

**CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM ON HOUSEHOLD'S
INCOME IN TANZANIA:
THE CASE OF MTO WA MBU IN ARUSHA REGION**

By

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**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
Award of the Master of Science in Economics in Project Planning and
Management
(MSc Econ- PPM) of Mzumbe University**

2013

CERTIFICATION

We, the undersigned, certify that we have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the Mzumbe University, a dissertation entitled **Contribution of Tourism on Household's Income in Tanzania: The Case of Mto wa Mbu in Arusha Region**, in partial/fulfillment of the requirements for award of the degree of Master of Science in Economics (Project Planning and Management) of Mzumbe University.

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May God bless all those who contributed a lot to accomplish this study.

DEDICATION

This is dedicated to my beloved parents Mr. and Mrs. Lusajo Mwaibale and Mr. and Mrs. Dick Mkisi.

ABSTRACT

There are arguments on extensive roles of tourism as regards to improvement of the welfare and living condition of surrounding communities vested on the relationships between tourism and the household's income. In order to provide critical analysis on the matter, the study focuses on assessing the impact of tourism on household's income to communities living adjacent to protected areas by examining the contribution of tourism income to the total household's income. In so doing, the study examines the effects of tourism on employment and business opportunities in the community and income of the local people at Mto wa Mbu. The study also assesses the contribution of tourism on social services provisions in the community by investigating the supply and employment opportunities and factors that enhance such opportunities. The main focus is on the access of communities on tourism employment, capacity to sell to tourist hotels and lodges and business innovative patterns. The researcher has used both cross-section and longitudinal research designs using the survey and documentary reviews data technique. The survey technique was carried through the established questionnaires and interview guides which were applied to 95 respondents where were randomly selected through the stratified sampling technique. The community of Mto wa Mbu depends on tourism on their day to day economic activities such as selling their farm produces and artisanal products as well as on employment in lodges, hotels and camps. The findings show that tourism has a significant contribution on household's income at Mto wa Mbu through provision of farm supplies and employment opportunities which are provided in the industry. The researcher recommends that, the government and other practitioners should increase their efforts on enhancing the community to increase their productivity capacity especially through education in order to increase community awareness and hence productivity.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
CTP	Cultural Tourism Programme
CTE	Cultural Tourism Enterprise
LDC	Least Developed Countries
LMNP	Lake Manyara National Park
HDI	Human Development Index
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
PPT	Pro Poor Tourism
PPTP	Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
SNV	Netherland Development Organization
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks
TIES	The International Tourism
TTB	Tanzania Tourist Board
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
VCA	Value Chain Analysis
WTO	World Tourism Organization

CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.0 Background Information

One of the most established characteristics of rural households in developing countries is that they obtain their incomes from many different sources (Reardon, 1997, Davis *et al.* 2010). According to the Household Budget Survey (HBS) conducted by the National Bureau of Statistics in 2007, more than 75% of Tanzanians live in rural areas whereby, 81.2% of them are employed in agriculture. Apart from agriculture, rural households are also involved in trading, accommodation renting, carvings, masonry, carpentry, retailing and other economic activities according to the presence of demand for such activities in their localities (HBS, 2007).

One of the diversification areas for rural households in Tanzania is tourism. International Tourism has been the fundamental element of economic development strategies in developing countries since 1960s (Torres and Momsen, 2004). Tourism makes significant contribution to the macro-economy in developing destinations such as Tanzania. Tanzania is among the developing countries with diverse tourism potential such as natural and man-made assets. The common cultural assets include traditional heritage attractions while natural assets include protected wildlife areas and resources, landscape, beaches and mountains (United Republic of Tanzania (URT), 1999). United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) has designated some of these assets as World Heritage Sites due to their outstanding biodiversity compositions for example Serengeti National Park and Ngorongoro Conservation Area. Therefore, it is the combination of these resources that attract most international arrivals to Tanzania (UNESCO, 2010).

According to the World Trade Organisation (WTO), tourism industry is one of the fastest-growing industries in the world and creates more than 10% of global economic output and one in nine jobs with estimated annual revenues of US\$1,550 billion by the

year 2010 (WTO, 2011). The number of international arrivals has risen from about 612,754 in 2005 to 720,000 tourists in 2007 (World Bank, 2008). Likewise, total annual earnings have increased from US\$823 million in 2005 to US\$1 billion in the year 2007 (MNRT, 2007a). In total, wildlife related revenue contributed about 17% of the GDP in Tanzania, second after agricultural sector (43%). The tourism industry is growing at the rate of 5.1% on average annually since 2000. Tourism employed an estimated 198,000 people in 2007 compared to 157,000 in 2001 and has a potential of being one of the important source of revenue for Tanzania (Luvanga and Shitundu, 2003; MNRT, 2007a). In this respect, the government has identified tourism as one of the key income earner and has been prompted to solicit investors into the sector and encourages tourism linkages with other sectors of the local economy (URT, 2007).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Tourism generates cash income for rural households and the community in form of the regular wages for those with jobs; casual earnings opportunities from selling food, wood and crafts; profits from ownership of a tourism enterprises and collective income earned by the community (Ashley, 2000). Tourist expenditure on accommodation, food, beverages, entertainment, local transport services and souvenirs in most cases increases the income earning capability of the local people by creating the opportunity for the community to supply both food and non-food products to the tourist market (NBS, 2009). Such opportunities leads to the expansion of the local farming industry to provide food for hotels and restaurants, handicrafts, art and services such as guiding, traditional dance and music and thus the increase in household's income (Telfer, 1996).

Since tourism is largely associated with economic leakages dominated by the private sector, it is questionable as to whether it contributes to the critical need for pro-poor growth or benefits poor local residents in Tanzania (Ashley, 2006; Kamuzora, 2006). In the competitive global market place destination, tourism should be able to sustain its market share and position and participate effectively and profitably. In addition, destination should be able to create and integrate value-added products that sustain its

resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors (Kamuzora, 2006). Although there are several studies on the role of tourism in improving community livelihood, there are few studies on the impact of tourism and its contribution to household's income. More specifically, this study will explore the contributions of tourism opportunities on employment, supplying opportunities and provision of social services to the community welfare at the household level.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1.3.1 Main objective

The main objective of this study was to assess the contributions of tourism on household's income to communities of Mto wa Mbu.

1.3.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives were:

- (i) To examine the effects of tourism on employment and supply opportunities in the community of Mto wa Mbu.
- (ii) To examine the effects of tourism activities on household income of the local people of Mto wa Mbu.
- (iii) To assess the contribution of tourism on social services provisions in the community of Mto wa Mbu.

1.4 Research Questions

Research questions guiding the analysis of the study were:

- (i) How does tourism create employment and supply opportunities?
- (ii) Does tourism income help household to get higher income?
- (iii) How does tourism contribute in the provision of social services?

1.5 Research Hypotheses

Three hypotheses were developed in order to test the contributions of tourism on household's income. These hypotheses are as follows:

- (i) Whether tourism creates employment and supply opportunities at Mto wa Mbu.
- (ii) Whether tourism income helps households of Mto wa Mbu to get higher income.
- (iii) Whether tourism contributes in the provision of social services provision at Mto wa Mbu.

1.6 Scope and Rationale of the Study

This study was set to examine the contribution tourism on household's income in rural areas of Tanzania. The area for the study was Mto wa Mbu ward in which some selected households were singled out and its people interviewed. The main focus of the study was on the contribution of tourism on raising household income and improving the provision of social services at Mto wa Mbu ward. Households formed basis of the unit of analysis whereby, the study examined the households' involvement in tourism business and their respective income. The study is very important since it highlights the contributions of tourism in the household level and hence forms a good base for poverty alleviation strategy.

1.7 Organization of the Dissertation

The study is organized in five chapters. Chapter one consists of the introduction, statement of the problem and objectives of the study. Chapter two consists of the literature review which elaborates the theoretical and empirical concepts used during the study. Chapter three consists of the methodologies used to accomplish the study while chapter Four consists of the presentation of the data and discussion on findings. This chapter also has provided the summary of findings. Chapter five has included the conclusion and policy implications from the findings of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical part of the Study

2.1.1 Definition of Tourism

Tourism is a term that is difficult to define exhaustively because it embraces a variety of activities, which are undertaken in diverse environments aimed at satisfying a variety of consumer demands and needs (Edgell, Allen, Smith and Rawson, 2008). Tourism ranges from an informal recreation by local people to a highly organized form of mass tourism, adventures or group traveler to far places. In all these aspects, tourism involves leisure, recreation and travel (Filion et al, 1994). Fennell (2003) cautions that there is no acceptable definition of what constitute tourism; any definition runs a risk of some form of distortion. However, Murphy (1985) argues that “tourism” and “tourist” comes from the word “tour” and he defined tourism as a circular trip usually for business, pleasure or education during which various places are visited and for which an itinerary is usually planned. Leisure constitutes holiday, sports and study while business constitutes mission, conference or visit.

In simple words, tourism is referred to the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay into these destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs. (Vanhove, 2005). In assessing the impacts of tourism, it is fundamental to define the major component of tourism: the tourist. The Oxford English Dictionary (1933) defines a tourist as: one who makes a tour or tours; especially one who does this for recreation; “one who travels for pleasure or culture, one who visits a number of places for their objects of interest, scenery or the like”. Cohen (1974) reviewed the literature by defining the tourist as: “a voluntary, temporary, traveler, travelling in the expectation of pleasure from the novelty and change experienced on a relatively long and non-recurrent round-trip”.

There are several types of tourism that are practiced worldwide with different motives and dimensions. Smith (1997) describes five types of tourism which reflect on marketing and socio-environmental aspects. These include ethical, cultural, historical environmental and recreational tourism respectively. In recent years, however, additional categories such as nature-based tourism, responsible tourism, green-tourism and beach tourism have emerged (Goodwin, 1998; Fennel, 2003; Lawrence, 1994; Rogers *et al*, 1998). These categories notwithstanding, eco-tourism are more focused at enhancing the maintenance of natural ecosystems and may be influenced by environmental, socio-economic and human factors (Ng'walali, 2004).

Therefore, the global tourism industry is growing and spreading to more developing country destinations, crucial issues about assessing the impact of tourism at the national level is required. It is important to know how tourism benefits are created and how they are distributed in the host developing country (Bhattacharya and Gangly, 2011). The concepts of linkages and leakages provide one way for assessing whether tourism is having a positive or negative impact in an economy. That is, whether tourism expenditures generate income, employment and government revenues within the national economy or whether the expenditures are for imported goods, thus creating leakages via imports (WTO, 2005).

2.1.2 Global Tourism

According to United Nations Conference on Trade Development (UNCTAD), tourism is the world's largest industry and one of the fastest growing industries worldwide. Nowadays, tourism is increasingly becoming an important economic sector in many Least Developed Countries (LDCs), including Tanzania (Honeck, 2008; UNCTAD, 2007). The United Nations (UN) currently classifies 50 nations as LDCs due to their low GDP per capita, weak human assets and high economic vulnerability (Spenceley, 2008). The tourism sector has proved continued and strong growth in most of these countries characterized with high levels of widespread poverty (Honeck, 2008; UNCTAD, 2007).

Tourism growth in these countries has been strongly associated, among other factors, with adoption of economic reforms that continue to take place in these countries (UNCTAD, 2007). Some other factors that contribute to this growth include a growing demand from developed-country tourists along with abundant tourist assets available, both the natural environment and culture (Scheyvens, 2007; UNCTAD, 2007). The industry's economic potential in LDCs is favourably reflected in its importance as a source of foreign exchange earnings and its contribution to national economies (Honeck, 2008; UNCTAD, 2007). In many of these countries, tourism has become one of the main contributors of their GDP. In addition, the growth of tourism in LDCs, today, is impressive in terms of tourist arrivals, foreign exchange revenues, and jobs created. The tourism receipts specifically for LDCs have more than doubled over the last ten years, from US\$ 2,257 million in 1995 to US\$ 5,955 in 2006. Consequently, the annual growth of international tourism receipts in LDCs has doubled over the same period and their overall market share has increased impressively (UNCTAD, 2007).

2.1.3 Tourism in Tanzania

Tanzania is one of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs). The country's budget is 46 per cent donor-supported (URT, 2008). The country is located in East Africa, and bordered by Kenya and Uganda on the north, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo on the west, and Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique on the south. It borders the Indian Ocean to the east.

Tanzania was formed in 1964 after the union of two countries: Tanganyika, which is the large mainland territory; and the Islands of Zanzibar, which consist of Unguja and Pemba islands. With an area of approximately 945,087 square kilometers and an estimated population of 45 million (NBS, 2013), Tanzania is the 11th largest and the 6th most populated country in Africa. Between 2003 and 2008, life expectancy increased by 7 years from 44 to 51 while infant mortality slumped from 103 to 70 (per 100,000 births) (UNDP, 2008).

Tourism has become the largest foreign exchange earner for Tanzania, exceeding even gold exports, which is the top merchandise export item (UNCTAD, 2008). The country's natural, cultural and man-made assets constitute the strong basis for tourism industry development (URT, 2009). In the past 100 years foreigners have been coming to Tanzania to experience its attractions. Initially, safari hunting was the main attraction. However, at independence the East African Countries encouraged less consumptive uses after realising that wildlife resource will be an important source of revenue and investment opportunity. At independence in 1961, Colonial conservationist (Germany and British) persuaded the newly independent Tanzania President Late Julius K. Nyerere to establish national parks and game reserves as foreign exchange earners in the future (Nelson, 2004).

