract

Land is the most important natural resource among the indigenous peoples in the world. Land provides them most of their requirements in terms of wild game, honey, roots and tubers for their livelihoods. This paper aims at determining the causes of land shrinkage and degradation and its impacts on cultural tourism among the Hadza community in northern Tanzania. Both probability and non probability sampling techniques were used to select the appropriate sample. Primary data was collected through self administered questionnaire, interview and focus group discussions while secondary data was obtained from various reports collected from official document, records at Local Government offices. Satellite imagery analysis was done to establish Hadzabe land cover change over time by using Arc View. The study results revealed that the major problem faced by the Hadza people was the decrease of the land that they originally occupied as more land was taken for large scale farming, pastoralists, settlements and conservation activities which collectively took hunter-gatherers areas leading to degradation and shrinkage. Consequently the Hadza people are compelled to change their indigenous livelihood systems, which adversely impacts cultural tourism activities. It is concluded that the Hadza society deserve to live as free citizen in a free country, exercising and perpetuating their cultural values and traditions with minimum interference, which is a basis for cultural tourism activities. The study recommend that implementation of land management training, structure and support to provide ability to preserve own land and culture whole empowering Hadzabe of Mang'ola and Olpiro/Endulen to mitigate conflicts on land encroachment legally and more peacefully.

Keywords: Land degradation, Indigenous People, Hadza/Hadzabe Cultural Tourism

Introduction

The Hadza, or Hadzabe people, (in the old text syn. Watindiga, Wahi, Hatsa, Kindinga, Kangeju and Hadzapi), (Johnston and Begashowe, 1924; Marlowe, 2010) are an ethnic group in North-central Tanzania, living around Lake Eyasi in the central Rift Valley (Matthiessen, 1972). They are considered to be among the few last people on the world that continue to live as nomadic hunter-gatherers (Gibbons, 2018). They are neighbours to the great Serengeti ecosystem of which

Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) marks its southern boundary (Armitage, 1996; Woodburn 1968 and Marlowe, 2010). The Hadza population is low and was estimated to be between 1,000 and 1,500 (Wood and Marlowe, 2010). Some 300–400 Hadza live as hunter-gatherers, much as their ancestors lived for thousands of years ago (Marlowe, 2010). The Hadza is not closely genetically linked to any other people, (Tishkoff et al. 2007; Lee, 1999).

Before and few years after independence the Hadzabe foraging area was restricted by other ethnic groups and their associated socio-economic activities (Matthiessen, 1972). However, since then this area has been decreasing drastically due to degradation, increasing land clearing for cultivation; pastoralists whose cattle drink their water and graze on their grasslands, professional hunting and pastoralists. The area is also attractive to scholarly anthropologist tourists have been for many years studying various aspects of the evolution of human.

The Hadza society as hunter gatherers are prone to lose the opportunities gained from cultural tourism because of the increasing natural habitat degradation and area reduction due to the changes in land uses. Changes in vegetation (Zahabu and Jambiya, 2008) ultimately affect the composition of wild fauna and flora that are used as food by Hadza people. This community does not engage in social economic activities other than hunting and gathering. Social economic activities like farming, pastoralist and mining cause land degradation and reduction of the area where they formerly get wild food resources which would ultimately attract cultural tourists. There is a high rate of deforestation due to increasing demand for agricultural land and firewood that has destroyed water catchment systems within the Eyasi Basin. The increasing soil infertility vulnerabilities due to land erosion, threatens biodiversity as a result of poorly protected forests its socio-economic significances and implications toward Hadza cultural tourism potential, food security, livelihood and at large their sustainability.

The Hadzabe are the typical example of vulnerable indigenous people who need specific policy attention if they are to survive. On the other hand, indigenous peoples may not have the capacity or access points to engage with high levels of governments to express their needs and contexts and to ask for help when they need it. Since this research is aimed to assess reduction of Hadzabe land due to encroachment and degradation and its implication to Hadzabe cultural tourism development, there is a need to determine the nature and extent of how it has ruined the wildlife conservation as well as Hadzabe area, rendering it less attractive to cultural tourism as it once was.

The Hadzabe community of Tanzania are believed to be the last hunter gatherers in Africa. They have unique culture, language,(local dialect) and artefacts that

are important to be preserved. As the land hungry communities surges Hadzabe land, land policy inconsistency and stigma increases, they have lost most of their traditional land through degradation from various drivers. Under such degradation there might be changes in flora and fauna hence distribution. This community have little or no cash practiced among themselves which now have to seek for other opportunities that will sustain them without compromising their environment/ habitat. Cultural tourism can be the best option but its success greatly depends on the healthy environment that Hadzabe has depended on many centuries immemorial. It needs whistle blowers to speak aloud on Hadzabe land right and protection, if this community is meant to survive the shackles of modern civilization whilst losing their land with no defence at all.

So far there are limited recent detailed studies undertaken to document the degree or plight associated with Hadza land reduction and degradation and its implications on cultural tourism development. There is a need to determine abundance/ diversity and distribution of the types of fauna and flora used by Hadza on which will determine if cultural tourism development is feasible and sustainable under current situation of land degradation and shrinkage. This paper therefore presents the causes and extent of land degradation and land-use changes of the Hadzabe land and its implication on cultural tourism in Karatu and Ngorongoro districts.

Materials and Methods

The Study Area

This study was conducted in Karatu and Ngorongoro districts in northern Tanzania, covering Mang'ola and Endulen wards respectively. The study villages for this were Olpiro (Endulen ward) and Endamagghay (Mangola ward). In these villages the Hadza people are affected by the degradation and shrinkage of their land due to socio-economic and political activities such as pastoralism, hunting/poaching, tourism and villagilization, as well as large farming activities. This Hadza territory lies between latitudes 3°20'- 4°05' S and longitudes 34°50'- 35°30' E (Mabulla, 1996).

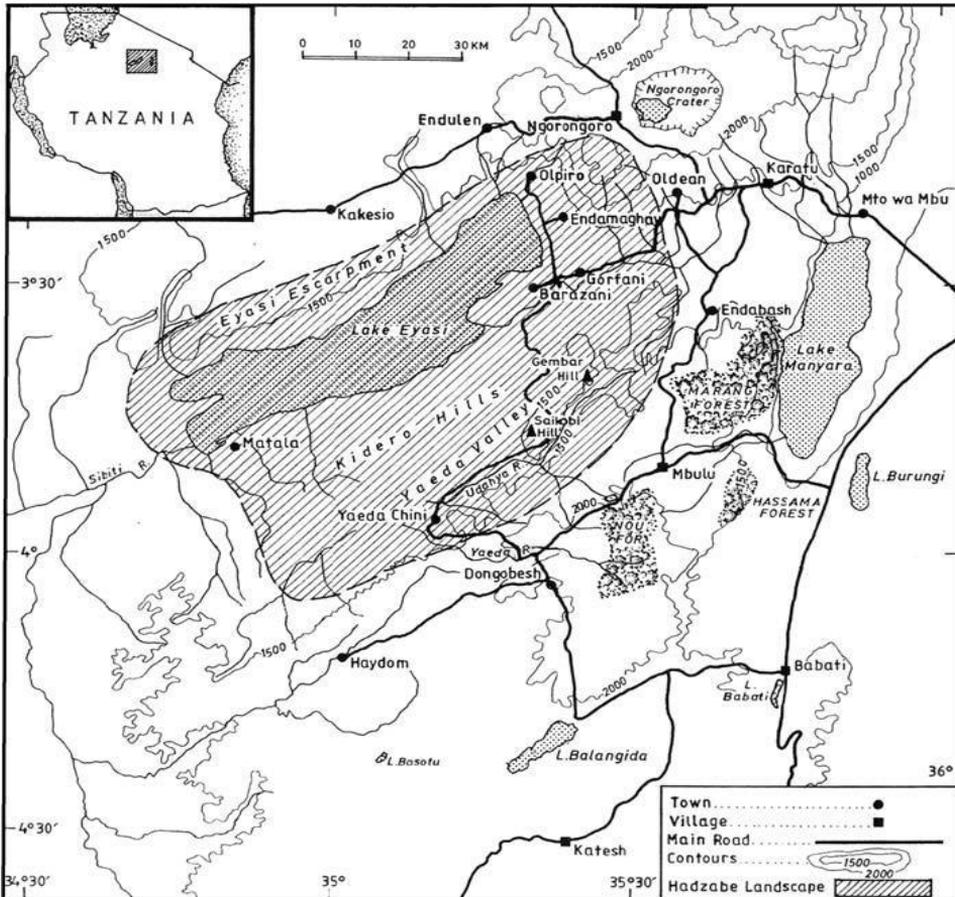


Figure 1: Map of north-central Tanzania showing the Eyasi Basin, the Hadza Hunter-forager landscape (Source: Adopted from Mabulla, 2007).

