

WILDLIFE-BASED DOMESTIC TOURISM IN TANZANIA: EXPERIENCES FROM NORTHERN TOURIST CIRCUIT

*Mariki, S. B¹., Hassan, S. N¹., Maganga, S. L. S¹., Modest, R. B¹. and Salehe, F. S².

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Abstract

It is believed that for tourism industry to become successful, domestic, and international tourism should complement each other. But domestic tourism in many developing countries is nearly non-existent, with local residents mainly visiting friends and relatives. The study to examine characteristics and factors affecting domestic tourism was carried out in northern Tanzania tourist circuit. Specifically the study sought to determine the characteristics of Tanzanians who mostly visit the protected areas; to identify and assess factors affecting domestic tourism; and different factors that hinder growth of domestic tourism. A sample of 322 respondents was interviewed. Primary data was collected through questionnaires, focus group discussions, informal discussion; and secondary data was obtained from tourists visiting reports, and statistics. Data was analysed for descriptive statistics. The results obtained revealed that: More men visited wildlife protected areas than women. The age group of 26 – 37 was the most active group in visiting protected areas. Low financial income was indicated as the main constraint (77.0%) affecting the growth of domestic tourism, followed by means of communication and inadequate information (71.8%). It is recommended that, the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism need more plans, efforts, and combination of approaches in promoting and marketing domestic tourism.

Key words: Domestic tourism, local communities, northern circuit, Tanzania, wildlife protected areas

Introduction

In many developing countries, tourism potentially constitutes one of the fastest growing sectors. Basically, tourism is one of the top five export categories for 83 % of all developing countries and the main sources of foreign currency for at least 38 % of them (WTO, 1999). The contribution of tourism receipts to total revenues in these countries is within the range of 20 to 80 % (Benavides and Perez-Ducy, 2001). Consequently, it is an important industry in providing foreign exchange, employment, income and public revenue.

Tourism industry in Tanzania seems more promising among several sectors of production. For example, the balance of payment statistics compiled by the Bank of Tanzania shows that receipts on the travel account (regarded as a close proxy for tourism earnings) represented 40 % of total exports of goods and services in 1998/99 compared with 25 % in 1995 (MNRT, 2002).

Moreover, about 25,700 jobs were created along with raised foreign exchange receipts by 35 % in year 2000 compared to 1995 (MNRT, 2002). It also contributed over 16 % of GDP in year 2004 which is equivalent to 746.02 million US\$ dollars earnings per year (MNRT, 2004). Using Tourist Expenditure Model, estimation suggests that in year 2004, Tanzania earned US\$ 746,016,731 (BOT, MNRT, NBS, IMMIGRATION DEPT and ZTB; 2006). Foreign revenue earnings from tourism grew further from year 2004 (i.e. USD 746.02) to USD 823.05, 856.2 and 985.3 million in year 2005, 2006 and 2007 respectively (MNRT, 2008). Since growth in foreign revenue relates to the overall growth in visitor arrivals (Table 1), tourism features as the Tanzania's largest single earner of foreign exchange, which demonstrates the increasing importance of tourism industry in Tanzania's foreign exchange.

In spite of the significant role of tourism industry in Tanzania economy, it has been shown repeatedly that international tourism is very

¹Department of Wildlife Management, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania

²Development Studies Institute, Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania

Corresponding e-mail: zion2000tz@yahoo.com;

sensitive to matters that have no local controls. Empirical examples of situations that have in the history of Tanzania led international tourism not to perform impressively include recession in world economies in 1973 and 2008-2009, enormous increase in oil prices from 1973 and drought of 1974. Other events are closure of Kenya - Tanzania border in 1977, the Uganda War of 1978/79, the September 11, 2001 attack to World Trade Centre in USA and other terrorism events in the northern hemisphere. Apart from that, international tourism is very susceptible to poor tourism infrastructure, and bad press publicity. Besides, the intense competition for overseas tourists especially with other countries offering similar products like Kenya, South Africa and Uganda affects the tourism sector performance. The domestic tourism, then, if well promoted may cushion deficit in foreign revenue as result of drop in international tourism, which is why domestic tourism should be made the mainstay for developing countries including Tanzania. Therefore, for tourism industry to become successful and sustainable, domestic and international tourism should complement each other.

However, domestic tourism in Tanzania is 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).