The success of conservation of Tanzania's wildlife assets has been a concerted effort of both colonial and the present governments (Gascoyne, Laurenson, Lelo and Borner, 1993). It is these efforts that has made possible big chunk of land to be set aside for conservation purposes. A total of 242,000 square kilometers (28%) of the Tanzania's total landmass (945,243km²) have been placed under various forms of protection (URT, 1998). In relative terms, the global average of protected areas range between 3.04% and 5.1% (Goldstein, 2005). This places Tanzania in the league of its kind in conservation of natural resources.

According to Goldstein (2005) until 2005, 31 game reserves, 38 game controlled areas, 14 national parks, one Conservation Area and a Marine Park have been established whereby, one of the main reasons for conservation has been to improve peoples' livelihoods and wellbeing through harnessing economic benefits that tourism can bring.

2.1.4 Tourism in protected areas

A protected area is defined as an area of land or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity and natural and associated cultural resources which are managed through legal or other effective means (IUCN, 1994). Due to a complexity that arose in their establishment, International Union for Conservation of

Nature (IUCN) developed six-category of protected areas identified by their primary management objectives, which include recreation and tourism. These categories include the strict nature reserves/wilderness areas which have three sub categories including those which are managed mainly for science or wilderness protection, those which are managed mainly for science and those which are managed mainly for wilderness protection only.

The second category of protected areas in Tanzania is the national parks. These are protected areas managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation while the third category is natural monuments which are protected mainly for conservation of specific natural features. The fourth category includes the habitat/species management areas: These are protected areas managed mainly for conservation through management intervention. The fifth is protected landscape/seascapes which are managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and recreation and the sixth category comprises of managed resource protected area which are protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems.

Subsidization from government and non-governmental institutions and tourism operations over resources found in the protected area are among the reliable sources of income to such protected areas for their sustainability. Tourism is conducted in sustainable manner which ensures the minimal impacts over the resources (UNESCO, 2010).

Tourism in protected areas has grown rapidly within a relatively short period of time and more demand is envisaged in the future. It is estimated that by year 2020, three times as many people as now will travel internationally for tourism (Robinson, 2003; Godwin, 1998). This growth is partly due to effective worldwide travel, and improved global socio-economic conditions. Other factors include political stability, development and promotion of new destinations, improved global awareness, spread of technology and great interest in eco-tourism and nature based tourism (Canadian Tourism Commission,

2009). Increased interest in sustainable tourism and eco-tourism reflects a rising tide of social concern about the quality of the natural environment and the effects of tourism.

Although tourism is a major undertaking in protected areas, it is associated with problems and opportunities. In many developing countries, Governments initially funded the management of protected areas. The funding was in some cases not adequate resulting in mismanagement of the protected areas. But as tourism picked up, some of the revenue was channeled to manage some of the activities (IUCN, 1994).

Tourism in protected areas produces benefits and costs. Despite these setbacks, tourism has remained a key agenda of government policies in most developing countries (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). Revenue from tourism comes from multiple sources such as entry fees, concession for tourism services and selling of souvenirs. The money accrued is ploughed back for managing protected areas in various forms such as payment of staff salaries and maintenance of infrastructure (TANAPA, 2012).

2.1.5 Tourism in Lake Manyara National Park

In places with vast wilderness or a unique landscape, nature-based tourism can be an important part of the economy (Eagles and McCool, 2002; Jones and Scott, 2006; Scott, *et al.*, 2007). Nature-based tourism is an increasingly relevant area of research (Hall and Boyd, 2005), and a growing part of the tourism industry worldwide (Eagles and McCool, 2002). Nyaupane, *et al.* (2004) writes, “Internationally, tourism has grown at an average rate of 4.3% per year during the last decade (WTO 2001), while the nature-based segment has grown between 10% and 30% per year during the same period (TIES 2003).”

Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP) was gazetted in 1960 (TANAPA ordinance 1959) and become the second park after Serengeti. The park is located in Northern Tanzania within Arusha and Manyara Regions about 125 km from Arusha City. The park covers an original area of 330km² of which 220 km² is in the lake, the remaining 110 km² is dry land. LMNP is one of the famous tourist destinations in northern Tanzania and is a

gateway to Ngorongoro Conservation Area and Serengeti National Park (Muganda, 2009).

LMNP is a famous park within the Northern Circuit in Tanzania due to its high richness in biodiversity. The Lake Manyara which provides habitat for flamingos has high density of water birds, tree climbing lions, rift valley escarpment, ground water forest, high diversity of bird species and several hot springs. All these factors together with the presence of other protected areas such as Tarangire, Ngorongoro and Serengeti National Parks make Lake Manyara to be among of the parks which receive the high number of visitors annually (Muganda, 2009). The area has tourist lodges and camps as a result from that communities living adjacent the park have opportunities of benefiting from tourism through selling handcrafts items and providing touring and hospitality services to tourists passing the area (CTP, 2010).

2.1.6 Tourism and local food and non-food production

Introduction of local supplies is a double win for both the communities and the hotels. As the hotels benefit by getting fresh products, increases of customer satisfaction, granting them a chance to empower local communities and even sometimes reduces operating costs, (Weru and Morgan, 2006).

Despite the several acknowledged benefits from localizing food production and stronger tourism agriculture linkages, recent international research shows the continued increase of imported foods in high-end tourism accommodation establishments in many developing countries (Berno, 2011). Moreover, there is a widespread agreement that increased demands from tourism should be met by local agricultural supplies, as observed by Timms and Neill (2011).

Several critical barriers are isolated that constrain involvement of local producers in tourism supply chains (Torres and Momsen, 2011). In a pioneer work undertaken during the 1980s in the Caribbean by Belisle (1983), several demands and supply-related reasons are offered as to why hotels do not use a greater proportion of local food:

“(a) tourists prefer the type and taste of food consumed in their home countries; (b) imported food is cheaper than local food; (c) hotels accept an opportunity cost to ensure supplier quality and/or regularity of food supply; (d) deficient quality of local food (particularly hygienic quality); (e) hotel entrepreneurs are not fully aware of the type and quantity of locally available food; (f) local farmers do not want to change their traditional crop production; (h) farmers lack information on the types and quantities of food needed by hotels; (i) farmers are inhibited from dealing with hotels or vice-versa; and (j) farmers or intermediaries are unreliable in terms of regularity of supply or fulfilling other contract agreements” (Rogerson, 2012).

The relevance of these issues remain lightly changed as judged from the findings of Caribbean researchers nearly 30 years later (Brown, 2003; Kelly, 2008; Reid, 2009; Rhiney, 2011; Richardson-Ngwenya and Momsen, 2011; Timms and Neill, 2011). Rhiney (2011) summarises the key problems of the Jamaican agricultural industry as “the domestic farming sector’s inability to guarantee sufficient supplies of high quality, competitively priced agricultural produce on a consistent basis”. From the tourism sector the challenge for linkage appears “the lack of communication between industry representatives and local farmers, particular hotels’ high food supply quota and quality requirements and a preference by certain types of hotels to source cheaper price imports over local food provisions” (Rhiney, 2011).

Timms (2006) accounts for limited linkages between tourism and agriculture in St Lucia mainly as a consequence of “the high cost and variable quality of local produce” as well as “poor production planning and extreme seasonality of agricultural product availability”.

The imperative for quality products is stressed by the findings that almost half of hotels in Trinidad and Tobago can purchase only certified agricultural products (Harry, 2004). Improper planning is highlighted as an issue by Brown (2003) in terms of “over production” at times of certain vegetables and of “inconsistency” of small farm suppliers.

2.1.7: Linkages between Tourism and Agriculture

Other significant issues centre upon weaknesses in the agro-tourism value chain, most importantly the existence of fragmented and inefficient distribution systems, inadequate storage, and low levels of adoption of standards or formal quality procedures (Reid, 2009). Further barriers relate to inadequate infrastructure, poorly articulated food marketing and production systems, and lack of farmers' access to credit, technology and markets often as a result of an exclusive focus of the state and local capitalist interests on export production (Reid, 2009; Rhiney, 2011).

Recent Caribbean research from St Kitts points to organizational issues in farming as larger hotels will not deal with individual farmers as this presents them with logistical problems (Kelly, 2008). Thus, in order to capture market opportunities "farmers would have to demonstrate the capability to consistently supply competitively priced high quality fresh produce in required volumes" (Kelly, 2008). Finally, the point is re-iterated from the experience of Trinidad and Tobago that local farmers have little information about the quantity of agricultural products which are required by hotels and of the detailed terms and conditions under which large hotels would be willing to purchase local agricultural commodities (Rogerson, 2011). One added recent challenge to nurturing linkages between tourism and agriculture relates ironically to the effect of 'new consumerism' as rising consumer demands for fair trade and organic food products cannot readily be sourced from Caribbean producers (Richardson, Ngwenya and Momsen, 2011).

Drawing on academic research on the tourism-poverty relations, Meyer (2008) develops a conceptual framework to analyze sourcing and procurement linkages of the accommodation sector. Certain characteristics of the tourism sector are expected to influence the purchasing patterns, such as the type of hotel and tourist, the tourism industry maturity (based on Butler's (1980) destination life-cycle model), the training and nationality of chefs and the promotion of local cuisine. Whereas the Caribbean, high-end hotels demonstrate high food import needs (Bélisle, 1983); Indonesian high-

end hotels were found to actively promote local sourcing (Telfer and Wall 1996). Torres (2003) provides evidence from Cancun, Mexico, that healthy and safety concerns crucially influence hotels' purchasing decisions. Finally, seasonality of both tourism and agricultural production may dictate the extent of local sourcing (Telfer and Wall 2000). Thus, production-related criteria such as the physical environment, quantity, quality and price of local produce, as well as technological and processing constraints may also determine if local food is used for tourism gastronomy. All these factors were found to hinder local sourcing around Cancun (Torres 2003; Torres and Momsen 2004). Furthermore, entrenched production patterns of the agricultural sector may cause a mismatch between the local production and tourism demand, as revealed by the Caribbean case (Bélisle 1983). The possibility of reduced agricultural productivity due to increasing employment of labour force in the tourism sector is also mentioned in the literature (Torres and Momsen 2005).

Tourism-agriculture linkages may be limited due to a lack of interaction between the two sectors resulting from marketing constraints, deficient distribution infrastructure and the spatially dispersed supply pattern (Bélisle 1983; Telfer and Wall 1996; Torres 2003). Governmental policies may foster local food sourcing through the provision of training, access to credit, or mediation efforts between the two sectors. Meyer (2008), however, also predicts that an over-emphasis on the tourism development and unfavourable investment policies may pose obstacles to the creation of tourism-agriculture linkages. Torres (2003) maintains that the analysis of tourist and hotel purchases, while important for understanding linkages, absent in-depth consideration of the political economy of local agriculture and entrepreneurship, provides only a partial picture. Therefore, in order to evaluate if tourism-agriculture-handcraft linkages are pro-poor, it is argued that first, high-value and low-value products have to be distinguished, and second, that entry barriers to the former are highlighted.

The objective of this study therefore, is to furnish the findings from a critical analysis which have been undertaken in the existing international debates and scholarship

relating to linkages between tourism and agriculture as a whole, to explanations concerning the barriers to strengthened linkages, and of initiatives for developing closer agriculture-tourism linkages in the developing world. In synthesizing and critically reviewing material from a range of different investigations the analysis represents a response to the call made for additional comparative research to better interpret the links between tourism and agriculture (Telfer and Wall, 2000).

2.1.8 Diversification of household income

An alternate explanation of household income diversification is based on the assumption of economies of scope in production, along with entry barriers to high return economic activities (Dimova and Sen, 2010). Economies of scope exist when the same inputs generate greater per unit profits when spread across multiple outputs than when dedicated to any one output (Barrett *et al.*, 2001). Many studies of household income diversification view the latter as a move away by rural households from growing crops (that is, being pure cultivators) to off-farm or nonfarm labour, rearing livestock or migration of some members of the household to cities. Other studies measure income diversification as the proportion of income derived from non-farm sources (Davis *et al.*, 2010).

Although the Human Development Index (HDI) for Tanzania rose from 0.458 in 2000 to 0.530 in 2007, poverty in the country is still widespread and acute (Aikaeli, 2010). Four decades after independence Tanzania remains one of the world's poorest economies, ranking 151 out of 182 countries based the HDI scores (UNDP, 2009). Poverty is predominantly rural phenomenon; more than 80% of Tanzania's poor people live in rural areas. The sale of food and cash crops is still the most important source of cash income for rural households (NBS, 2009).

2.1.9 Tourism and Poverty Alleviation

Poverty refers to lack of income and assets to attain necessities of life such as food, shelter, clothing and acceptable levels of health and education. In addition, poverty is vulnerability to adverse shocks, linked to an inability to cope with them. The poor are

susceptible to various risks of health, natural or human made hazards and are incapable of recovering speedily from these shocks economically, socially, physically and emotionally (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004).

Tourism is linked to poverty reduction because of its contribution to the economic development of the destinations (Blake *et al.*, 2008; Luvanga and Shitundu, 2003). Tourism contribution to the economic growth of a particular destination is due to the fact as tourists arrive at the destination, they provide local communities, including the poor, with the opportunities for producing and selling additional goods and services for their visitors, the tourists.