It is located about 200 km southwest of Arusha town and 50 km southwest of Karatu town. It is about 50km from Olduvai Gorge an area sometimes called a Cradle of mankind and 30km from the Prehistoric site of Laitole footprints. The nearby town to Olpiro village is Mang'ola which is 22km from East. The village can be reached from Karatu town via Endamaghay which is 85km east and from Ngorongoro Conservation Headquarters passing through Endulen-Embarway route through Rift valley escapement which is 54 Km. The village is bordered by Endulen and Osinoni villages in the northwest, Endamaghay and Makhoromba villages in the East and in the South it is bordered by the shores of Lake Eyasi.

Research Design

A Cross-sectional research design was employed in this study as it allows studying different groups of respondents at one point at a time (Bailey, 1994). A combination of probability and non-probability sampling techniques were used

to select the appropriate respondents. The study areas had eight camps and six were picked for interview. Systematic sampling and Simple random sampling was used to select camps and respondents respectively, as well as farmers and pastoralists. Purposive and judgmental sampling technique were used to select key informants such as District and Ward community development officer, Ward Executive Officer and Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority representative, tour companies, health facilities, Game wardens; extension and development officers working in the study area.

Data was collected using face to face administered questionnaires employed to the heads of households; indepth interviews with key informants, focus group discussions and observations. A total of 55 respondents were interviewed using the questionnaires which aimed at finding out major forces to land degradations and their consequences to Hadza society as hunter gatherers with respect cultural tourism among others. The magnitude of Hadzabe indigenous land alienation, degradation and land use changes was studied by remote sensing technique using satellite imagery of the past 26 years from 1987 to 2014 obtained from the Institute of Resources Assessment of the University of Dar es Salaam. The range and expansion/incursion by other communities and institutions was obtained from wards/village councils' population growth records for the past 30 years. Reduction of natural Hadza foods in terms of quantity and quality and distribution recorded over the same period.

This study used descriptive statistics and inferential statistic on data analysis. Quantitative data collected was analyzed through SPSS and produced frequencies, mean, resulting into figures such as histograms, pie charts and graphs which were used to assess respondents' characteristics and present key finding of the study. Qualitative data collected through discussion with key informants were analyzed by using content analysis. This was to give summary of each topic discussed and identify the content of discussion. Contingency tables were used to establish relationships between various community opinions by gender in which Fisher's exact test was used as the analytical tool (Zar, 1999).

Results and Discussions

Demographic Characteristics of respondents

Majority of respondents for this study were young adults ranging between 15 and 25 years. Males dominated the respondents constituting about 78% and most of them were farmers and livestock keepers. Majority of respondents had acquired primary level education (Table 1).

Table 1: Socio-economic characteristics of respondents

Variables		Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age group in years	15 -25	20	48.8
	26 – 35	13	31.7
	36 – 45	8	19.5
Total		41	100
Sex	Male	32	78
	Female	9	22
Total		41	100
Occupation	Black Smith	2	4.9
	Hunter gatherers	39	95.1
Total		41	100
Marital Status	Married	33	80.5
	Single	6	14.6
	Widow	2	4.9
Total		41	100
Education Level	Primary Education	29	70.7
	Secondary Education	3	7.3
	Higher Education	0	0
	None	9	22
Total		41	100

The age groups notably ranging from 15 to 45 include mostly those who are a bit or fluent in Swahili language which was used in the questionnaires. The surrounding / interacting community forms the agro-pastoral and black smith activities (Datoga) while Hadza remain exclusive hunter gatherers with sporadic engagement in cultural-tourism.

Major Problems Facing the Hadza Community

The results from interviews with the key Hadza respondents showed the major problem that they were facing was decrease of the land area that they originally occupied. They insisted that diminishing and shrinking of Hadza traditional hunting and foraging zone was primarily due to immigrants that have inhabited the Hadza area who kept livestock while others made charcoal and in this respect cutting down trees that are habitats for wild animals as well as honey bees foraging grounds. Use of Agro-chemicals adjacent to the remaining Hadza land is likely to cause significant drop of wild honey bees. In addition, the honey harvested is likely to contain toxicants accumulated along food chain hence honey quantity and quality would also be threatened in this perspective.

The second problem Hadza community were facing was the water scarcity. In the discussion the members confessed to have great shortage of water due to primarily most water being used for irrigation, increased human population, and increased livestock and to some extent climate change. At times Hadza use roots (The roots called hatibi in Hadza) as source of water. Deforestation was a third

common feature in the Hadza land where intruding immigrants cut down trees for the purpose of lumbering and charcoal making.

The Extent of Land use Change and Shrinkage of the Hadza Land

Results for land use changes and the shrinkage of Hadza land for the past 26 years are shown in Figures 1 and 2 and Table 2. The study revealed that the Hadza indigenous land does no longer exist because most of it is permanently being occupied by pastoralist Datoga who also practice scattered farming, which is evidently proved by observation, personal interview and satellite images analysis. The overall findings from satellite imageries shows that between 1987 and 2013 there was significant increase of areas that is under cultivation that led to the observed decrease in bush-land, grassland and woodland.

The land cover change has been largely affected by farming on the expense of forests, grasslands, water sheds, bare land and bush-lands all important to survival of wild flora used as food sources for Hadza and animals as well. There has been an increase of cultivated land at the expense of grass and bush land, woodland and forestland. Figure 1 (A and B) presents the land use patterns and the magnitude of shrinkage of Hadza land since late fifties. Such land use alteration can be significantly manifested on the health of the ecosystem. Worse still there is intrusion by livestock herders, charcoal makers, and scattered farming in the remaining areas. Table 2 further presents how the Hadza land have changed since 1987 to 2013 indicating gains and losses for the period of 26 years, the area has witnessed significant increase of farming and scattered farming, while grasslands and woodlands have decreased to a very large extent.

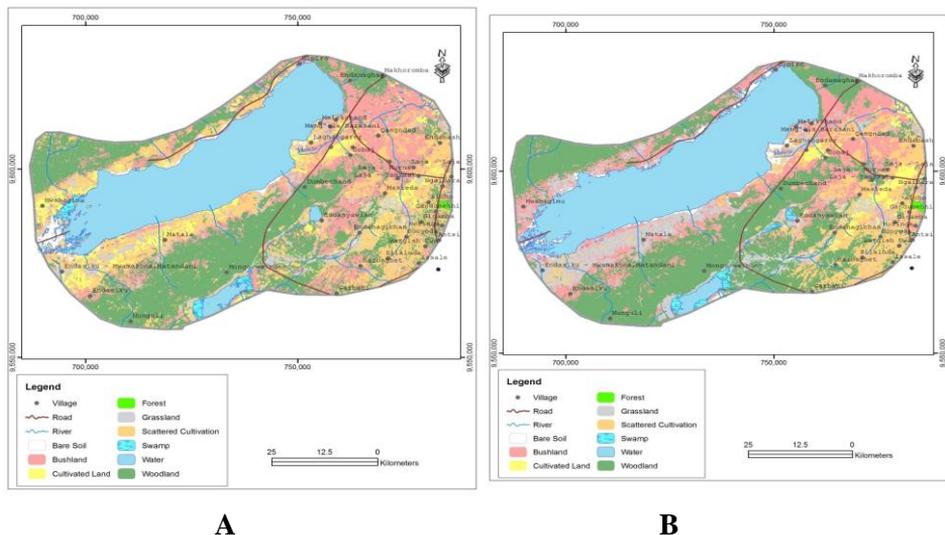


Figure 1 (A and B): Land use patterns and the resultant effects of land use changes in the span of time from 1987 to 2013