Reporting on domestic tourism in Tanzania has been receiving inadequate attention. Consequently, constraints facing this kind of tourism are not well understood, a situation which cannot be left to prevail with the understanding that Tanzania desires to improve performance of domestic tourism along with international tourism. The intent of this paper therefore is to investigate domestic tourism with focus on northern tourist circuit. Specifically, we ask the following question: 1) who are the domestic tourists? 2) What factors restrain faster growth of domestic tourism? and 3) what should be done to improve the current situation? This paper advances the existing knowledge with regard to domestic

tourism while the recommendations may help towards making tourism industry more significant.

Study Area

This study was carried out in three wildlife protected areas- Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP), Tarangire National Park (TNP) and Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA). These together with other three national parks, namely Kilimanjaro National Park (KNP), Arusha National Park (ANP) and Serengeti National Park (SNP) form five outstanding wildlife protected areas in northern tourist circuit (Fig.1). Other less famous tourist destinations in the expanse include Mkomazi National Park (MNP) and the Tanga coastal strip, Pangani falls and Amboni Caves in Tanga region, and Pemba Channel in Pemba.

LMNP is the smallest of the three wildlife protected areas (WPAs) covered in this study. This biosphere reserve (UNESCO status) is situated in the depression of the East African Great Rift Valley in the Lake Manyara Basin. It is about 330 km² in size, and of these, 200 - 230 km² is covered by Lake Manyara, a shallow alkaline lake whose water level fluctuates. The park attained its status in 1960, and is located 125 km west of Arusha town. It contains a large variety of habitats such as the rift wall; the groundwater forest which is home to tree climbing lions, baboons, and blue monkeys; and acacia woodland and areas of open grassland where buffalo, wildebeest, and zebra herds roam about. Besides, LMNP features over 400 species of birds including the pink flamingos, pelicans and cormorants. Canoeing is conducted along with game drive and photographing.

In contrast, Tarangire National Park (TNP) covers approximately 2600 km² and is located south of large open grassland plains of southern Masailand, 115 km from Arusha town along the Arusha-Dodoma road. TNP is characterised by grasslands and floodplains and therefore contains the dry season ranges for most of the mammals in the Tarangire-Simanjoro ecosystem. It is popular for its tree climbing pythons, zebra, hartebeests, elephants, buffaloes, waterbucks, gazelles, oryx and abundant bird life.

Unlike the former two, Ngorongoro Conservation Area (NCA) has a unique status, i.e. a multiple land use area yet recognised internationally as UNESCO World Heritage site. NCA is one of the cradles of mankind and is one of the eight wonders of the world. Tourist

attractions include the Ngorongoro crater- a huge caldera of collapsed volcano with a span of 250 square kilometres long, 23 kilometres wide and an average depth of 600m, and Lerai forest on the

crater floor- a home to monkeys, baboons, bushbucks, waterbucks, elephants and rhinos. Also there is Embakai Crater- a caldera 6 kilometres