Tourism may raise local production of additional goods and services such as fruits and vegetables in agricultural products; beef, lamb, and pork; chicken and eggs; fish and seafood; equipment and furniture; flour, rice, sugar and other grains; tour operator transfers and packages, and local taxis; as well as dairy and handicrafts (Honeck, 2008; Luvanga and Shitundu, 2003). The obvious outcomes from such goods, services and activities are income and employment opportunities. The accrued income and the generated employment can be essential tools that may help to mitigate poverty levels, particularly income poverty among locals, including the poor.

Over the last fifty years, international tourist arrivals have grown on average approximately annually, making tourism one the largest economic sectors contributing around 10% to the world's GDP (Hall, 2007). The tourism-development nexus has thus attracted researchers' interest since the 1970s. (De Kadt's, 1979) seminal work entitled "Tourism: Passport to Development" shaped subsequent thoughts about both positive and negative impacts on national and local economic development (Harrison, 2008).

The specific focus on the impact of tourism on poverty was emphasized at the end of the 1990s (Sandbrook 2008). The impetus for tourism and poverty alleviation research came primarily from policy circles, which continue to provide the main traction for work in this area until today. The concept of "Pro-Poor Tourism" (PPT) was coined by several UK researchers (Ashley *et al.*, 2001). The PPT approach intends to devise strategies that

enhance the benefits poor people can derive from tourism through a range of channels: direct effects, such as employment; indirect effects, such as selling goods and services; and induced effects, such as local wage increases (Mitchell and Ashley, 2007).

While some research on PPT has found its way into academic journals (Ashley and Haysom, 2006; Goodwin, 2008), the majority has been mainly directed at a practitioner audience. The Pro-Poor Tourism Partnership (PPTP) was founded in 1999 as a collaborative research initiative between the International Centre for Responsible Tourism, the International Institute for Environment and Development, and the Overseas Development Institute. Under the PPTP and with funding from the UK Department for International Development, a number of case studies and working papers have been produced. This research pushed several international development agencies to launch PPT initiatives, notably the UN World Tourism Organisation through its Sustainable Tourism – End Poverty (ST-EP) programme established in 2002.

In the academic literature, PPT is only beginning to be discussed (Carbone, 2005; Harrison, 2008; Meyer, 2008). These scholars present critical analyses of the PPT approach and place it in perspective of the existing work on tourism and development. Particularly useful is Scheyvens (2007) discussion of the theoretical influences of the PPT approach in the context of the main debates on the tourism-poverty nexus. She maintains that the PPT concept was mainly shaped by neo-liberal as well as alternative perspectives on tourism and poverty. Conversely, critical and post-structuralist perspectives had only marginal influence on the development of the PPT approach.

While not necessarily referring to the PPT concept, academics have also analyzed some of the specific channels through which tourism impacts on poor people. The objective of this body of research is not only to evaluate the overall impact of tourism on poor people, but to understand the complexities of particular types of interrelationships. Studies exist on the interaction between tourism and street children (Gössling *et al.*, 2004), street vendors (Timothy and Wall 1997) and SSFs (Bélisle, 1983, 1984; Cox *et al.*, 1995; Telfer and Wall, 1996; Torres, 2002, 2003; Torres and Momsen, 2004; König,

2007; Rueegg, 2009). The largest number of publications falls into the latter group – henceforth called the tourism-agriculture literature.

This dissertation examines the contribution of tourism on the household wellbeing from the poor people benefits from tourism through indirect effects, namely inter-sectoral linkages. However, it takes a narrower focus by analysing in-depth the specific channel of tourism food supply channels, thus contributing to the above-mentioned tourism-agriculture literature (Rueegg, 2009)

2.1.10 Theoretical Framework

2.1.10.1: Theoretical Models and Concepts

Of the variety of models addressing tourism impacts, Britton's (1989) approach, based on the "Dependency Theory" maintains that in order to understand the tourism industry one must consider the organisation of international tourism and examine the structure of the peripheral (host) economy.

This framework is based on the assertion that international tourism is dominated by large companies from the industrialized world exerting influence over or controlling tourist demand, transportation and accommodation (Muhanna, 2007). Within the peripheral economy, Britton (1989) asserts that the multinational companies exert control through system determinants such as ownership and the use of package tours and agreements which are unfavourable for the host country but which can be forced through due to the dominance of these companies. On the other hand, Preister (1989) considers Britton's dependency theory to be too global for use at local level. He claims that locally affected people are not shaped passively by outside forces but react as well, at times even changing the conditions of the larger system, and that the outcome of tourism development is a negotiated process.

Communities are basic elements in modern tourism. They are the focal point for the supply of accommodation, catering, information, transport facilities and services. Their local natural environment, buildings and institutions, their people, culture and history, all

form core elements of what the tourists come to see. Whether as towns, villages or cities, every community has tourism at one level or another, and is affected by the growth and development of the industry (Godfrey and Clarke, 2000).

Community based projects are the most suitable for a sustainable tourism development where the community is participating actively in the decision-making process. Clearly, governments should be involved in establishing guidelines and formulating laws to guide the planning and implementation of tourism development. However, this is not enough. Local community involvement is necessary to enhance or to further develop sustainable communities. An important precondition is that tourism development will be community based, yet it needs the support of locals, regional and national governments.

Host communities must have a right of voice in shaping their future community and has called for the maximum involvement of the local community to maximise socio-economic benefits of tourism for the community (Tosun, 2000). In doing so, the first thing to achieve is the local communities' understanding on the importance and the repercussions of tourism development in their region in order to encourage an authentic participation and involvement. Local communities and the various stakeholders must be familiar with the process to appreciate it and thereby support it (Cottrell, 2001:7).

Mitchell and Ashley (2010) identify different pathways to study the benefits to the poor from tourism. One of these pathways is indirect benefit flows to the poor through induced impacts which exist through tourism supplying food and non-food products to tourist accommodation facilities. According to Mitchell and Ashley (2010), the scope for policy and intervention to boost procurement of local supplies can be considerable. Ashley and Haysom (2008) describe the income earned from such supplies as 'pro-poor flows' as they are able to incorporate the poor. In addition, both Meyer (2007) and Janis (2011) emphasize that supply chains represent an important and increasingly studied avenue for reducing poverty through tourism.

2.1.10.2: Linkages between Agriculture and Tourism

With the expansion of tourism-led development in many parts of Africa, Asia and Latin America, however, many economists, tourism scholars and development planners are examining mechanisms to maximise tourism impacts for destination national and local economies. It has been observed that fomenting responsible linkages between agriculture and tourism offers much promise for development intervention in the global South, not least because a major segment of their production and communities is inextricably linked to agriculture (Asiedu and Gbedema, 2011). For Meyer (2007) sourcing local agricultural products is one of the key benefits that the tourism sector can offer in the developing world.

From an African perspective Asiedu and Gbedema (2011) argue that “agriculture is able to integrate with tourism to generate increased growth and development in rural settings and poorer and marginalized sections of the society through pro-poor policy interventions”. Finally, a symbiotic linkage between tourism and agriculture is a cornerstone for promoting local economic development in Africa (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2010).

A slightly different asset classification was presented by Reardon *et al.*, (1994), who emphasised on the physical environment, the economic and institutional environment, the type of available non-farm activities, and the control over resources and activities within households as essential determinants of income diversification. Islam (1997) stressed the role of infrastructure development, the level of education and access to credit facilities as contributors to the growth of the rural sector. According to Reardon (1997), agro-climatic zone-related factors, the infrastructure and distance from the markets have an impact on earnings from the non-farm sector because increasing population density lowers transaction costs and raises demand for non-farm products. On the other hand, it has been found that competition is tougher between urban products and locally manufactured products near urban areas, which could lead to the displacement of labour-intensive rural manufacturing activities, such as basket making, beer brewing, weaving and pottery (Haggblade *et al.*, 2002).

On the household level, Reardon (1997) considered land area, family size and structure, education, and access to capital and labour the most significant determinants of diversification. There is evidence that the initial endowment of resources that creates differences in the capacity to diversify and enter the non-farm labour market may continue to affect household and gender differentiation over time, and could thus lead to unequal distributional results. Winters *et al.*, (2006) noted that assets may depreciate or accumulate over time and are not fixed, thus the household's diversification capacity and need may vary over time. Social capital in the form of networks, memberships, and family and gender relations is also recognised as a determinant of diversification according to Ellis (2000) and Davis (2003). These networks may, for example, improve access to market information. The capacity and potential for diversification also appear to differ between men and women.

Women, who are usually responsible for day-to-day household chores, often combine income-generating activities with these tasks. Beer brewing, oil pressing, small trading activities, pottery making and selling food are typical income-earning activities undertaken by women in Sub-Saharan Africa and normally require only a little start-up capital. Women often have limited access to education, which combined with their household responsibilities means that they are more involved in informal rather than formal employment (Haggblade *et al.*, 2002). The critical issue in terms of diversification may not be gender as such, "but rather who lacks the assets and mobility to undertake poverty-alleviating, non-refuge rural nonfarm activities."

Another concept that reflects increase of the share of the rural communities from tourism is the Community-Based Tourism (CBT) which arose after the Earth Summit in 1992 at Rio de Janeiro¹ in accordance with the Agenda 21 (Phayakvichien, 2005). According to World Bank (2000); Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001) Community-based Tourism is tourism that emphasizes the ownership, management and involvement of communities' members in tourism activities. CBT is not just an ecotourism. While ecotourism focuses on ecological friendliness, community-based tourism focuses on the participations of villagers and the sharing of tourism benefits among them.

Scholars believe differently upon the effect of tourism on household income generation. On the one hand, they believe that tourism can generate much income. Goodwin (2006) compared income of workers in tourism in Gambia between 2001 and 2002 which was a case of before and after access to tourism income. The study found that the income increased drastically. Vendors of craft got around 95 – 198 percent of income growth. Juice sellers experienced a 121 percent growth of income. Tourism guides got slightly 18-33percent more of their income.

Untong (2006) used structural equation modeling to investigate the satisfaction of local people in Northern Thailand upon tourism. The study found that they are satisfied for their increasing tourism income. Kim (2002) did the study in the same fashion in Virginia and found the same results of satisfaction in economic dimension and material well-being. People felt that tourism created employment opportunity, provided desirable jobs and created variety of jobs.

In order to analyse the contribution of tourism on household's income, this study has used the multiple regression equation adopting concepts and ideas from a typical poverty model which is suggested in World Bank's Handbook of Poverty Analysis by Haughton and Khandker, which has been widely used in previous poverty studies in other countries (Engvall and Kokko 2007; Finnie and Sweetman 2003; Shinkai 2006). Haughton and Khandker (2008) provide a detailed explanation on causes or correlates of poverty according to regional-level characteristics, community level characteristics and household and individual level characteristics. The community level characteristics include the availability of infrastructure (roads, water, and electricity) and services (health, education), proximity to markets, and social relationships. For household and individual characteristics it further disaggregates into demographic (gender of head, dependency ration, age structure), economic (employment status, property owned) and social (health and nutritional status, education, shelter).

2.2: The Conceptual Framework

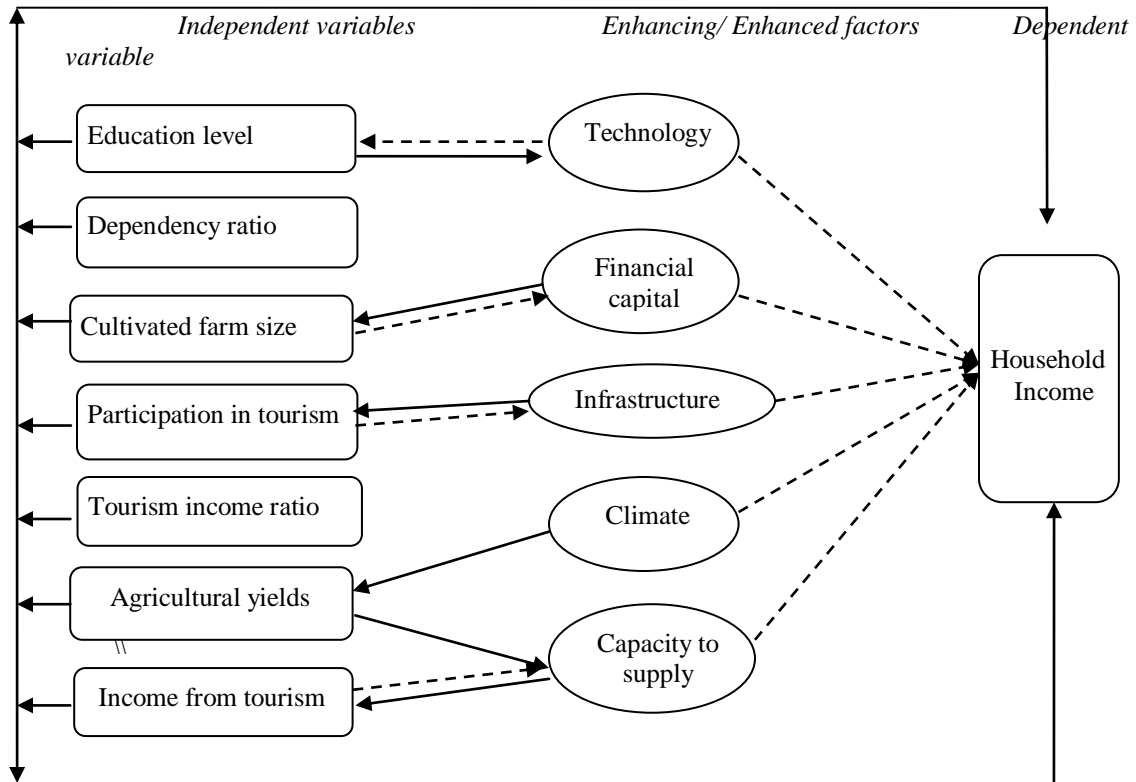


Figure 2.1: Determinant factors to the household's income

Key:

- > Direct influence
- - - - -> Indirect influence

The Figure 2.1 above shows determinant factors that determine the household income. The framework highlights the factors that have direct and indirect relations to the household's income. The community can be able to tap the tourism potentials and opportunities by supplying their products and manpower to camps, hotels and lodges and thus increase their income for poverty alleviation. The capacity of local community to benefit from tourism depends on the household's ownership of the productive resources such as farm land and education given the technology, financial capital, infrastructure, climatic condition and community's capacity to supply goods and services to hotels and lodges. These factors are briefly explained in the forthcoming section.

2.2.1 Definitions and measurements

The Table 2.1 below introduces definitions and measurements of dependent and independent variables in this study.

Table 2.1: Variable Definition, Expected Sign and Measurements

Variable	Description	Sign	Measurement
<i>Dependent</i>			
Lnty	log of total household's income		Natural logarithm of nominal household's income
<i>Independent</i>			
School	schooling time of head of household	+	Number of years attended formal education by the head of household
Lnyt	log of income from tourism	+	Natural logarithm of nominal household's income from tourism activities
Incrat	ratio between tourism and total household's income	+	Ratio of income from tourism to the total household's income
depr	dependency ratio,	-	Ratio of people children under 15 and elders over 65 to the household size
Farm	size of cultivated household's farms,	+	Nominal measurement of the household's cultivated farms,
Yields	Agricultural crop yields	+	Nominal measurement
Partic	participation in tourism business	+	Ordinal responses

The model investigates whether tourism sector has significant contribution in raising the household income. The variables used in the model are described below:

2.2.1.1 Dependent variable

The dependent variable in the model is the natural logarithm of total household income which is the liner measurement of households' income.

2.2.1.2 Independent variables

A number of variables were used to determine the household's income. These include the schooling time of the head of the household, income from tourism activities, ratio between the income from tourism and total income, dependency ratio, size of cultivated household's farms, agricultural crop yields and participation in tourism activities. The

basic concepts of these variables and their relationships to the welfare are briefly explained below:

Schooling time of the head of household is the proxy variable of education level of head of households. Education is an investment in human capital. Education is believed to yield positive effect to household income (Angrist and Krueger, 1990). Education also expands the stock of knowledge (Schutz and Luckmann, 1973), increases worker's productivity (Klasen, 2002), and provides knowhow to do a more beneficial job or access to a higher-paid labor market (Baum and Payea, 2005).

Income from tourism activities is another contributor to household's income next to agriculture providing both employment and income to the rural communities. Tourism contributes to an increased level of income particularly in regions where agricultural structures, natural, historical, and cultural resources exist (Sanli and Tanrivermis, 2007). It is expected that the household which receives income from tourism will have the higher income compared to the household that do not have any benefit from tourism (Ashley, 1995). In order to get good estimate on the extent of its contribution of income from tourism to total household's income, the study will use the logarithm of values of income from tourism.

Ratio of tourism income and total income is a proxy of the experience in contacting tourists and other tourism activities. The contact to tourists can be viewed as another source of education. It is an indirect way to expand the stock of knowledge (Schutz and Luckmann, 1973). This variable has positive relation with the household's income into more income.

Dependency ratio is the ratio of dependants in the household. It usually includes all household's members under the age of 15 and over the age of 64 and the productive part makes up all household's members in between, ages 15 – 64. Households with many children and elderly people will have to allocate working time to take care of the dependents. Then it loses opportunity to gain income. The variable was used in the studies of Zucula, *et al.* (1992) and Mapa, *et al.* (2009). In general, when the

dependency ratio increases, it is expected that the household income will decrease. Thus the sign of its coefficient is expected to be negative.

Another variable in the model is cultivated farm size. This variable determines the household welfare. Given the better farm implements, fertilizers and other agricultural skills, households which possess larger agricultural land are expected to have larger income.

Agricultural crop yields represent the household's capacity to supply food products in quantity. In theory, the higher the household's crop yields reflects the higher income that will be possessed and being available in the household consumption in the household. Agricultural crop yields are then expected to be positively related to the dependent variable.

Another variable is participation in tourism activities. A household is identified as a participant of tourism activities when it gains non-zero income from tourism activities. It can participate to either by providing accommodation for tourists to stay overnight, having direct contact to tourists or provision of the services to tourists such as on souvenirs, art crafts and so on (Tony and Etienne, 2002).

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodology used to carry out this study. It covers description of the study area, study population, research design, sampling procedure and sample size, data collection methods and data processing and analysis.

3.2 Description of the Study Area

The study was conducted at Mto wa Mbu Ward which is an administrative ward in Monduli District. It comprises three villages namely Barabarani, Majengo and Migombani. It is a small and popular town found in the northern tourism circuit in Arusha Region located 130 kilometers west of Arusha town and situated under the Great East African Rift Valley escarpment at an altitude of 960m-1,478m above mean sea level. Rainfall is largely restricted to the short between October and November and long rainy season between March and July (Cultural Tourism Programme, 2010).

Mto wa Mbu is located at latitude 3° 21'South and longitude 35° 51' East. The ward is the host town at an entry-point and close to the entrance gate to the Lake Manyara National Park which contributes significantly to making this study area also popular for wildlife-based tourism (Norton, 1991). Mto wa Mbu borders Engaruka and Mbulumbulu villages in the North, Lake Manyara Lake and National Parks in the South, Karatu in the West and Mto wa Mbu Game Controlled Area, Losirwa and Oltukai Villages in the West.

Arguably, its position within a short distance to the entrance to the Lake Manyara National Park tends to link it up with and/or make Mto wa Mbu easily connected to wildlife safari tourism activities (Van der Duim *et al.*, 2006). It is also conveniently located on the way to the two world-renowned tourism attractions: The Ngorongoro Crater and the great Serengeti National Park, which together make Mto wa Mbu an ideal rest place for most safari travelers. It is a common stop for many safari operators to enable their clients, the tourists, to buy local products, food and drinks and to visit the

area's huge curio market. This market usually sells locally made traditional products such as carvings, Maasai spears and trinkets to the increasing number of tourists (Norton, 1991).

The study area has long been a trading centre where many different people have settled, notably the Mbugwe, Iraqw, Gorowa, Irangi, Totoga, Chagga and Maasai (Briggs, 2002). The area is, in fact, the most linguistically diverse and complex in Africa. It is the only place in the African continent where the four major African language families of Bantu, Khoisan, Cushitic and Nilotic occur together (Amin *et al.*, 1984). Today, the area has a multi-ethnic community composed of 120 tribes out of about 126 ethnic communities in Tanzania (Arens, 1972). While vernacular languages, traditions and customs associated with these ethnic communities often have great tourist appeal, various modes of production and prominence of cultural tourism are some of the examples of this culture diversity (Arens, 1972).

The tourism resources available in this area, in particular the unique nature of the community, make this area more popular than any other place in Tanzania with the Maasai people making the cultural content of the area complicated and fascinating to visitors. It is important to note that central to Mto wa Mbu is the presence of Maasai communities who have been, over the years, described "as a unique and esoteric community that represents the essence of real Africa; people who have managed to resist Western influence and have retained their culture" (Van der Duim *et al.*, 2006).

Most of the cultural tourism projects in Tanzania are often marketed and promoted using the powerful Maasai images (Van der Duim *et al.*, 2006). Because of this nature of community (Arens, 1972), while doing fieldwork about his study on the frontier of change in Mto wa Mbu, the research observed that the population in this area usually tends to be receptive to innovations, which is perhaps an important element requirement for development of community tourism in any tourism destination.

3.3 Research Design

Research design can be defined as a blue print for fulfilling research objectives and answering research questions. A research design is actually a plan or strategy used to find out what one wants to get in the study (Cooper and Schindler, 2006). The type of research design is dictated by the nature of a particular study one chooses to undertake. In line with this principle, the study used both cross sectional and longitudinal designs to conduct an empirical investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its natural context using multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2003).

3.4 Sample Size, Sampling Technique and Unit of Analysis

According to census records obtained from the Mto wa Mbu ward office, the population of Mto wa Mbu ward by the year 2007 stands at 15,969 people with 3,646 households which are mainly involved in both agriculture and tourism business (Muganda, 2009). The sample for the study included the households of Mto wa Mbu and tourism officials from the Lake Manyara National Park and Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP) as to accurately provide information on the contributions of tourism in household income.

3.4.1 Sample size

Households form the basic sample units for analysis. The numbers of households were obtained from the village offices. From this study a total of 90 households out of 3,646 from Mto wa Mbu responded to a questionnaire survey. Village registry was used to randomly select the households visited whereby the head of the household and their spouses were asked questions. Heads of households were chosen since they were major decision makers and have influence in the daily livelihood of the household. In order to save time the interviewer helped to fill in the questionnaire on behalf of the interviewee.

The sample size for the study comprised of 95 respondents on which, 90 households were randomly selected from Mto wa Mbu area and 5 tourism officials were purposely selected from Lake Manyara National Park and the Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism

Programme. The sample population is briefly shown and categorized by gender as shown by the following table 3.1:

Table 3.1: Composition of the sample

No.	Responses by Categories	Male	Female	Sample Size
1.	Farmers	38	12	50
2.	Petty Traders	26	14	40
3.	Tourism Officers	3	2	5
	Total	67	28	95

3.4.2 Sampling Technique

The study used stratified random sampling technique to select the participants to respond to the prepared questionnaire guides. According to Jennings (2001) cited by Shen (2009), a questionnaire-based household survey is a method of data collection which typically uses random sampling. Therefore random sampling was used as it fitted with the nature of the study.

3.5 Data Collection Technique

As argued by Veal (1997) the household survey is one of the most appropriate research methods because it is generally representative of the community; it is designed to provide information of the whole community as a whole and generally represents a complete geographical area. Since this study intended to collect the views of local people, it was therefore important to ensure that there was a high community representation.

The study collected both primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected through questionnaires, interviews and direct observation from the selected sample population while the secondary data was obtained through existing literatures, organization documentations, periodicals, books, researches, journal and other written sources.

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

Data were organized into a manageable form and analyzed on tabulations through Statistical Package for Social Scientists Version 16 (SPSS 16). Econometric estimations were done through Stata 9 in order to obtain and provide better information on the contribution of tourism on households' income.

3.6.1 Data Presentation and Analysis

Data was collected, organized and processed into a manageable form for analysis. The collected data was quantitatively analyzed through both descriptive and empirical approaches in order to determine the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. The researcher relied on the responses that each question generated, and formed the foundation of the descriptions, in order to ensure that the responses satisfied the stated research questions. Results were descriptively presented in tabular forms, figures and percentages (White, 2000). Econometric regression was also applied to some of the variables as to empirically estimate their extent in influencing the household's income.

The study used both cross section and panel data. Cross section data was collected by the researcher through the survey which included 90 households undertaken at Mto wa Mbu in April, 2012. Repeated surveys on the same 90 households in 2010 and 2011 done by the Cultural Tourism Program (CTP) was adopted by the researcher to set up a three years survey that helped to develop the panel data for analysis of the study

3.6.2 Descriptive Analysis

The cross section data was descriptively presented through tables analyzing the extent and impact of factors affecting the community's participation, supply chain and flow of tourism benefit.

3.6.3 Empirical Analysis through the Mixed Model Estimation

Panel data is argued to provide a lot of advantages compared to cross sectional data to an empirical analysis. A more significant reason for using panel data is that it may control the unobserved characteristics (heterogeneity) which is an important issue in

econometrics as it helps to drop out the effects of unobserved factors (Haughton and Khandker, 2008). The study used the panel data to run the regression through the mixed model that requires choosing between the random and fixed effects estimators.

By far, the most widespread technique used to identify the contributions of those different variables to poverty is regression analysis which is divided into two main types of analysis (Haughton and Khandker, 2008). The first type attempts to explain the level of food consumption or income as a function of variables which are considered as causes or correlated of poverty discussed above. The second type attempts to explain whether a household is poor or not, using a logit or probit regression. In the later case the independent variables are the same variables used in the first type but the dependent variable is binary, usually taking the value of 1 if the family is poor and zero if otherwise. (Runsinarith, 2011)

In principle, random effects is more attractive because observed characteristics that remain constant for each household are retained in the regression model while in fixed effects estimation, they have to be dropped. Statistically, fixed effects are always a reasonable thing to do with panel data as they always give consistent results but they may not be the most efficient model to run. Random effects will give better p-values as they are a more efficient estimator, so random effects should be run if it is statistically justifiable to do so (Albert, 2008).