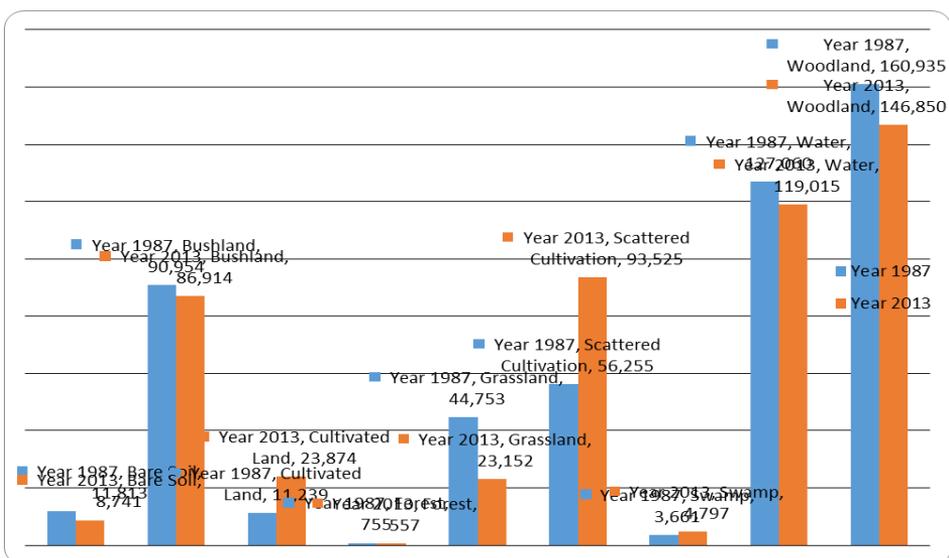


Figure 2: Hadza Land as Losses and Gains from 1987 to 2013
(Source: GIS Lab. IRA, 2014)

Table 2: Land Cover Change and Net-Loss and Gains

Land Use/ Cover Types	Land Cover				Land Cover Change	
	Year: 1987		Year: 2013		1987-2013	
	Ha	%	Ha	%	Ha	%
Bare Soil	11,813	2	8,741	2	-3,072	-1
Bush land	90,954	18	86,914	17	-4,040	-1
Cultivated Land	11,239	2	23,874	5	12,635	2
Forest	755	0	557	0	-198	0
Grassland	44,753	9	23,152	5	-21,601	-4
Scattered Cultivation	56,255	11	93,525	18	37,270	7
Swamp	3,661	1	4,797	1	1,136	0
Water	127,060	25	119,015	23	-8,045	-2
Woodland	160,935	32	146,850	29	-14,085	-3
	507,425	100	507,425	100		

Causes of Hadza land shrinkage

Survey results indicate that the main cause of land shrinkage and degradation of the Hadza land in deforestation and agricultural activities (Table 3)

Table 3: Causes of Degradation at Hadza Land

Causes of degradation	Frequency	Percentage
Agriculture activities	13	31.71%
Deforestation	23	56.1%
charcoal making	4	9.75%
livestock keeping	1	2.43%

Due to land degradation and shrinkage of the Hadza land, food sources are becoming scarce and hence foraging and hunting is at present a cumbersome endeavour. For instance, at Olpiro village it was observed that collection of fruits such as *Grewia bicola* (Figure 3), women spends about 8 hours (from 7.00 a.m. and came back to camp at 3.20 p.m.) to get a handful of the fruits for her family. Due to the accompanied scarcity of fruits, tuber and roots near camps, Hadza women are compelled to walk more than 7 km. Daily in search of these food sources. These natural foods can be of utmost importance for visitor attraction regarding their nutritional values.



Figure 3: Various Fruits, Berries and Roots Commonly Used by the Hadza
(Source: Murray et al., 2001)

Discussions

It is evident from the present study that Hadza land has been subjected to shrinkage and degradation recently, stemming from early immigration of pastoral and agro-pastoral ethnic groups that surged to seek for pastures and

land for tilling (Ehret 1974; Ochieng 1975; Ambrose 1982; Sutton 1992). Lack of proper land tenure system existing in many nations, Tanzania included, has rendered weaker ethnic groups, particularly the indigenous groups such as the Hadza vulnerable to their rights on land uses. Formerly livestock keepers were the first to intrude the Hadza land. However, in the recent years pastoralists are being replaced by farming and scattered farming (Woodburn, 1962). Hadza area which measured almost 6440 square kilometres in late fifties have been greatly reduced. This shrinkage adversely impacts on the Hadza livelihoods systems as well as their unique culture, which is one of cultural tourism attractions.

Culture is a main 'pull factor' which influences visitors' initial decision to travel to destinations in diverse parts of the world. Thus in most regions of the world, predominantly in Europe and North America, cultural attractions have become significant in the development of tourism. At the global level, cultural attractions are usually perceived as being icons of vital streams of global culture (Richards, 2001). All the same in most Tanzania/African countries, the rich and diverse indigenous cultures (i.e., the living heritage of the Tanzania/African people), with Africa's multiplicity of ethnic material and non-material culture has not been developed for tourism. Nevertheless, the diverse indigenous Tanzania/African cultures can be apparent as having a dormant proportional advantage in the development of cultural tourism because they possess unique cultural and nature based lures. These are the very tourist fascinations which people from key tourist generating countries are looking for.

Hadzabe land has numerous items to offer in terms cultural tourism in the sense that their way of life have not changed much compared to any other. As hunters, they live naturally in harmony with the environment utilising what nature can offer without threatening it. Interested visitors can have the opportunity to share activities which Hadzabe community do day in day out such as; fruit, roots, tubers gathering which they can taste, or share the recipes preparations , hunting, fire making by friction using sticks, dancing, collection of traditional medicinal herbs, arrow targeting decoys etc. Hadzabe natural foods are highly nutritious for having adequate crude digestible proteins, crude fibre, digestible carbohydrates and vitamins. With increasing supply of cultural attractions there is stiff competition among attractions at the local, regional and international level. "Tourists will not come lest their needs are met." This means that it is important to recognise the structure and development of the cultural tourism fair. This goes hand in hand good infrastructure such as all year round passable roads, promotional materials such as brochures, leaflets etc. Customer care should be carefully observed to create good image of the Hadzabe community and the nation at large. In turn, Hadzabe community and others will benefit in a number of ways from the tariffs paid by the visitors. Guides leading tourists in the walking safaris can also benefit personally if given tips.

Culture deserves to be treated on progressive plain than other human forms because it is so central to defining who we are as a species. It is the distinguishing characteristic of humankind and its barriers. We must, consequently, elevate this focus on cultural tourism to the status of a “well-regarded trust” and not view it simply as another economic enterprise to be exploited in less than a moral manner. Land degradation ought to be checked with all efforts to preserve the Hadzabe land to increase its ecological value hence cultural tourism. Only through active participation by all stakeholders in the tourism scheme will success be achieved the development in cultural tourism.

With regard to Hadza land shrinkage, our findings correspond to the study by Urio and Kanyama (2015) who found that 35% of surveyed respondents in Mbulu district had felt land shrinkage, resulting from encroachment by farmers, pastoralists and timber loggers. On the other hand, PINGOS (2013) indicate that between 1990 and 2010 grasslands had decreased by 11%, whereas the cultivated area increased by 15%. These changes have adversely impacted the Hadza livelihoods through loss and/or decrease of honey, wildlife, local fruits and other food sources (Bill and Warren, 2007).

The relationship between land degradation and cultural tourism can be reflected in the shortage of food animals and plants in Hadzabe community habitat. Degraded land cannot support plant life and in turn animal life. Wooded shrub land and grass lands are best habitat for wild animals which Hadza community lives in and likely to attract cultural tourism, because the tourists will be more fascinated and satisfied finding them in their true natural habitat.

From the findings of this study it is evident that all these rich cultural tourism attractions from the Hadza people are being jeopardized by land degradation and shrinkage of the Hadza land. Unless actions are taken to curb the situation, it is no wonder that in few decades to come the indigenous people’s culture such as the Hadza will no longer exist, adversely affecting cultural tourism initiatives in the country.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Adequate and safe food availability in Hadza land is foremost important issue, followed by other basic human requirements like good shelter with other development indicators like health and education. Their ethno-cultural activities and traditions to be respected and in a broader perspective the right of their traditional land where degradation has caused loss of essential flora and fauna. Regions on the periphery of global economy are asserting their identity as means of preserving cultural identity and developing their socio-economic potential (Ray 1998).

Recommendations can be based on the conditions existing within the Hadza propinquity (surrounding environment) or with regard to existing situation in the nation's policy on marginalised societies. From this perspective Hadza challenges can be turned to opportunities by the assistance from the existing expertise of a given technology and indeed philanthropy towards addressing Hadzabe land degradation and shrinkage issue. Cultural tourism is an activity which is environmentally and culturally friendly venture that can be used to rejuvenate what little is left for this community in terms of land, culture and traditions.

