

**CONTRIBUTION OF HUNTING TOURISM ON SOCIO  
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES  
A CASE OF UGALLA ECOSYSTEM**

**By**

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**A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award  
of the Degree of Master of Business Administration (Corporate Management) of  
Mzumbe University.**

**2013**

## CERTIFICATION

We, the undersigned, certify that we have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by Mzumbe University, a dissertation entitled, **Contribution of Hunting Tourism on Socio-Economic Development for Local Communities: A Case of Ugalla Ecosystem**, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Masters of Business Administration (Corporate Management) of Mzumbe University.

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### **DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my wife, Happiness R. Masha, my pastor Leonard M. Mwizarubi and my parents Mr. and Mrs. Thomas Njau whose prayers, endurance and encouragements, despite their responsibilities inspired me tremendously during the entire period of my study.

## **ABBREVIATIONS**

AAPG	Addis Ababa Principles and Guidelines for the sustainable use of biodiversity
ABUSAT	African Buffalo Safari Trackers
ACF	African Conservation Foundation
AIDS	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
APU	Anti Poaching Unit
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBO	Community Based Organization
CDP	Community Development Programme
CIC	International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation
CITES	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Flora and Fauna
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DC	District Council
DOI	Department of Interior
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FCF	Friedkin Conservation Fund

FRs	Forest Reserves
GCA	Game Controlled Areas
GMP	General Management Plan
GNI	Gross National Income
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HT	Hunting Tourism
IGPs	Income Generating Projects
IGAs	Income Generating Activities
ILO	International Labour Organization
IUCN	International Union for Conservation of Nature
JUHIWAI	Jumuiya ya Hifadhi Wanyamapori Ipole
MNC	Multinational Corporations
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
MP	Member of Parliament
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NCAA	Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority
NGO	Non - Governmental Organization
NOA	Night Out Allowance
OA	Open Areas
PAs	Protected Areas

PACE	Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe
PAWM	Planning and Assessment for Wildlife Management
RHWF	Robin Hurt Wildlife Foundation
SCI	Safari Club International
SGR	Selous Game Reserve
SHT	Sustainable Hunting Tourism
SIFICO	Sikonge Fishing Cooperative
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STIs	Sexually Transmitted Infections
TBL	Triple Bottom Line
TAHOA	Tanzania Hunting Operators Association
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks
TAWICO	Tanzania Wildlife Corporation
TGTS	Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris
TH	Tourist Hunting
TNRF	Tanzania Natural Resources Forum
TR	Treasury
TWPF	Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund
TZS	Tanzania Shillings
UE	Ugalla Ecosystem

URT	United Republic of Tanzania
UGR	Ugalla Game Reserve
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
USD	United States Dollar
UWIMA	Uyumbu Wildlife Management Association
VICOBA	Village Community Bank
WCA	Wildlife Conservation Act
WD	Wildlife Division
WMAs	Wildlife Management Areas
WPT	Wildlife Policy of Tanzania

## **ABSTRACT**

The study was tailored to assess contribution of hunting tourism on socio-economic development for local communities living in Ugalla Ecosystem particularly in Sikonge, Urambo and Kaliua districts in Tabora and Katavi regions. Specifically the study aimed at; assessing socio-economic status of local communities living in this ecosystem, determining potentials and challenges of hunting tourism in the ecosystem and assessing corporate social responsibilities availed to the local communities in the area by different actors in this industry. The area is estimated to have a population size of five hundred (500,000) people living in the ecosystem.

A sample size of one hundred (100) respondents calculated based on Nassiuma's formula was taken for the study. The sample comprised of various respondents stratified to villagers, poachers, staff working with the industry in this ecosystem, district natural resources officers as well as the key management officials from related organizations managing the industry in the ecosystem. Data were collected using structured questionnaires, conducting in-depth interviews, field observations and exploring related documents before being analyzed using Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) programs. The results were produced in form of tables, charts, mean/averages, frequencies, photographs, figures and graphs.

The findings show that majority of people living in this ecosystem are poor. Despite the potentialities of the industry, yet the challenges facing the same downplay its achievements in realizing an optimal socio-economic transformation for the life of these people. Most corporate social initiatives have been unreliable and mainly directed to district and community level. The study recommends relevant institutional reforms to be undertaken towards relieving the poor condition of the people, control poaching and thus achieving a sustainable tourist hunting business in Ugalla Ecosystem.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1 Background to the Study**

The international perspective of hunting tourism owes its origin in North America where populations of game animals have been greatly increasing due to conservation programmes funded by trophy hunters (Leader-Williams, Kayera & Everton, 1996). Tourist hunting [TH] (also known as trophy, sport or safari hunting) refers to legitimate and organized hunting activities undertaken by individuals whose primary objective is securing trophies from killed animals, birds and reptiles. This form of hunting is mostly undertaken by visiting tourists, mostly from the United States (Han & Radder, 2011). With more than 19 million game hunters, North America's hunting and fishing generate more than US\$ 16 billion per year. Most of the revenues (About 75%) generated from hunting support conservation rather than being deposited in general treasuries. The revenues cover most of the costs of reintroducing, managing and policing various species of game animals (Leader-Williams et al. 1996).

The conservation strategy adopted has succeeded by the increased population sizes of the game animals such that many populations of species once on the brink of extinction have been restored together with their habitats by the wise use of revenues generated from hunters. The increase in abundance and availability of game animals triggered more people to become hunters such that a positive feedback cycle led to more revenues for game department resulting to more land being designated for wildlife conservation. The industry created 1.3million jobs in the US market and the total economic effect from hunting in 1991 was estimated to be US\$ 35 billion. With multiplier effects the industry's contribution probably exceeds US\$ 100 billion per year (Leader-Williams et al. 1996).

The largest market for hunting tourism [HT] in the world is Hungary. Nevertheless the industry's contribution on the Gross Domestic Product of the country is only 0.11% (IUCN, 2011). The industry is engineered by Safari Club International [SCI] - the largest organization for hunters in the world with about 30,000 core members in over 160 countries (Leader-Williams et al. 1996). In Africa hunting tourism is currently actively practiced in 14 countries namely South Africa, Namibia, Tanzania, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Zambia, Mozambique, Uganda, Ethiopia, Central African Republic, Bukina Faso, Benin, Cameroon and Chad (Campbell, 2013). Initially more than 23 countries were practicing Tourist hunting (Lindsey, 2007). History has experienced some countries such as Kenya closing the industry due to a couple of factors including high level of corruption, reduced land size, encroachment, resource depletion and extinction of wildlife (Nelson, 2009). Botswana is the latest country expecting to close the industry in 2014 (Campbell, 2013). Other countries such as Uganda reopened after making plausible reforms. Tourist hunting generates over USD 200 million annually in sub-Saharan Africa, with South Africa, Namibia and Tanzania the three highest earning countries (Lindsey, 2007).

South Africa receives the lion share of the industry. In South Africa, trophy hunting occurs mainly on privately-owned ranches (Von Brandis & Reilly, 2007). Trophy hunters make an important contribution to South Africa's economic and social welfare. The country's game ranching and safari hunting industry has developed into a multi-million rand industry, with R730 million (US\$91.2 million) resulting directly from daily rates, trophy fees and taxidermy work (Han & Radder, 2011). This amount excludes indirect contributions to other parts of the economy like airlines, pre-and post-safari accommodation and shopping (Damm, 2005). Examples of social benefits derived from trophy hunting are an estimated 70,000 direct jobs and the development of infrastructure in rural areas (Han & Radder, 2011). Given the significance impact of the South African

hunting safari, the importance of the sustainability of this form of tourism is evident (Han & Radder, 2011).

Namibia is said to be an Africa`s best example of the role institutional reforms can play in catalyzing wildlife population recoveries and investment in wildlife-based enterprises (Nelson, 2009). During colonial era the country`s wildlife was centrally owned by the state. In the late 1960`s legislative reforms paved a way for white settlers to own and utilize their wildlife managed in ranches and private farms. The change enabled the ranchers capture economic value of wildlife through meat sales and hunting leading to a widespread investment in wildlife production and conservation by Namibian freehold landholders. The post independent major reforms brought up by policy makers and wildlife managers devolving user rights over wildlife to the local level spurred landholder investments in wildlife production and related enterprises. A framework for community-based wildlife management in these areas was created through 1996 legislative reforms that enabled communities to establish ‘communal conservancies’ which are self-defined areas, governed by a constitution and an elected committee, which can apply to the government for rights to use wildlife within their defined boundaries.

Once these rights are granted, the conservancies are able to negotiate commercial joint ventures or investment agreements with tourism or hunting companies, and to keep 100 percent of the revenue generated to be invested within the community as the local recipients see fit. The establishment of communal conservancies led to the creation of broad incentives for local investments in wildlife and wildlife-based enterprises in communal lands. By 2007, about 50 conservancies were established, covering 118,704 km<sup>2</sup> with over 220,000 people resident in and benefitting from them. Wildlife populations recovered and expanded across large areas of the country. Revenue to the conservancies from wildlife-based activities reached the equivalent of about USD 4.3

million by 2007. The policy and legislative reforms in Namibia, Botswana and Zimbabwe have made a major stride in transforming the social and economic lives of the people living adjacent and within the wildlife areas (Nelson, 2009)..

Tanzania is Africa's most wildlife-rich nation, and wildlife is a vitally important national economic asset (Nelson, 2009). Tourism was one of the major drivers of macro-economic growth and investment during the economic recovery of the 1990's. According to the United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO, 2012), tourism receipts reached USD 1,457 million making a 6.1% Gross Domestic Product's [GDP] contribution up from only USD 60 million in 1990. Tourist hunting is an important sub-sector, generating about USD 32.9 million in direct government revenue (Lindsey, Roulet and Romanach , 2006). The country has a long history of involvement in tourist hunting dating back to the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (Williams, Kayera &Overton, 1996).

With many world renowned hunting areas and many impressive trophies to its credit, Tanzania has the 2<sup>nd</sup> largest share of trophy hunting in Africa after South Africa (Hurt & Ravn, 2000). The abundance and diversity of species occurring in these areas provide a further attraction for the hunter. The present structure of the hunting industry emerged in the 1960s. Hunting blocks were confined to areas classified as Game Reserves [GRs], Game Controlled Areas [GCAs] or open areas (Planning and Assessment for Wildlife Management-PAWM, 1996). The blocks were used by professional hunters and their clients to hunt trophy animals (URT, 2007). Since about half of all tourist hunting concessions are on community lands (Nelson, 2009), granting local communities the ability to capture direct revenue from hunting concessions were the central aim of the wildlife policy of Tanzania (URT, 1998).

Tourist hunting in Tanzania was undertaken by private companies, known as outfitters. Tanganyika Wildlife Development Company was formed in 1964 to supervise tourist

hunting in Tanzania. In 1973, hunting was banned, as the newly emerging socialist state went into a period of isolation and reopened under the supervision of the Tanzania Wildlife Corporation (TAWICO) in 1978 (Leaders-Williams et al. 1996). In 1988 the Department of Wildlife took over the responsibility for the supervision of hunting. According to Nelson (2009), since the colonial era, wildlife has been controlled directly by the state and local communities legally proscribed from utilizing wildlife or capturing its economic benefits save for the recent minor exceptions in Wildlife Management Areas [WMAs]. The strict centralization of wildlife user rights worked against the creation of local incentives for conservation, which, in turn, led to the decline of an economically valuable natural asset.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem and justification**

Hunting Tourism has for long time been regarded as an engine for promoting conservation and development of local communities surrounding the adjacent protected areas (URT, 2007; Yasuda, 2012). The law (URT, 2002, 2010), requires that some of the revenues and benefits accrued from tourist hunting should go back to support community development for local communities within and adjacent to protected areas. Despite this positive picture, most of the local communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem are poor. Little has been done to show the conduct of the government and various outfitters owning hunting blocks in this area towards supporting socio-economic development for the local communities adjacent to the protected areas in Ugalla ecosystem. According to Chih, (2009), a need exists to understand the complex interplay between the economic, environmental and social dynamics of an industry. Lutabingwa, (2009) envisaged that the life of local communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem is highly impoverished.

The poverty condition these people experience forces them to get engaged in poaching activities as an alternative source of income and protein (Kikoti, 2009; Wilfred, 2010). One of the legal duties of a director of a company/institution (URT, 2002) is to act in good faith at the best interest of the company/institution. This implies that the directors are required by the law to act such that they seek for the holistic benefits of all stakeholders including local communities who in one way or another are missing the legal access to opportunities the ecosystem provides (Ombella & Massawe, 2011; URT, 2007). The sustainability of TH industry in this context depends on what the responsible parties are willing to pay as incentives to stop the local communities from poaching. This study was tailored to assess what has been done so far and fit sound trends that would help the industry better itself towards sustainable tourist hunting business.

### **1.3 Research questions**

- (i) How is the socioeconomic status of the local communities in Ugalla ecosystem?
- (ii) What are the potentials and challenges of hunting tourism in Ugalla ecosystem?
- (iii) To which extent different actors operating in this ecosystem recognize and exercise their corporate social responsibilities?

### **1.4 Research objectives**

The study objectives were divided into general and specific objectives.

#### **1.4.1 General objective**

The general objective for this study was to assess the contribution of hunting tourism on socio-economic development for local communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem.

#### **1.4.2 Specific objectives of the study**

Specifically, the study aimed at;

- (i) Assessing socio-economic status of local communities around Ugalla ecosystem
- (ii) Determining potentials and challenges of hunting tourism in Ugalla ecosystem,

- (iii) Assessing corporate social responsibilities [CSR] of different actors involved in HT in Ugalla ecosystem

### **1.5 Significance of the study**

The results of the study envisioned our understanding about the contribution of hunting tourism on socio-economic development for local communities in this area and investigated what changes are required for the industry to better itself and fit sound trends in ensuring that the local communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem realize more benefits from the industry which will lead to a holistic achievement of long term plans of the respective actors in this industry and thus sustainable tourist hunting business.

### **1.6 The scope of the study**

The study considered only the key stakeholders at Ugalla Ecosystem particularly the three districts of Urambo, Sikonge and Kaliua. The researcher observed respondents' occupations, major economic activities in the area, house hold annual income, staffs' salaries and total remuneration, poaching rates and its causes, working conditions, family size, number and type of social services available in the ecosystem, revenues accrued back to local communities from tourist hunting, benefits accrued to local communities from the industry, potentials and challenges facing the industry and various social and economic initiatives undertaken by the key stakeholders running the industry in the area.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2 Introduction to the chapter**

This chapter is divided into three major parts. The first part dealt with the theoretical concepts of hunting tourism and its relations with socio-economic development for the local communities. The second part explores previous studies on the topic under discussion in different areas worldwide. The last part conceptualizes the framework upon which the researcher's own position about the problem is built while giving the direction to the study and showing the relationships of different constructs investigated.

#### **2.1 Theoretical framework of the study**

A number of theories can be used to explain the topic under discussion. Theoretical approaches help to predict and explain models of reality by simplifying complex phenomenon related to the study and suggest which factors should be considered in particular. In This case two theories of critical realism and common property have been applied.

##### **2.1.1 Critical realism theory**

According to Bhaskar (1979), Critical realism [CR] theory states that the theory of knowledge, or epistemology, is different from a theory of being, or ontology. There is a reality which exists independent of its human conception. A central idea of CR theory is that natural and social reality should be understood as an open stratified system of objects with causal powers (Morton, 2006). There are three strata, according to the theory; domains of real, actual, and empirical. Domains of empirical include observable experiences. Domain of actual includes actual events which have been generated by mechanisms. Finally, the domain of real includes the mechanisms that have generated the actual events. Critical realists believe that there are unobservable events which cause

the observable ones; as such, the social world can be understood only if people understand the structures that generate such unobservable events. According to this theory, an individual conducting an experiment creates the conditions necessary for the experiment (observable event), but the results are caused by the underlying laws and mechanisms (unobservable events). The realism side of the theory focuses on the existence of real mechanisms which shape events. In light of the study in question, it is the decisions of those in power and implementation of policy and legislative reforms that are made which help an industry unveil the desired social and economic transformation at national and local level (Acheompony 2011). The concept of the developmental state indicates that the state can and ought to use its powers to promote the sustained and integrated development of societies (Nelson, 1993).

### **2.1.2 Common property theory**

Common property theory argues that common pool resources can be utilized sustainably provided certain principles are applied. According to Ostrom (1990) and Bromley (1992), these principles include the autonomy and the recognition of the community as an institution, proprietorship and tenurial rights, rights to make the rules and viable mechanisms to enforce them, and ongoing incentives in the form of benefits that exceed costs. The study is based on the understanding of these principles. That is, central to the study paradigm is the theory and assumptions underlying the political decentralization of powers in managing wildlife resources. Decentralization of wildlife resource management implies a process of redistribution of power and the transfer of responsibilities from the central government to autonomous authority and to rural communities in resource management (Boggs, 2000). This is a shift from the so called top down to a bottom-up approach in natural resource management.

The study thus calls for a reform of the conventional protectionist conservation philosophy and top down approaches to development, and based on common property theory which discourages open access resource use but rather promotes resource use

rights for independent institutions and local communities. The assumption is that the decentralization of natural resources to autonomous authority and local communities will not only increase local power and control over resources but also improve resident attitudes towards the sustainable natural resource utilization (Mbaiwa, 2008). More than improving attitudes, decentralization can also strengthen local institutions for resource management. That is, it has the potential to increase trust between community members and empower local groups to form networks with government and the private sector, particularly tourism companies to form joint venture partnerships to positively benefit from hunting tourism activities.