Because the data on household's income is available, the first type of regression model was chosen and was applied for the analysis. The first type was used to scrutinize factors which contribute to changes in the total household's income. A panel data regression analysis with random effect estimation method was employed to explore the effect of a set of independent variables includes schooling time of head of households, log of income from tourism, ratio between income from tourism and total household's income, dependency ratio, size of cultivated household's farms, agricultural crop yields and

participation in tourism business. The regression model is summarized as in the following equation:

$$Y_{ij} = \mu_i + U \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation (1)}$$

Where Y_{ij} is the dependent variable, for $i=1,N$ and $t=1,T$

μ_i is an unobserved random variables which follows probability distribution

U is a specific random effect of households

The model assumes that:

- i. $\mu_i = \beta_i + \varepsilon_{it}$
- ii. $E(\beta_i) = E(\varepsilon_{it}) = 0$
- iii. $\text{Var}(\beta_i) = \sigma^2$
- iv. $\text{Var}(\varepsilon_{it}) = \sigma_\varepsilon^2$
- v. $E(\beta_i + \varepsilon_{it})$

The model will be specified by this equation:

$$\ln Y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 \text{dpr} + \beta_3 \text{Farm} + \beta_4 \text{Yields} + \beta_5 \text{Market} + \varepsilon \dots\dots\dots \text{Equation (2)}$$

The generally accepted way of choosing between fixed and random effects is running a Hausman test. The Hausman test checks a more efficient model against a less efficient but consistent model to make sure that the more efficient model also gives consistent results. The Hausman test tested the null hypothesis that the coefficients estimated by the efficient random effects estimator are the same as the ones estimated by the consistent fixed effects estimator. If the p-value is large then the use of random effects is preferred and if the p-value is significant then fixed effects should be used (Albert, 2008).

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses findings that were obtained during the research study at Mto wa Mbu as shown by the sections hereunder.

4.1 Tourism Employment and Business Opportunities at Mto wa Mbu

4.1.1 Households at Mto wa Mbu

The study estimates of the annual household's income at Mto wa Mbu averaged around TZS 465,600.60, dividing this figure by the household's labour force yielded an annual per capita income of roughly TZS 155,220.20. This is slightly higher than the per capita income in rural Tanzania of TZS 110,532, which was estimated by the Household Budget Survey (from the expenditure side) in 2007 (NBS, 2009). The detail is presented in Table 4.1:

Table 4.1: Summary of findings from the cross sectional survey for the study

Variable	Ob	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Age of head of household	90	38.83333	7.178698	25	59
Schooling time of head of households	90	8.922222	2.468807	0	14
Total household's income	90	465,660.60	147,122.58	240,000	650,000
Income from tourism	90	52,222.22	55,195.15	0	300000
Ratio of income from tourism	90	0.078	0.1453566	0	0.67
Household's size	90	6.322222	1.036717	4	8
Per capita income	90	155,220.20	52,825.78	71,426	182,500
Number of dependants	90	4.077778	0.7378648	1	6
Dependant ratio	90	0.3936667	0.131264	0.	0.64
Household's cultivated farm size	90	2.25	0.6714482	1	4
Household's agricultural yields	90	24.62222	7.052895	12	45
Participation in tourism income	90	1.644444	0.481363	1	2

The household's size at Mto wa Mbu was not very high with the size of between 4 to 8 persons but number of dependants was higher with an average of 4 persons per

households. The level of education was low. The data showed that 17.8% of the heads of households had no formal education attended at least primary schools, 60% had a primary education and 22.2% attended secondary level or higher. The proportion of household heads who had not attended schools compared to the rate of illiteracy of 20% estimated by HBS (2007). Around 65% of the households indicated that at least one family member had been engaged in tourism activities in the year preceding the survey; this makes the annual income from tourism to consist of the 7.8% of the total household's income. This means that 65% of the households in Mto wa Mbu were directly participating in tourism and have a slight income of TZS 52,222.22 higher than those households which don't participate in tourism.

Nature of main economic activities at Mto wa Mbu was influenced by the presence of the Lake Manyara National Park and other protected areas such as Tarangire National Park, Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Serengeti National Park, Manyara Ranch, Mto wa Mbu Game Controlled Area and Engaruka Ruins which create demand for goods and services from the community of Mto wa Mbu. 83.3% of the respondents (N=75) their activities were directly linked to tourism whereby tourists compose of major buyers and users of their services and products. Among those, 38.9% (N=35) were farmers deals with production of rice, maize, beans, banana, fruits and vegetables while 44.4% were retail traders dealing with selling handcrafts, vegetable and fruits, foodstuffs and beverages. About 83.3% of the respondent sold all of their produces to either the tourists or tourist accommodation facilities.

4.1.2 Household' productive capacity

Eighty Five percent (85%) of the total respondents had farms of less than 3 acres. This was due to competition on land uses between agriculture and tourism since the significant amount of land in Mto wa Mbu was used for community and tourist accommodation as shown by the table 4.2

Table 4.2: Household farm size of the community of Mto wa Mbu

Farm size	Frequency	Percent
1 acre	13	32.5
Between 2-3 acres	21	52.5
More than 3 acres	6	15.0
Total	40	100.0

Average households at Mto wa Mbu owned around 2.68 acres which was less than the national average of 5 acres which is according to 2007 Household Budget Survey (NBS, 2007). Ownership of land here is used as a proxy of household's productive capacity which in turn depicts the low household per capita productivity and thus determining the small surplus for supplying to lodges and camps.

4.1.3 Tourists expenditure at Mto wa Mbu

Income from tourism is dependent on the money tourists spend in the community. Tourists' expenditure on accommodation, guiding, expedition, food and souvenirs as well as purchases from lodges and other tour guides increased the household's income earning capability at Mto wa Mbu. The chance of the community to supply food and non food products to tourists is increased especially when such supplies opportunities were strengthened and made pro-poor.

Table 4.3: Estimated tourists' expenditure for the tourist at Mto wa Mbu

Component	Percentage of Expenditures (%)
Accommodations	45.4
Food	24.2
Cultural tourism	4.1
Transport	10.9
Souvenirs	5.2
Park entrance fees	0.1
Total	100.0

The above Table 4.3 shows the estimated percentage expenditures of tourists at Mto wa Mbu. About 29.5% of the tourists' expenditure directly flew to the community depending on their capacity to supply food and non-food products in the required quality, quantity and variability.

4.1.4 Retail trade

The high proportion of retail sales at Mto wa Mbu ward is in the regulated craft markets situated along the Karatu Highway. The government and other responsible tourism practitioners supported crafters since they presented an exceptionally strong tradition in culture and heritage.

Table 4.4: Products which are bought by tourists in Mto wa Mbu

Do, tourists buy your products while on the way to their destinations?	Type of business conducted by respondents				Total
	Arts & handcrafts	Food stuff	Beverages	Vegetables and fruits	
Yes	17 (48.6%)	4 (11.4%)	1 (2.9%)	4 (11.4%)	26 (74.3%)
No	0 (0%)	7 (20.0%)	1 (2.9%)	1 (2.9%)	9 (25.7%)
Total	17 (48.6%)	11 (31.4%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.3%)	35 (100.0%)

In the Table 4.4 most of the respondents (74.3%, N=26) identified that tourist usually bought their artistic products while on the way to their touristic destinations at Mto wa Mbu or elsewhere with artistic works and handcrafts composing of the major products bought by tourist as indicated by 48.6% of total respondents.

4.1.5 Excursions and local transportation

Spending on excursions is important because it takes place at the destination and has significant links with the poor since 25% of all excursion expenditure is estimated to fall in the informal sector. Local transportation represented only about 15% of the tourist expenditure. It comprised two elements, a small car hire component which has little pro-poor impact and taxis, where it was assumed that 50% of the gross local transportation revenue accrues to taxi drivers. Other form of local transport in Mto wa Mbu included the three and two wheels motorcycles known as “bajaj and bodaboda” respectively. These refers to the rapid transport shuttling people from point one to another, The few interviewed motorcycle riders indicated that about 75% of their clients were the visitors at Mto wa Mbu who were coming from different areas within and out of Tanzania.

Also, most of tour operators were found to conduct cultural tourism for their clients before or after visiting Lake Manyara National Park as Mto wa Mbu is famous for its cultural diversity and scenic beauty. As a result of this, youths of Mto wa Mbu offered

guiding services under coordination of the Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism Programme and the village governments.

4.1.6 Agricultural supplies for food and beverages

The purchase of agricultural supplies by hotels and restaurants is an important element of a pro-poor tourism strategy. It generates demand for local agricultural produce and encourages the increase production of agricultural products. This is a key mechanism since it affects the livelihoods of large numbers of poor people especially those who are engaged in agricultural production. The supply of agricultural and food products to the tourism industry can be done directly by the farmer through the market or middlemen.

Table 4.5: The purchase of agricultural supplies by hotels and restaurants

Do lodges/camps purchase your food products?	Which produces do tourists purchase from you?				Total
	Buying nothing	Vegetables and fruits	Maize, beans and rice	Meat, milk and grains	
Yes	0 (.0%)	5 (11.1%)	3 (6.7%)	6 (13.3%)	14 (31.1%)
Yes but through middlemen	0 (.0%)	13 (28.9%)	3 (6.7%)	2 (4.4%)	18 (40.0%)
They are not purchasing at all	13 (28.9%)	0 (.0%)	0 (.0%)	0 (.0%)	13 (28.9%)
Total	13 (28.9%)	18 (40.0%)	6 (13.3%)	8 (17.8%)	45 (100.0%)

The above Table 4.5 shows that the community supplied 71.1% percent of its agricultural and retail trade products to tourist lodges and camps but the flow of benefit from such products was still questionable. It was found during the study that 40% of the respondents shared the benefits with middlemen. Most of the total respondents (40%) to the question, (N=18), reported to supply vegetables and fruits among other products. People of Mto wa Mbu failed to supply meat, dairy products, fish and other high value horticultural produces which always have high return. This made them to get low income share from the supply chain. The common problems on that included the lack of appropriate technologies, limited access to financial capital, insufficient market information, high cost of specialized inputs, high risk and distance to markets and infrastructure (Davis, 2006).

4.1.7 Employment

Another area in which tourism contributes to household's wellbeing is on employment in the lodges, camps and hotels as well as guiding services to tourists especially when visiting these areas. There were 3 hotels, 4 lodges and 16 camps at Mto wa Mbu with the capacity of accommodating 345 tourists per day and employing 250 workers.

To illustrate the point, Table 4.6 below shows the estimated number of people in different categories of employment working directly for the tourist sector. Direct employment involved those who were directly serving tourists and received their income from tourists' expenditure. Job numbers were presented as full time equivalent (FTE) jobs to overcome the difficulty presented by job numbers changing very significantly between the high and low season.

Table 4.6: Direct employment relating to people working in tourism environment

Category of Workers	FTE number	Average monthly earnings in \$	Average monthly earnings in Tshs
Hotel workers	250	115	184,000
Licensed guides	26	150	247,500

Simple evaluation of the relationship between the average amount demanded by 20 lodges and camps in Mto wa Mbu to the amount that is supplied by farmers identified a notable supply shortage. The community at Mto wa Mbu supplied 41% of the amount that is currently supplied to lodges and camps, the rest was supplied by other suppliers from nearby cities and towns. The shortage was procured from supermarkets and other suppliers from nearby cities and towns (Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Average demand and supply per day (average at full time equivalent)

Components	Demand from the lodges and camps		Supply from the community		Shortage	Percentage supplied by the community
	Units	Amount	Units	Amount		
Food stuffs - Grains						
• Rice	kilograms	1,000	kilograms	500	500	70
• Maize	kilograms	100	kilograms	50	150	60
• Beans	kilograms	40	kilograms	10	30	60
Food stuff - Protein						
• Meat	kilograms	200	kilograms	0	200	0
• Milk	liters	100	liters	0	100	0
• Eggs	trays	100	liters	0	100	0
Fruits and vegetables						
• Banana	kilograms	50	kilograms	10	40	100
• Water melons	kilograms	300	kilograms	50	250	40
• Vegetables	kilograms	100	kilograms	20	80	40
		Average				41

The shortcomings to meet the desired qualities, quantities and frequency variability in supplying food stuff at a required point of time resulted from the illiteracy level, inadequate farm land areas were among the factors that caused the community to fail to meet demands on food determined by lodges and camps at Mto wa Mbu. As a result, the lodges purchased food supplies outside of Mto wa Mbu whereby the quality, quantity and supply variability requirements were easily met.

4.1.8 Tourism supplies and household income at Mto wa Mbu

Although the community of Mto wa Mbu depended on tourism to sell their produces, they shared only 41% of the total income from tourism sales since most of their products are sold to lodges and camps through the middlemen who were not coming from Mto wa Mbu. The findings are summarized in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: Extent of local capacity to supply food in lodges and camps

		Supply traders		Total
		From Mto wa Mbu	Out of Mto wa Mbu	
Selling through middlemen	Count	12 (66.7%)	6 (33.3%)	18 (100.0%)
Total share of income		41.0%	59.0%	100.0%

Majority of respondents to the study (75.2%, N=75) indicated that tourism was beneficial in their daily economic activities although part of the benefits flows went to middlemen and thus left them with low income margins of less than 150,000 per month (33.0%, N=33). The detailed information is further provided through the table 4.9 below.

Table 4.9: Income levels in relation to annual benefits from tourism

Income level of the respondent per annual	Do you benefit from tourism in your areas?			Total
	Yes we benefit directly	Yes but the marginal benefit go to middlemen	Not benefited at all	
Less than 250,000	15 (17.0%)	29 (33.0%)	8 (9.1%)	52 (59.1%)
Between 250,000-450,000	14 (15.9%)	15 (17.0%)	4 (4.5%)	33 (37.5%)
More than 450,000	1 (1.1%)	1 (1.1%)	1 (1.1%)	3 (3.4%)
Total	30 (34.1%)	45 (51.1%)	13 (14.8%)	88 (100.0%)

The large share of income from the sales of food and non-food produces at Mto wa Mbu flew to middlemen who mainly act as mediators between the community and lodges and also supply the high returning products such as meat, dairy and poultry products. This brought leakages to the household income since most of the interviewed households were found to be benefited but the major share of benefits (45%) went directly to the middlemen.

4.1.9 Factors affecting food and non-food supplies at Mto wa Mbu

This section discusses factors that enhanced the community of Mto wa Mbu to supply goods and services to the tourism industry. Factors identified during the study include; capacity to process, store and sell products to hotels and camps as well as access to the market and education.

4.1.9.1 Capacity to process and store food products

Education builds the capacity of the community to participate fully in tourism. It enhances them to improve the qualities of products that are supplied by the local community to the tourist industry such as handcraft and food because it has an identified role in shaping technical knowhow and innovations skills.

Table 4.10: Capacity to process and store food products

How do you treat your agricultural produces?	Educational status of the respondent		Total
	Primary	Secondary	
Selling when in the farm	4 (8.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.0%)
Selling directly to the market	28 (56.0%)	14 (28.0%)	42 (84.0%)
I process them before selling	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.0%)	4 (8.0%)
Total	32 (64.0%)	18 (36.0%)	50 (100.0%)

The community failed to supply the high valued agricultural products due to their poor capacity to process and store food products before selling them. The study therefore suggests for the increased efforts in making the community attain higher education as it was found that the only people with secondary education (8%, N=4) were adding values to their produces through advancing food processing and storage techniques as indicated in Table 4.10 above.

Table 4.11: Educational status of farmers and traders of Mto wa Mbu

Educational Level	Frequency	Percent
No formal training	16	17.8
Primary	54	60.0
Secondary	19	21.1
Tertiary	1	1.1
Total	90	100

Majority of respondents (60.0%, N=54) had primary education while (17.8% N=16) had not schooled as in Table 4.11. This indicates that education level and technical know-how of household's head at Mto wa Mbu was very low.

4.1.9.2 Access to market for food and craft's products

The Maasai Central Market is the major marketing place in Mto wa Mbu, which provides opportunities to artisans and farmers to sell their products.

Table 4.12: Access to market for local products

Where do you sell your products?	Which economic activity?		Total
	Farming	Trading	
At the market	49 (54.4%)	14 (15.6%)	63 (70.0%)
At the lodges and camps	1 (1.1%)	1 (1.1%)	2 (2.2%)
Vending in the streets	0 (0.0%)	25 (27.8%)	25 (27.8%)
Total	50 (55.6%)	40 (44.4%)	90 (100.0%)

According to the study, 70% of respondents sold their products at the designated markets while only 2.2% claimed to be selling their products in the lodge and camps as shown in Table 4.12. Lodges and camps in Mto wa Mbu tended to purchase food and non-food products directly from the small and medium scale from Mto wa Mbu or in the nearby cities of Arusha and Nairobi. As a result, the community always remained with few opportunities to supply their products to lodges and camps thus gaining little income.

4.2 Contribution of tourism in raising household's income

Participation in tourism activities was found to be the strongest variable in the analyzed model as participating in tourism results the household income to be increased by 8.8%. Households participated either by selling their food and non-food products, having direct employed in tourist accommodation facilities or provision of local accommodation catering and guiding as shown in Table 4.6, 4.10 and 4.12.

4.2.1 Regression analysis on Mixed Model Effects

The repeated survey conducted at Mto wa Mbu in 2010 and 2011 by the Tourism Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP) have helped the researcher to generate panel data by combining the cross section data that was collected in February 2012 by the researcher using the same households interviewed by the researcher in order to get the

best unit of analysis. The data included 90 households observed in three years from 2010 to 2012 observing changes on different parameters that determine or contribute to raising the households' income.

Table 4.13: Hausmann Test Results

	(b) fixed	(B) random	(b-B) Difference	sqrt(diag(V_b-V_B)) S.E.
Lnty	0.3521905	0.2945762	0.0576143	0.0355931
Schooling	0.0203062	0.013781	0.0024213	0.0313155
yt	0.9961762	1.036209	-0.0400324	0.1325092
Incomerat	0.0306472	0.0339394	0.0329211	0.0601407
Depr	-0.0580973	-0.0711591	0.0130618	0.0267956
farm	0.0507062	0.043281	0.0074253	0.0113555
yields	0.003698	0.0038997	-0.0002017	0.0010573
partic	0.0342288	0.0292081	0.0050206	0.0129337

b = consistent under Ho and Ha; obtained from xtreg
 B = inconsistent under Ha, efficient under Ho; obtained from xtreg
 Test: Ho: difference in coefficients not systematic
 $\chi^2(6) = (b-B)'[(V_b-V_B)^{-1}](b-B) = 5.03$
 Prob> $\chi^2 = 0.5402$

The performed Hausmann test indicated that the unobserved fixed effect was best treated in a random effect since the results of the test is given in Table 4.13 shows that the p-value was not significant at 5 percent critical level suggesting that the random effect model was strongly accepted. Hence, random effects estimation was applied in the panel data regression analysis.

Table 4.14: Regression results through fixed and random effects

Total household income	Fixed effect	Random effect
Schooling	dropped	0.0068575**
Income from tourism	0.0294896**	0.0285271**
Income ratio	0.030961	0.0652367**
Dependency ratio	-0.1411857**	-0.0835675**
Household's cultivated farm area	0.0454055**	0.0385155**
Household's crop yields	0.0064997**	0.0065788**
Participation in tourism	0.094155 **	0.087638**
Constant	4.955474**	4.894023**
Number of Groups	90	90
Number of observation	270	270
Overall R-square	0.8197	0.8490

** Significant at 5% level

The results obtained from random effect method observe the expectation as presented in Table 4.14. The coefficient of schooling time of the head of household was statistically significant at 5 percent level and has positive sign. The value of coefficient indicates that an increase in 1 year of schooling of household's head resulted to an increase in total household income by 0.6 percent. This is true on the ground since heads of households were decision makers and they had great influence on members of the community in career choice (Ferry, 2006). Assumption here was that the more education level on the head of household, the more the rational decision he or she could take and direct household's members to the more income producing sector.

Income that was obtained from tourism was also significant at 5 percent with a positive relation with the household's income. This implies that an increase in income from tourism by 1 percent resulted into the increase of household income by 2.9 percent. This is true since the main source of income in rural areas was agriculture; hence the community's involvement in tourism activities and income increases the total household's income.

Income ratio was a variable used in the model as the proxy measurement of the extent of benefits over which the household got from its involvement in tourism activities. It was positively related to the total household income as expected and it was significant at 5

percent. In the model, income ratio was found to be good estimator of variability of household income whereby an increase of the income ratio by 1 percent leads to 6.5 percent increase in the household's income. The income level of households' which are involved in tourism at Mto wa Mbu was better than the income levels of those households which were not involved at all. Therefore, capacitating the community at Mto wa Mbu to participate in tourism was the best way to ensure the increase in households income at Mto wa Mbu.

The findings also showed that dependency ratio was also statistically significant at a 5 percent level and is negatively related to household's income as theoretically expected by the study. Its coefficient suggests that an increase of a dependant person in the household can result the household's income to decrease by 7 percent. This is because the increase of number of dependants in the households decreased the time one can have for economic production instead, the time is allocated for taking care of the senior elders of more than 70 years and the under 5 children.

Household cultivated farm area also was found to be statistically significant and had positive signs as expected. Its coefficient suggests that one hectare of additional farmed land would result into the increase of the household income by 3.9 percent. It is worth noting that this finding is really encouraging the government and other development stakeholders to build capacity of the rural community with the farming machineries and equipment such as tractors which could enable them to have cultivated more their fields and increase household income and welfare.

Household's crops yields was applied as a proxy of the household's productive capacity since those two concepts are highly related. Household's crops yields was also found significant at 5 percent with a positive relation to household income telling that the household would have improved their income by 0.6% as to the 1 percent increase in household's production capacity. The contribution of crop yields to the total household's income due to the fact that the proportion of the crop yields which was sold was small than that which was consumed by the members of the household.

Moreover, the household participation in tourism business was also significant at 5 percent with the positive sign depicting that involvement in tourism increased household's income. The coefficient tells us that household which had access to selling their food and non food products in tourism had the probability of increasing the household's income by 8.8 percent. In order to improve the households' economic conditions at Mto wa Mbu, more efforts, is needed to capacitate more household to have improved their participation in tourism supply chain.

4.3 Contribution of tourism on provision of social services

Tourism has a variety of economic impacts. The most direct effect occurs within the primary tourism a sector including lodging, restaurants, transportation, amusements, and retail trade. Through secondary effects, tourism affects most sectors of the economy. An economic impact analysis of tourism activity normally focuses on changes in sales, income, and employment in a region resulting from tourism activity.

Furthermore, the findings show that tourism also was also very important for the livelihood of the community of Mto wa Mbu. Tourism contributed to social services such as on health and education also improvement infrastructures such as on transport, water, electricity and other energies. Personal observation from the field revealed that the area had better and improved health centre, schools, electricity as well as clean and safe water. In addition, the area was connected with all of the major telecommunication networks in the country, which were Vodacom, Zantel, Tigo and Zain. These networks help so much the community in exchanging information on different economic and social issues.

The introduced corporate responsibility programmes in the form of Community Development fund (CDF) by the Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP) and Community Outreach Programme (COP) by the Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP) has greatly improved the provision of education, health and sanitation services at Mto wa Mbu. This will be further explained in the coming sections.

4.3.1 Tanzania Cultural Tourism Program

Tanzania Cultural Tourism Program started as a five year project jointly executed by Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB), Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) and Netherlands Development Organization (SNV), from 1996 to 2001 (CTP, 2012). Its objective was to engage local communities in Tanzania in income generating tourism activities to alleviate poverty and diversify the country's tourism products. By the end of the project, Cultural Tourism Program, now Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTEs) was established.

Currently, there are 28 Cultural tourism enterprises located in various regions around Tanzania. Cultural tourism is a pro-poor/ community based tourism initiative in Tanzania that gives a chance to local people to organize some excursions/tours in their present natural environment where the real culture of the people is explored by tourists. Since its inception Cultural Tourism has shown good potential for directly contributing to poverty reduction through direct tour fees, jobs/salaries for local people, markets for local product (foodstuffs, handicrafts), exposure to knowledge and increase in confidence to local people to do little-known things.

Table 4.15: Contribution of the cultural tourism programme

Years	2001	2002	2003	2004	2010
Number of tourists	551	1,116	1,207	2,624	5,991
Village Development Fees	808,000	1,669,000	2,890,500	6,936,000	17,973,000
Bikes	325,000	745,000	1,169,000	4,774,000	11,357,000
Contact person	815,500	2,330,000	3,865,000	6,403,000	18,331,100
Administration fee	916,000	2,254,000	4,930,000	5,935,000	23,964,000
Guide fees	1,002,000	2,150,000	2,389,000	6,325,000	29,630,000
Food	684,000	1,312,000	2,153,000	6,227,000	16,905,000
Accommodation (Home stay)	-	-	-	-	1,110,000
Souvenir	-	-	-	-	17,003,000
Donations	-	-	-	-	18,428,200
Total	4,550,500	10,460,000	17,396,500	36,600,000	154,731,300

The findings revealed that, Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP-) at Mto wa Mbu played a major role in enhancing capacities of the youths of Mto wa Mbu in provision of guiding services. The programme generated a substantial amount from cultural tourism operations in the area. Money generated from the tourism activities was ploughed back to the community in the villages as village, households that were hosting visitors at their places for traditional meals and other arrangement and guiding services provided by youths as the village development fees, contact person fees and guide fees respectively as shown in the Table 4.15.

4.3.2 Lake Manyara National Parks and Community Outreach

Lake Manyara National Park spends some of its money to the neighbouring communities in order to winning significant support on conserving and protecting the park's resources from neighbouring communities for sustainability of conservation. In line with National Policies for National Parks in Tanzania (1994), LMNP management ensures that neighbouring communities receive benefits from the Park to help counter the costs they incur, and increase community support for the continued conservation of the park. The Policies for National Parks in Tanzania states that, 'TANAPA will seek ways to share the benefits of conservation with neighbouring communities in ways that are sustainable and promote sound development' (TANAPA, 1994). The Table 4.16 below shows the amount that has been spent by Lake Manyara National Park to social projects at Mto wa Mbu.

Table 4.16: Expenditure of LMNP on development projects in Mto wa Mbu.

Year	Mto wa Mbu	Total (In all villages surrounding LMNP)	Projects executed at Mto wa Mbu
2001	17,270,793	84,832,962	Two teacher's house and two classrooms
2002	0	0	-
2003	0	84,832,962	-
2004	0	4,507,213	-
2005	0	152,947,520	-
2006	28,642,700	28,642,700	Construction of the Mto wa Mbu Primary school fence
2007	104,000,000	247,540,007	Construction of teacher's house at Jangwani Primary School and four classrooms at Mto wa Mbu Primary School
2008	0	0	-
2009	0	437,903,375	-
Total	149,913,493	1,065,809,579	

As a result of this, Mto wa Mbu received contributions of Tshs. 149,913,493.00 from Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP) in order to improve social services (TANAPA, 2010). This amount flows in the community as the contribution to community initiated projects to be done jointly between the community and LMNP having executed projects worth Tshs. 1,065,809,579.00 to all villages surrounding the park. The projects assisted by LMNP include education and health (Table 4.16).

4.4 Summary of Findings

According to the study, tourism strongly contributed to the development of the agriculture and non-agricultural activities of the community at Mto wa Mbu. Most of the agricultural products by farmers and artistic products by retail craft traders in the area are sold to tourists as well as lodges and camps and hence contributing to 30% of the income of the participating households. Other contributions of tourism were on the local guiding services, spending on excursions and employment in the tourism related business in hotels, camps and lodges.

The community would have been benefited much with tourism, but it did not since it had inadequate opportunity to supply the high value products of meat, milk and vegetables. This was due to the poor qualities and inability of the citizens to meet the required

quantities and variability of food products. Hotels and lodges required the processed and well stored food products and the community failed to supply them since only 4 respondents being the 8% of the interviewed households were processing their products. The poor education of the community was the main result for them to fail supplying such products, therefore, lodges and camps tended to procure food supplies from supermarkets in Arusha and Nairobi thus minimize the community benefit from tourism.

Meanwhile, the Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP) and the Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP) also contributed to community's initiatives on improving the infrastructure and other public services through the benefit sharing programmes as well in building the capacity of the community on tourism development in the area.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

This chapter presents the concluding remarks and the policy implications which lay the basis for recommendations for this research study.

5.1 Conclusion

Tourism has significant contributions to the households' income to the communities living adjacent to tourist destinations such as the wildlife protected areas. These contributions depended on the participation of the household in provision of services and procure food and non-food products. The main economic activities of the local people at Mto wa Mbu were agriculture and petty trading.

The community was found to be participating in tourism through investing in artistic works and agricultural production to cater for food requirements of tourists and other dwellers at Mto wa Mbu and many youths have been employed either temporary or permanently in the lodges and hotels as well as provision of local guiding services. These activities are strongly linked to tourism operations at Mto wa Mbu as it was found in the study that 64% of households at Mto wa Mbu sold their food and non-food products to tourists and tourists accommodation.

Tourism provides market opportunities in Mto wa Mbu especially on the agricultural and curio products. The local community was found not to utilize potentials from such opportunities as a result; lodges and camps failed to get food supplies in the desired quantities and quality from the community and thus procured food supplies in the nearby cities' supermarkets or importing them. One of the limiting factors for the community to use improved techniques for food quality and quantity control was the poor education. Education level in Mto wa Mbu was very low. This resulted into many of people involved in the study failing to use the advanced methods in controlling qualities of their products. Therefore, knowledge on food processing and storage as well the adoption of

good mechanization and agricultural practices are among the major areas that if emphasized more can improve such benefits.

Agriculture is the main source of household's income at Mto wa Mbu. There was a slight tendency of households to participate in non-agricultural activities in order to increase their income. Incomes from tourism activities had significant contributions to the total household income in Mto wa Mbu. The participating households were found to have higher income compared to non participating households. Although such households got income from tourism supplies, most of them received little benefits from food products from tourism supplies. This was due to the presence of middlemen who bought food products from the community in cheap prices and sold to the lodges and camps. Apart from such deficiencies, the income of people at Mto wa Mbu were slightly better to the national averages indicating the positive contribution of tourism.

Through social responsibility in forms of community outreach and village development fund, the Lake Manyara National Park (LMNP) and the Mto wa Mbu Cultural Tourism Programme (CTP) respectively, contributed to the improvement of social services by supporting the community initiated projects on education, health and water. This helped the improvement of provision of social services in Mto wa Mbu. CTP contributed to raising the capacity of youths in provision of local guiding services while at the same time building the capacities of households to provide food and home stay services which in turn increased household income.

The study suggests that the government and other stakeholders have to put much effort on making these linkages pro-poor especially by building the capacity of the community to supply food and non-food products and provide services to hotels and restaurants in order to make tourism to be a viable strategy for community and household livelihood.

5.2 Policy Implications

The government and other development partners have to build the capacity of local producers aiming at improving the quality of their products so that they can effectively access the high end or tourist markets for; meats, milk, eggs, vegetables, and fresh fruits. This can be done by providing education and trainings that enables local people to participate quality food production and being aware of the desired quality and quantities.

Local governments could do more in enabling the local communities to tap tourism potentials in their areas. This can be done through identifying potential areas for tourism business activities, promote them, link them with markets, and facilitate joint ventures, rural finance and to overcome the lack of communication and trust.

Since visitors are often unaware of local circumstances and of development efforts which are being made, the government needs to work together with tour companies and other development partners in making sure that visitors are made aware of the local circumstances. This will help create more linkages between tourism and the local economy.

More investment is required at Mto wa Mbu especially on mechanized gardening, farming and poultry keeping in order to meet the demand of hotels and camps at Mto wa Mbu both in terms of quality and quantities. Education on storage of farm products in order to add values to their food stuffs and other products is also essential.

For the better strategies to improve household income, government and other development partners and stakeholders should capacitate the households to participate actively in tourism activities.

Appendix I: Quantities of Produces and Farm Size.

Table i: Quantities of maize in relation to farm size

Farm size	Farm produce maize			Total
	Less than 5 sacks	Between 5-10 sacks	More than 10 sacks	
1 acre	9 (20.9%)	7 (16.3%)	0 (0.0%)	16 (37.2%)
Between 2-3 acres	15 (34.9%)	11 (25.6%)	1 (2.3%)	27 (62.8%)
Total	24 (55.8%)	18 (41.9%)	1 (2.3%)	43 (100.0%)

Table ii: A table showing quantity of rice and farm size

Farm size	Farm produce rice			Total
	Less than 5 sacks	Between 5-10 sacks	More than 10 sacks	
1 acre	10 (20.8%)	8 (16.7%)	0 (0.0%)	18 (37.5%)
Between 2-3 acres	16 (33.3%)	12 (25.0%)	2 (4.2%)	30 (62.5%)
Total	26 (54.2%)	20 (41.7%)	2 (4.2%)	48 (100.0%)

Table iii: A table showing quantity of fruits and vegetables and farm size

Farm Size	Farm produce vegetables and fruits			Total
	Less than 50 kgs	Between 50-100 kgs	More than 100 kgs	
1 acre	5 (20.0%)	1 (4.0%)	2 (8.0%)	8 (32.0%)
Between 2-3 acres	10 (40.0%)	3 (12.0%)	4 (16.0%)	17 (68.0%)
Total	15 (60.0%)	4 (16.0%)	6 (24.0%)	25 (100.0%)

Table iv: A table showing quantity of banana produce and farm size

Farm size	Farm produce banana		Total
	Less than 10 bunches	Between 10-15 bunches	
1 acre	11 (23.4%)	6 (12.8%)	17 (36.2%)
Between 2-3 acres	20 (42.6%)	10 (21.3%)	30 (63.8%)
Total	31(66.0%)	16 (34.0%)	47 (100.0%)

Table v: A table showing quantities of beans and farm size

Farm size	Farm produce beans		Total
	Less than 5 sacks	Between than 5-10	
1 acre	9 (28.1%)	2 (6.2%)	11 (34.4%)
Between 2-3 acres	19 (59.4%)	2 (6.2%)	21 (65.6%)
	28 (87.5%)	4 (12.5%)	32 (100.0%)

Appendix II: Contributions of LMNP to Surrounding Villages

S/No	Applicant	Village	Ward	Project	Date Approved	LMNP Contribution
1	Titiwi Village	Titiwi	Gehanduu	Purchase of 12 Beehives	2000	186,000
2	Moya mayoka Village	Moya mayoka	Magara	Purchasing of 50 Lts of super dip	2000	1,500,000
3	Getamock/Bugeri/Endala	Getamock/Bugeri/Endala	Endamarariek/Bugeri	Afforestation	2001	1,335,000
4	Migombani Village	Migombani	Mto wa Mbu	Construction of Teachers' house (two in one).	2001	9,986,720
5	Baraka Losirwa Village	Losirwa	Esilalei	Construction of two classrooms & office	2001	9,175,190
6	Barabarani Village	Barabarani	Mto- wa- Mbu	Construction of two classrooms & office at Kigongoni P/S	2001	7,284,073
7	Endala Village	Endala	Endamarariek	Dispensary construction.	2001	9,021,954
8	Getamock, Chemchem and Barabarani Village	Getamock/Chemchem/Barabarani	Endamarariek/Rhotia/Mto wa Mbu	Fuel/energy efficient stoves and how to use them.	2001	132,000
9	Karatu Mazingira Bora and Karatu Development Association [KDA]	-	-	Purchase of fence and poles for Karatu Town Park	2001	1,889,017
10	Kitumbeini	Kitumbeini[Nondoto]	Kitumbeini	Purchasing of school furniture [desks].	2001	1,414,000
11	Lositeti Primary School	Lositeti	Mbulumbulu	Teachers' house (two in one).	2001	11,283,800
12	Chemchem Primary School	Chemchem Village	Rhotia	Two classrooms	2001	6,541,125
13	Esilalei Village	Esilalei	Esilalei	Two classrooms & office	2001	4,215,575
14	Kambi ya Simba Primary	Kambi ya Simba	Mbulumbulu	Two classrooms & office.	2001	7,812,006

15	KDA Association	-	Karatu	Construction of training centre.	2003	2,195,450
16	Karatu Secondary School	Bashay	Qurus	Construction of girls' dormitory	2003	24,217,059
17	Engutoto Secondary School	Simongarsh	Engutoto	Construction of girls' dormitory	2003	27,502,410
18	Engaruka Chini Village	Engaruka Chini	Engaruka	Construction of teachers' house [two in one].	2003	11,200,000
19	Engaruka Juu Village	Engaruka Juu	Engaruka	Construction of two classrooms & office	2003	12,163,040
20	Awet Secondary School	Kambi ya Simba	Mbulumbulu	Girls' dormitory	2003	5,053,000
21	DC' office	-	Karatu	Purchase of 1pc of computer set	2003	2,500,000
22	Selela Village	Selela	Selela	Construction of 12 beacons	2004	505,209
23	Mbaash	Selela	Selela	Distribution of maize to draught areas.	2004	2,000,000
24	Ilongero Secondary School	Ilongero	Ilongero	Roofing of girls' dormitory	2004	2,000,000
25	Engaruka Juu Village	Engaruka Juu	Engaruka	Beds and mattresses	2005	3,100,000
26	Baraka Primary School	Losirwa	Esilalei	Construction of Administration block	2005	36,710,000
27	Imboru sec school	Dayosisi ya Mbulu	Mbulu	Construction of boys dormiory	2005	63,961,235
28	Laghandamur Primary School	Antsi	Bargish Antsi	Construction of teacher's house and one classroom with office	2005	13,758,000
29	Kilimamoja Village	Kilimamoja	Rhotia	Construction of teachers' house (two in one)	2005	15,026,705
30	Daudi Secondary School	Daudi	Daudi	Fume chamber and furniture	2005	9,225,125
31	Baraka Primary School	Losirwa	Esilalei	Pipe water project	2005	11,164,450
32	Mto wa Mbu primary school	Migombani	Mto wa Mbu	Construction of the fence	2006	28,642,700

33	Kitumbeini Sec School	Kitumbeini	Kitumbeini	Construction of teachers house two in one	2006	18,828,668
34	Awet Secondary School	Kambi ya Simba	Mbulumbulu	Construction of sewage system	2006	5,000,000
35	Mayoka village	Mayoka village	Magara	Materials for the rehabilitation of pit latrines	2007	538,000
36	Magara ward	Magara ward	Magara	Construction of Girls Dom. Magara Sec.School	2007	50,000,000
37	Dayosisi ya Mbulu	Dayosisi ya Mbulu	Sanu	Provision of Mattress Imboru Sec.School	2007	9,000,000
38	Barabarani Village	Barabarani	Mto wa Mbu	Construction of T/House Jangwani P/School	2007	40,000,000
39	Buger village	Buger	Buger	Construction of Lab. Buger Sec.School	2007	54,000,000
40	Migombani Village	Migombani	Mto wa mbu	Construction of Four Classrooms M/Mbu P/School	2007	64,000,000
41	Engutoto Secondary School	Engutoto	Engutoto	Materials for construction of Girls Dom. Engutoto Sec.School	2007	30,000,000
42	Engaruka Juu Village	Engaruka Juu village	Engaruka	Construction of Four Classrooms Engaruka juu P/School	2009	42,400,000
43	Magara ward	Magara ward	Magara	Construction of Girls Dom. Magara Sec.School	2009	68,912,200
44	Slahhamo sec school	Slahhamo	Mbulumbulu	Construction of science laboratory	2009	83,168,666
45	Mayoka village	Mayoka village	Magara	Pipe water project	2009	243,420,500
TOTAL						1,051,968,877

Appendix III: A Questionnaire Guide to the Community

This questionnaire is organized for the academic purpose from Mzumbe University as the partial fulfillment of Master of Science Degree in Economics majoring in Project Planning and Management (MSc. Econ.-PPM). You are requested to fill in the blanks and tick on the appropriate answer especially on multiple choice questions. These questions are designed to provide information on tourism activities and household's income. The information obtained here will be treated in confidentiality for research purposes only.

Thank you for your cooperation!

1. Age:.....
2. Sex:.....
3. Marital Status:.....
4. Education level:.....
5. Size of your household:.....
6. Number of children less 15 and elders more than 65.....
7. Do you involve yourself in agricultural production?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
8. Mention the crops you produce. Quantity
 - i:.....
 - ii:.....
 - iii:.....
9. Farm size in hectars { }
10. Average of household's total annual income { }
11. Income from tourism among the total income { }
12. Where do you sell your agricultural produces?
 - a. Local markets
 - b. Tourist accommodation facilities
 - c. Street vending
 - d. Others (specify).....

13. What processes do you follow in taking care of your agricultural produces?

- a. Selling at disposal
- b. Selling at the market
- c. Processing and Packaging
- d. Both a, b, and c.
- d. Others (Specify)

14. Do tourists buy your food produces on the way to their destinations?

- a. Yes
- b. No

15. If yes, which produces? (Mention)

.....
.....
.....

16. Do tourist accommodation facilities such as lodges and camps buy your agricultural produces?

- a. Yes
- b. No

17. If yes, which produces? (Specify)

.....
.....
.....

18. If no, why? (explain)

.....
.....

19. Are you participating in other activities rather than agriculture?

- a. Yes
- b. No

Appendix IV: Dodoso kwa Wananchi wa Mto wa Mbu

Dodoso hili limeandaliwa kwa malengo ya kukamilisha masomo ya Shahada ya Pili ya Sayansi katika Uchumi ya Chuo Kikuu Mzumbe. Tafadhali unaombwa kutumia muda wako wa thamani kujibu maswali yafuatayo kwa kujaza sehemu zilizo wazi au kuchagua jibu sahihi kwa maswali na kuweka alama ya (\surd) kwa maswali ya kuchagua. Maswali haya yameandaliwa kwa minajili ya kutoa taarifa sahihi kuhusu mahusiano yaliyopo kati ya shughuli za utalii na kipato cha kaya. Taarifa utoazo zitazingatia usiri, kwa minajiri ya utafiti tu

Ninashukuru sana kwa ushirikiano wako!

1. Umri:.....
2. Jinsia:.....
3. Hali ya ndoa:.....
4. Kiwango cha elimu:.....
5. Idadi ya watu katika kaya yako:.....
6. Idadi ya watu wenye umri chini ya miaka 15 na juu ya miaka 65.....
7. Unajishughulisha na shughuli za kilimo?
 - a. Ndiyo
 - b. Hapana

Kama jibu katika swali la 7 hapo juu ni “ndiyo”, endelea na swali la 8 hadi 18.

8. Orodhesha mazao unayozalisha na wastani wa uzani

Mazao	Idadi
i:.....
ii:.....
iii:.....

9. Ukubwa wa shamba ulilonalo katika hekari { }
10. Wastani wa kipato chako cha mwaka (kwa msimu wa kilimo) { }
11. Kipato cha kaya kinachotokana na utalii { }

12. Unauza wapi mazao yako?

- a. Sokoni
- b. Katika hoteli na kambi za watalii
- c. Nauza mtaani (kuchuuza)
- d. Sehemu zingine (zitaje).....

13. Unayaandaa vipi mazao yako kabla ya kuyauza?

- a. Nayauza yakiwa shambani
- b. Nayauza sokoni moja kwa moja
- c. Nayasindika na kuyafunga kabla ya kuyauza
- d. majibu a, b, na c ni sahihi.
- d. Namna nyingine (taja)

14. Watalii huwa wananunua mazao yako wakiwa wanaeleka kwenye maeneo yao ya utalii?

- c. Ndiyo
- b. Hapana

15. Kama jibu ni “ndiyo” ni mazao gani hayo yanayonunuliwa na watalii? (Yataje)

.....
.....
.....
.....

16. Je, kambi na hoteli za wataalii huwa zinanunua mazao kutoka kwako/ kwenu?

- b. Yes
- b. Hapana

17. Kama jibu la swali 16 hapo juu ni “ndiyo” ni mazao gani hayo yanayonunuliwa na makambi hayo? (Yataje).....

.....
.....
.....

Appendix V: Regression Results on Mixed Effects Estimations

A: Random effects estimation

```

Random-effects GLS regression           Number of obs   =    270
Group variable (i): household          Number of groups =    90
R-sq:  within = 0.8764                 Obs per group: min =    3
      between = 0.8202                   avg =    3.0
      overall = 0.8490                   max =    3
Random effects u_i ~ Gaussian          Wald chi2(7)    = 1073.08
corr (u_i, X) = 0 (assumed)           Prob > chi2     = 0.0000

```

Inty	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
schooling	0.0068575	0.0021928	3.13	0.002	0.0025597 0.0111553	
incrat	0.0652367	0.0317894	2.05	0.040	0.0029306 0.1275429	
lnyt	0.0285271	0.0047295	6.03	0.000	0.0192575 0.0377966	
depr	-0.0835675	0.0303356	-	0.006	- -	
farm	0.0385155	0.0161837	2.38	0.017	0.0067961 0.070235	
yields	0.0065788	0.0016139	4.08	0.000	0.0034155 0.009742	
partic	0.0876381	0.0207461	4.22	0.000	0.0469764 0.1282997	
_cons	4.894023	0.0497023	98.4	0.000	4.796608 4.991438	
			7			
sigma_u	0.03237875					
ssigma_e	0.04270691					
Rho	0.36500244	(fraction of variance due to u_i)				

B: Fixed effects estimations

```

Fixed-effects (within) regression      Number of obs      =    270
Group variable (i): household         Number of groups   =     90
R-sq:  within = 0.8797                 Obs per group: min =     3
      between = 0.7562                                     avg  =    3.0
      overall  = 0.8197                                     max  =     3
                                          F(6,114)           = 138.88
corr(u_i, Xb) = 0.0466                 Prob > F           = 0.0000
  
```

lnty	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z 	[95% Conf. Interval]	
schoolin	(dropped)					
g						
incr	0.030961	0.0358249	0.86	0.389	-0.0400079	0.10193
lnty	0.0294896	0.0050407	5.85	0.000	0.019504	0.0394751
depr	-0.1411857	0.0419243	-	0.001	-0.2242373	-0.058134
			3.37			
farm	0.0454055	0.0177919	2.55	0.012	0.0101599	0.080651
yields	0.0064997	0.0017725	3.67	0.000	0.0029885	0.0100109
partic	0.094155	0.022888	4.11	0.000	0.048814	0.139496
_cons	4.955474	0.0553767	89.4	0.000	4.845773	5.065175
			9			
sigma_u	0.04729156					
ssigma_e	0.04270691					
Rho	0.55080953 (fraction of variance due to u_i)					

F test that all u_i=0: F(59, 114) = 2.70 Prob > F = 0.0000

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CURRICULUM VITAE

1. PERSONAL DETAILS.

NAME : EMMANUEL IGIHA.
DATE AND PLACE OF BIRTH : 30th DECEMBER, 1979.
NATIONALITY : TANZANIAN.
MARITAL STATUS : SINGLE.
GENDER : MALE.
SPOKEN & WRITTEN LANGUAGES: ENGLISH, SWAHILI, ITALIAN & FRENCH
HOBBIES : READING PROFESSIONALS, MAGAZINES,
NOVELS; WATCHING MOVIES;
SOCIALIZATION AND TRAVELLING.

2. CONTACT ADDRESS. Physical: TANZANIA NATIONAL PARKS (TANAPA)
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3. ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS.

Oct. 2010 – Oct. 2013 : Master of Science in Economics (Project Planning & Management) at Mzumbe University – Morogoro.
June, 2007 - July 2008 : Post Graduate Diploma in Poverty Analysis at ISS/ REPOA/ ESRF
Sept 2002 – June 2005: Bachelor of Science in Economics (Project Planning & Management) at Mzumbe University – Morogoro.
July 1999 - May 2001 : Advanced Certificate of Secondary Education at Tambaza High School – Dar es Salaam.
Jan 1995 - Oct. 1998 : Certificate of Secondary Education at Milambo Secondary School- Tabora.
Jan 1988 - Sept 1994 : Certificate of Primary School Education at Cheyo “A” Primary School.

4. SEMINARS & WORKSHOPS ATTENDED.

4.1 SEMINARS/WORKSHOPS AT MZUMBEUNIVERSITY (as Part of the B: Sc Program)

1st year : Computer Application on Ms Word, Ms Access, Ms Excel, MsPower Point and Internet Programmes.
2nd Year : Organization Behaviour and Change Management.
3rd Year : Critical Thinking and Research Methodology.

4.2 SEMINARS/ WORKSHOP AT MZUMBE UNIVERSITY (As Part of the Msc Program)

- ⇒ Data analysis using SPSS and STATA
- ⇒ Project Management techniques using Ms. Project
- ⇒ Enterprises and entrepreneurship development in Project Planning and Management

4.3. SEMINARS /WORKSHOP ATTENDED ON JOB.

- May 2009 : Environmental Impact Assessment and Audit at Lake Manyara national Park by Institute of Resource Assessment of University of Dar es Salaam.
- June 2006 : Capacity Building and Advocacy to Civil Based Organization in Dar es Salaam by Research on Poverty Alleviation (REPOA)
- Sept. 2005 : Strategic Planning Workshop by Caritas Southern Highlanders- Network at Nazareth Youths Centre-Njombe.
- Feb. 2005 : Project Planning, Management, Monitoring and Evaluation Workshop by Southern Highlanders- Network at Wakalmadolesi Centre-Mafinga.

5.0 RESEARCHES CONDUCTED.

- Oct. 2011 – Oct. 2013: Contribution of Tourism on Household's Income in Tanzania: The Case of Mto wa Mbu in Arusha Region. (As part of requirement for an award of a Masters' Degree in Economics at Mzumbe University)
- November 2005 : Assessment of Lake Nyasa Fish Market in Mbeya, Tukuyu, Kyela and Matema.
- Sept. 2004-Jan. 2005: Effectiveness of Agricultural Marketing Information on Small Traders in Dodoma Town. Case Study: Ministry of Cooperative and Marketing. (As part of requirement for an award of a Bachelor Degree in Economics at Mzumbe University)

6.0 OBJECTIVE.

The learning opportunity would further develop my opportunities to eventually work more efficiently and effectively towards attainment of the organizational goals and objectives as well as advancements in the career development.

7.0 SPECIAL SKILLS.

- ⇒ Ability to work as a part of a team as well as independently.
- ⇒ Ability to work efficiently and under pressure.
- ⇒ Confident in my technical skills.
- ⇒ Ability to perform field works and duties.
- ⇒ Ability to collect and analyze field research data.
- ⇒ Ability to learn and adopt to new environment and requirements

- ⇒ Ability to meet deadlines

8.0 PROFESSIONAL SKILLS.

- ⇒ Project Planning, Appraisal and Financing.
- ⇒ Project Planning and Development Policy Analysis.
- ⇒ Agricultural Planning, Policy and Development.
- ⇒ Project Implementation and Management.
- ⇒ Quantitative Economics and Research Analysis.
- ⇒ Human Resources Development and Organization Behaviour.
- ⇒ Enterprises and Entrepreneurship Development.
- ⇒ Social Works and Community Development Management.
- ⇒ Strategic Thinking, Planning and Management.
- ⇒ Environmental and Natural Resources Impact Assessment, Planning and Management.

9.0 EXPERIENCE DETAILS

9.1 WORK EXPERIENCE.

September 2008 up to now: Planning Officer - Tanzania National Parks (TANAPA)

September 2005 up August 2008: Planning/ programme Officer - Njombe Development Office (NDO)

9.2 DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES.

a. At TANAPA

- ⇒ Participating in planning workshops and writing up General Management Plans/Environmental Impact Assessments;
- ⇒ Participating in preparation of General Management Plans/Environmental Impact Assessments and Corporate Strategic Plan;
- ⇒ Participating in monitoring and evaluating the implementation of General Management Plans/Environmental Impact Assessments and Corporate Strategic Plan;
- ⇒ Participating in conducting of Environmental Impact Assessments and environmental audit for all facilities and developments in the parks;
- ⇒ Develop and establish standardized new activities and facilities in the parks
- ⇒ Preparing site plans for park projects;
- ⇒ Participating in monitoring and evaluation of development projects
- ⇒ Collecting and analyzing economical data for planning purposes

b. While at NDO

- ⇒ Develop and implement project accountability, monitoring and evaluation frameworks and log frames that identify and monitor strategic goals, milestones, outcomes and performance measures for the overall project and for component activities.

- ⇒ Review and evaluate performance and accomplishments of activities on a regular basis and make necessary resolutions and recommendations as needed.
- ⇒ Plans and develops methods and procedures for program implementation on order to develop departmental goals and objectives.
- ⇒ Reviews reports and records of activities to ensure progress are being accomplished toward specified program objective and modify or change methodology as required, redirecting activities to attain objectives.
- ⇒ Prepares and directs written correspondence, reports, procedures, and other materials and maintains and directs the maintenance of working and official departmental files.
- ⇒ Developing, implementing, and enforcing policies, procedures and standards.
- ⇒ Planning and organizing the delivery of programs and services by prioritizing and allocating available resources, reviewing and evaluating program and service delivery; making recommendations for improvement and ensuring maximum effective service delivery.
- ⇒ Developing program budgets.
- ⇒ To perform any other duties as assigned by the authority.

10.0 REFEREES.

1. Dr. Ezekiel A. Dembe,

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2. Mr. Lusajo. J. A. Mwaibale,

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11.0 Declaration.

I, the undersigned, do declare that the information provided in this curriculum vitae is correct to the best of my knowledge.

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Emmanuel Igiha