Tourism has been steadily progressing within Hadza communities, largely due to the underlying fact that their core areas are adjacent to most visited tourist attractions in East Africa such as the Ngorongoro Conservation Area and the giant Serengeti National Park, and the advancing interest in cultural tourism. NCAA and TANAPA being government affiliated organizations can at large stimulate cultural tourism among Hadzabe through promotions of the Hadzabe culture and traditions just as they have done with the Maa societies within and around protected areas. Through this, hundreds of people will go visit Hadzabe around Lake Eyasi as they travels around the northern circuit of Tanzania's protected areas. In the course of this a fraction tourists can venture further into Hadzabe camps around the Northern zone of Lake Eyasi.

Given the current situation as outlined in this paper and given short term prospects for reversing this situation, any type of action has to recognise the fact that it will be a long-term procedure needing long-time obligation to its resolution requiring flexibility and an ability to adjust to changing situations. Increasing land stresses, declining and /or inappropriate government services and failure to treat Hadzabe on equivalent terms to other Tanzanians have all contributed to make the situation challenging from a number of perspectives explored i.e. revising discriminatory processes and reversing the policy environment.

References

- Ambrose, S.H. (1982). Archaeology and linguistic reconstruction of history in East Africa. In C. Ehret and M. Posnansky (Eds.) *Archeological and Linguistic Reconstruction of African History*, pp. 104-157. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Andrew, M. (ed) (2000). *The Hadzabe of Tanzania: land and human rights for a hunter-gatherer community*. Copenhagen: International Work Group for Indigenous Affairs. Centraltry Kkeriet A/S Copenhagen, Denmark Pp 225.
- Armitage, D.R. (1996). *Environmental Management and Policy in a Dryland Ecozone: The Eyasi-Yaeda Basin, Tanzania* Author(s): *Ambio*, 25(6), 396-402.

- Bill F. and Warren G., (2007). Landscapes in Transition: understanding hunter-gatherer and farming landscapes in the early Holocene of Europe and the Levant.
- Gibbons, A. (2018). Hadza on the brink. *Science* 360(6390), 700-704
- Johston, H. H. and F. J. Bagshawe (1924). Peoples of the Happy Valley (East Africa) Part:I. *Journal of the Royal African Society*, 24: 25-33.
- Lee, R.B (1999). *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Hunters and Gatherers*. Daly Richard Heywood: Cambridge University Press. Great Britain. Pp 1670
- Mabulla, A. Z. P (2007), Hunting and Foraging in the Eyasi Basin, Northern Tanzania: Past, Present and Future Prospects, *Afr Archaeol Rev* (2007)24:15–33. Springer Science + Business Media, LLC 2007
- Marlowe, F. W. (2010). The Hadza: Hunter-Gatherers of Tanzania. *Berkeley: Univ. Human Nature* 15: 364–375.
- Matthiessen, P. (ed)(1972). *At Gidabembe. The tree where man was born*. Cpt.10. Williams Collins Sons & Co. Ltd, Great Britain. Pp 193- 232.
- Murray, S. S. Schoeninge, M J., Bunn H. T. a, Pickering, T.R and Marlett J. A. (2001). Nutritional composition of some wild plant foods and honey used by hadza foragers of Tanzania. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis*. 14(1): 3–13.
- Ochieng, W.R. (1975). *An Outline History of the Rift Valley of Kenya Up to AD 1900*. Kampala, Nairobi, Dar es Salaam: East African Literature Bureau.
- PINGOS (2013). Impact of climate Change on Land Use patterns and Livelihoods of pastoralists and Hunter Gathers. A case of Mbulu, Hanang, Kiteto and Simanjiro Districts. PINGO's Forum-Tanzania
- Sutton, J. E.G. (1990). *A Thousand Years of East Africa*. Nairobi: British Institute in East Africa.
- Urio, J. and Kanyama, A. (2015) The Challenges Facing the Hadzabe Community in Adapting to Land Use Changes and Climate Change Variability in Mbulu District, Tanzania. *International Journal of Modern Social Sciences* 4(1): 57 – 70.
- Wood B. and Marlowe F. (2011): Dynamics of post marital among the Hadza: a kin investment model. *Human Nature: An Interdisciplinary Biosocial Perspective*. DOI 10.1007/s12110-011-9109-5.
- Wood B.M and Marlowe F. (2013): Household and Kin Provision by the Hadza. *Human Nature*. 24(3): 280-317.
- Woodburn, J. (1968). An introduction to Hadza ecology. In R.B. Lee and I. DeVore (Eds.) *Man the Hunter*. Chicago: Aldine, pp 49-55.
- Zahabu, E. & Jambiya, G. (2008): Community Based Forest Management and Carbon Payment: Real Possibilities for Poverty Reduction. *Arc Journal Issue* 21:102-123.

ASSESSMENT OF TANZANIA TOURISM POLICY OF 1999 IN ADDRESSING THE NEEDS OF PEOPLE WITH DISABILITY

Nasra Kara
Open University of Tanzania
Nasra.kara@out.ac.tz

Abstract

It is known that Tanzania is blessed with multiple tourist attractions. However, the existence of these strengths alone will not guarantee successful accessible tourism if the needs of people with disability are not included in the policy. The inclusion of the needs of this target group is a guarantee for the tourism sector to fully achieve equality and equity, which are pillars of sustainable tourism development. This paper critically addresses the weaknesses of the existing national Tourism policy of 1999 in addressing issues of people with disability in its specific policy strategies such as marketing and product development, cultural tourism as well as domestic tourism. The policy has clearly addressed the roles of women, youth and aged people in its various strategies but it ignore issues of people with disabilities. The needs of this target group need to be featured clearly in the policy as this will raise awareness of their existence hence boost the morale for tourism stakeholders to develop effective mechanisms to accommodate them. This is a literature review paper where the Policy was reviewed closely with other relevant literature. In the end, recommendations were highlighted to help policymakers to understand the behaviour of this target group.

Keywords: Policy, Strategy, Tanzania

Introduction

Globally, tourism is one of the largest economic sectors (WTTC, 2018). The significance of this sector to the world economy cannot be ignored because the sector currently is ranked second to the banking industry. It accounts for 10.4% of the global GDP and supports approximately 313 million jobs which are almost 10% of the total employment supported in 2017. In Tanzania, tourism plays an important role in the country's economic development (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2018). For instance, in 2018 the sector supported 795,000 jobs compared to 446,000 jobs supported in 2017 (WTTC, 2018). The sectors' contribution to GDP in 2016 was 9.1% compared to 9.0% generated in 2017. It is further expected that the sector will significantly account for 10.1% of GDP in 2028 (WTTC, 2018). This sector is reported to be one of the key sectors in alleviating poverty to low-income earners community (Yusuf and Ali, 2018).

Socially, tourism generally has a tendency of bringing people together through their involvement in the sector (Edusei et al., 2015). Unfortunately, the involvement and the participation of people with disability in the tourism industry have been limited. This target market has been ignored (Florence, 2018) partly because service providers such as travel Agents have little knowledge to cater to their needs (McKercher et al., 2003). Also travel officers and tourism site managers are not willing to serve travellers with disabilities (Daniels, Rodgers and Wiggins, 2005) because they believe that the demand for this target market is weak (Shi, Cole and Chancellor, 2012). As a result, the industry is failing to fully accommodate the varying needs of people with disabilities (Zajadacz, 2014), this is why even the studies of people with disability in tourism are very limited (Shi, Cole and Chancellor, 2012).

Worldwide, it has been estimated that there are over 650 million people living with disabilities (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011). This may not be the exact number because of the lack of statistical data on disabled people in most of the countries. However, it is expected that the figure will exceed 650 million people to reach 1.2 billion people by the end of 2020 (Darcy et al., 2008). The significant number is expected to be high in developing countries especially Asia (Chikuta, du Plessis and Saayman, 2018). In Tanzania, the National Population and housing data of 2012 estimated that the country has 2,641,802 people with disabilities which are equivalent to 5.8% of all citizens. The data specifically highlighted that about 0.04% are people with albinism, 1.93% can't see, 0.97% had hearing issues, 1.19% had mobility issues, 0.74 covered those who can't help themselves, 0.91% covered those with mental issues and the remaining 0.23% covered those with other forms of disabilities.

In Tanzania, the tourism sector is guided by the tourism policy. The policy offers clear guidelines, plans, actions to guide governments' decisions to achieve their goals. The Tourism policy of 1999 highlights the sector-specific policies that aim to attain sustainable tourism development. The policy also explains the governing bodies responsible for handling various tourism divisions and the role they play in making sure that the sector attains its objectives. Tanzania adopted her first national policy in 1991 which aimed at setting clear objectives to attain sustainable tourism development. The Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) is a government organization that is responsible for formulating and implementing tourism policy actions and strategies. It also deals with regulating and encouraging private sectors to be actively involved in the facilitation of tourism products and services in the country. After the introduction of the policy, the Tanzania Tourism Board (TTB) was established which strengthened the role of the private sector in the development of the tourism sector. The first tourism policy focused mainly on strengthening the private sector participation which contributed to the approval of various tourism projects with Tanzania Investment Centre (TIC) initially known as the investment promotion centre (URT, 1999; Anderson, 2010).