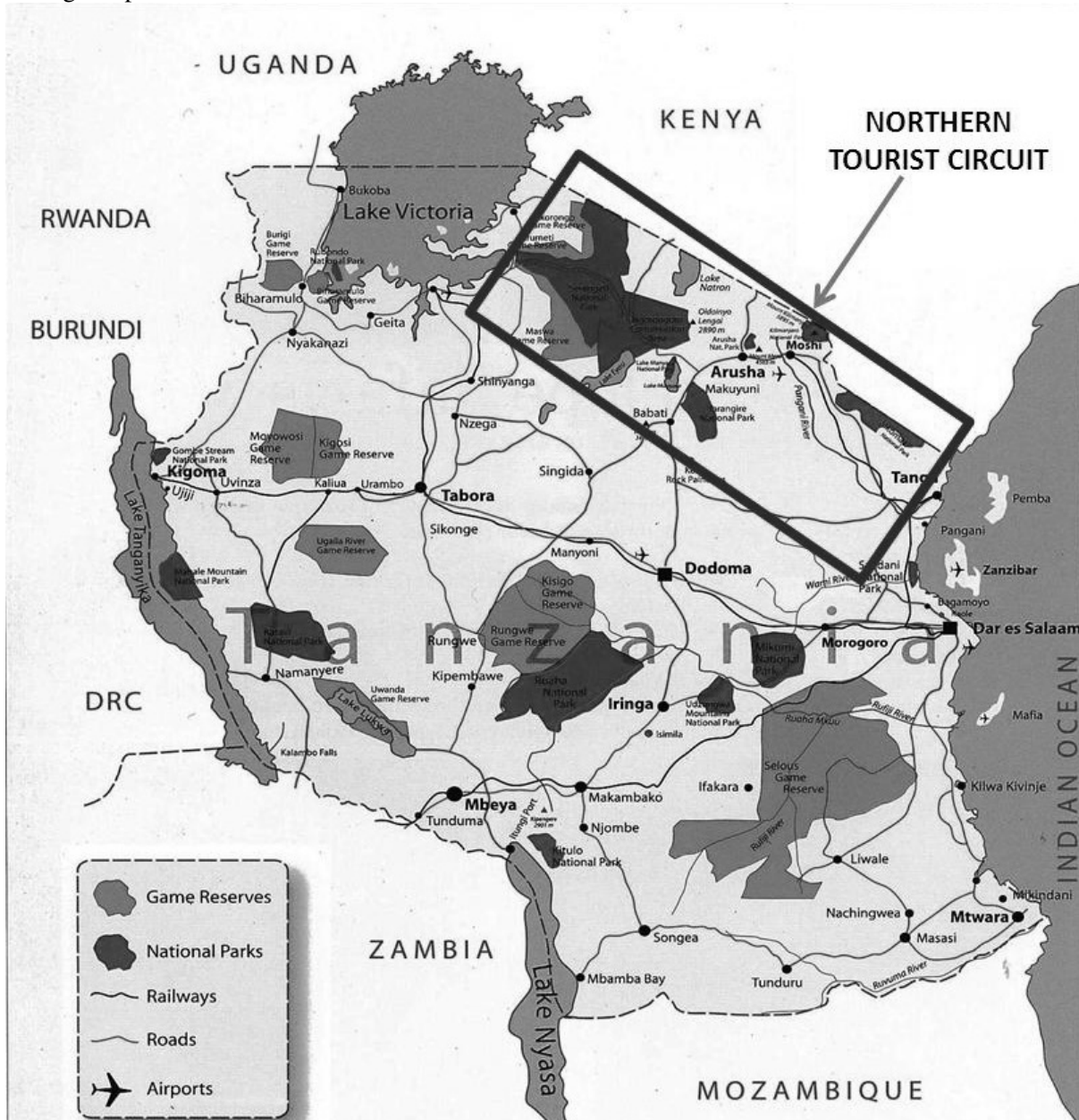


Figure 1 Tanzania northern tourist circuit (Adopted from Tanzania Tourist Board)

wide with nearly half of its floor occupied by the Embakai Lake, and Olmoti Crater- a shallow grassy crater with a source of Munge River which forms a waterfall in the rim on its way to Ngorongoro Crater. Other attractions are Olndonyo Lengai mountain - a place with steaming, bubbling crater and a symmetrical cone;

Oldupai (Olduvai) gorge - with remains of animals and four different kinds of hominid that lived and died 2,000,000 years ago, and hominid foot prints preserved in volcanic rock 3,600,000 years old at Laetoli, and shifting sands north of Oldupai Gorge. This is dark brown sand dune that marches

across the plains without losing its size and elegant shape, covering 17 metres a year.

Three other attractions of national significance in NCA are Nasera rock - this stands 100 metres high in the Gol mountains, it is an interesting point for climbers and bird watchers; Olkarien Gorge - this harbours a breeding site for hundreds of the Ruppell's griffon Vulture during wet season whereas in dry season the place is a water fountain for Maasai cattle and the wildlife. The famous Serengeti Plains are shared by NCA and the SNP. Normally, in November through May, the plains turn green and attractive to millions of animals from their dry season range, including wildebeest, zebra, gazelles and eland with their predators and scavengers. Walking safaris are conducted in designated areas on the rim in addition to game drive and photographing safaris.

Northern circuit of wildlife areas is the most developed in terms of tourists' goods and services. It is easily accessible both by road and air due to better infrastructure. Also, the wildlife protected areas in the northern circuit have better and more facilities than elsewhere in Tanzania.

Materials and Methods

Composition of sample unit

The study population comprised of six categories of respondents giving rise to 322 respondents. These were domestic tourists (n = 140), park guides and/or gate clerks at respective wildlife protected areas (WPAs) (n = 6), management staff at respective WPAs (n = 5), tour operators (n = 27), management staff of Tanzania Association of Tour Operators (TATO) and Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) (n = 2), and randomly selected individuals from markets and streets (n = 142).

Sampling and data collection

The study was conducted in 2006 using purposive (Kendra, 1989) and simple random (Kothari, 2004) sampling techniques for sample selection. As part of purposive sampling, expatriate residents employed by foreign firms and agencies were deliberately excluded in order to get a real picture of the position of Tanzanian residents. In this regard, two Municipalities - Arusha and Moshi, two tourist organizations, i.e. TATO and TTB, staff at respective wildlife protected areas and two markets in each Municipality were purposely selected. The two

Municipalities were chosen because of being highest tourist destinations in the circuit and due to their proximal locations to the outstanding wildlife protected areas in northern Tanzania. It was also assumed that locations of the two Municipalities would allow residents of the selected Municipalities to afford day trips to nearby WPAs. In Arusha Municipality, the Arusha Central and Kilombero Markets were selected while in Moshi Municipality, Soweto and Mbuyuni Markets were selected. However, streets (3 in each town), tour operators, domestic tourists, park guides and/or gate clerks were randomly selected. Streets selected in Arusha Municipality were Kambini, Sakina and Kambi ya Fisi whereas those in Moshi Municipality were Majengo, Soweto and Njoro. Semi-structured interviews were used throughout to collect primary data.

Data analysis

Quantitative data were compiled, summarized and analyzed using descriptive statistics and cross tabulation technique after which tables showing relationship between variables and percentages were drawn. Content and structural function analysis techniques were used to examine qualitative data.

Results and Discussion

Characteristics of domestic tourists

a) Sex

Over half (62.9) % of domestic tourists were males and 37.1 % were females. This gender imbalance may be attributable to the fact that in many parts of Africa, men take relatively less roles in house chores. This provides them with more opportunity to travel to different places for business and recreation. Conversely, women's participation in tourism is limited by heavy workload that compels them to remain home doing domestic chores like baby caring, washing, cooking and fetching water and fuel wood. Consequently, access to information and circumstances supposed to inspire one to travel out to see nature becomes limited. Also the characteristic model of African societies which places leadership of households in the hands of men, very often, prior permission has to be sought from men in order for the women to travel, and sometimes the right to travel may be denied. Moreover, in most cases men are the ones that have more economic muscles such that women

have to obtain money from their husbands. The request to have financial support may also be turned down by men, which frustrate the women's dream to travel for leisure. Even for resources that are viewed as household property such as livestock, women may have no right to sell or use money from sold animals without permission by the husband. Such disproportionate wealth owning and sharing further put women at slim chances of travelling to enjoy nature. The results could also be interpreted as imbalance in opportunity to attend school. Many parents especially of herds-men ethnic groups prefer their daughters not to attend school so that they may obtain dowry when daughters get married. This may in turn cause imbalance in number of boys and girls in school groups travelling for leisure.

b) Education and category of residence

Majority of domestic tourists, 37.9 % were in secondary school/had secondary school education followed by those who were in college/had college education, 29.3%. Few though, 16.4 % were in universities/had university education, and 15.7 % were in primary school/had primary school education, and only 0.7 % had no formal education. In Tanzania, knowledge, and practical and intellectual skills for management of natural resources for sustainable development trickles down to primary and secondary school children through their curricula set up and special programmes by organizations promoting environmental education for youth such as school clubs. The clubs include Malihai Clubs of Tanzania, which was established in 1985 and has been working in secondary schools; Roots and Shoots and the Wildlife Conservation Society of Tanzania (WCST) both formed in the early 1990s and serve both primary and secondary school children. Through the clubs, children access text books and magazines, class lectures, discussion seminars and learn through audiovisuals (video tapes/CDs), which help to broaden their knowledge beyond habits and traditions. Saeki (1996) explains that watching TV programs and video tapes related to conservation contributes to transfer of knowledge to primary school children in Kilimanjaro Region by 67.2 % of teaching/learning techniques. In view of this, we find no clear account for the higher number of secondary school children, which is about two-fold that of primary school children. Nevertheless,

we think that secondary school children receive relatively larger share of pocket money from parents/guardians, especially those in boarding schools as they are trusted more by their folks. Also, because they are at a relatively higher level of education ladder, they are more capable of convincing parents/guardians to give away more pocket money and decide by themselves on how to spend it.