## **2.2 Empirical literature review**

### **2.2.1 International perspective of hunting tourism**

Matilarnen and Keskinarkaus (2010) define hunting tourism - also known as spot/tourist/trophy hunting as a form of tourism where a person travels outside his/her municipality of residence for the purpose of hunting. The definition includes both domestic and international travel for hunting as the central element but other purposes can also be involved in that trip. Hunting is practiced worldwide not only by resident hunters, but also by hunters travelling from abroad. In line with Baldus and Cauldwell, (2004) hunting tourists are generally willing to pay more for these experiences than resident hunters and may employ the services of a hunting tour operator (guide or outfitter). According to the United Nations [UN] World Tourism Organization, tourists are people who “travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited (<http://www.unwto.org/>). Hunting tourism can provide important economic benefits to rural areas in addition to ecological and socio-cultural values, as recognized by the Parliamentary Assembly of the Council of Europe (PACE) Resolution 882 (1987) on the importance of shooting for Europe’s rural regions

(<http://assembly.coe.int/Main.asp?link=/Documents/AdoptedText/ta87/ERES882.htm>).

As a form of tourism, this type of hunting is influenced by a number of market factors. Although hunting may be the primary goal of a tourist trip, there are other elements involved, including transportation and local mobility, food and accommodation, services and goods, as well as other activities at the destination (Sharp & Wollscheid, (2007).

### **2.2.2 Global context regarding sustainability of tourist hunting industry**

The International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation [CIC] has initiated a global programme to develop principles and define indicators for sustainable hunting tourism [SHT] in accordance with existing international sustainability concepts (<http://www.cic-wildlife.org/index.php?id=176>). The SHT holds the vision that sustainable tourist hunting contributes to the conservation of wildlife and its habitats, benefits local livelihoods and also secures hunting. The SHT, based on a wide stakeholders approach, aims to provide a set of practical principles, guidelines and criteria that translate the Addis Ababa Principles and Guidelines [AAPG] for the sustainable use of biodiversity into the needs of the hunting tourism sector at regional, national and international levels.

The Rio Declaration on Environment and Development (<http://www.un.org/documents/ga/conf151/aconf15126-1annex1.htm>) in 1992 emphasized the need for formulating principles for management authorities to ensure the sustainability of tourism. If managed properly, hunting tourism can provide incentives for local communities to conserve wildlife and their habitats (Brainerd S., 2007). If practiced improperly, however, hunting tourism can have negative impacts on wildlife, both directly and indirectly, particularly if there is little support for or direct benefit to local communities (<http://www.traffic.org/content/546.pdf>).

### **2.2.3 The role of hunting tourism to community development in Africa**

Africa is considered as “Mecca” or “home” for sport hunters from all over the world (Leaders-Williams, Kayera & Everton, 1996). Over half of Sub-Saharan African countries officially authorize sport hunting (Roulet, 2004). More than 18,500 hunters, mainly from USA and Europe, visit these countries each year, generating annual gross revenues of at least US\$201 million (Lindsey et al., 2007). Sport hunting plays an important role not only in the tourism industry, but also in conservation policy in Africa. The community conservation model aims to involve local people as the main leaders in conservation and resource management activities by sharing the revenues and employment opportunities generated from conservation and tourism (Adams and Hulme, 2001).

Some researchers and governments regard sport hunting as a tool that can be used to support strongly community conservation (Baker, 1997; Chardonnet et al. 2002). As an example, in the CAMPFIRE (Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources) project in Zimbabwe between 1989 and 2001, 89% of the total project revenue came from sport hunting, and about half of the total project revenue was disbursed to communities (Frost and Bond, 2008). Moreover, some researchers have argued that sport hunting is both economical and ecologically sustainable (e.g. Baker, 1997; Bond et al., 2004; Lindsey et al., 2007).

### **2.2.4 Protected Areas network of Tanzania**

A protected area [PA] is “a clearly defined geographical space recognized, dedicated and managed through legal or other effective means to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values” (UNEPWCMC, 2008). The network of PAs in Tanzania is considered the most prominent in Africa (URT, 2007). About 43% of Tanzanian Land is Protected (Songorwa, 2007) and classified into different categories (URT, 2007). About 4% of the land is occupied by 16 National

Parks administered by Tanzania National Parks Authority [TANAPA] an autonomous governmental organization. The second category is Conservation Area which is constituted by Ngorongoro Conservation Area (1%) under the management of Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority [NCAA].

The third category is Game Reserves (15%) which comprised of about 28 game reserves administered by Wildlife Division [WD]. The fourth category is 38 Game controlled areas (8%) under local government authorities. The fifth category is 570 Forest reserves (15%) managed by Tanzania Forest Service [TFS] and the last category is 16 Wildlife Management Areas [WMAs] under the local communities. All these categories are under the custodianship of the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism [MNRT] including the Tourist and the Archeological departments. The first, second and third categories are exclusively unsettled except Maasai who co-exist with wildlife in Ngorongoro Conservation Area. About 3% of Forest reserves overlap with game controlled areas (URT, 1998). The former two categories entirely deal with non consumptive/photographic tourism while the rest of the categories are mutually exclusive i.e. both consumptive and non consumptive in nature (URT, 2007). The spatial distribution of Tanzanian protected areas network can be envisaged in Annex I.

### **2.2.5 Tourist hunting in Tanzania**

The hunting areas in Tanzania can naturally be divided into three greater ecosystems, namely Masailand, Selous/Coastal and the Western Tanzania ecosystems <http://www.safariland.org>. Each of these Ecosystems differs from one another in terms of its uniqueness, accessibility and species abundance. These criteria categorize type of hunting blocks and the block fees payable (URT, 2010). The Masailand ecosystem has the advantage of being within Arusha city where many hunting outfitters and generally the tourist industry are based. Also the proximity of many National Parks and the Ngorongoro Conservation Area ensures plenty wildlife. It is a low rainfall area where the major habitats are *Acacia* woodlands and dry open grasslands. Specialized species

for Masailand include gerenuk, oryx, gazelles and Coke's hartebeest, with general scarcity of lion available for hunting.

In the Selous / Coastal ecosystem hunting is mostly concentrated in and around Selous Game Reserve [SGR] which is renowned for its high wildlife populations and charismatic hunting opportunities. This area offers the best elephant trophies including specialized species of Roosevelt's sable. The most prominent habitat is mixed *Acacia* – miombo woodlands. The area has more than fifty hunting blocks occupied by different operators with relatively easy access from Dar es Salaam.

The Western Tanzania ecosystem where Ugalla ecosystem owes its origin is remote but characterized by large concessions. The rainfall is generally high and the major habitats are Miombo woodlands and wetlands. Many wildlife populations have been reduced through illegal harvesting, but nevertheless most species offer higher quality trophies than elsewhere. There is a wide diversity of species available for hunting, with specialized species including sitatunga, roan, oribi and Lichtenstein's hartebeest.

Tanzania has about 156 hunting concessions covering an area of more than 200,000 km<sup>2</sup> that are leased to hunting outfitters licensed to conduct tourist hunting (Tanzania invest., 2012). The hunting concessions have been stratified into five categories with different concession fee structures ranging from US\$ 5,000 for the fifth category, US\$10,000 the fourth, US\$ 18,000 the third, US\$ 30,000 the second and US\$60,000 for the first category of hunting blocks (URT, 2010). More than 70 species can be hunted on a tourist-hunting license.

Tourist hunting plays an important role in the majority of protected areas (game reserves, game controlled areas and wildlife management areas) ecologically, economically and socially as many of them are unsuitable for other forms of eco-tourism (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004).

The areas are either too remote or do not support highly visible wildlife populations. These areas are unable to compete with prime game viewing areas such as the Serengeti National Park. Tourist hunting therefore is the most economically viable form of wildlife utilization and plays an important role in the economic development of many remote areas. Baldus and Cauldwell,(2004), revealed that without the income generated from tourist hunting, many important wildlife areas would cease to be viable. Within many GRs, GCAs and WMAs, tourist hunting is the most economically rewarding form of land use. According to former wildlife Director Mr. Ndollanga, Tanzania believes that this form of wildlife utilization can make significant contributions to the future conservation of such areas (PAWM, 1996).

When properly managed at sustainable off take levels, tourist hunting has little impact on wildlife populations and provides high returns from a low-volume but exclusively priced market (Leaders-Williams et al. 1996). The industry also appears to be a reasonably stable and even growing market. In comparison, the high-volume tourist game viewing market is often fickle and prone to fluctuations arising from recessions, civil disturbance and the like (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004). Moreover, tourist hunting can contribute to the economy of the local communities (Mbaiwa, 2004).

#### **2.2.6 Outfitters` roles in conservation and socio-economic development**

In line with Baldus and Cauldwell (2004), outfitters participate actively in conservation, because they wish to continue to benefit from wildlife through trophy hunting. In this role they work closely with the Department of Wildlife, and contribute towards, and effect different tasks such as maintaining roads within the hunting blocks, supporting anti-poaching teams, involving rural people in conservation, developing ways to provide benefits to rural people, advertising conservation in Tanzania and preventing poachers from operating. Leaders-Williams, et al. (1996) envisaged that outfitters also have strong economic motivations, and tourist hunting can make major contributions to economic

and social development through bringing foreign exchange to Tanzania, help other businesses to flourish, and raising the international profile of our country.

This section reviews different works done by other scholars that are more or less related to the topic under discussion. It aimed at relating the theoretical reviews worked by different researchers and the findings they came up with. In the late 1980s, a study conducted by International Union for Conservation of Nature [IUCN] and the International Trade Centre (1989), suggested that the gross value of wildlife (other than timber and fisheries) to the Tanzanian Economy worth US\$128.50 million per year. Illegal wildlife hunting for wild meat comprised some US\$50 million annually, followed by non-consumptive tourism, tourist hunting and other forms of consumptive utilization. More recent research conducted in Tanzania suggests well that over two-thirds of people eat wild meat, with up to 95% of the rural population claiming it is their most important meat and protein source (Barnett 2000 as quoted by IIED and TRAFFIC, 2002).

In the study of *“Ecosystems and Human Well-being Synthesis in the World”* conducted by the Millennium Development Goals, Millenium Ecosystem Assessment [MEA] (2005) observed that there is rapidly degrading of ecosystems that support human living and wellbeing. MEA investigated 24 serious ecosystems in which people are depending for their survival and results show that 60% were being untenably and degraded (MEA 2005). The core barrier to achieve the Millennium Development Goals is poverty which is however caused by poor who degrade ecosystems through clearing of forests for their needs. Moreover, the results showed that population growth is the key factor for the ecosystem services degradation. The report also indicated that there is interrelation between population growth, ecosystem and poverty. It was concluded that changes on human population growth have effect on ecosystems/natural resources (MEA, 2005).

The study conducted by Matilainen (2006) on “*Sustainable Hunting Tourism*” in four Northern Countries Finland, Sweden, Iceland and Canada found that the ecological sustainability is the core value of hunting tourism. The study proposed that the companies must take care of the ecological sustainability in order to operate in the long run which can be safeguarded if the companies know the acceptable harvesting and reproduction rates as well as being aware of the population fluctuations. It was concluded that the companies could also enhance social sustainability of the sector if they are able to prove to different interest groups the ecological sustainability of their operations.

Mbaiwa (2004), investigating “*The Socio-Economic Benefits and Challenges of a Community- Based Safari Hunting Tourism in the Okavango Delta, Botswana*”, found that subleasing of community hunting concession areas and selling of annual wildlife hunting quotas to safari hunting companies, helps local communities generate income, create employment opportunities and engage in community development projects in their villages. The study further revealed that community-based safari hunting is also associated with several problems which downplay its achievements. These include lack of marketing, entrepreneurship and managerial skills in safari hunting business, mismanagement and misappropriation of funds, poor distribution of financial and employment benefits from safari hunting, and reliance on foreign hunting companies and donor agencies. He stipulated that the stakeholders (local people, government and safari hunting operators) should work hand in hand to empower local communities through training and the acquisition of skills in this business to promote a sustainable community-based safari hunting industry that is self sustaining and capable of meeting the needs of safari hunters and local people while maintaining the ecological balance.

Salazar (2009), undertaking “*Tanzania`s Tourism Development in Perspective*” dictates that although the growing overseas demand for tourism makes promoting tourism seem

very attractive development option for many countries (Christie & Crompton, 2001), nevertheless the industry's contribution to the African economy has been frequently overestimated (Dieke,2000; Mowforth & Munt, 2003) and the current structure, organization and management of International Tourism and Travel favor Multinational Corporations (MNCs) from the developed world or local elites; assuring a very large outflow of the resources generated by tourism in the continent. Although increased foreign investment might be necessary for development, however it adds new urgency about questions of who gains and who losses from it! Little of the gross earnings remain in the country, most of it being siphoned out of the economy in the form of inputs and expatriate salaries and allowances. The author further noted that although there has been a tremendous increase in tourism receipts over the years, nonetheless the overall tourism contribution to poverty reduction among the local communities has remained marginal and isolated. Local economies in most of the destination areas have not improved in tandem with the development of tourism witnessed in those areas. Rarely are the mechanisms for the redistribution of profits to local communities formulated. His conclusion reveals that for tourism to reach its sustainable potential in terms of local livelihoods and biological conservation, one of the key issues is how to support efforts to empower local communities to control these economic activities. The case study of Tanzania shows a long way still lies ahead (Salazar 2009).

The fifth goal of the second National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty [NSGRP II] (URT, 2010) set to be implemented in 2011-2015 seeks for leveraging returns on national resources (both within and outside) for enhancing growth and benefits to the country at large and communities in particular, especially in rural areas as one of the means towards achieving Tanzania development vision 2025. Recognizing the rich and unique natural resources principally forests and wildlife as assets of very high value that need to be managed sustainably and used efficiently, the strategy however visualizes the increasing pressure from human settlements and activities such

as unsustainable and illegal harvesting, bush fire, poaching, mining and shifting cultivation the resources experience. Conversely the strategy has been targeted towards devising effective mechanism for leveraging on the benefits obtaining from the existing natural endowments for the development of the country and its people while focusing on business acumen, transparency and value addition before export, revenue yield, skills development, innovation and technology acquisition as well as efficient management.

Among other strategies to be employed in achieving these include strengthening capacity for administration and monitoring of natural resources including earmarking revenues from national resources for development of long term investments, enhancing sustainable management and utilization of natural and cultural resources, strengthening the capacity of Tanzania Revenue Authority [TRA] in capturing taxes from natural resources rents, enforcing corporate governance and responsibility for beneficiaries of licenses in exploitation of natural resources especially extractive activities, increasing government and local participation, supporting the private sector in the exploitation of natural resources while monitoring and regulating the business in a transparent manner, encouraging Tanzanians in the Diaspora to invest in Tanzania, enhancing community based natural resource management arrangements and improving legislation on ownership/access to environmental and natural resources (URT,2010).

### **2.3 Conceptual framework**

This part conceptualize the framework upon which the researcher`s own position about the problem under discussion is built while giving the direction to the study and showing the relationships of different constructs investigated. The following diagram (Figure 2) indicates the full operational flow of hunting tourism business. The diagram relates the discussion about the key stakeholders involved in this industry and the potentials and challenges facing it. The diagram further indicates that an attempt to overcome the challenges through execution of corporate social responsibilities overlay myriad

opportunities that are economically viable, socially acceptable and ecologically friendly to promote socio-economic development for the local people and thus leading to a reliable and a more sustainable hunting tourism business that seeks for holistic approach that involves all stakeholders (Triple Bottom Line-TBL) of Planet (conservation), People (Socio-economic development for local communities) and Profit (wealth of the share holders).