Seven years later the policy was reviewed by the MNRT. Social, political, economic, technological changes, as well as stiff competition in the industry, were among the reasons why the policy was reviewed (Lwoga, 2013). Furthermore, Agenda 21 related to sustainable tourism development, the 1992 Rio Declaration on Environment and Development were among the push factors influencing the review of the 1991 policy. The new policy was introduced in 1999 aimed at smoothening the Ministry's functions of promoting the economy and improving the livelihood of people by alleviating poverty, encouraging sustainable development and providing quality tourism that is social, culturally, ecologically, environmentally and economically viable (URT, 1999, p.5).

The existing policy is guided by four specific objectives. The economic objective aimed broadly at increasing tourism revenue, generating employment opportunities, improving infrastructures, improving linkages among destination management organizations, strengthening regional and international tourism linkages as well as stimulating the transfer of technology for the development of the industry. Socially, the policy aimed at promoting cross-cultural exchange, creating awareness to the public regarding the importance of this sector also to develop transparent and effective legal framework guiding the tourism sector. Environmentally, the sector aimed at promoting the sector that is ecologically and environmentally sustainable. While culturally, the policy intends to develop cultural values, awareness of the existing cultural attractions as well as preserving the country's cultural resources for future generations. In order to implement these objectives, several specific strategies such as marketing and product development, cultural tourism and domestic tourism, eco-tourism, international and regional cooperation, land for tourism, financing, competition, legislation and institutional participation were developed.

This study specifically aimed at addressing the weaknesses of tourism product development strategy, marketing strategies, domestic tourism strategies and cultural tourism strategies in accommodating the needs of people with disabilities. These strategies were selected because they are important in addressing the visitors' needs but also deal with promoting and attracting visitors to various tourist attractions. This study is important because currently the National Tourism Policy of 1999 is being reviewed with the intention of aligning it with innovations and improvements that are taking place in the industry with the intention of attracting more visitors. It is the right time for policymakers to include issues of PWD in the new reviewed policy so that the issues of innovations and improvements can go in hand with the needs of this emerging market. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, this is the first study that addressed the needs of PWD in connection with the National Tourism Policy of 1999 in Tanzania.

Method

This paper is based on a literature review. Articles have been searched using Google scholar search engine with the following keywords used alone or in combinations. Accessible tourism, tourism, infrastructure, inclusive design, accessible facilities, people with disabilities, accessible information, accessible accommodation, cultural tourism, nature-based tourism, Tourism Policy, Accessible Transport, Domestic Tourism and Tanzania. Critical evaluation of the Tourism Policy was done hand in hand with other policies and strategies such as Persons with Disability Act of 2010, International Marketing strategies of 2012-2016, National Transport Policy of 2003, Transport Sector Investment Programme of 2007/8-2011/12, The 2017 Tourism Statistical Bulletin, and International visitors exit survey report of 2018. Most of the existing disability studies have been done in Asian contexts such as Hong Kong, Jakarta Europe such as Poland, North America such as the USA, and few in the context of Africa particularly Tanzania. Content analysis was employed to analyze content and concepts in the studies. This technique is a common data analysis method in the social sciences (Berg, 2009). The researcher further identifies that this method involves a careful, detailed, systematic assessment and interpretation of a particular body of material with the intention of identifying patterns, themes, biases and meanings. The technique identifies the meaning of the text and therefore maintains a qualitative textual approach (Silverman, 2006; Elo and Kyngäs, 2007). The advantage of this method is that it offers a replicable methodology if done properly (Duriiau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007), it is analytically flexible (Duriiau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007), can be employed as inductive or deductive research approach (Elo and Kyngäs, 2007) and through the use of this method, different levels of analysis can be performed using qualitative or quantitative approaches via longitudinal research designs (Duriiau, Reger and Pfarrer, 2007). In the area of tourism, a significant number of studies have employed this technique. The analysis was performed to contextualize interpretations of the reviewed articles to produce valid, reliable and trustworthy findings. In this study, fourteen areas of articles were analyzed manually and separately to obtain data for this study. Within this method, critical analysis related to the weaknesses of the existing tourism policy of 1999 in highlighting the needs of people with disabilities was performed hand in hand with the reviewed tourism articles that were published to address the behaviour and needs of PWD all across the globe.

Accessible Tourism

Accessible tourism refers to the process of ensuring that transport, accommodation, destinations and tourist attractions across the tourism system are available to support the needs of PWD (Buhalis and Darcy, 2011). It is a type of tourism that needs collaborative efforts between stakeholders to establish universally designed tourism products, services and environments to support people with access needs including mobility, vision, hearing and cognitive

impairments to function independently with dignity (Buhalis and Darcy, 2010). In this study, accessible tourism is defined as a form of tourism that offers accommodation, tourism information, physical environment, infrastructure, communication, universally designed tourism products and services accessible to people with access requirements.

Definition of Disability

Disability is a very complex terminology; this is why there is no common definition of this concept. Disability is regarded as an umbrella including impairments, activity limitations and participation restrictions (WHO, 2019). For the purpose of this study, the term disability refers to a social construct that result from persons with physical, mental, hearing, visual impairment, albinism and other forms of hidden impairments that limit an individual from taking part in any of the tourism activities.

People with Disability (PWD)

People with disabilities are viewed as those “having long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may limit their full and effectiveness in society on an equal basis with others” (Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006, Art.1). In this study, people with disability are those with long term physical, mental, hearing, visual impairment, albinism and other hidden impairments that limit their ability to visit tourist attraction sites like abled persons.

Tourism product development strategies

It is one of the strategies that were highlighted in the policy. This strategy's intention was designed to make sure that the existing tourism products and infrastructures are well developed and accessible. It is recognized that Tanzania is one of the East African countries endowed with abundant tourist attractions that are available all over the country. As a result, a country was able to attract a significant number of international tourists from different parts of the world and make the country to be known as one among the competitive tourist's destination in Sub-Saharan Africa. For example, in 2017 Tanzania hosted a total of 1,327,143 international visitors compared to 1,284,279 received in 2016 (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2018), where most of the visitors were from Kenya, United States of America, United Kingdom, Burundi and Germany. Despite their existence, these attractions are not easily accessible and this is due to poor infrastructures.

Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2018) reported that the existing road conditions and other infrastructures are still of poor quality. This affects visitors' arrivals in various tourist sites as most of the existing major means of transport such as roads are rough. The successful tourism industry is largely dependent on the quality of infrastructure. Availability of efficient and well-functioning

telecommunications systems such as air, land, water transport, telecommunication system, electricity as well as water supply is crucial for the sectors' development as their existence assures accessibility, efficiency and customer satisfaction. However; the policy has remained silent on highlighting whether the existing infrastructure accommodates the needs of people with disabilities. On the other hand, other policies such as Persons with Disability Act (2010,p.29) indicates that “the head of a public body shall, as far as practicable; ensure that the whole or part of a tourism facility or activity to which the public has access is accessible to persons with disabilities”. This shows that this target group is entitled to travel and take part in any social or leisure activities just like an abled person. Therefore, their participation should have been captured in the tourism policy of 1999.

Disabled people have been facing different kinds of discriminations. This condition has significantly affected their participation in social life. Limitations inaccessibility to public spaces and infrastructure systems are among the major turnoff factors affecting their lives. To them, a major part of their lives is affected by the existing barriers in the infrastructure systems. Those disabled people who are willing and able to work may fail to do so because of inadequate accessible transportation (Baris and Uslu, 2009). Some may fail to shop, socialize or take part in recreational activities for the same reason. In the context of Tanzania, the government has done a good job of improving infrastructures. Significant changes have been seen in the renovated roads both in rural and urban areas. The establishments of flyovers, the introduction of rapid bus transit, improvement in water, and air transport are amongst the few fruits that the citizens of Tanzania are enjoying. Despite such development, Tanzania is still suffering from inadequate, inefficient infrastructures and facilities to support the needs of people with disabilities. The existing tourist attraction sites are scattered all over the country and the available infrastructures are not easily accessible to all travellers. This has also been supported by Cameron, Darcy and Foggin (2003) that most of the tourist sites are facing many challenges that limit them to accommodate PWDs. This is caused by the fact that tourism structures and environment are not accessible (Buhalis and Darcy, 2010) to allow PWDs to take part in leisure activities.

Issues of disability needs with regards to transport system were clearly outlined by the transport sector investment programme (TSIP) of 2007/08 to 2011/12 that the development of the transport should take into account issues of disadvantaged groups including women & children, disabled people as well as rural communities. A similar issue was also highlighted in the National Transport Policy of 2003. One of the policy objectives is to have an efficient and effective transport system that is convenient to assist movements of the disadvantaged group. The policy further recognizes that the existing transport system is incapable of handling the needs of the disadvantaged group hence, it

was suggested that the government work together with other key stakeholders to make sure that they develop a mechanism of handling this issue. In addition to that, the policy openly suggested that there should be appropriate and acceptable vehicle designs that can accommodate the needs of this special group. These issues were supposed to be highlighted in the Tourism Policy of 1999. However; the policy somehow left them aside. If the country wants to improve the existing tourist's products and possibly to diversify to tourism products, the country needs to make sure that the infrastructure is accessible to all travellers. Accessible toilets in transport systems, ramps, wheelchair, accessible vehicles, assistive technologies such as braille, talk back Android and others are needed to assist PWD. Doing so will not only make the country known as a destination for wildlife lovers as it is used to be, but it will also position the image of the country to be a destination that offers tourist attractions for all travellers.

Marketing strategies

In Tanzania, TTB is the leading government body that deals mainly with the promotion and marketing of tourists' attractions. It specifically focuses on promoting the country's' potentials both within and outside the country. It also handles publicity campaigns such as developing advertising, conducting public campaigns and road shows. This organ also makes sure that tourists' information is readily available whenever needed via its tourist information centres and in the end, this organ is also dealing with conducting marketing research with the intention of establishing and updating tourism database (URT, 1999). Apart from TTB, other organizations such as TANAPA and NCAA are also involved in marketing and promotion activities. Each of these organizations is working independently to promote tourist attractions and they target different customers using different marketing instruments (International Marketing Strategies, 2012-2016). The existing marketing strategies aimed at making sure that the image of the country is positioned as a leading wildlife destination. As a result, wildlife has continued to be the main tourism activity attracting 35.2% of all international tourists mainly from countries such as the Netherlands, United States of America, Switzerland, UK, France and Germany (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2018). This could possibly be because Tanzania is the only country in the world with more than 25% of her land dedicated to wildlife and game reserves (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey, 2018).

Apart from wildlife, the country's' is endowed with abundant tourist attractions such as rock paintings, sandy beaches, lakes, cultural heritage, historical sites, mountains and islands. The country is famously known for Maasai culture and Makonde sculptures and carvings done in ebony. These attractions represent the honey-pots of the industry for years (MNRT, 2002). Tanzania has been investing in promoting tourist attractions to international market this is why a good number of them have been seen visiting various tourist attractions compared to residents. This can also be explained by the existing marketing

strategy that is designed specifically to attract international tourists and not domestic tourists. The targeted groups mentioned in the promotion campaigns covers young travellers (25-35 years) and old adventures (50+) with high disposable income (International Marketing strategy, 2012-2016) but people with disabilities are not mentioned anywhere. As if that is not enough about 90% of the marketing budget is allocated to attract primary source markets the such UK, USA, Germany and Italy, secondary market (France, Netherlands, Canada and Australia) as well as new source markets such as South Africa and India (International Marketing Strategies, 2012-2016).

How do existing promotional and marketing strategies feature people with disabilities? The use of media (radio, TV, blogs), free publicity, brochures, international and local trade fairs, road shows, travel agents and Tour operators, tourism information centres, e-tourism (social media, facebook, youtube, internet, apps websites) as well as word of mouth have been the key marketing strategies used to market tourist attractions within and outside the country. How do these tools compatible with the needs of PWD? People with disabilities are using different means of communication compared to abled people. Sign language, text display, braille, tactile communication, large print, accessible multimedia as well as written, audio, human reader instruments are the major means of communication as they are pointed out in the Persons with Disability Act of 2010.

The Act further clearly highlighted that in section 38 (1) that “where a public body communicates with one or more persons, the head of the body shall ensure that, if the communication is an oral one and the person has a hearing problem sign language shall be used. Section 38(2) If the communication is a written one, and the person or persons aforesaid have a visual impairment and as far as practicable, the contents of the communication are accessible to persons with visual impairment to whom adaptive technology is available to section 38 (3). The head of a public body shall, as far as practicable, ensure that, information published by the body, which contains information relevant to persons with intellectual disabilities, is in a clear language, legible and easily understood by such persons. Therefore, it is clear that there is a high possibility that PWD is not aware of the tourist attractions because the existing marketing and promotional strategies don’t grant accessible marketing strategies.

Inaccessible marketing strategies will act as a barrier to PWD as this will not only affect their desire to visit tourist attractions but also it will make them feel segregated and unwanted. Various disability studies have pointed out that word of mouth from close relatives and friends; internet, social media and travel guides are crucial sources of information to PWD when planning to travel (Ray and Ryder, 2003; Roko, 2018). Therefore, if these methods could be combined with other communication systems such as the use of sign languages, visual

assistive technologies, use of sound mobile apps, user-friendly devices and inclusive website design will make the promotional activities appealing to all people regardless their physical characteristics. Thus, it is urged that the accessible marketing strategies be formulated and incorporated in the tourism policy so that service providers such as TAs, TOs, hoteliers, destination managers at various tourists' sites will have a clear guideline on how to market the attractions to this target market.

Cultural Tourism strategies

Tanzania is rich in terms of cultural attractions ranging from museums, antiques, rock paintings, cultural heritage, historical sites, old towns, traditional dances, historical caves as well as festival activities. As a result of these attractions, the country was able to attract visitors both from within and outside the country. Surprisingly, a good number of residents were able to sample these attractions compared to international visitors. For example, in 2017 about 66,100 residents were seen visiting various museum centres compared to 11,353 international visitors who visited similar attractions. Table 1 presents a summary of visitor's arrivals in various museum centres in 2017. This trend could be explained by the fact that the country has been seen as a destination for a wildlife safari. This is why less number of international travellers were seen in various cultural attractions as presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1 Visitors Arrivals at Various Museum Centres in Tanzania in 2017

S/N	Centres	Domestic Visitors	International Visitors	Total
1	Village Museums	30,902	2,989	33,891
2	Arusha Declaration	6,556	290	6,846
3	Majimaji	4,323	109	4,432
4	Mwl. J.K. Nyerere	7,911	204	8,115
5	Natural Resources Museum	6,540	2,243	8,783
6	House of culture	9,868	5,518	15,386
	Total	66,100	11,353	77,453

Source: URT (2017)

For the past three years (i.e., from 2015- 2017) similar trend has been seen whereby more domestic travellers visited various antiquity sites compared to international travellers (URT (2017)). Table 2 presents a summary of visitors arrivals at various antiquity sites for 3 years (i.e., from 2015-2017).

Table 2 Trends of Visitor Arrivals at Various Antiquity Sites from 2015-2017

Antiquity Site	Visitors	2015	2016	2017
Kaole	Residents	20,877	17,312	13,770
	Non residents	524	350	445
Amboni	Residents	16,040	9,829	23,387
	Non residents	420	308	432
Isimila	Residents	2,587	2,116	1,828
	Non residents	424	445	450
Bagamoyo old Boma	Residents	8,141	14,234	8,690
	Non residents	761	906	829
Kalenga	Residents	2,203	1,649	1,496
	Non residents	223	19	111
Kilwa	Residents	2,667	2,360	1,221
	Non residents	800	755	431
Mbozi	Residents	1,723	1,672	58
	Non residents	69	92	159
Tongoni	Residents	488	327	159
	Non residents	115	180	98
Ujiji	Residents	4,335	3,607	3,516
	Non residents	202	108	188
Kwihara Tembe	Residents	217	501	500
	Non residents	14	17	40
Kondoa	Residents	1,197	1,574	1,936
	Non residents	254	253	350
Caravan Serai	Residents	4,781	4,286	2,559
	Non residents	286	281	375
Mwl. J. K. Nyerere Memorial House Magomeni	Residents	-	-	276
	Non residents	-	-	29

Source: URT (2017)

Despite these attractions, the existing cultural tourism strategy focused specifically to develop cultural tourism through festive activities, exhibitions, promoting visits to various historical and cultural sites such as museums, monuments, archaeological sites local as well as local dance performances. The strategy further highlights issues related to the marketing of local tourism products and encouraging cross-cultural tourism without destroying the indigenous culture. Additionally, the strategy openly highlighted the need for a special programme to be designed for youth and aged people to visit local tourist attractions so that they can learn and appreciate their culture. This strategy ignores the fact that in Tanzania there are PWD and these people have the right to learn their culture just like another citizen. They have the desire to participate

in historic activities like another able-bodied person (Allan, 2013). Historic and heritage places are important not only for their architectural and historical nature but also are seen as the masterpieces attracting tourists in many countries. They are also seen as the must-see places (Ayse, 2017). Participation in recreation and cultural tourism is considered to be a therapy because it directly assists in improving peoples' quality of life (Olodokun, Ololajulo and Oladele, 2014).

Persons with Disability Act of 2010 section 55 (1) states that “a PWD shall be entitled to take part like any other citizen in cultural life in the society without discrimination”. Section 55(3) highlights that “ The Minister shall, in consultation with the council and the Minister responsible for cultural affairs, take all effective and appropriate steps to ensure that PWDs (a) enjoy access to cultural materials in all accessible formats (b) enjoy access to TV programmes, films, theatres and other cultural activities, in all accessible formats (c) enjoy access to places for cultural performances or services, including theatres, museums, cinemas, libraries and tourism services”. People with disability have the same motive to travel for nature-based areas as the able-bodied individual (Chikuta, du Plessis and Saayman, 2017). The desire for enjoying nature, spending quality time with family and escaping the mundane city life are among the push factors influencing this target market to visit nature-based destinations. One of their preferred leisure activities involves visiting cultural and nature activities (Ray and Ryder, 2003; Allan, 2013; Chikuta, du Plessis and Saayman, 2017). This target group is reported to be satisfied when they participate in challenging natural and wilderness activities than an able-bodied person (Zeller, 2008). Their desire to visit wilderness areas includes the desire to achieve personal challenge, to increase confidence, for self-understanding as well as for social adjustment (Stringer and McAvoy, 1992). This finding supports the argument that it is wise to include this emerging market in the cultural tourism strategy because some of the cultural sites in Tanzania somehow caters for their needs although limited designated facilities, inadequate fund, shortage of skilled personnel to communicate with visitors with disabilities are among the key challenges that hinder its effective operations to fully accommodate them (Lwoga and Mapunda, 2017).

Domestic Tourism Strategy

It is well known that Tanzania is blessed with abundant tourist attractions that attract thousands of visitors from different parts of the world. However, most residents of this country have failed to visit most of the attractions due to financial limitations, poor customer service, poor communication and inadequate information regarding the existing tourist attractions and high priced tourism products/services (URT, 1999; Anderson, 2010; Mariki et al., 2011). In order to resolve these problems the government embarked in collaborating with the private sector to boost this market by establishing the tourism teaching colleges with the aim of improving customer services in tourist sites and hotels,

setting of preferential rates specifically to accommodate them, renovating infrastructure and increasing promotional campaigns to attract and encourage residents to visit various attractions. Despite government efforts, no significant changes have been reported so far. The arrivals of residents to various tourist attractions are not in the same pace as internationals. For example, Figure 1 and Figure 2 show visitors' arrivals of the two travel markets in various national parks from 2013 to 2017. Resident's arrivals to various cultural and historical heritage sites only surpassed the rate of international arrivals (see Table 1 and Table 2).

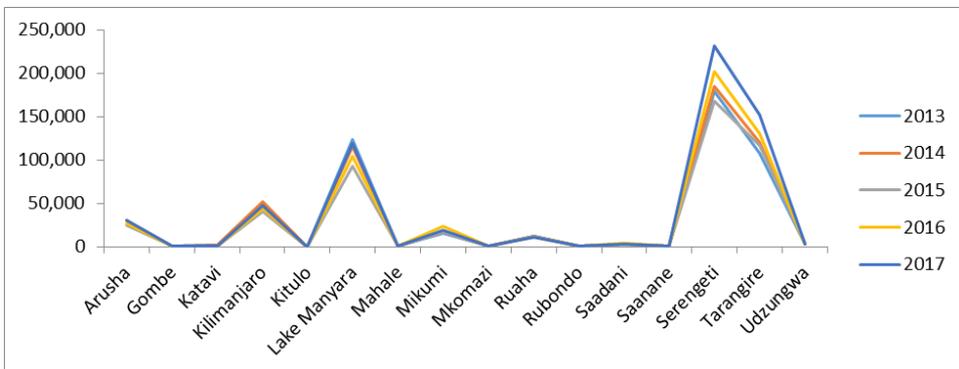


Figure 1 International Visitor Arrivals at Various National Parks from 2013-2017

Source MNRT (2017)

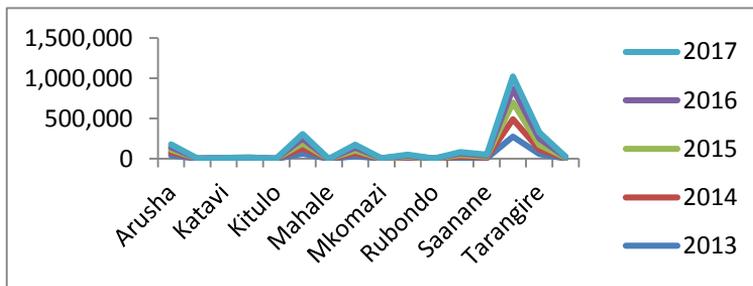


Figure 2 Residents Visitor Arrivals at various National Parks from 2013-2017

Source MNRT (2017)

The existing domestic tourism strategies have focused on promoting tourist attractions to secondary school students and people who are working in various institutions. The strategy ignores the fact that the country has PWDs and this target group needs special care and attention. Issues of renovating infrastructure, offering a preferential fee, improvement of customer service will not matter if

there will be no accessible facilities to accommodate them. Accessible information, accessible transport system, accessible accommodation, accessible communication, accessible facilities at various attraction sites and skilled personnel who can communicate with them are the key things that are needed by this emerging market. PWDs are facing many challenges that affect their desire to fully participate in tourism. To them, participation in tourism activities involves more than just purchasing a ticket or booking accommodation (Yau, McKercher and Parker, 2004). Infrastructure with easy access as well as a variety of accessible products must be offered by the tourism service providers to fully offer accessible tourism (Darcy and Pegg, 2011). Facilities at the tourist attraction sites need to have features that support wheelchair travellers, enough room spaces, sensory access such as tactile markings, signs/labels, hearing augmentation systems and audio cues for lifts and lights.

Conclusion

Overall, tourism policy was able to offer clear guidelines on how things should be operated. The responsible organs to handle various tourism issues in the country have been clearly outlined. Women, youth and older people have been mentioned and their roles in various specific policy strategies have been clearly defined. However, the policy has remained silent on issues of PWDs. Issues of marketing and promotional activities, cultural tourism as well as the development of domestic tourism strategies shouldn't exclude this target group, because such travel market sees travelling as one of the ways to regain their independence and feel normal again (Shi, Cole and Chancellor, 2012). To them, travelling acts as the rehabilitation process since leisure trips stimulate their mental capacities. This travel market is constantly increasing due to the infrastructure development, change of technology, increasing life span, and decrease in communicable diseases as well as improved medical technology (McKercher, Yau and Lam, 2003). Previous studies have highlighted that this travel market is unique in the sense that they prefer to travel during low season to avoid complications of being in an overcrowded environment. Hence, this target group can be used as an alternative source of income when other travel market fails to perform due to seasonality (Shi, Cole and Chancellor, 2012).

TTB, MNRT and other key tourism stakeholders should look at this market as an opportunity to expand their customer base and to gain competitive advantage. It is considered a golden opportunity to capture this travel market (Naniopoulos and Tsalis, 2015) because such people take many trips worldwide and spend a lot when they travel (Lipp and Van Horn, 2007) and they prefer to travel with company either with assistants or family members (Darcy and Buhalis, 2010; Roko, 2018). Therefore, for every booking or trip done by PWDs is a business deal because at least a double income may be generated (Darcy and Buhalis, 2010). Therefore, it is a profitable business for the tourism industry if policymakers will start appreciating the role of this travel market and make sure

that their needs are included in the policy. PWD are believed to be loyal and have the tendency of spending more time at the destination than the abled person (Vila, Darcy and González, 2018).

MNRT and TTB have the ability to convince both government and private organizations to invest in providing accessible tourism but these issues have to be clearly covered in the policy. It is recommended that policymakers should make sure that accessible infrastructures, as well as accessible facilities, are included in the product development policies as this will provide a guideline to tourism stakeholder's to prepare themselves to host this emerging travel market. Furthermore, the existing marketing strategies should also include accessible means of communication such as the use of braille, voice recorder instruments, sound mobile apps, user friendly websites, signs, symbols and large printing materials as this will offer an opportunity for PWDs to get clear marketing messages regarding the existing tourist attraction sites from the service providers. Additionally, domestic tourism and cultural tourism strategies should be designed to include the needs of PWDs because previous studies have indicated that this target group enjoys taking part in cultural activities, these strategies should highlight issues related to universal designs, accessible infrastructure, accessible facilities to attract the growing needs of this market. Currently, the government is in the process of reviewing national tourism policy of 1999 but the revised policy should be aligned with the needs of PWD as they have been stipulated in the Persons with Disability Act of 2010, Transport Sector Investment Programme of 2007/8-2011-12 and the National Transport Policy of 2003.

References

- Allan, M. (2013). Disability Tourism: Why do Disabled People engaging in Tourism Activities? *European Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol.39 (3), 480-486
- Anderson, W. (2010). *Marketing of Domestic Tourism in Tanzania*, Dar es Salaam, Dar Es Salaam University Press
- Ayse, N. E. (2017). Barriers and Preferences to leisure activities for wheelchair users in historic places, *An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, pp. 1-18
- Berg, B. L. (2009). *An Introduction to Content Analysis: Qualitative Research Method for the social sciences*, pp. 338-377, Boston: Allyn & Bacon
- Buhalis, D., and Darcy, S. (2010). *Accessible Tourism: Concepts and Issues*, Channel View Publications
- Buhalis, D., and Darcy, S. (2011). *Accessible Tourism Concepts and Issues*. Toronto, ON Channel View
- Burnett, J.J., and Baker, H. B. (2001). Assessing the Travel-Related Behaviors of the mobility-disabled consumer, *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 40(1), p.4-11

- Cameron, B., Darcy, S., and Foggin, E. (2003). *Barrier-free Tourism for People with Disabilities in the Asian and Pacific Region*. United Nations, New York
- Chikuta, O., du Plessis, L., and Saayman, M. (2017). Nature-based travel motivations for people with disabilities. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, Vol. 6(1), pp.1–16.
- Chikuta, O., du Plessis, E., and Saayman, M. (2018): *Accessibility Expectations of Tourists with Disabilities in National Parks*, *Tourism Planning and Development*, pp.1-18
- Convention on the Right of Persons with Disabilities (2006). *A/RES/61/106, Resolution Adopted by the General Assembly, 13 December*
- Daniels, M. J., Drogin, R., and Wiggins, B. P. (2005). Travel Tales: An Interpretive analysis of constraints and negotiations to pleasure travel as experienced by persons with Physical Disabilities. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 26(6), pp.919-930
- Darcy, S., Cameron, B., Pegg, S. and Packer, T. (2008). Technical report, developing business cases for accessible tourism, STCRC Technical Report, available at www.crctourism.com.au/BookShop/
- Darcy, S., and Pegg, S. (2011). Towards Strategic Intent: Perceptions of disability service provision amongst hotel accommodation managers. *International of Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 30(2), p.468-476
- Duriau, V. J., Reger, R. K., and Pfarrer, M. D. (2007). A content Analysis of the content analysis literature in organization studies. *Organizational Research Methods*, Vol. 10, pp.5-34
- Edusei, A. K., Aggrey, S. M., Badu, E., and Opoku, M. P. (2015). *Accessibility and Participation of Persons with Disabilities in Tourism: Perspective of Tourism Workers in the Ashanti Region of Ghana*, Brief Report, Vol. 26(3), pp.97-110
- Elo, S., and Kyngä, H. (2007). The qualitative content Analysis process. *JAN Research Methodology*, pp.107-115
- Florence, N. (2018, October 13). *People with Disability Ignored in Uganda's Tourism*, available at <https://journalism.mak.ac.ug/?q=news/131018/people-disability-ignored-ugandas-tourism>.
- Lipp, E., and Van Horn, L. (2007). *The transportation needs of people with developmental disabilities*. Minneapolis, MN: The University of Minnesota, Center for Transportation Studies.
- Lwoga, N. B. (2013). *Tourism Development in Tanzania Before and After independence: Sustainability perspectives*, *The Eastern African Journal of Hospitality, Leisure and Tourism*, Vol. 1(2), pp.1-26
- Lwoga, N. B. and Mapunda, B. B. (2017). *Challenges Facing Accessible Tourism in Cultural Heritage Sites: The Case of Village Museum in*

- Tanzania, *Journal of Tourism Studies and Research in Tourism*, 24, pp.45-54
- Mariki, S. B., Hassan, S. N., Maganga, S. L., Modest, R. B., and Salehe, F. S. (2011). Wildlife-Based Domestic Tourism in Tanzania: Experiences from Northern Tourist Circuit, *Ethiopian Journal of Environmental Studies and Management*, Vol. 4(4), pp.62-73
- McKercher, B., Packe, T., Yau, M.K., and Lam, P. (2003). Travel Agents as facilitators or inhibitors of travel: Perceptions of people with disabilities, *Tourism Management*, Vol.24 (4), pp.465-474
- Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT, 2002). Integrated Tourism Master Plan: Strategy and Actions. <http://www.tzonline.org/pdf/tourismmasterplan.pdf>
- Naniopoulos, A., and Tsalis, P. (2015). A methodology for facing the accessibility of monuments developed and realised in Thessaloniki, Greece. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, pp.240-253.
- Oladokun, O. J., Ololajulo, J., and Oladele, O. I. (2014). Analysis of Factors Enhancing special Needs People Participation in Recreation and Cultural Tourism Activities in Osogbo Metropolis, Osun State, Nigeria, *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, Vol. 5(20), pp. 2916-2925
- Ray, N., and Ryder, M. (2003). Abilities Tourism: An Exploratory Discussion of the Travel Needs and Motivations of the Mobility-disabled. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 24, pp.57-77
- Roko, E. (2018). Travel Pattern of disabled, A thesis submitted for the degree of Masters of Science (MSc) in Hospitality and Tourism Management, School of Economics, Business Administration and Legal Studies
- Shi, L., Cole, S., and Chancellor, H. C. (2012). Understanding leisure travel motivations of travellers with acquired mobility impairments. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 33, pp.228–231.
- Silverman, D. (2006). *Interpreting Qualitative data*. Thousand Oaks: Sage
- Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB, 2012). *International Marketing Strategy for Tanzania as a Tourist Destination: Tanzania: The Land of Kilimanjaro, Zanzibar and the Serengeti*, November 2012, Tanzania Confederation of Tanzania, Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania
- Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2018). 2017 International Visitors' Exit Survey Report, October 2018
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 1999). *The National Tourism Policy of Tanzania*. Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism. Government Printers. Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 2003). *National Transport Policy*, Ministry of Communications and Transport, Dar Es Salaam, Tanzania, pp.1-8
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 2008). *10 Year Transport Sector Investment Programme (TSIP) Phase 1, 2007/08-2011/12, Main Report*, Ministry of Infrastructure Development, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania

- United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 2010). The Persons with Disability Act No 9 of 2010 Passed by the Parliament of the United Republic of Tanzania, pp.1-51
- United Republic of Tanzania (URT, 2017). The 2017 Tourism Statistical Bulletin, Dodoma, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
- Vila, T. D., Darcy, S., and Gonzalez, E. A. (2018). Competing for the Disability Tourism Market: A comparative exploration of the factors of Accessible Tourism Competitiveness in Spain and Australia, *Tourism Management*, Vol. 47. Pp.261-272.
- World Health Organisation (WHO, 2019) available at: www.who.int/topics/disabilities/en/ (accessed March 2, 2019).
- World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2018). Travel and Tourism Economic Impact 2018 Tanzania, The Harlequin Building, 65 Southwark Street, London SE1 OHR, the United Kingdom available at <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/countries-2018/tanzania2018.pdf>
- Yau, M.K., McKercher, B., and Packer, T.L. (2004). Travelling with a disability: More than an Access issue. *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol.31 (4), pp.946-960.
- Yusuf, S., and Ali, M. (2018). Tourism and Poverty Reduction: Evidence from Tanzania, *International Journal of Asian Social Science, Asian Economic and Social Society*, vol. 8(12), pp. 1130-1138.
- Zajadacz, A. (2014). Accessibility of Tourism Space from a Geographical Perspective, *Tourism*, Vol. 24(1), pp.45-50
- Zeller, J. A. (2008). Wilderness and accessibility. *International Journal of Wilderness*, Vol. 14(1), pp.15–24.