We associate the low percentage of domestic tourists with no formal education compared to those with formal education to stable income, access to information, and enhanced behaviours and interest as result of education. By and large, education provides better opportunities for employment and therefore a route for better living and income compared to peasants and pet traders ("*machingas*"). Yet, this scenario does not explain why university students/university graduates did not form the majority as would be expected. As most University students subsist on the study loans provided by Loan Board and other donors, we envision two possible explanations; one could be that students find it hard to spend such meagre finances on leisure activities related to tourism. Second, we recognise the fact that many sub-Saharan Africans do not rate the value of nature in the same way as people in the northern hemisphere do. For example, while "aesthetic value" could take a top position for people in the northern hemisphere compared to "consumptive value" (e.g. game meat/bush meat and forest products), the converse is the case for many sub-Saharan Africans. In other words, while developed countries are at the level of mass consumption and self actualisation, 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). On the same token, in Australia, domestic tourism is three times more than the international tourism (Shea and Sharp, 1993; Moore and Carter, 1993). Moreover, Sub-Saharan 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

wounded/killed by the same animals admired by people from industrialised nations while the sub-Saharan Africans themselves are grieving on empty stomach. As “Man” is a product of environment, relics of bad experiences with the so called “beautiful nature” and hence reluctance to visit wildlife areas are exhibited even among senior Tanzania Government officials/university graduates who cannot associate their failure to do so with financial constraints. For example, the first President J.K. Nyerere was quoted saying:

“I personally am not interested in animals. I do not want to spend my holidays watching crocodiles. Nevertheless, I am entirely in favour of their survival. I believe that after diamonds and sisal, wild animals will provide Tanganyika with its greatest source of income. Thousands of Americans and Europeans have a strange urge to see these animals” (Quoted in Levine 2002: 1047).

Such attitude may be linked to the slow growth of domestic tourism in Tanzania compared to other countries in Africa (DEAT, 2004; Maina, 2006). For example, in Ghana and Angola, about 83 % and 52 % respectively of their populations visited tourism sites for leisure (Maina, 2006). In contrast, only 12 % of Tanzania population visited assorted tourist sites (Maina, 2006), which include nature-based, costal resorts and cultural sites. Considering park visitors, Tanzania residents represented only 14 % (Bonine *et al.*, 2004). Such statistics are even less compared to countries such as Angola, 52 % and Mozambique, 34 % (Maina, 2006), which were under political instability for decades.

Apparently, residents from urban areas visit WPAs more frequently than those from rural areas ($P < 0.05$) despite equal number of visitors for the age group 44 to 49 (Table 2). Similarity for the above age groups could simply be a random event that may be associated with the small size of data. However, we advance a couple of reasons regarding the overall difference between the two categories of residences in visitations to WPAs. One possibility could be differences in income between people in urban and rural areas. Urban dwellers have overall higher income resulting from several activities/sources including salaries, and a range business from vending of water and

toasted groundnuts to large scale business while income for rural dwellers is primarily from agriculture, which is now frustrated by poor rainfalls and insufficient markets for agricultural products. Moreover, infrastructure (roads and communication network) and social services including internet service are readily available and advanced in urban areas than rural areas, a situation that favours urban dwellers to access tourism and travel information compared to rural people. Similar results have been reported by Saeki (1996) for Kilimanjaro region. The author demonstrated more knowledge for urban residents on wildlife and conservation issues than their rural counterparts due to watching TV and video tapes.

This study also found that about 61.7 % of domestic tourists had visited WPAs before for leisure. Beautiful environment, which include attractive landscapes such as Olduvai Gorge, Ngorogoro crater and hot springs, large herbivores such as elephant, buffalo and giraffe, and carnivores especially tree climbing lions, cheetah and leopard lingered in their memories and caused them to revisit WPAs. Other reasons in order of impact for multiple visits to WPAs were the urge to learn more about animals and the desire to see attractions which they missed out during earlier visits. Consequently, nearly all domestic tourists were willing to recommend a trip to other persons as result of good experiences gathered during their tour. Such findings have also been reported from a study in Kwa Zulu Natal (Seymour, 2003). The study showed that the majority of domestic tourists regarded their trip as enjoyable, and for that matter, they wished to return in the next twelve months together with their friends and relatives. On the other hand, those who were on their first experience had been inspired through increased marketing and awareness campaigns through the annual Dar es Salaam International Trade Fair (DITF), annual countrywide Farmer's Exhibitions (*Nane nane*) and the annual *Karibu* Travel Fair in Arusha.

Factors constraining domestic tourism in northern tourist circuit

Low income

The number of domestic visitors to WPAs in Tanzania is still extremely low compared to domestic arrivals in other African states (Maina, 2006) leave alone international arrivals (Table 1). Certainly for most people in Tanzania, visits to

WPAs remain an economic impossibility because they are not able to cover the costs associated with the trip. Generally, low income seems to be the major obstacle to faster growth of domestic tourism among 12 credible constraints we documented (Table 3).

As over 80 % of Tanzanians depend entirely on subsistence agriculture, our results are fairly consistent with results reported for Bangkok in Thailand (a developing country in Asia), where household income directly affects demand for domestic tourism (Rochanutama, 1998). Records in recent years have shown that people in rural areas live at the bottom side of poverty line with a daily income of less than 1USD (IFAD, 2002). Considering the scale of needs for a common Tanzanian, with such earnings it is unlikely that many can afford to visit WPAs.

Poor promotion ranks the second in factors affecting domestic tourism (Table 3), thus signifies its importance. It is believed that successful promotional practices, like the more general marketing practices are the tools that effectively ensure or create a stable tourist demand while meeting and not overburdening current resource supply. The current situation suggests that in addition to the present efforts to promote domestic tourism in Tanzania (Apolinari, 2003; Daniel, 2003) more is still needed at grassroots level.

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 for over 50 % of mean response (Table 3) are also linked to the slow pace in growth of domestic tourism in Tanzania. Enhanced knowledge on the two aspects would probably cause local communities to develop interest to visit WPAs for a weekend retreat, and encourage them to conserve nature on village land for different purposes including generation of revenue for the village through tourism activities. Revenue accrued and enjoyment gained both from nature-based and cultural-based tourism activities performed on village land is expected to instil more conservation ethics into local communities and make them value the achievements they have contributed to, while motivating them to conserve nature for the present and future generations. At present, services such

as roads, schools, dispensaries and water provided to local communities by WPAs as part of benefit sharing scheme are less valued since they are obtained with very minimum involvement of local communities. It should be noted that in the past, the same services were offered to the public for free by the government of Tanzania during the period the country was under socialist model. With such experience, local communities are not impressed by the same services when they trickle down under the package of benefit sharing and motivation to conserve nature. A rigorous plan is therefore required at national level to make the public understand the importance of wild places for recreation and revenue generation. This may help to alleviate the tendency to use natural resources unsustainably and consequently deny themselves opportunities for recreation and revenue generation.

Less effective information dissemination systems in promoting domestic tourism such that many Tanzanians do not know the tourism attractions and destinations in their country contribute to delayed growth in domestic tourism. This is partly attributable to the low efforts by tour operators in promoting domestic tourism. As such, most tour operators have no marketing strategy for domestic tourism to date because they do not consider this sector (domestic tourism) important as they deal mainly with international tourism, a more lucrative sector. The fact that about 54 % of respondents were unaware of domestic tourism is indicative of the truth of the tour operators' claim. Communities in developed countries do access information on tourism through various information dissemination systems including websites, audiovisuals (films, video and CDs), books and magazine, etc. For Tanzania and other developing countries where level of illiteracy is still high and culture to read is lacking, face to face oral communication has been found the most effective way of promoting domestic tourism (71.4 %) compared to newspapers, leaflets, brochures and books (13.6 %), and TV and Radios (15%). High effectiveness of face to face oral communication has been reported recently for Udzugwa Mountains National park in the Tanzania southern tourist circuit (Alchard and Kamuzora, 2007), and for Kwa Zulu-Natal, South Africa because it plays a more decisive role than any other information source, and also because the

word of mouth has greater credibility (Seymour, 2003). Currently, responsible personnel in tourism industry are striving to put emphasis on domestic tourism particularly during low seasons for international tourism based on past experiences, which demonstrated the sensitivity of international tourism to matters that have no local controls (Ufunguo, 2002) even though it plays a significant role in sustaining tourism industry. On the other hand, failure to take cognizance of local community as stakeholder may depress the spirit of local communities to support WPAs outreach activities. Therefore, concerns and anxieties of the local communities need to be understood and adequately addressed in building a successful tourism industry.

Obviously, there is an archaic attitude among low wage earners and local businessmen to believe that tourism is a luxurious activity exclusively for white man and business men of Asia origin, and not for them. It is also considered desirable to fellow Africans of upper and middle classes, particularly senior government officers and politicians like Members of Parliament (MPs). This notion seems to be common in many African states including South Africa where local people believe that wildlife protected areas and/or mountains and beaches are for the enjoyment of whites and certainly not for the local people (DEAT, 1996). Such poor attitude towards tourism and lack of interest could also lead to low education on matters patterning to environmental conservation and wildlife resource management hence sluggish expansion of domestic tourism. Equally interesting is view about suspicion and mistrust among local communities over government due to the former approach of proclaiming WPAs without consultation with or approval of local communities. The fact that local communities may in some instances be denied removal of natural recourses and/or uses of cultural resources despite that very often they bear cost of conservation through crop damage, livestock depredation and loss of life or being wounded by wildlife may cause low moral to visit the very areas that were once theirs. Education is required at all levels to enable the public understand the interrelationships between humans and the environment while local communities realise benefits of wildlife areas through their

sustainable use. This is will help to safeguarding the biosphere on which we all depend.

Other registered constraints (eight) to success of domestic tourism each with an average importance of less than 50 % (Table 3) were: (1) high transport costs charged for travelling with tour operator's vehicles, (2) failure to recognise local communities as stakeholders, (3) inadequate time and lack of culture to travel for leisure, (4) inefficient system of attending to tourists at entries to WPAs, (5) poor services at hotels, (6) looking down on some categories of domestic tourists, and (8) use of less effective means of information dissemination. The combined effect of these constraints may result to an astonishing negative effect on domestic tourism if left to operate.

Most (95.7 %) of the domestic tourists (n = 134) who visited WPAs used either vehicles owned by government organisations, non-government organisation, personal or hired vehicles whereas only 4.3 % (n = 6) used tour company vehicles, suggesting that high transport charges for using tour operator's vehicles is another key deterrent factor. Only individuals with special desires such as those intending to spend honeymoon in WPAs could afford to pay the rates. Hired transport was mainly used by pupils/students. These results are consistent with the study done in Pennsylvania and KwaZulu Natal which revealed that not more than 5 % of respondents used Tour Operator's vehicles (Mullen, 2002; Seymour, 2003).

Ill attitude, unpleasant behaviour and poor services to domestic tourists by some WPAs staff may in a way have a negative consequence on domestic tourism. Some staff for example, were reported to use abusive language on domestic tourists and normally penalize them without warning when they mistakenly break regulations (Lyamuya, P. pers. Comm., 2006). Moreover, students are looked down and in some areas have been nicknamed 'lunch boxes'. Such ill attitude can be linked with the fact that domestic tourists spend relatively less in WPAs. It is unequivocal that a negative verbal statement or a word can have devastating effects on grounds that many customers tend to use negative information in making evaluations than on positive information (Shimp, 2000). Therefore, such that kind and related ill conducts need to be rectified, and instead a customer orientated attitude and handling

practices cultivated to motivate tourism. Enhancing customer-care delivery of services will bring about higher satisfaction levels.

A biased hotel service is another concern alongside abusive language. For example, very often a foreign (especially white) tourist is assisted with carrying luggage and at some hotels entertainers perform traditional dances for them during meal time. It was dismissed by some hotel workers that a white man is served more quickly than a domestic tourist, with anticipation to receiving some reward in cash (tip) from a delighted foreign tourist in return for better and quick services. Such expressions of satisfaction in cash are not affordable to many domestic tourists, many of whom are secondary school and college students. A similar tendency has also been noted in Kenya among some hoteliers who do not provide good and quick services to local people, even when they are paying the same rate as foreign tourist (Evonne, 2003). Obviously, since US dollar is more valuable than a Tanzania shilling, which is nicknamed "*pesa ya madafu* (meaning *cash for purchasing coconut fruit*), such ill treatments makes domestic tourists to feel second class citizens in their own countries.

Conclusion

As a matter of fact, majority of Tanzanians are still unable to pay for leisure visits to tourist destinations since nearly 80 % of Tanzania population particularly in Tanzania rural live on an income of about 1 US\$ or below per day. Amongst these, by far are the marginalised groups such as women and disabled. Women still depend on men both financially and in decision making, both of which restrain their participation in visits to wildlife areas for leisure. Similarly, majority of disabled individuals have no source of income and some cannot travel by themselves. Such dependence on second person denies them opportunity to travel for leisure. Under such circumstance, the special packages for residents such as relatively cheap entry fees and hotel/hostel accommodation which are encouraged during low seasons when hotel/hostel occupancies are low will never be a panacea even though they should remain as motivation to the minority who can afford. On the other hand, even those in position to afford the packages still perceive the rates as high due to little interest to visit wildlife-based areas

caused by a multitude of reasons other than income (Table 3).

Apparently, in Tanzania, both government and tour operators' efforts have been biased toward supporting/encouraging international tourism. To this end, efforts by all stakeholders to boost domestic tourism and the overall tourism industry should go hand in hand with national strategy towards poverty alleviation. No matter what, domestic tourism may not offer a socio-economic alternative to the relatively expanding international mass tourism so long daily income is a bottleneck.

It is also high time to take necessary institutional measures to diversify tourism products to reduce pressure on the northern circuit.

Recommendations

1. We think that efforts to make domestic tourism compete with international tourism require long-term plans and efforts. For example, there is a need to go seriously for the strategies and or/programs stipulated both in the Tourism Master Plan and in the National Tourism Policy of September 1999, which include:

- (i) active and sustainable publicity of tourism industry and marketing arrangements of tourism products at grassroots
- (ii) increasing number of institutions providing training on tourism to various cadres while strengthening the few that already exist with view to improving the quality of personnel and hence quality and efficiency of service delivery

2. Use of combination of approaches towards improving domestic tourism is of paramount importance since various constraints of varying weights have been reported to affect domestic tourism in Tanzania. Moreover, Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA) and other providers of tourism services should focus their marketing strategies primarily towards improving geographical spread of tourism (i.e. more destinations and tourism products) along with ensuring that appropriate information is disseminated to all levels through various media. Diversification of tourism products is critically important so as to suit various categories of domestic visitors by political/economic status and income, age and sex, and encourage year round travel.

3. TANAPA and NCAA should look for simple and short procedures to process entry/exit of visitors in order to save time at the main entry gates. Jointly with charity organizations, TANAPA and NCAA through the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism should also look into possibility of developing paid for programs of leisure travel to wildlife areas to cater for underprivileged/disadvantaged groups such as aged, orphans and the disables.

4. In charges of authorities/enterprises/institutions/organizations, both public and private, should develop and adopt strategies that encourage their employees to carry out leisure travel.

If the above recommendations are implemented, there is a bright future for domestic tourism in the northern wildlife area and Tanzania at large.

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Table 1 International tourists' arrivals and receipts (1990 – 2007)

Year	Visitor arrivals	Receipts (USD mil)
1990	153,000	65.00
1991	186,800	94.73
1992	201,744	120.04
1993	230,166	146.84
1994	261595	192.10
1995	295,312	259.44
1996	326,188	322.37
1997	359,096	392.39
1998	482,331	570.00
1999	627,325	733.28
2000	501,669	739.06
2001	525,000	725.00
2002	575,000	730.00
2003	576,000	731.00
2004	582,807	746.02
2005	612,754	823.05
2006	644,124	856.2
2007	719,031	985.3

Source: Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tourism Department

Table 2 Age and categories of residence as recorded for domestic tourists in the northern tourist circuit in Tanzania. Figures in parentheses refer to number of respondents.

Age group (Years)	Category of residence		Total (%)
	Urban (%)	Rural (%)	
<20	5.0 (7)	2.9 (4)	7.9 (11)
20 – 25	7.9 (11)	3.6 (5)	11.4 (16)
26 – 31	17.9 (25)	9.3 (13)	27.1 (38)
32 – 37	17.1 (24)	5.0 (7)	22.1 (31)
38 – 43	10.0 (14)	5.0 (7)	15.0 (21)
44 – 49	4.3 (6)	4.3 (6)	8.6 (12)
>49	4.3 (6)	3.6 (5)	7.9 (11)
Total	63.6 (89)	36.4 (51)	100.0 (140)

Table 3 Response of three categories of interviewees on factors hindering rapid growth of domestic tourism in Tanzania (n = 309)

Factors	Random respondents (%)	Tour operators (%)	Domestic tourists (%)	Average importance (%)
Low financial income	72.3	85.2	73.6	77.0
Long distances to wildlife-based attractions	11.3	-	18.6	10.0
Inadequate time and lack of culture to travel for leisure	19.1	29.6	40.0	29.6
Poor promotion (poor information dissemination to the general public)	55.3	81.5	78.6	71.8
Lack of understanding on the significance of tourism	43.3	11.1	-	18.1
Poor attitudes towards tourism as a form of recreation	70.9	51.9	36.4	53.1
Overall low conservation education	29.1	55.6	74.3	53.0
Inefficient revenue collection at gates		-	5.0	1.7
Failure to recognize local communities as stakeholders	37.6	22.2	-	19.9
Ill attitudes of some Tour operators towards some domestic tourists	1.4	-	32.9	11.4
High transport charges for travelling by Tour Operators' vehicles	11.3	51.9	39.3	34.2
Poor hotel services	-	-	25.7	8.6

Note: Total percentage exceeds 100 as one respondent had more than one option from a set of answers