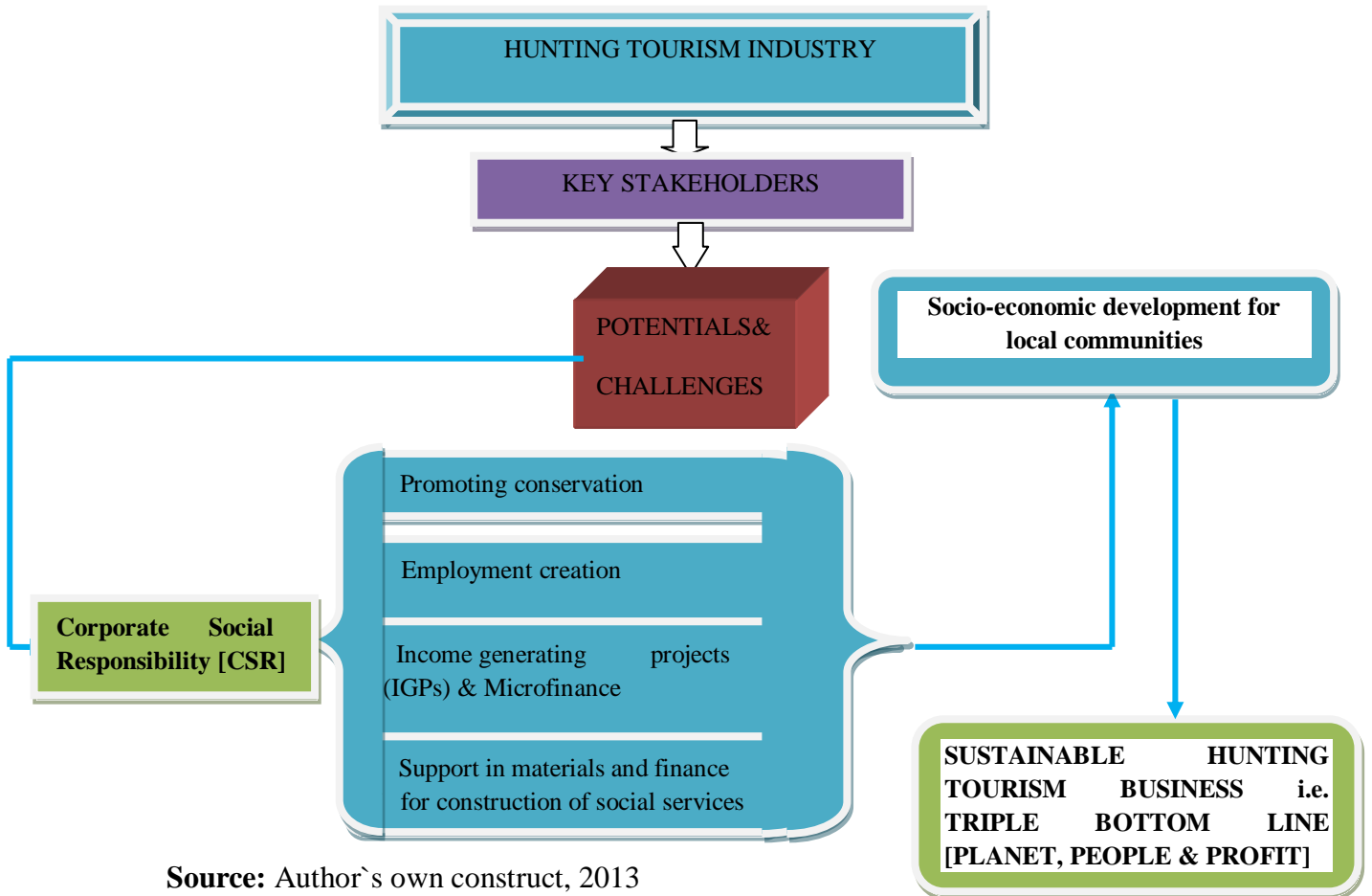
### **2.3.1 Key stakeholders for tourist hunting Industry**

Campbell (2013) reveals different stakeholders involved in this industry. At the central level the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (Wildlife Division [WD]) is charged with formulating a wildlife policy, overseeing its administration and coordinating the development of the wildlife sector in Tanzania. The Ministry`s vision is “sustainable conservation of natural and cultural resources and development of responsible tourism. According to the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania (URT, 2007), the vision for the wildlife sub-sector is “sustainable conservation of wildlife and wetlands resources. The mission for the sub-sector is to conserve, manage and develop wildlife and wetland resources and sustainable utilization that will contribute towards poverty reduction through administration and regulation, promotion of participation of stakeholders in conservation and sustainable utilization of wildlife and wetlands resources, promotion of wildlife and wetlands resources for economic development and promotion of information sharing and exchange of expertise nationally, regionally and internationally.

Local government at regional, district and community level, private sector - Agents, Professional hunters, Tanzania Hunting Operators Association [TAHOA], hunting clients who are largely foreign, myriad of Non-Governmental Organizations and lastly, but most important for protection of wildlife, are the local communities who live in areas with hunting concessions. Lindsey, (2008) stipulates that despite some successes, rural communities living in or near wildlife areas rarely benefit adequately from trophy

hunting activities. Inequitable distribution of hunting revenues represents the most serious threat to the long term sustainability of the industry.

**Figure 2: A diagrammatic flow towards a sustainable hunting tourism industry**



Source: Author's own construct, 2013

### 2.3.2 Potentials of tourist hunting in Tanzania

#### 2.3.2.1 Generation of income to promote conservation and the economy.

Tourist hunting generates revenues in terms of foreign exchange earnings from different fees charged by the government and coordination and services offered by the outfitters. About 100% of the observer fees, conservation fees, trophy handling fees and 25% of the block fees, game fees, permit fees and professional hunters' fees go to Tanzania

Wildlife Protection Fund-TWPF basket (URT, 1995). According to Wildlife Conservation Act (URT, 2009) section 91(2), the objectives of the Fund include to facilitate and support wildlife conservation, inside and outside protected areas particularly in anti poaching operations and law enforcement, operations of the Wildlife Protection Unit, the conservation of wildlife, the development of communities living in rural areas adjacent to wildlife protected areas, conservation education, training and awareness creation in wildlife matters, capacity building in wildlife management, the wildlife management research, and any other activity related to conservation of wildlife. The contribution of the wildlife sub-sector to Tanzania`s Gross Domestic Products [GDP] is said to be about 0.11% of the grand GDP. The industry contributes about TZS 32 billion which is about 2.3% of the total revenues accrued from tourism industry in Tanzania (Economists at Large, 2013). The industry`s contribution to the national foreign stock is promising for the industry is usually stable relative to photographic tourism which is fickle and prone to global economic and social dynamism.

### **2.3.2.2 Wildlife resource and its potential for sustainable development**

The most widely quoted definition of sustainable development is the one provided by the Brundtland Report, referring to “sustainable development as development that meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs,” (World Commission on Environment and Development,1987, p.43). According to Wall (1997) and Hunter (1995), two important ingredients are included in this statement: human needs and environmental limitations. For the World Commission, the major objective of development is to satisfy human needs and aspirations for a better quality of life for all people. Wildlife as a biological resource is one of the renewable natural resources which can be managed in a sustainable way from generation to generation (Mbaiwa, 2004).

The majority of rural communities in the developing world depend on the renewable natural resources such as forest (Butler, 2006) and wildlife (TNRF, 2008) for their livelihoods. These resources supply a basic safety net for the poor rural people. For example, forest as an alternative source of income offers a range of timber and non-timber products, such as fuel wood, honey, bee wax, building poles, fodder resources, fruits and medicinal plants (Sunderlin et al., 2005; Kikoti., 2009). Rural communities also depend on wildlife-based products such as bush meat, fur, skin, claws, horns and teeth as sources of income and/or protein (Pattiselanno, 2004). According to Brainerd, (2007) sustainably managed, tourist hunting can contribute to the conservation of biodiversity, the preservation of rural lifestyles and local economies. In this context hunting can provide strong incentives for conservation through wise use of the wildlife resources.

### **2.3.2,3 Potentials to promote socio-economic development**

According to Tourist Hunting Regulations (URT, 2010), outfitters are required by section 16 (4c) to contribute through the Permanent Secretary of the MNRT an amount of not less than US\$ 5,000.00 for each hunting block annually as contribution to the implementation of various community development projects within and adjacent areas of operation. Nevertheless the amount of revenues distributed to district councils where TH take place is meant for fostering community development in the villages found in the respective districts. The 2012/13 Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism budgetary estimates indicated that about Tshs.200,000,000.00 were proportionally distributed to about 40 district councils in Tanzania. The revenues accrued from different fees in this industry are foreign based.

This enables our country to stabilize its foreign currency stock. A number of employment opportunities are generated at local and national level with relatively higher earnings in relation to casual labour (Salazar, 2009). In various areas social services such

as schools, dispensaries, water wells and educational sponsorship are usually constructed and implemented by practitioners in this industry (Williams, Kayera and Everton, 1996). Other benefits accrued from TH industry include legal access to game meat, reinvestment of funds into other related income generating activities, and empowerment of local institutions for management of community based tourist hunting (Mbaiwa, 2004).

### **2.3.3 Challenges of tourist hunting**

#### **2.3.3.1 Meager income that encourages erosion of professional ethics**

The current payments in terms of salaries and other allowances given to staffs working in this industry are relatively low. Speaking in a recent meeting with TAHOA members, the current Minister for natural resources and tourism Hon. Ambassador KHamis Kagasheki (Kayera, 2012) agreed that his officials are earning meager income that creates the possibility of being lobbied by the outfitters. This results into low staff morale and encourages malpractices which are usually associated with erosion of professional ethics (URT, 2007).

#### **2.3.3.2 Overutilization of quotas and subleasing**

Subleasing of hunting blocks has been named as one of the malpractices that encourage overutilization of quotas. Baldus and Cauldwell (2004) found that utilization of quotas beyond the permit limits is common in some of the hunting blocks in Selous Game Reserve. This has a potential for resource depletion and erosion of gene pool.

#### **2.3.3.3 Increased human pressure, illegal off take and wildlife trade**

The increased human population pressure is one of the challenges that are facing conservation. The need for more land for agriculture and pasture for livestock grazing have resulted to encroachment, human wildlife conflicts, habitat degradation and deforestation in most of protected areas (Wilfred, 2010). The wildlife policy of Tanzania

(URT, 1998) envisages the challenge to ensure that wildlife management competes with other forms of land use. The need for food, and ecosystem services such as fish, energy, forest products, bush meat, ivory and escalating prices for natural products have created a paramount tension to wildlife management and conservation at large (Kikoti 2009, Paulo 2010). Fuelled by high market value of wildlife resources and high demand for bush meat and ivory trade (Lemieux & Clarke., 2009), illegal off take of wildlife is intensifying daily. The poaching network in Tanzania is said to be advanced due to its integral nature which has been incorporating some of the top governmental officials (Lembeli, ). Poor infrastructures in many GRs, GCAs, WMAs and FRs is a stumbling block to anti poaching endeavor as most of the areas remain inaccessible especially during the rain season, the situation that leaves the hunting blocks at stake.

#### **2.3.3.4 Allocation of hunting blocks and sub-leasing**

The current practice of hunting blocks allocation to outfitters is said to be far from the modern business practices (Damm, 2007). According to Wildlife Conservation Act (URT, 2010) regulation 13(3), after application, the minister shall upon advice by the hunting block allocation advisory committee allocate a hunting block to a successful applicant (URT 2010). This procedure is said to be bureaucratic and creates a loophole for malpractices (Baldus & Cauldwell 2004). The modern business practices requires that the hunting blocks be auctioned in a free market such that the company that poses the highest rate in a competitive market would be awarded the block.

This practice could give the right market value for the block and thus adding value to the amount of money that is generated by the appropriate block instead of the fixed rates that have been set depending on the category of the hunting block (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004; URT, 2010). In some other aspects, most of the local companies owning concessions in different areas sublease their blocks. Addressing TAHOA meeting recently, the Minister of Natural Resources and Tourism warned the Tanzanian

companies allocated concessions from sub leasing them because it is not proper (Karega, 2012). This practice is associated with overutilization of quotas. Many of the companies of this nature have been less involved in carrying out anti poaching activities in their concessions. Moreover, quota setting is mainly based on a guess work due to lack of scientifically approved means (Williams, Kayera & Everton, 1996)

#### **2.3.3.5 Invasive species**

Defined as native and non-native species such as plants or animals that heavily colonize and adversely affect the habitats they inhabit economically, environmentally, or ecologically; invasive species normally have a tendency of out-competing the native species in terms of water, nutrients, shelter and cover. Species such as water hyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*), *Lantana camara* and *Seena siamea* have created a number of problems and remain a conservation challenge to most of protected areas in Tanzania. This is due to the fact that the invaders have the potential to get rid of native species with their widespread effect, rapid growth, early maturity, high reproductive output, ability to disperse widely, tolerance of a broad range of environmental conditions, high plasticity (the ability to alter one's growth form to suit current conditions ) and allelopathic (chemical competition) abilities. According to Karamaga, (2009) most of species considered invasive, are mainly associated with human activities such as poaching, tourist hunting/photographic safaris business, timber harvesting and fishing in protected areas (PAs).

#### **2.3.3.6 Misappropriation of funds**

Among other socio-economic challenges facing the wildlife sector is misappropriation of funds. The permanent parliamentary committee of Land, Natural Resources and Environment recently warned the government on the pervasive malpractices in the sector which has been associated with loss of government revenues (Kaguo, 2012). The Minister for MNRT Mr. Khamis Kagasheki, warned stakeholders in the tourist hunting industry against using their money to influence ministry officials and promised to ensure officials work professionally to meet ministry targets (Karega, 2012). He said he has

plans to improve the working environment in the ministry and so he needed stakeholders' cooperation and understanding so that the ministry could improve.

#### **2.3.3.7 Lack of marketing skills in the tourist hunting business**

The limited skills in marketing and capital needed in tourist hunting business has made it difficult for locally owned companies and the country at large to penetrate markets in developed countries and promote their hunting products . This has resulted into a very few number of hunters visiting the country relative to South Africa, Zimbabwe and Botswana (Baldus & Cauldwel 2004). According to Jafferson a representative of safari club international, tourist hunting starts in the United States where hunters from all over the world attend the Safari Club International (SCI) convention in January of every year. At this convention safari companies sell their hunts for up to 2-3 years in advance. Scott Wilson Consultants noted that the majority of the hunters are Americans, followed by Spanish and Italians (Mbaiwa, 2004). The ability of the outfitters to market themselves in Europe and the United States provides tremendous profit from animal quotas they buy cheaply from the government (Salazar, 2009; Mbaiwa, 2004). Other socio-economic challenges include minimal financial benefits and repatriation of profits, contraction of sexually transmitted infections (STIs), hatred from local community and difficult working conditions.

#### **2.4 Corporate social responsibility (CSR)**

CSR can be defined as the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large (Opiyo, 2012). The concept where by companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. According to the Company Act (URT, 2002) section 182 among other legal duties of the director of a company/institution is the duty to act in good faith for the best interests of the company. This implies that the directors of different Companies and Institutions

should now stop thinking far more about themselves rather the collective aims of their organizations (Ombella & Massawe, (2011). The selfish thinking that the objective of the company/institution is to maximize shareholders wealth should give way to more stakeholders based concept or an ethical shareholder concept of corporate objectives which calls for the consideration of wider stakeholders including the society which in one way or another is directly or indirectly affected by the business conducts of the company/institution.

The tradeoff between the potentials and challenges facing the industry unveil opportunities vital for promoting socio-economic development for local communities surrounding this ecosystem. The incentives such as environmental conservation, applied researches, conservation education and extension, creation of employment opportunities, empowerment of the local communities through establishment of viable small and medium income generating enterprises, microfinance, local participation in managing wildlife resources found in their area, provision of material and financial assistance for construction of social services such as dispensaries, school buildings, teachers` houses, books, improved staffs` total remuneration, provision of reliable social services as well as effective implementation of the available institutional frameworks (good corporate governance) not only impact the socio-economic status of the local communities but also encourage them to change their perceptions towards wildlife as a valuable resource and thus acting as a self regulatory and mitigation strategy towards poverty and poaching. Effective implementation of these opportunities will lead into a Triple Bottom Line and thus a sustainable tourist hunting business in the long run.

### **2.3.5 The concept of socio-economic development**

Fritz defines development as a planned and a comprehensive economic, social, cultural and political process in a defined geographic area that is rights-based and ecologically oriented and aims to continually improve the well-being of the entire population and all of its individuals. The definition constitutes three major components of social

development, economic development and environmental protection. Social development refers to the complexity of social dynamics (the interplay of social structures processes and relationships) focusing on the social concerns of the people as objectives of development and people centered, participatory approaches to development. Indicators of social development provide comparative information about areas such as income, poverty, employment, employment security, education, health, crime and civic participation.

Economic development on the other hand is the process of raising the level of prosperity through increased production, distribution and consumption of goods and services. Socio-economic development is an integration of social and economic development (<http://www.eolss.net/Eolss-sampleAllChapter.aspx>). Progress in the quality of social and economic life should only be seen as progress if it is rights based and minimally affects, conserves or improves the natural environment.

In 1972 the Bruntland Commission established by the United Nations (UN), examining the connection between economic development and protection of the environment, focused our attention on the need for “intergenerational equity” – an insistence that decisions by the present generation be made with an awareness of their impact on future generations. Al Gore (1992) depicts that although this phrase has become a fixture in the rhetoric about the environment, it is not yet reflected in the way our classical economic system measures the effect of our decisions in the real world. As a result we continue to act as if it is perfectly all right to use up as many natural resources in our own lifetime as we possibly can.

### **2.3.6 Contribution of HT towards achievement of Millennium Development Goals**

Hunting tourism generates money for the conservation of the environment from which the animals are hunted (International Union for Conservation of Nature [IUCN, 2011]). Since most of the hunters coming to Africa originate from the developed countries, the

move encourages a global partnership for development (MDG #1) and help to ensure environmental sustainability (MDG #7). In some other cases, areas adjacent hunting blocks have witnessed construction of various community development projects such as construction of schools` buildings, health centers, installation of water wells and improved social services.

The National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty [NSGRP I] (URT, 2005) recognizes three clusters upon which broad based growth and improvement of quality life and social well being can take place. The first cluster concentrates on the growth and reduction of poverty, the second one on the improvement of the quality of life and social well being and the third cluster on governance and accountability. The third cluster is the bedrock for the first and second clusters. For broad-based growth and improvement of quality life and social well being to take place, good governance has to prevail.

Good governance and accountability centers on economic structures and use of public resources and sustainable management of natural resources, participation in decision making and war against corruption among others to stimulate growth and reduction of poverty. The latter is achieved through scaling up investments towards modernizing small, medium and large scale agricultural enterprises, promoting off-farm activities including small and medium size enterprises with emphasis on agro-processing, and promoting more sustainable use of natural resources for the benefit of poor communities to contribute to the quality of life and social well- being. The third cluster pays attention to the promotion of clean and healthy environment and sustainable use of natural resources to minimize disparities between rich and poor, persons with disabilities across age groups, between urban and rural citizens in access and use of social services (URT 2005).

## **2.6 Triple Bottom Line and sustainable tourist hunting business**

Built on the concept of sustainability, Triple Bottom line [TBL] thinking holds that a company should combine standard metrics of financial success with those that measure environmental Planet, People and Profits. In each case it requires thinking in three dimensions, not one. Sustainability can be defined as meeting the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. In his famous “Arusha Manifesto” statement, Nyerere (URT, 2007) stipulated that:

*The survival of our wildlife is a matter of grave concern to all of us in Africa. These wild creatures amid the wild places they inhabit are not only important as a source of wonder and inspiration but are an integral part of our natural resources and of our future livelihood and well being.*

*In accepting the trusteeship of our wildlife we solemnly declare that we will do everything in our power to make sure that our children’s grand-children will be able to enjoy this rich and precious inheritance.*

*The conservation of wildlife and wild places calls for specialist knowledge, trained manpower, and money, and we look to other nations to co-operate with us in this important task the success or failure of which not only affects the continent of Africa but the rest of the world as well.*

According to Tyson (2010), Businesses pursuing sustainability are becoming more efficient, more innovative, more connected, more profitable, and more competitive. Savitz (2006) concludes that truly sustainable businesses would have no need to write checks to charity or 'give back' to the local community, because the company's daily operations would not deprive the community, but enriches it.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 Introduction**

This chapter describes how the study was designed and carried out, including research design, area of study, target population, sample size taken, sampling procedures used, methods of data collection in the field and data analysis.

#### **3.1 Research design**

According to Ndunguru (2007), research design is a collection of conditions for specifying relationships among variables in a study, operation of these variables and controlling effects of extraneous variables; it includes a plan of selecting the sources and types of information to be used in answering the research question. Research design can be a case study design or survey design. Yin (1994), defines a case study design as an empirical enquiry that investigates contemporary phenomenon within its real life context when the boundary between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence is used. Giving a detailed account of Tourist Hunting industry in Ugalla Ecosystem over a given amount of time, the researcher designed the study to cover all facets related to socio-economic issues of the industry in the area and tried to understand the complex of factors that are operative within a social unit as an integrated totality.

#### **3.2 Study area**

The area of study was Ugalla ecosystem found in Katavi and Tabora regions. The ecosystem covers an area of about 30,000 square kilometers [Km<sup>2</sup>] and lies in four administrative districts of Sikonge and Urambo in Tabora region and Kaliua and Mpanda in Katavi region (See Annex II). The area is comprised of a vast biodiversity and natural resources which have different conservation status. Ugalla Game Reserve is

the core protected area covering about 5000 square kilometers. The reserve is buffered by about four GCAs and seven FRs overlapping with the GCAs. Luganzo GCA covers an area of 5,200 Km<sup>2</sup>, Ugunda GCA 3,950 Km<sup>2</sup>, Msima GCA 4,200 Km<sup>2</sup>, and Inyonga GCA is the largest covering about 9,000 Km<sup>2</sup>. Forest reserves include; Walla River FR (1,565 Km<sup>2</sup>), Ugunda FR (1,660 Km<sup>2</sup>), Ugalla River FR (2,600 Km<sup>2</sup>), Inyonga FR (7,100 Km<sup>2</sup>), Mpanda North East FR (4,500 Km<sup>2</sup>), Mpanda line FR (3,640 Km<sup>2</sup>), and North Ugalla FR (1,990 Km<sup>2</sup>).

In addition to GR, GCAs and FRs, two Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) of IPOLE (2,510 Km<sup>2</sup>) and UYUMBU (838.7 Km<sup>2</sup>), located in Sikonge and Urambo districts respectively were established in an effort to protect this ecosystem (Lutabingwa 2009). All these protected areas form the best buffer network to the core area of Ugalla Game Reserve [UGR]. The whole ecosystem has a total of seven hunting blocks. The hunting blocks and the outfitters owning them in bracket include 1: Ugalla North and 2: Ugalla South [Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris-TGTS], 3: Luganzo GCA [Robin Hurtz Safaris-RHS], 4: Ugalla East and 5; Ugunda GCA including Ipole WMA [Game Frontiers of Tanzania Ltd], 5; Uyumbu WMA [African Buffalo Safari Trackers - ABUSAT] and 6. Inyonga East (Big Game Safaris BGS). Three of the tour operators (TGTS RHS and BGS) are foreign based while the rest (Game Frontiers of Tanzania Ltd and ABUSAT) are locally owned. The whole ecosystem is unified by Ugalla river which flows from Singida Highlands downstream to Malagarasi river that recharges Lake Tanganyika in the western side of Tanzania.

### **3.3 Study population**

The targeted population in this study comprised of villagers living in this ecosystem, poachers caught in the area, staffs working with different tourist hunting players and officials managing the ecosystem. Ugalla ecosystem is surrounded by 65 villages with a

population size of approximately 500,000 people who have very high expectations of benefiting from the services and goods of the ecosystem (Lutabingwa, 2009).

### **3.4 Units of analysis**

Units of analysis are the subject of the study from which a researcher extracts the information to validate and answer the problem under investigation. These include individual villagers, staff, government and private institutions, families and district officials.

### **3.5 Variables and measurement**

The variable is observable and measurable feature of an equivalent unit of analysis, which varies across different units. Observation unit (i.e. Research unit, case) such as individual, group (e.g. Family, household, couple) institution, organization or community (e.g. school, church, enterprise, municipality), text (e.g. newspaper article, a novel, research report), event or activity (war, strike, flood, revolution) (Gilbert (Ed.) 1992). In this study variable such as, revenues, income, economic activities, number of schools, dispensaries water wells and other projects. Ordinal and nominal measures were applied during variable measurement.

There are relationships between variables. Dependant variable changes in response to changes in independent variables. Contribution of hunting tourism was the dependent variable in this study. Independent variable causes changes in dependant variables, socio-economic development were independent variable. Extraneous variable - causes changes in the independent variables thereby providing an alternative explanation of our dependent variable.

### **3.6 Sample size**

A sample size of 100 respondents was taken. About 50 villagers including their village leaders were involved from Kininga, Ipole, Msuva and Udongo villages in Sikonge

district, Nsogoro, Izimbili and Izengabatogilwe villages in Urambo district and Lumbe, Ukumbi siganga and Kangeme villages in Kaliua district. About 18 timber, bush meat and fishing poachers caught in the area during the time of data collection were included as well as 25 staffs and 7 officials managing the ecosystem. Simple random and purposive sampling was used to get these representatives. Purposive sampling was used to get views from district council and management officials, and staffs from the companies and institutions concerned. The sample size selected was calculated based on sampling formula (Nassiuma, 2000: Pg 60);

$$n = \frac{NC^2}{C^2 + (N-1)e^2}$$

Where; n = sample size,

C = Coefficient of Variation (10%),

e = Sampling Error (1%),

N = Population (500,000).

$$\begin{aligned} n &= \frac{500,000 * 0.1^2}{0.1^2 + (500,000-1)0.01^2} \\ &= \frac{5,000}{50.0099} \end{aligned}$$

**≈ 100 respondents**

Thus the study employed a sample size of 100 respondents from different stakeholders found in Ugalla Ecosystem.

### **3.7 Sampling procedures/technique**

The units of inquiry for this study were the individual household members, poachers that were arrested in the area during the period of data collection, staffs from different actors

working in this industry and the management of UGR, Anti Poaching Unit-Western zone, Urambo and Sikonge districts representatives and tourist hunting companies/NGOs operating in Ugalla ecosystem. The study used three sampling techniques in order to obtain appropriate sample that was free from biasness.

### **3.7.1 Stratified sampling**

This technique was employed in such a way that the sample was subdivided into four units of villagers, poachers, staffs working with different institutions in the area and the top management officials. Initially the researcher identified and recorded the names and total number of outfitters whose areas of operation fall within Mlele, Sikonge and Urambo districts. Numbers from 1-6 were assigned to different outfitters. The researcher selected every 1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> outfitter as part of the sample to be used. About 10 villages were taken based on their closeness to the core area of Ugalla Game Reserve.

### **3.7.2 Judgmental or purposive sampling**

This technique was used to get data from the government and the selected outfitters` top management officials. In-depth interviews were conducted with different governmental entities and outfitters managing Ugalla ecosystem. A total of seven top management officials were interviewed.

### **3.7.3 Simple random sampling**

This technique was applied to obtain relevant respondents from the selected villages, poachers and staffs working with the selected organizations. The researcher approached each independent respondent based on sex, age, and working experience. He then introduced himself and briefly explained the purpose of the study before requesting each interviewee to fill the questionnaires. About 10 villages from Mlele, Sikonge and Urambo districts represented the other villages. About five villagers were picked randomly based on age, sex and spatial differences. one of the village leaders were also included to enrich the data collected. Five organizations namely Ugalla Game Reserve,

Anti-poaching Unit-Western Zone Tabora, Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris (TGTS), African Buffalo Safari of Tanzania (ABUSAT) and Robin Hurtz Safaris (RHS) made part of the sample of the study. About five staffs from these organizations were interviewed depending on their designation, age, sex and working experience. The researcher also interviewed eighteen poachers that were arrested in the area during the period of data collection based on the type of poaching they were engaged with (bush meat/ivory, illegal fishing and timber/honey-six individuals). A grand total of 100 respondents (50 villagers, 25 staffs, 18 poachers and 7 officials) formed the sample size for this study (Table 3.1).

**Table 3.1: Sampling units**

<b>Organization/Institution</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Respondents</b>
UGR management	Assistant Project Manager	1
	Staffs	5
APU management	Assistant Commander	1
	Staffs	5
Sikonge district	District natural resources officer	1
	4 selected villages @ five respondents	20
Urambo district	District natural resources officer	1
	3 selected villages @ 5 respondents	15
Kaliua district	3 selected villages @ 5 respondents	15
RHS tour operator	CDP manager	1
	Staffs	5
TGTS tour operator	CDP director	1
	Staffs	5
ABUSAT	Camp manager [PH]	1
	Staffs	5
Poachers caught in UE	Timber, bush meat and fishing @ 6,people	18
<b>Total</b>		<b>100</b>

**Source:** Field survey, 2013

### **3.8 Types and sources of data**

Both primary and secondary data sources were explored. Primary data were obtained directly from different officials managing the ecosystem, staffs, poachers and villagers from villages that were involved during data collection including some related

photographs taken during the field survey. Secondary data were accessed from relevant sources including different books, journals, and reports, published and unpublished documents from the relevant offices, libraries and internet.

### **3.9 Data collection methods**

The study used questionnaires and in-depth interviews to solicit relevant information from the respondents, camera to capture some field observations and review of various documentaries from different sources

#### **3.9.1 Use of questionnaires**

Structured and semi-structured questionnaires (see appendices I-III) were used to collect relevant information for this study. Appendix I contains questions that were designed to solicit villagers` and poachers` responses. Appendix II constitutes questions for different workers staffing different organizations/institutions in this industry in the area. The last appendix was prepared for soliciting information from management officials from different institutions (government and tour operators/NGOs) working in Ugalla ecosystem. Both closed and open ended questions simple to administer and relatively inexpensive to analyze (Kothari, 2004) were used in each questionnaire. The questions focused on relevant information to meet the needs of the specific objectives the study was addressing. The use of digital camera also enabled the researcher to take photos relevant to the study.

### **3.9.2 In-depth interview**

In-depth interviews were conducted with some of the top management officials such as zonal anti poaching deputy commander, management of Ugalla Game Reserve and community development directors as well as concession managers from the selected tour operators including district natural resources officers managing the ecosystem. The interview was thoroughly and carefully documented.

### **3.10 Data analysis**

Data from the field were coded and analyzed using special package for social sciences [SPSS] and Microsoft excel programmes. The analyzed data were presented in form of descriptive statistics such as means/averages, frequencies, percentages, tables, figures, graphs, photos and charts.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **4. Introduction**

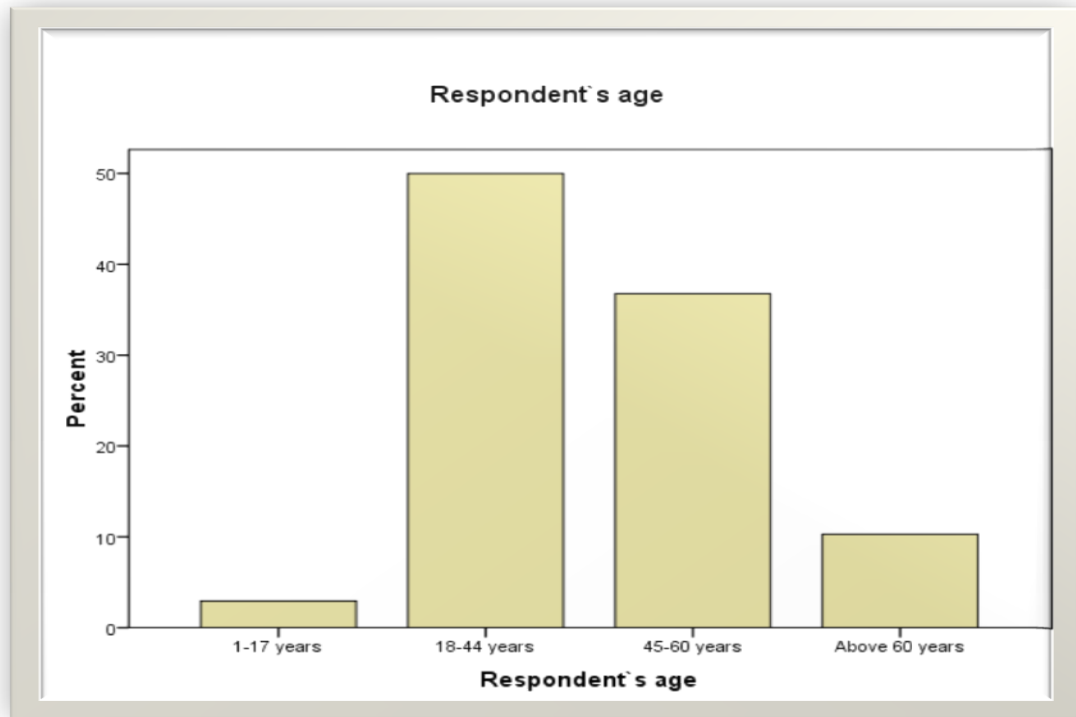
This chapter entails presentation of the findings analyzed, discussion, and interpretation of data based on the general and specific objectives of the study. Generally the study aimed at soliciting the contribution of hunting tourism on socio-economic development for local communities residing in Ugalla ecosystem. This capture presents the findings observed based on the specific objectives set and the analyzed data from the questionnaires used during data collection. The chronological arrangement of the findings presented in this work follows the specific objectives of the study in which the first objective was to assess socio-economic status of the local communities living in Ugalla Ecosystem, the second objective of the study was to determine the potentials and challenges of tourist hunting in Ugalla Ecosystem and lastly the study assessed corporate social responsibilities of different actors involved in tourist hunting in Ugalla Ecosystem.

#### **4.1 Demographic characteristics of the respondents**

##### **4.1.1 Respondents` age**

Majority of the respondents were of working group ranging from eighteen to sixty years (86.8%). Only 10.3% were above sixty and 2.9% below eighteen years (Figure 4.1.1). These results indicate the stability of the work force in this ecosystem.

**Figure 4.1.1: Age composition of the respondents**

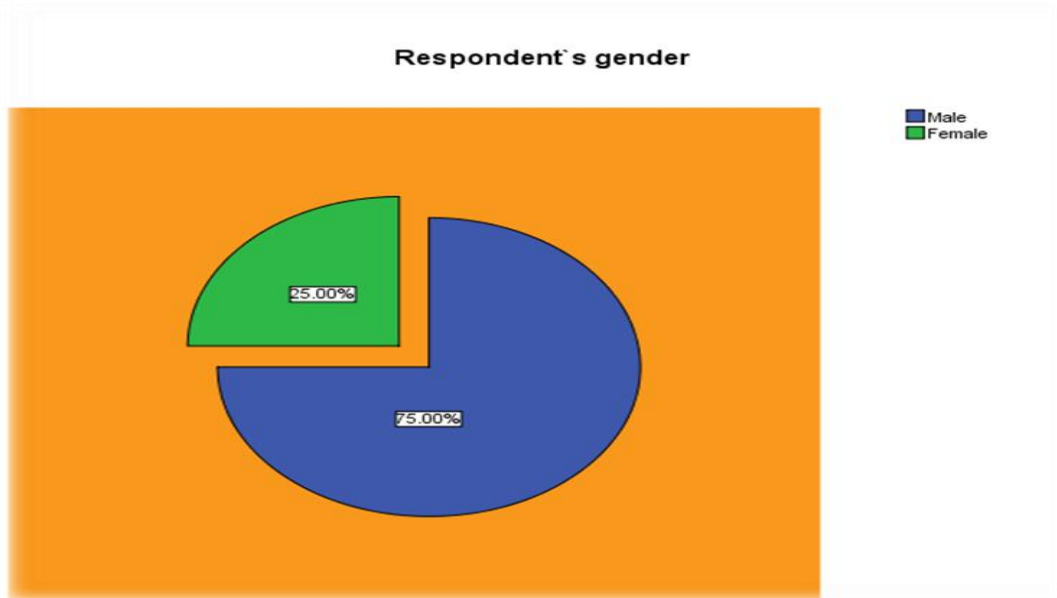


**Source:** Field survey, 2013

#### **4.1.2 Gender**

Out of sixty eight villagers interviewed only 25% of the respondents were females and 75% males (Figure 4.1.2). The findings indicate male dominance as the culture and traditional attitude of the study area show that men are the main speakers of their respective families (Kikoti, 2009). Since each questionnaire targeted one household, many responses came from men who are traditionally spokesmen of their families. On the other hand out of twenty five staffs interviewed from different organizations in this area 12% were female and 88% males. This is attributed by the nature of work, working environment and the country's culture which initially did not recognize the need for educating women leading to gender imbalances of human capital in this industry.

**Figure 4.1.2: Gender disparities among the respondents**



**Source:** Field survey, 2013

The finding concurs with International Labour Organization [ILO] (2009) which elaborated that the male-female workforce disparities in Tanzania have largely been attributed by the educational inequalities perpetuated by customary laws and practices which have downplayed the role and worth of the girl child. The situation necessitates an urgent need for labour policies that would ensure women's better protection and efforts towards achieving the third millennium development goal which seeks for promoting gender equality and empowering women, must aim at removing the gender imbalances at workplace by encouraging both men and women to take on a wide range of jobs.

### **4.1.3 Occupation**

At the village level the results indicate that many of the respondents undertake multiple activities. The findings indicate all respondents were farmers by occupation (100%). Although some are involved in fishing (17.6%), formal employment (10.3%), beekeeping (20.6%), business (14.7%), wage labor (2.9% and schooling (1.5%), yet farming is an integral component of their living (Table 4.1). Since most of the data were collected at village level, it is common to find a few employees mainly teachers and

education extension officers facilitating pupils/students and farmers on educational matters and good farming practices correspondingly. Wilfred (2010) found that formal employment in Ugalla Ecosystem was uncommon and the situation is perpetuated by the fact that economic openings in rural areas are few (URT, 2005) leading to limited formal employment opportunities. Nevertheless many of the staffs working in this industry have been employed by their respective organizations on temporal (44%) and permanent (56%) basis.

**Table 4.1: Respondents` occupation**

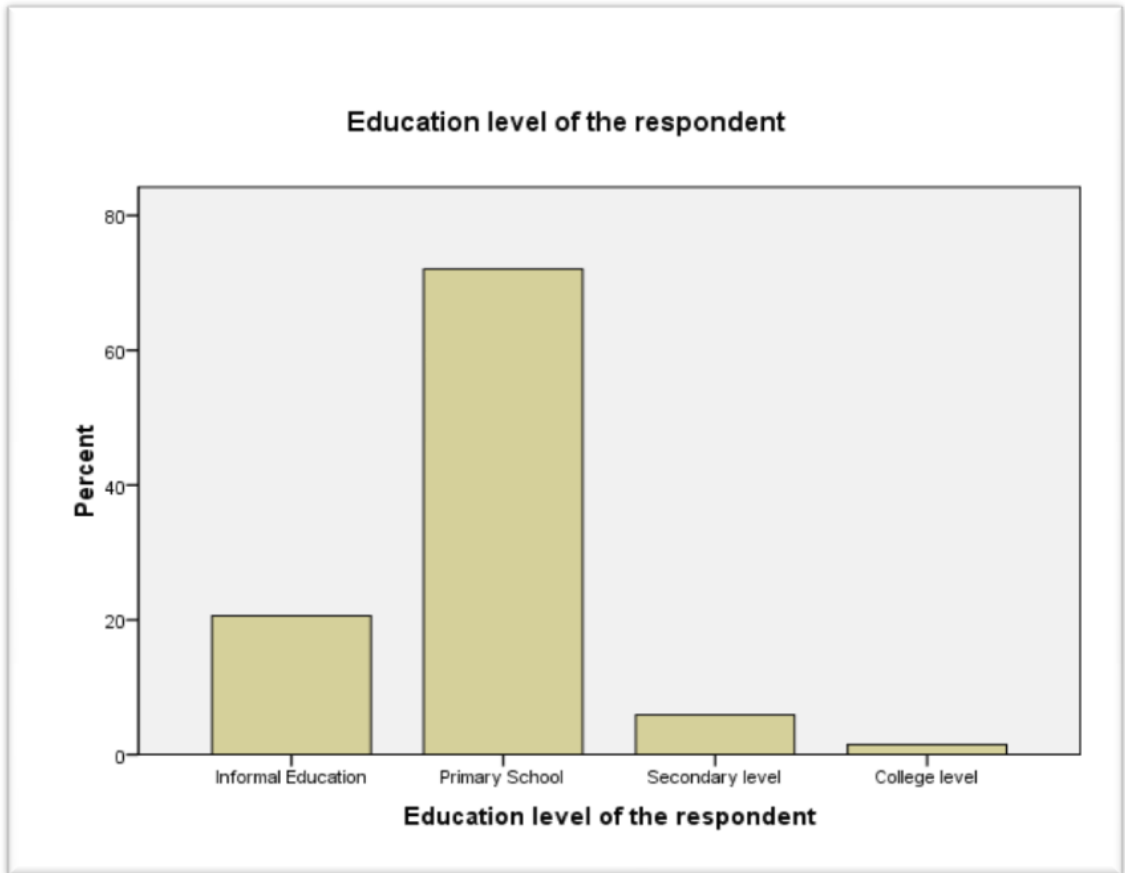
<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Percent of Cases</b>
Farmer	68	100.0%
Fisherman	12	17.6%
Employed	7	10.3%
Beekeeper	14	20.6%
Business	10	14.7%
Wage labor	2	2.9%
Pupil	1	1.5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>114</b>	<b>167.6</b>

**Source:** Field survey 2013; results calculated based on multiple response analysis

#### **4.1.4 Literacy level**

Many of the villagers interviewed had primary education (72.1%) followed by no formal education 20.6%. A few of the villagers have secondary (5.9%) and college education (Figure 4.1.3). The findings indicate in spite of a number of initiatives that have been undertaken by the government including provision of adult education, yet illiteracy is still problem a problem in the society. Profound measures should be in place to insure that illiteracy is eradicated bearing in mind its consequences.

**Figure 4.1.3: Villagers` literacy level**



**Source:** Field survey, 2013

#### **4.1.5 Villagers` poverty level**

The study found that villagers` mean per capita income (calculated based on the total annual household income divided by household size) is TZS 301,240.90/=. The amount is far less than the Gross National Income per capita of US \$ 514.4 (2010) as indicated by the UN data (2013). The minimum and maximum per capita income were found to be TZS 18,181.82/= and 833,333.30/=respectively. The lowest earning families were having the largest household sizes. Exacerbated by poor governance - the failure by some of the resource-rich countries in Africa to use their relative wealth to overcome the disadvantages of unfavorable geography, income poverty is the driving force behind poaching activities in many rural areas adjacent to the protected areas.

## 4.2 Socio-economic status of local communities living in Ugalla Ecosystem

### 4.2.1 Economic activities

As indicated in Table 4.2.1, the study found that most of respondents undertake multiple economic activities. Agriculture is the leading activity (98.5%) almost done by every respondent followed by livestock keeping (41.2%), bee keeping (27.9%), fishing (16.2%) and business (14.7%). This finding reflects the fact that agriculture is the backbone of the nation (URT, 2010). However agricultural practices such as the use of fertilizers have been reported to be the cause of water weeds which have infested Ugalla River.

**Table 4.2.1: Major economic activities for the villagers**

Major economic activities	Respondents	Percent of cases
Agriculture	67	98.5%
Livestock Keeping	28	41.2%
Fishing	11	16.2%
Business	10	14.7%
Bee keeping	19	27.9%
<b>Total</b>	<b>135</b>	<b>198.5%</b>

**Source:** Field survey, 2013; results calculated based on multiple response analysis

#### 4.2.1.1 Agriculture

Most of the villagers rely heavily on agriculture for income generation to meet their family needs, payment of their children`s school fees and health services to mention a few. Mixed farming is conducted such that most of the respondents cultivate more than one crops. Two types of crops – cash crops and food crops are usually cultivated at Ugalla ecosystem (Table 4.2.1.1). Groundnuts (79.4%), rice (63.2%), Tobacco (32%) and sunflower (27.9%) are the main cash crops cultivated. Tobacco is exclusively cultivated for sale while groundnuts, rice, and sunflower are meant for dual purpose – both consumptive and cash generation. Rice, tobacco and groundnuts have been

cultivated in the area for several years, while sunflower is quite a new cash crop introduced in the area some few years ago. Tobacco cultivation has decreased tremendously due to unreliable prices since 2011. Maize (100%), cassava (35.3%), beans (14.7%), sweet potatoes (13.2%) and sorghum (1.5%) are usually cultivated for subsistence.

All these crops whether cash or subsistence, are seasonally cultivated and depend on the fertility of the soil, pollinators and the climate provided by Ugalla ecosystem (Kikoti, 2009). Anti poaching activities undertaken by the tourist hunting players in this ecosystem has been helping the ecosystem to remain relatively intact from deforestation and environmental degradation, the situation which could disturb rainfall patterns, soil fertility and crop productivity and thus leading to hunger.

**Table 4.2.1.1: Type of crops cultivated by the villagers**

<b>Crops cultivated</b>	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Percent of cases</b>
Tobacco	22	32.4%
Rice	43	63.2%
Groundnuts	54	79.4%
Sunflower	19	27.9%
Maize	68	100.0%
Cassava	24	35.3%
Beans	10	14.7%
Sweet potatoes	9	13.2%
Sorghum	1	1.5%
<b>Total</b>	<b>250</b>	<b>367.6%</b>

**Source:** Field survey 2013; results calculated based on multiple response analysis

#### **4.2.1.2 Livestock keeping**

Traditionally most indigenous people living in this ecosystem are less involved in livestock keeping. The study found that about 86.8% of the respondents interviewed in the villages do not keep cattle, neither goats (79.4%) nor poultry (38.2%) (Table

4.2.1.2). Many of the keepers are mainly Sukumas - invaders from Kahama and Shinyanga. Cattle, goats and poultry are common though in small scale. Land scarcity, inadequate pasture and water shortage force most of the active keepers invade the adjacent protected areas for pasture and water supply especially during drying season.

**Table 4.2.1.2: Types and number of livestock kept by villagers surveyed**

No. of Livestock Range	Frequency			Percent %		
	Cattle	Goats	Poultry	Cattle	Goats	Poultry
1-10	1	9	20	1.5	13.2	29.4
11-50	4	4	13	5.9	5.9	19.1
51-100	4	1	6	5.9	1.5	8.8
>100	-	-	3	-	-	4.4
NIL	59	54	26	86.8	79.4	38.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** Field survey, 2013

#### 4.2.1.3 Bee keeping

Bee keeping the third economic activity undertaken in Ugalla Ecosystem is largely done inside protected areas (52%) especially Ugalla game reserve, Luganzo Ugunda GCAs, Ipole and Uyumbu WMAs. Historic and traditional, beekeeping is mainly conducted by the Nyamwezi people of Tabora region. Stingless (less common) and sting bees honey are harvested during summer from June to November each year. The region is one of the leading regions for production of honey in Tanzania. About 39% of the keepers have less than a hundred bee hives and 61% more than that figure. Priced at TZS 4,000/= per liter at the local market, the business contributes highly in terms of social and economic benefits. At an average most bee keepers get less than two hundred liters in each season (Table.4.2.1.3).

**Table 4.2.1.3: Amount of honey harvested seasonally**

Range	Frequency	Percent
1-20 litters	1	4.3
21-50 litters	3	13.0
51-100 litters	5	21.7
101-200 litters	10	43.5
>200 litters	4	17.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>100.0</b>

**Source:** Field survey, 2013

Honey from Tabora is hailed for its good quality and organic nature that is lack of nicotine chemicals. These people are skilled beekeepers from time immemorial (Kikoti, 2009). Their activity is supported by miombo woodlands which make the ecosystem a particular productive honey-gathering site (UGR General Management Plan [GMP], 2007). Such vegetation ensures availability of large quantity of honey of high quality and biotic in nature.

#### **4.2.1.4 Fishing**

Fishing, the fourth economic activity in the area is usually practiced in Ugalla and Walla rivers (72.3%), lake Sagara (22.2%) and Lumbe dam (5.5%) which are found within that chain of PAs where tourist hunting activities are carried. Different types of fish are caught in this ecosystem. These include *Kambale* (*Clarias liocephalus*), *Ngege* (*Tilapia*), *Kukuru* (*Citharinus gibbosus*), *Nembe* (*Schilbe mystus*) and *Nondamongo* (*Drycinus rhodopleura*). The activity is basically meant for income generation, protein supplement and source of recreation. The security and seasonal availability of fish and honey have been facilitated largely by the anti poaching patrols conducted throughout the year by the tourist hunting actors managing the ecosystem.

#### **4.2.1.5 Small and medium enterprises**

Various business activities are undertaken by the respondents. Food vendor, tailoring, honey packaging, masonry, carpentry, wholesale and retail shops are not uncommon. All these have been creatively embarked as a means for survival and income generation to suffice human needs. However most of the businesses conducted suffer from inadequate capital due to unorganized and poorly integrated microfinance services. Entrepreneurial skills could be the basis upon which these enterprises could flourish better and ensure more returns to the owners.

#### **4.2.2 Social services found in Ugalla ecosystem**

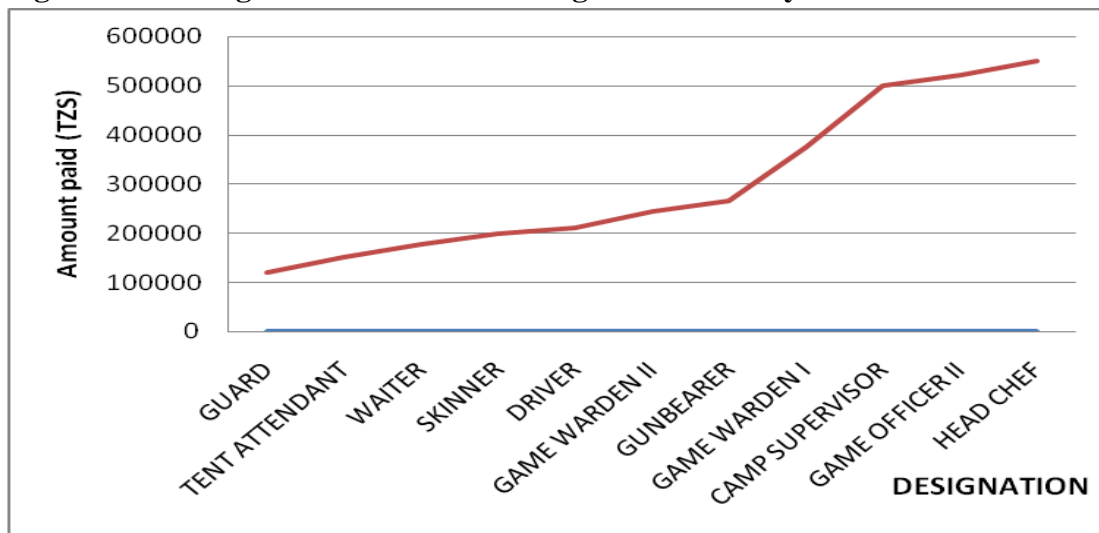
Various social services are instituted in this ecosystem. Schools, dispensaries, and water supplies are common. Most villages have one primary school (87.5%) and one to three water wells (87.9%). Secondary schools and dispensaries are mainly found at ward level. About 92% of the wards have a single secondary school and one dispensary (95.6%). The most challenges many of these secondary schools face include lack of teachers, text books, libraries, laboratories, teachers` housing and poor working conditions the situation that have crippled the performance of many students originating from them.

Dispensaries suffer from understaffing and lack of prescribed drugs putting the villagers` health at stake. The findings are in line with the National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty [NSGRP I] (URT, 2005) which stipulates that the aforementioned challenges have led to poor quality of primary and secondary education in Tanzania and health issues in rural areas. However the second National Strategy - NSGRP II (URT, 2011) has promised to address more strongly these challenges. A number of these social services were constructed by the government and wananchi initiatives save for a few cases where donors and tour operators outstretched their hands.

### 4.2.3 Salaries and fringe benefits for staffs working in this industry

Figure 4.2.3 indicates various designations for the staffs working in this industry and their due salaries ranging from TZS 100,000/= to 600,000/=. The total monthly staff's remuneration is relatively low compared to the nature of this business, the working environment, expatriate salaries and the profits generated through tourist hunting activities. Nonetheless the researcher's eager to get reasons as to why this situation prevails was quenched by some of the actors' answers that although many companies wish to pay more to their staffs, yet the country's governing salary scale for each designation are indicative by the respective government authorities such that failure to comply attracts more audit queries.

**Figure 4.2.3 Designations of staffs working in HT industry and their due salaries**



**Source:** Field survey, 2013

Taking into consideration US\$ 1.25 per day as the poverty line according to Mundi (2013) and 1\$US = TZS 1600 – estimated current exchange rate, the study found that at an average staffs working in this industry receive about 6.25 times total remuneration (comprised of basic salary, tips and night out allowances) over and above the poverty line. Nonetheless, bearing in mind the inflation rate, high dependence level, taxes

payable and the general living expenses including rent, transport, and escalating social services costs, the total remuneration received does not cater for the annual needs for an African family nor is it sustainable. For instance only 29.2% of the staffs interviewed own personal houses, 50% rent and 21.1% live in staff quarters. The study also found that about 84% of the staffs do not have their own cars only 16% have. The current social and economic transformation necessitates employers to improve the working conditions and the staffs` well being as measures for improved performance, efficiency and effectiveness at work place.

The argument that owning a private transport and house is luxurious and private transport should be owned by the well off individuals in the society is implausible. Employers should look into ways through which its employees must be capacitated to live a standardized and a self fulfilling life that encourages, motivates and orient an employee towards achieving the set company/ institutional goals. Although cars might be sold at an affordable rate at the market, the tariffs associated with vehicle clearance at Dar es Salaam port do not reflect the salary standards payable to Tanzanian employees by the government and some of the private organizations in this industry. Meager income payable to these staffs encourages erosion of professional ethics (URT, 1998).

The findings are supported by the ILO global wage report 2012/2013 which found that despite of positive wage growth in Africa yet workers` share of national income has been shrinking in most countries causing public dissatisfaction and increasing the risk of social unrest. The NSGRP I (20005), calls for higher incomes to enable households to improve human capabilities through better education, health, nutrition and shelter. Human capability in turn is critical for long-term growth. Growth enables the government to collect revenue for provision of services. Governance provides conditions for growth, well-being and poverty reduction.

#### 4.2.4 Working environment for the staffs

Multiple risks stem a challenge to staff working in this industry (Table 4.2.4). About 80% of the staffs working in this industry complained that they are compelled to live far away from their families usually for a period of not less than six months due to the fact that tourist hunting is largely undertaken in remote areas which are difficult to access and poorly networked (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004).

Other risks include contraction of sexually transmitted infections - STIs (84%) including HIV Aids, gonorrhoea and syphilis, the possibility of being killed by armed poachers (88%), poor social interaction (92%), lack of risks and hardship allowances (72%), and inadequate operational gears.

**Table 4.2.4: Risks of working with tourist hunting industry in Ug. Ecosystem**

<b>Risks of working in TH Industry</b>	<b>Respondents</b>	<b>Percent of Cases</b>
Isolation from family	20	80.0%
Contraction of STIs	21	84.0%
Possible killings by poachers	22	88.0%
Lack of social interactions	23	92.0%
Lack of risk allowances	18	72.0%
Lack of operational gears	16	64.0%
Unreliable social services	9	36.0%
Sleeping sickness disease	9	36.0%
Snake bite	3	12.0%
Possible lose of salary	2	8.0%
<b>Total</b>	<b>143</b>	<b>572.0%</b>

**Source:** Field survey 2013, results calculated based on multiple response analysis

Other associated risks include, suffering from sleeping sickness disease, snake bites and possible deduction of salary benefits in case the employee will not complete the hunting season effectively. The finding is hand in hand with Eurofound (2012) which justified that workers in Tanzania experience high exposure to physical risks at work place

including vulnerability to risks from dangerous people (such as thieves and poachers), inadequate safety and health standards and environmental hazards and often poorly informed of the risks at work which means that they are not well prepared to cope with them.

#### 4.2.5 Nature of the employment

The study found that 100% of the government employees interviewed have a permanent and pensionable employment. About 73.3% of the staffs working with the selected tour operators have been employed on contractual/temporal basis. A few (26.7%) of the staffs working with the tour operators for a long time usually more than 10 years were permanently employed (Table 4.2.5). This means that good reputation and sufficient experience are keys for gaining trust and acceptance in the private sector.

**Table 4.2.5: Nature of employment provided by TH players in Ugalla Ecosystem**

Employment	Government (WD)		Private sector					
	N	%	TGTS	RHS	ABUSAT	>10yrs	<10yrs	% TOTAL
Permanent	10	100	1	1	2	50%	50%	26.7%
Contractual	0	0	4	4	3	27.3%	72.7%	73.3%
<b>Total</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>5</b>			<b>100%</b>

**Source:** Field survey, 2013

### 4.3 Potentials and Challenges of tourist hunting in Ugalla Ecosystem

#### 4.3.1 Potentials of tourist hunting in Ugalla Ecosystem

Multiple benefits are associated with tourist hunting activities (Table 4.3.1). Among others include generation of revenues, preservation of the natural environment, ecosystem services, supporting rural livelihood, employment creation, capacitating local institutions, educational sponsorship, promotion of local artifacts and assistance to development projects were not uncommon.

**Table 4.3.1: Potentials of hunting tourism to local communities**

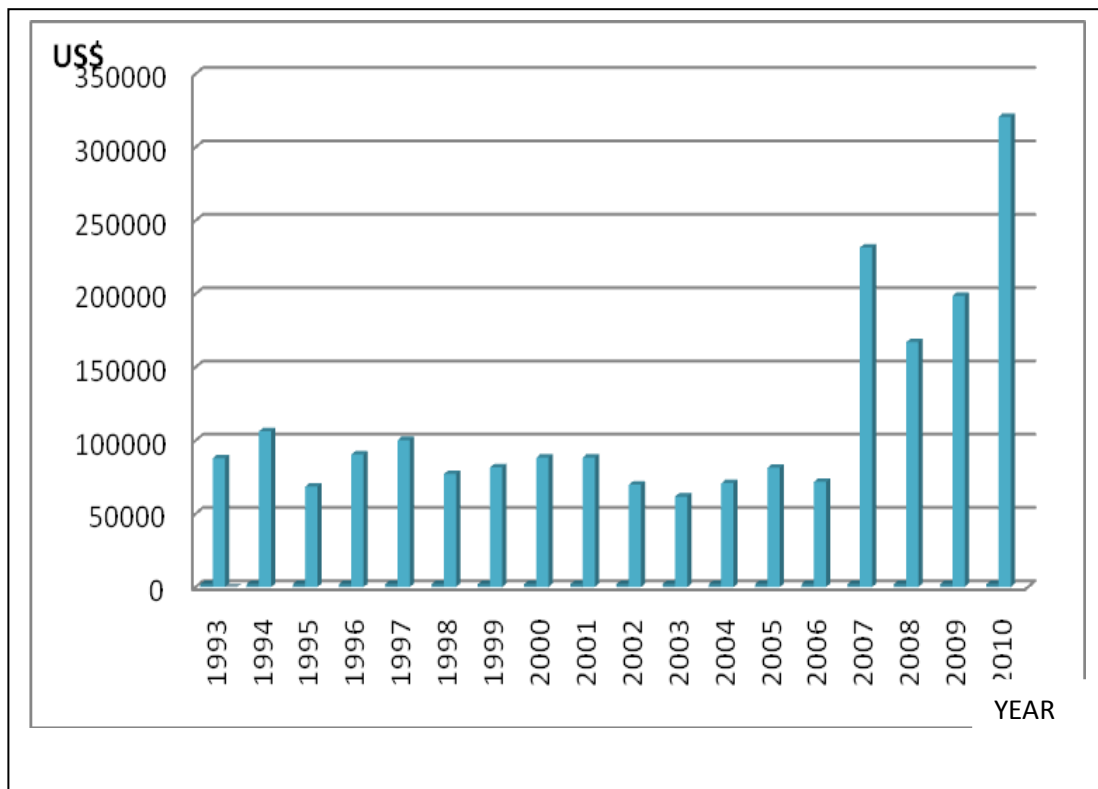
<b>HT benefits to villagers</b>	<b>Responses</b>	<b>Percent of Cases</b>
Dividend from TH	22	37.3%
Income generation through beekeeping	6	10.2%
None	14	23.7%
Ecosystem Services	17	28.8%
Students sponsorship	3	5.1%
Development projects such as construction of schools, water wells etc.	8	13.6%
Decreased contributions for public issues water accessibility, village projects and employment opportunities, educational sponsorship & improved life standard	10	16.9%
Tourist multiplier impacts (TMI)	2	3.4%
<b>Total</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>139.0%</b>

**Source:** Field survey 2013; results calculated based on multiple response analysis

#### **4.3.1.1 Generation of revenues to support the economy**

Tourist hunting activities undertaken in UE generates income to support the country's economy. Various sources of income include block fees (ranges from US\$ 5000 – 60,000 per season depending on the category of the block), Application fee, permit fee, game fees (varies considerably depending on the type of animal hunted or wounded), trophy handling fee, conservation fee (usually US\$150 per person per day), professional hunter fees (examination and license fees) and observer fee (URT, 2010). The study found that in Ugalla game reserve alone, about US\$ 2,060,880 were accrued from tourist hunting conducted in its initially two blocks of Ugalla West and Ugalla East since 1993 to 2010 (Figure 4.3.1.1).

**Figure 4.3.1.1: Revenues accrued from Tourist Hunting in UGR since 1993 - 2010**



**Source:** Ugalla game reserve database

Usually the revenues collected in each hunting season are redistributed according to the existing reallocation scheme (Leaders-Williams, et al. 1996). The money is reallocated to various areas such as Treasury, TWPF, Wildlife Division, District councils and WMAs. In practice it is only the hunting block fees, application fees, professional hunters` fees and game fees that are proportionally reallocated. The full observer, conservation, permit and trophy handling fees have all been accrued to TWPF since their inception (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004). According to the available reallocation scheme, 25% of the revenue collected is issued to Tanzania Wildlife Protection Fund [TWPF] and 40% of the revenue goes to the national treasure. Out of 35% remaining, 75% is retention fund for administration of various activities in the Wildlife Division and the rest 25% is brought back to the respective districts where the hunting activities are

carried to run various development projects at village levels and official usage (Baldu &Cauldwell, 2004). Exceptions occur with wildlife management areas (WMAs) where 25% of the revenue accrued from the respective WMA is retained to run various development and conservation activities within the area (URT, 2012).

#### **4.3.1.2 Preservation of natural environment**

Tourist hunting as one of the lucrative businesses has managed to raise some income exclusively meant for enhancing conservation of the natural resources including wildlife. As initially stipulated 100% of the permit, observer, conservation and trophy handling fees including 25% of the other fees are usually taken to TWPF. According to section 91 (2) of the wildlife conservation Act (URT, 2009), the fund is objectively set for; anti poaching operations and law enforcement, operations of the wildlife protection unit, conservation of wildlife, development of communities living in rural areas adjacent to wildlife protected areas, conservation education, training and awareness creation in wildlife matters, capacity building in wildlife management, wildlife management research and any other activity related to conservation of wildlife. According to the officials managing the ecosystem, TWPF has been at the frontline in discharging funds for undertaking anti poaching activities in the area throughout the year.

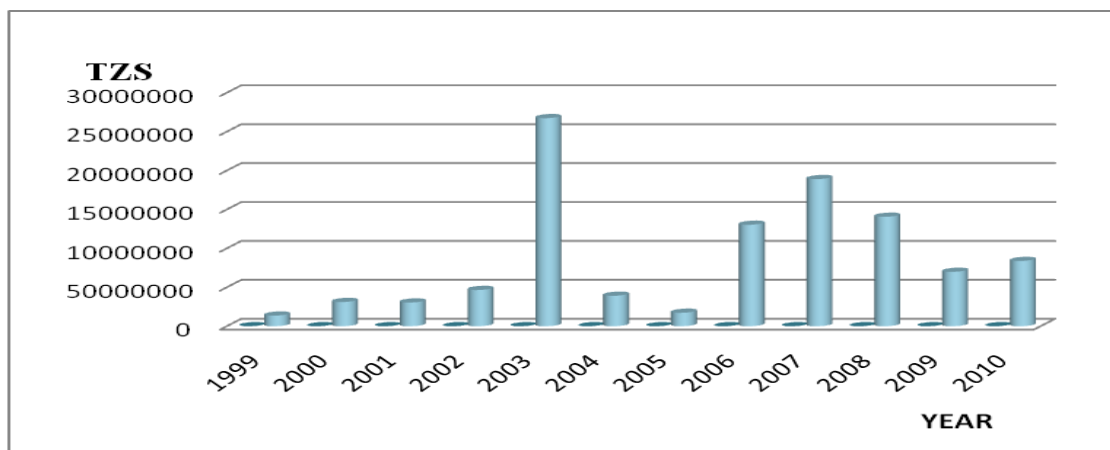
More over the existing tour operators - Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris (TGTS), African Buffalo Safari Trackers (ABUSAT), Robin Hurt Safaris and Game Frontiers of Tanzania who own hunting blocks in this ecosystem have been collaborating with WD as compliance to section 16 (4) (e) of the Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations (URT, 2010) which requires the block owner to contribute towards anti-poaching operations or any other bad intentioned persons in issues of conservation of wildlife. Various Anti poaching facilities are usually provided by these operators. These include anti poaching trainings, four wheeled drive motor vehicle(s), micro light (less common) for aerial surveillance, anti poaching teams and covering other operating expenses. This is in line with African Conservation Foundation (ACF, 2010) which

found that tourist hunting can serve as a powerful incentive to maintain or increase game numbers by giving wildlife and habitat economic values as opposed to purely intrinsic ones and thus enable habitat and the concomitant wildlife to compete with alternative, mostly less nature friendly types of land use (Baldus, 2010).

#### 4.3.1.3 Supporting rural livelihoods

Hunting Tourism is usually undertaken in remote areas difficult to access, tsetse stricken and poorly supportive to other land use plans (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004). The study found that preservation of the natural environment through anti poaching activities conducted by various actors in Ugalla Ecosystem has opened legal ventures through which the natural resources in this ecosystem are legally accessed. In Ugalla game reserve alone, about four hundred beekeepers and six hundred fishermen including their assistants are allowed entering the reserve for honey gathering and fishing in each hunting season (UGR GMP, 2004). The survey found that in the period of 1999 to 2010, fishing alone (Figure 4.3.1.3(a)) generated a total of TZS 1,059,623,300/=.

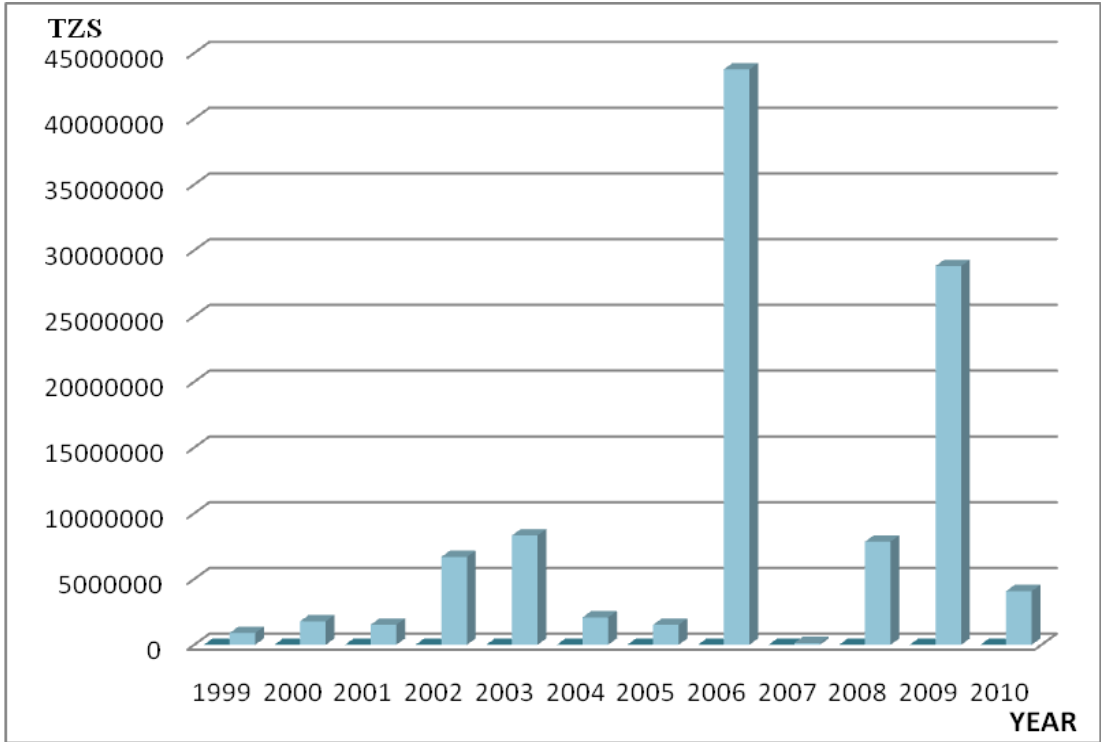
**Figure 4.3.1.3(a): Revenues (TZS) accrued from fishing activities in UGR since 1999-2010**



**Source:** UGR database

On the other hand about TZS 107,415,350/= were generated through honey gathering (Figure 4.3.1.3(b)) and TZS 18,927,250/= from bee wax. The former project manager UGR stipulated that legal fishing and honey gathering in the ecosystem contributes heavily towards poverty alleviation to the local communities living in this ecosystem. Timilsma (2007) found that PAs through ecosystem services play a critical role in sustaining natural resources and livelihoods of local people. Furthermore Kikoti (2009) revealed that Ugalla ecosystem supports rural livelihoods through ecosystem services such as building materials, climatic regulation, timber, honey, fish, firewood, pasture, soil nutrients and herbal medicine.

**Figure 4.3.1.3(b) Revenues (TZS) accrued from honey collection in UGR since 1999-2010**



**Source:** UGR database

#### **4.3.1.4 Creation of employment opportunities**

The distribution channel of TH business is associated with a number of levels through which the whole activity is carried out. Marketing, travel and accommodation, licensing, hunting and trophy processing are some of the areas which employ absurd number of people of various disciplines to cater for the hunters` aspirations. The business creates various employment opportunities major in different disciplines ranging from indigenous knowledge to formal education. Marketing of tourist hunting products creates employment at national, regional and international level. Various airline companies, air charters, cars, hotels and middlemen employ staffs of different disciplines to cater for the travel and accommodation needs of the tourists.

At the operational level, game officers, drivers, skimmers, gun bearers, cooks, camp supervisors, tent attendants, migration officers, waiters, professional hunters and licensing officers are employed to cater for clients` needs. Locals with wildlife experience are usually employed as trackers and skimmers. Section 25 (1) of the Tanzanian Constitution recognizes working as the only source of social richness leading to national prosperity and a measure of human dignity (URT, 2005). Some tour operators and donors in this area provides temporal and contractual employment opportunities to village game scouts, youths and villagers who are usually involved in various construction projects, anti poaching activities and tourist hunting facilitation.

#### **4.3.1.5 Capacitating local institutions**

As a strategic approach to empower local communities surrounding adjacent PAs the wildlife policy of Tanzania (URT, 1998), recognized the need for initiating wildlife management areas. Ugalla ecosystem has various community based institutions in operation. About two WMAs are actively running. These include Ipole WMA (JUHIWAI- Jumuiya ya Hifadhi ya Wanyamapori ya Watu wa Ipole) and Uyumbu WMA (Uyumbu Wildlife Management Area - UWIMA). These institutions are operating under the management of the local communities surrounding the WMA. Since

its inception the two WMAs receives 25% of the hunting revenues straight from the national treasury. Section 66 (1&2) of the WMA regulations (URT 2012) provides a guideline for benefit sharing of the annual gross revenue of the WMA. According to the guideline, the money is shared such that at least 50% of the revenue is proportionally given to the villages forming the WMA as dividends, a minimum of 25% for strengthening the Authorized Association and at least 15% is reinvested for resource development.

As a means to ensure that the local communities benefit more through tourist hunting (TH), section 51 (9) of the current WMA Regulations (URT, 2012) stipulates that the income accrued from TH in a WMA shall be shared as indicated in Table 4.3.1.5 below. Nevertheless subsection 1 of section 66 of the regulations states that benefit sharing in WMAs shall comply with circulars issued by the Government from time to time and shall adhere to mechanisms of equitable distribution of costs and benefits targeted at promoting wildlife conservation, enhancing economic development and poverty eradications.

The current zoning plan for UWIMA indicates other sources of income in addition to TH. These include photographic tourism, resident (local) hunting, bee keeping, fishing permits and lumbering. Other local institutions in Ugalla ecosystem relate to beekeeping and fishing. Among others include Tabora Beekeepers Co-operative Society (TBCS), Lembeli Beekeepers Primary Co-operative Society Ltd, Mulubhansabho Beekeepers Primary Co-operative Society Ltd, Tabora Fish and Fishing Marketing Co-operative Society Ltd, Sikonge Fish Co-operative (SIFICO) and Twikilagi Fish Co-operative. All these institutions are the beneficiaries of the aforementioned revenues accrued from bee keeping and fishing activities conducted in Ugalla game reserve.

**Table 4.3.1.5: Proposed TH income rates accrued to WMA from 2012.**

	TYPE OF FEE	TWPF	WMA	DC	TR
1	Block fee	25%	75%	0%	0
2	Game fee	25%	45%	15%	15%
3	Conservation fee	25%	45%	0%	30%
4	Observers fee	25%	45%	0%	30%
5	Permit fee	25%	15%	0%	60%

**Source:** WMA Regulations (URT, 2012)

#### **4.2.1.6 Wildlife population control and community development**

Rooted to the enthusiasm it creates to the hunter, tourist hunting is designed such that it acts as a tool to regulate and control the wildlife population in an area and promotes community development. About 88% of the staffs working with various organizations in this ecosystem admitted that tourist hunting is a tool for wildlife population control and community development. Being one of the biological resources, wildlife renews itself through reproduction of new offspring. The annual number of offspring reproduced depends on the type of species, its gestation period as well as the environmental factors experienced. According to some of the officials managing the ecosystem, tourist hunting is designed such that only the adult males of the respective species are shot.

Quotas are set indicating the number and type of animals the hunter is authorized to hunt within the specified period and block. In this way the wildlife population is kept at an acceptable level depending on the carrying capacity of the protected area. The charges associated with TH are relatively higher compared to photographic tourism. The number of hunters and vehicles used in conducting tourist hunting are relatively fewer. These scenarios reduce the adverse tourist impacts to the ecosystem and raise funds for community development. The findings are in line with Baldus and Cauldwell (2004) who found that tourist hunting is environmentally friendly and economically viable as compared to mass tourism practiced by photographic tourists.

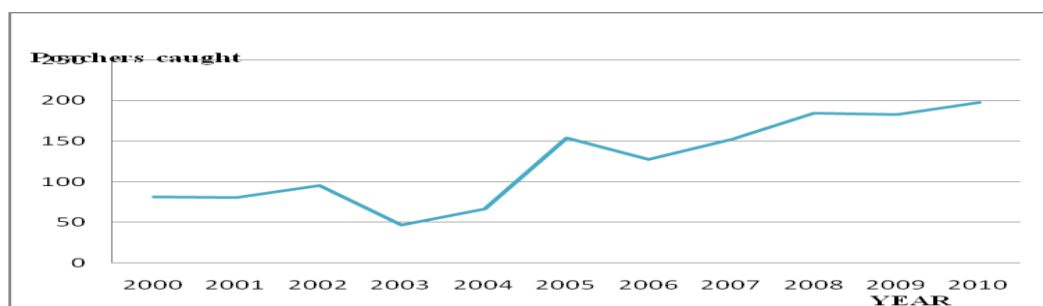
### 4.3.2. Observed challenges to hunting tourism

The study encountered a number of challenges facing hunting tourism business in the area. Among others include poaching, poverty and illiteracy among local communities, livestock grazing, lack of transparency, population increase, inadequate budgetary allocation, understaffing, invasive species, and politics

#### 4.3.2.1 Poaching

The single most challenge hunting tourism faces is the increased poaching in protected areas. According to the chairman of the parliamentary committee for Land and Natural Resources, about 10,000 elephants are unlawful killed every year. The poaching rate in Ugalla game reserve, the only core protected area in the ecosystem has been showing an increasing trend since 2000 (Figure 4.3.2.1). Various poaching activities are undertaken mainly by the local people living adjacent to the protected areas. Poaching for Ivory, meat, timber and honey was reported to be the cause of decreased wildlife population in Ugalla Ecosystem and the main factor destabilizing the industry.

**Figure 4.3.2.1: Poaching trend in UGR since 2000-2010**



**Source:** UGR database

Multiple causes fuel the escalating poaching activities in this ecosystem (Table 4.3.1.1) Exacerbated by high need for game meat, economic hardship, lack of other income generating alternatives, hiking prices for basic needs and lack of conservation education,

poaching is highly dependent as a source of income to many poverty stricken families (70.3%) as indicated in Table 4.3.2.1. Unregulated as it is, poaching kills any animal regardless of its sex and age. The most poached animals in Ugalla ecosystem include elephant, hippopotamus, buffalos, giraffes, Topi, hartebeest and impala. According to community development programme manager from Robin hurt the rising of fees and taxes associated with hunting have decreased the number of hunters coming to our country the situation which lowers the revenues accrued from hunting thereby leading to lower dividend allocated to local communities and thus increasing income poverty which make local people to engage in poaching as an ultimate source of income.

**Table 4.3.2.1: Causes of poaching in Ugalla Ecosystem**

<b>Causes of poaching</b>	<b>Responses</b>	<b>Percent of cases</b>
High need for game meat	18	28.1%
Source of income	45	70.3%
Lack of alternative IGPs	31	48.5%
Lack of conservation education	3	4.7%
Economic hardship	11	17.2%
<b>Total</b>	<b>108</b>	<b>168.8%</b>

**Source:** Field survey 2013; results calculated based on multiple response analysis

#### **4.3.2.2 Livestock grazing in PAs**

Following inadequate institutional framework governing livestock keeping in Tanzania, in practice livestock keeping in our country is largely meant for prestige. Many livestock keepers own a large number of indigenous poor breed low yield cattle. Lack of proper land use planning and management has witnessed uncontrolled numbers of livestock creating vigorous conflicts between livestock keepers and farmers in recent years throughout the country. As a result, most keepers invade protected areas as a conflict avoidance strategy and a means to secure sufficient forage and water for their animals. Most of the management officials interviewed declared that many forest reserves, game controlled areas and the two WMAs in this ecosystem suffer from this problem. Figure 4.3.2.2 indicates the extent of the problem. Steiner and Rihoy (1995) clarified that while

anti-poaching may be the initial target, it is land-use planning that will eventually determine whether wildlife survives.

Livestock grazing is associated with shifting and killing potential wildlife viable for commercial hunting and environmental degradation. The study found that many areas of Luganzo game controlled area, Lumbe dam and Mpandaline forest reserve where migratory birds such as wattled cranes and shoebills stokes, Sitatunga and other key wildlife species used to live and breed are no longer viable due to livestock invasion. Nevertheless, the carnivores are at the highest risk since livestock keeping and wildlife management are not compatible. In some incidences carnivores are killed by poison as a means to control them from their domesticated animals.

Conversely many of the hunters come to Tanzania mainly for cat hunting especially lion. The animal is estimated to contribute to our hunting industry about US\$ 1,960,000 in every hunting season (Songorwa, 2013). In 2011 five animal-rights and conservation groups demanded the United States Fish and Wildlife Service to list African lion as endangered due to population decrease as a result of habitat loss, poaching, commercial hunting and new diseases associated with human encroachment. This endeavor would make it illegal for American hunters to bring their trophies home. American trophy hunters constitute 60% of our trophy hunting market. According to the current Director of Wildlife (Songorwa, March 14, 2013) the decision to list African lion as endangered would add further strain to our already limited budgets, undo the progress we have made and undermine our ability to conserve not only our lions but all of our wildlife.

**Figure 4.3.2.2: Livestock grazing in PAs in Ugalla ecosystem**



**Source:** Field survey 2013

#### **4.3.2.3 Human population pressure**

The principle of population, initially published in 1798, Malthus made the well-known prediction that population would exceed food supply, leading to food shortage per person as regarding land scarcity (<<http://www.bbc.co.uk>>). With the household size of six and a population size of 2,291,623 people, Tabora is numbered the fifth among the regions with the highest population size and very high reproductive fecundity in Tanzania after Dar es salaam, Mwanza, Mbeya and Kagera regions (<http://www.nbs.go.tz/sensa/popu.php>). As human population expands, wildlife resources are increasingly subjected to severe pressure, which threatens their existence and sustainability (Milner et al, 2006, Caro&Scholte, 2007 and Smith, 2008).

Adequate knowledge about human population size and growth rates is helpful in setting conservation priorities, because population density may be used to determine resource use intensity and act as a surrogate measure of the degree to which wildlife resources in PAs are under threat. According to Wilfred (2010), the high population growth rate of Urambo district and its rapid development, as well as demand for a better quality life, have encouraged illegal hunting of wildlife for both commercial and subsistence

purposes. High population density has serious implications to hunting tourism as demand for more land for agriculture, natural resources to support urbanization and food sources increases.

#### **4.3.2.4 Changes in hunting fees and taxes**

Following changes in trophy hunting fees and other associated costs in 2011, Tanzania is regarded by many hunters as the most expensive country to undertake trophy hunting. Although the tourist products the country offers deserve premium prices (URT, 2002), yet the rates are said to be the most expensive in the sub-Saharan countries with exception to South Africa. According to Wayne Henry (Personal communication...., 2012) a Professional hunter (PH) from Zimbabwe, while it takes about U\$150,000 for a trophy hunter to fulfill his dreams in Tanzania, the situation is far more costless in Botswana and Zimbabwe where the same could be undertaken with about US\$ 35,000 - 50,000. This information was confirmed by the community development programme (CDP) manager- Robin Hurt stipulating that in Mozambique where his company also owns hunting blocks, the payment of US\$ 50,000 warrants a client an assurance for his hunting accomplishments conveniently and the government covers all the payments for its workers, infrastructural development and community development projects. Signifying the repercussions it caused, the manager revealed that about 60% of his company`s clients cancelled their bookings in 2011 and about 52% of its staffs lost their jobs as a retrenchment strategy to accommodate the changes.

#### **4.3.2.5 Poverty and illiteracy**

According to one of the officials managing the ecosystem, the communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem are suffering from income poverty and illiteracy. The per capita income of the local communities and staffs working in various organizations involved in hunting tourism is low. Coupled with illiteracy level, the creativity of the local people surrounding the ecosystem is poor and thus the only means of income generation largely dependent on poaching. Though this study realized various opportunities the local

communities in this area could apprehend to change their economic conditions through hunting tourism, yet a gap exists between what the donors requires from the villagers and their capacity to comprehend and meet the specifications. According to community development director of Friedkin Conservation Fund [FCF], an NGO affiliated to Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris, a number of project proposals are demanded by her organization from the villagers. Unfortunately less is delivered from village leaders and their people.

A call was made for villagers to identify their own development projects, signify its importance, estimate its costs and write a project proposal to the tour operators working adjacent to their area for evaluation and financial assistance. Nevertheless in a meeting with one of the tour operators in the late 2012, the Urambo district Commissioner sought a medium through which the gap could be eliminated. Regular stakeholders` meetings were concluded as the viable strategy through which the public - private partnership could be more helpful to local communities.

#### **4.3.2.6 Political influence in allocating hunting blocks**

Hunting Tourism as one of the professional skills demanding field, has been experiencing a couple of influences from political realm which are said to disrupt its orderliness (Baldus and Cauldwel, 2004). The influence cuts across various administrative issues ranging from hunting block allocation to poaching dilemma. The study found that some of the tour operators are still claiming for the best hunting blocks (grade I) they lost following the reallocation programme undertaken in February 2012. According to Robin hurtz CDP manager, although its company fulfilled all the criteria needed to be reallocated one of the best blocks it had in Maswa district, to its disappointment they end up losing the hunting block. This move demoralizes their conservation and local community development initiatives towards a sustainable hunting

tourism business. Some of the tour operators` officials interviewed stipulated that the move was politically influenced.

Damm (2007), emphasized that the prevailing block allocation procedures are far from the modern business practices as paves a way for corruption and ethical dilemma (Baldus and Cauldwell 2004). The auctioning of the respective blocks in a free market could give the highest price in a competitive basis. This practice could give the right market value for each block and thus add value to the amount of money generated instead of the fixed rates that have been set depending on the category of the block (Tanzania Development Partners Group [DPG] - [www.tzdac.or.tz](http://www.tzdac.or.tz)). Responding to this case, the assistant commander - Anti poaching Unit Western zone - Tabora revealed that the prevailing hunting block allocation procedure is designed such that the local outfitters are protected from the foreign tour operators who have massive capital and extensive experiences in this business. It was further clarified that the law requires only 15% of the hunting blocks be owned by the foreign operators and 85% by local operators or joint ventures (URT 2010). The procedure is set to protect the local operators who could otherwise be less competitive in a free market.

#### **4.3.2.7 Budgetary constraints and insufficient operational gears**

Various operations and patrols undertaken in Ugalla ecosystem require money for fuel, vehicle maintenance and payments for night out allowances (NOA) to workers. The study found that the only reliable sources of funds supporting anti poaching and community development projects come from tourist hunting through TWPF and the treasury through retention programs. The Parliamentary committee for Land and Natural resources elaborated that out of TZS thirty billion collected from tourist hunting activities in 2011, only TZS three billion was reallocated back. The actual budgetary allocated is far less to the standard budgetary estimates. As a result the number of patrol

man days covered and the community development projects undertaken annually do not suffice the need paving a way to increased poaching in the area.

This finding is in line with the chairman of the parliamentary committee for land and natural resources honorable Lembeli MP (2013), whose committee found that the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism is suffering from budgetary deficit, inadequate operational gears such as firearm and ammunitions, tents and patrol vehicles. Clarifying one of the issues, the MP revealed that tax problem has retained the needed firearms that were ordered eight months ago but stranded in Dar es Salaam port by Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA). Nathananel, (2004) stipulates that budgetary constraints has been limiting the distribution of enough copies of policies, guidelines, regulations, procedures and standards, in English and Kiswahili to all levels where natural resources are and campaign to popularize them so that they are known to all.

#### **4.3.2.8 Lack of transparency**

Awareness creation and conservation education programmes that were initially undertaken at the operational level to sensitize local communities about various conservation issues and the associated benefits accrued to them through tourist hunting are no longer practiced. The study found that in most of the villages which are not members of the existing WMAs, many villagers do not recognize and even understand how they benefit from the tourist hunting activities undertaken in the PAs adjacent to their villages. At district level the natural resources officers revealed that it is hard to justify the 25% dividend they are annually allocated whether reflects the true value of the animals hunted in their areas during that hunting season.

Although the study established that most tour operators working in this area allocates 20% of their revenues accrued from trophy fees as part of their corporate social responsibilities to the local communities adjacent to their hunting blocks, yet not even

the respective district authorities are well informed about its existence. In many occasions the money given back to the districts from these operators is taken as a favor and most operators take it for granted and hardly allocated consistently. Even Baldus and Cauldwell (2004) found that hunting outfitters and indeed many tourist providers want it to be their privilege to decide when and how to engage with communities without having the need imposed upon them.

The Robin Hurt CDP manager confirmed that Lack of coordinated and sufficient budgets have made most of community related programmes untapped, creating hatred and enmity between local communities and the staffs working in this industry. The follow up made by various tour operators in different hunting tourism stakeholders` meetings to ensure funds paid by hunting companies to WD for community development reach local communities as ultimate beneficiaries yielded plausible results after the government authorized hunting companies to contribute directly to villages to support development projects and avail evidence to WD for follow-ups (Songorwa, June 17, 2013).

#### **4.3.2.9 Inadequate staffing**

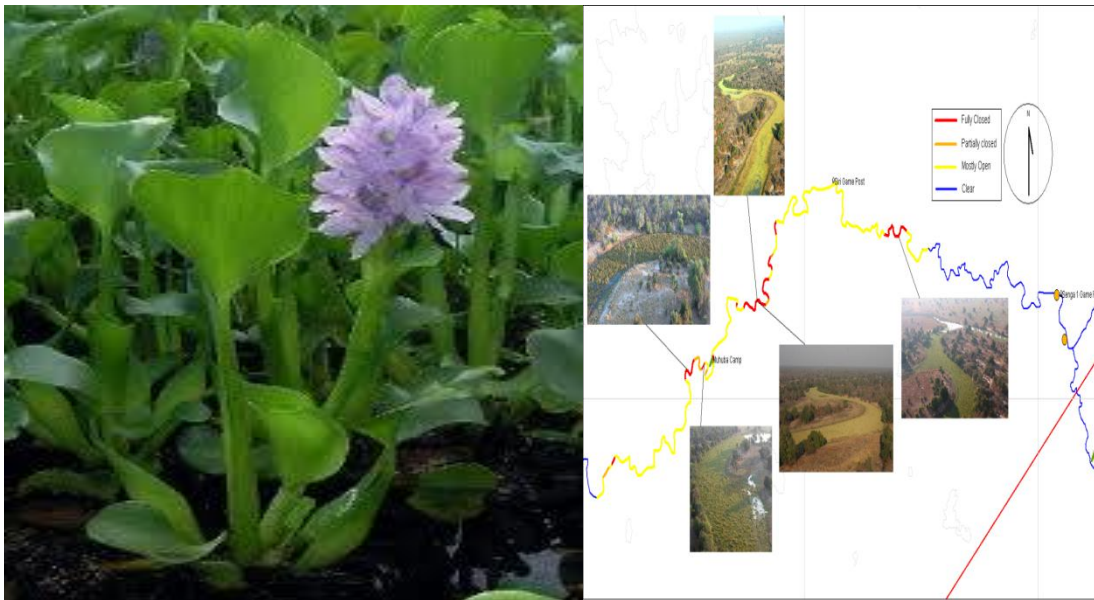
The number of workers in Ugalla and Anti poaching unit in the Western Zone- Tabora is 32 and 22 respectively (Ugalla reports). The current demand for Anti poaching unit is 32 staffs. Most of the forest reserves are managed through the zonal and regional offices. Lack of forest askaris have made most of the forest reserves remaining as forest patches due to encroachment, livestock grazing, charcoal burning and illegal timber harvesting. The situation is worst at district level where the offices are almost bare in terms of staffing and operational gears. In Sikonge and Urambo districts for instance, the district natural resources offices are occupied by only one natural resources officer each and a single game officer.

According to the respective districts` natural resources officers interviewed, many attempts made to employ professionals in the relevant fields have been associated with absconds as many successful applicants after reporting at the first time reject the offer. Staffs retention has been difficult due to poor staff handling and inadequate fringe benefits associated with the job provided. According to Lembeli (May 8, 2013) the Ministry of Natural Resources is in need of about two thousand and five hundred staffs. The government accepted to employ a thousand staffs in this 2013/14 budgetary year at least to cover the gap.

#### **4.3.2.10 Water hyacinth infestation (Eichhornia crassipes)**

Reports from Ugalla Game reserve indicates that ugalla river which is a tribute of Malagarasi river which recharges lake Tanganyika, has been infested with water hyacinth. Figure 4.4.2.10 shows the extent of the problem. During the rain season, much of the reserve is inaccessible due to extensive flooding, while in the dry season Ugalla forms a heaven for much of the game from surrounding areas. The river stops flowing during the dry season forming large pools which remains throughout the year. These are home to Hippos and crocodile, and provide year round water for other games such as Elephant, Buffalo, Sable and Roan Antelopes, Impala, and Topi (UGR GMP, 2011). Studies indicates that the high amide content (toxic matters) of 8 – 10% and dry weight basis prevent its fresh edibility and some cattle populations have been wiped out in India due to over consumption (Farming News, 1998). Being a hunting ground for hippos and crocodiles whose survival depends on Ugalla river, the animals` lives are at stake if the solution to the prevailing infestation is not sought.. Biological control is the most widely favoured long-term control method, being relatively easy to use, and arguably providing the only economic and sustainable control. But currently the best control measure which work successful is the combination of physical and biological control methods.

**Figure 4.4.210: (a) A water hyacinth plant and (b) extent of its infestation at River Ugalla**



(a). Common water hyacinth plant (b). Extent of plant's infestation at River Ugalla

**Source:** Ugalla Game Reserve reports

#### **4.4 Corporate social responsibilities availed by tourist hunting actors in Ugalla Ecosystem**

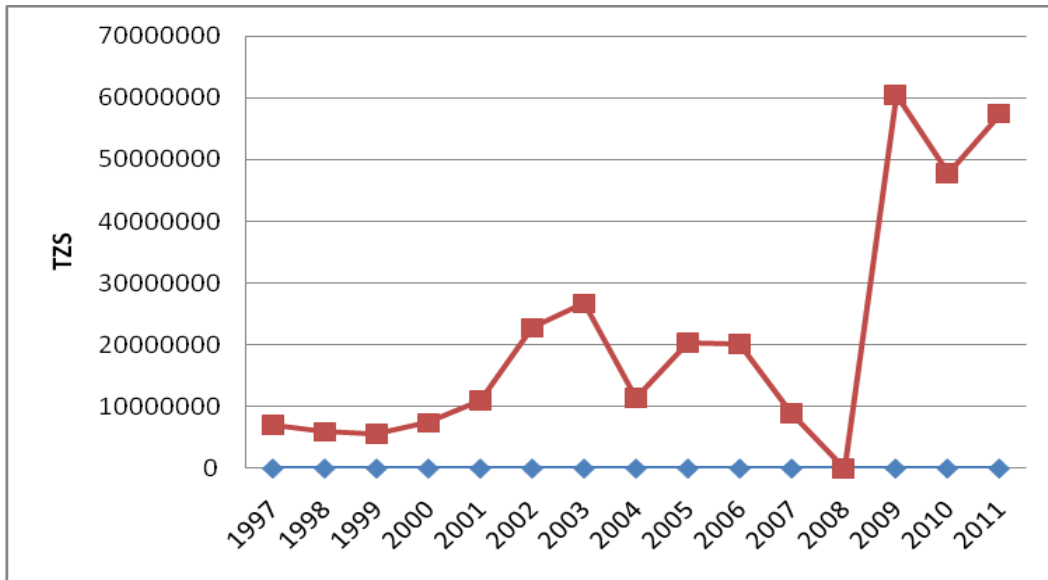
According to the existing Wildlife Conservation (Tourist Hunting) Regulations (URT, 2010) and section 182 of the Company Act 2002 (URT, 2002), various governmental and private institutions working adjacent to the local communities are required by the law to contribute towards fostering community development. In lieu of the same with reference to tourist hunting, various tourist hunting actors have been supporting a number of community development projects in this ecosystem.

#### **4.4.1 Tourist hunting revenues (25%) accrued to district councils**

At the government level, the MNRT on its side has been allocating 25% of the revenues accrued from tourist hunting to various district councils where tourist hunting is practiced to support various community development projects within the beneficiary districts. According to the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism budgetary estimates report 2013/14, about 32 district councils were allocated a total of TZS 1,162,199,512.52/= as revenues accrued to tourist hunting activities conducted in PAs found in those districts in 2012/13. The study found that Urambo and Sikonge districts are one of the beneficiaries (Figure 4.4.1 (a & b)). Sikonge district receives a lion share relative to Urambo district due to disparities in the number of hunting blocks each of these districts have where the former has four while the latter has three.

Sikonge district natural resources officer declared that the funds were initially used for various district development activities but following some clarifications from the Zonal Anti Poaching Commander in 2013, about 60% of the TZS 57, 489,622.04/= accrued from tourist hunting in 2011 was planned to be used for construction of about six hundred desks for primary schools located at Igalula, Mitwigu, Udongo, Mihamakumi, Mwenge, Mgambo, Mwitikio, Majojoro Kilumbi and Zugimlole villages such that each village will get a total of 60 desks. The construction process, follow ups and the disbursement to the respective schools would cost a total of TZS34, 493,773.20. The remaining 40% which amounts to TZS 22,995,848.80/= was set for conservation purposes that is conducting patrol activities, procurement of firearms and ammunitions, uniforms and trainings. The amount allocated to the district since 1997 shows an increasing at a decreasing rate until 2008. Following some reforms to the hunting fees payable, the revenues accrued increased relatively after the government adopted new hunting rates (Figure 4.4.1(a))

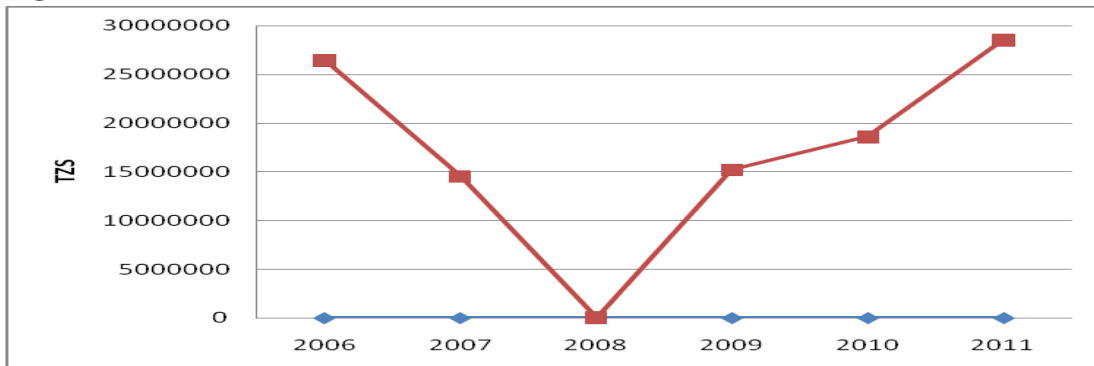
**Figure 4.4.1 (a): TH revenues (25%) accrued to Sikonge district since 1997-2011**



**Source:** Sikonge district natural resources database

Conversely Urambo district natural resources officer reported that his office proportionally allocates the money to the beneficiary villages adjacent to the hunting blocks. The officer further clarified that about 39 villages from Urambo districts are currently the beneficiaries. According to Kangeme village executive officer the dividend is ranges from TZS 300,000 - 500,000/=per village per hunting season.

**Figure 4.4.1 (b): TH revenues (25%) accrued to Urambo district since 2006-2011**



**Source:** Urambo district natural resources database

#### **4.4.2 Support to Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs)**

The establishment of Wildlife Management Areas was one of the successful strategic approaches that have enabled local communities adjacent PAs to participate in community based conservation programmes and realize direct social and economic benefits from the wildlife resources found in their areas. Ugalla Ecosystem has two fully flagged WMA-Ipole WMA (JUHIWAI) and Uyumbu WMA (UWIMA). According to Ipole WMA chairman, about 25% of tourist hunting revenues have been accrued to WMAs. The two WMAs have been leased to Game Frontiers of Tanzania Ltd (Ipole WMA) and the African Buffalo Safari Trackers (Uyumbu WMA).

##### **4.4.2.1 Ipole WMA (JUHIWAI)**

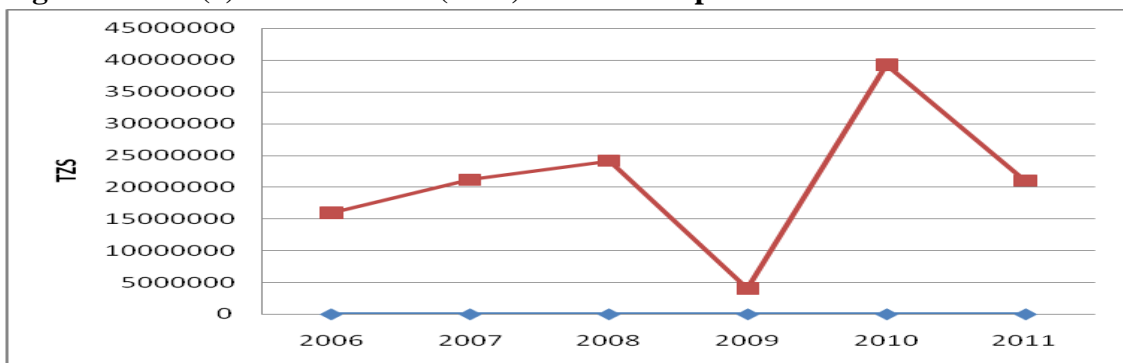
Ipole WMA is found in Sikonge district. JUHIWAI is made up of four villages namely Ipole, Idekamiso, Msuva and Utimele that benefit from tourist hunting activities and various NGO supported projects. According to their chairperson, JUHIWAI got wildlife user rights since 2006. The chairperson stipulated that more than TZS 120,000,000/= have been received from the government as 25% of the revenues accrued from hunting activities conducted in their land in the period from 2006 to 2011 (Figure 4.4.2.1(a)). He further clarified that about 50% of the revenues accrued were proportionally allocated to the beneficiary villages, 25% of the fund were used for reinvestment, 15% for security and patrol expenses and 10% for emergency cases. The dividend accrued to the villages is usually used for various social economic projects such as construction of village office buildings, and teachers` housing.

On the other hand it was reported that the investor (Game Frontiers of Tanzania Ltd) assists the WMA in providing firearms, anti poaching vehicle, diesel, facilitating payment for village game scouts [VGS] allowances and provision of educational sponsorship for two students from form one to form six. Nevertheless the anti poaching assistance was claimed to be little and seasonal not throughout the year. Other benefits

from the investor include two computers for Uganda secondary school, two solar panels for the village dispensary, iron sheets for classrooms roofing and timbers for clenching. Generally, the returns from hunting tourism for local populations, even when managed by community projects [WMA] are insignificant, and cannot prompt them to change their behaviour regarding poaching and agricultural encroachment (IUCN, 2011).

The revenues accrued have been fluctuating as a result of the number of hunters received and the number and type of animals hunted in each season. Although the WMA has been capacitated in terms of various donor funded projects the challenge remains on how they can control poaching and livestock grazing amid the insufficient funds they receive from hunting and lack of operational gears. JUHIWAI's chairperson called for the government to look into ways through which the WMA could get at least 50% of the gross revenues from tourist hunting conducted in their area due to the fact that the project has been facing severe challenges related to budgetary deficit. The call is relevant when related to communal conservancies in Namibia where the projects receive 100% of the revenues from the hunting activities conducted in their areas (Nelson, 2009).

**Figure 4.4.2.1 (a): TH revenues (25%) accrued to Ipole WMA since 2006-2011**

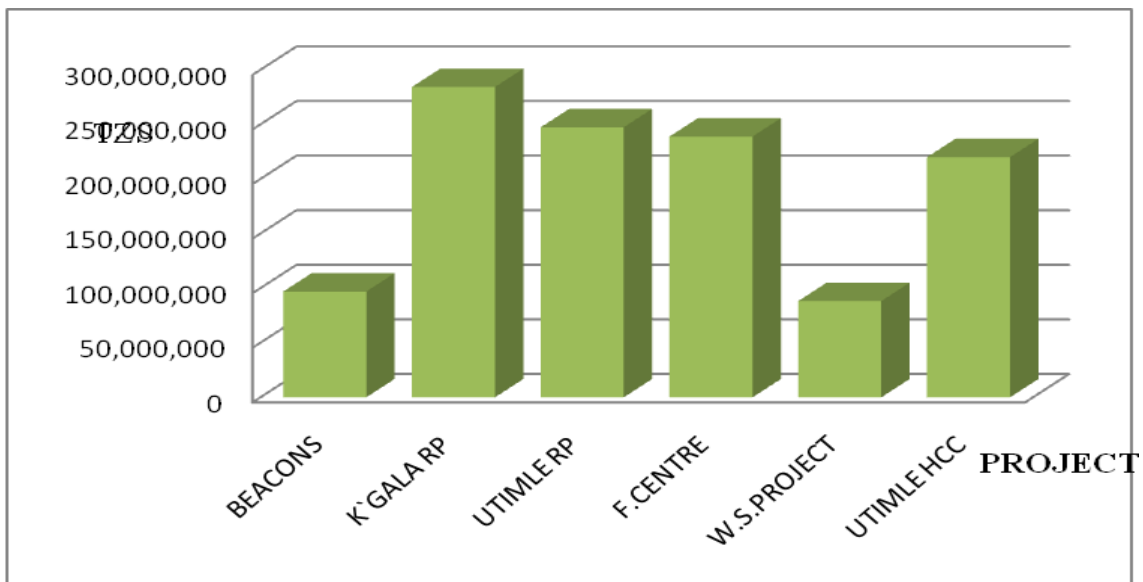


**Source:** JUHIWAI database

- **DONOR PROJECTS**

JUHIWAI has been receiving a number of donor supported projects worth a total of TZS 1,175,648,137/= in the period between 2009 and 2013 from the Department of Interior-United States Agency for International Development [DOI-USAID]. Among other projects include erection of beacons, construction of honey collection centre, water supply project and construction of Utimle and Kanjagala ranger posts (Figure 4.4.2.1(b)). Other assistance include train the trainers wildlife trainings and provision of Global Position System [GPS] equipment and cameras for anti poaching activities. These projects have created employment opportunities to the villagers and decreased the public contributions. Additionally, JUHIWAI has allowed its members to invest their bee keeping projects within the area the decision which has led to increased economic openings to the members and the project at large through permit fees paid by the members.

**Figure 4.4.2.1 (b): