

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
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ISSN - 2507-7821

ISSN - 2507-7872 [Online Publication]

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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.

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

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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.

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 vis a vis 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.

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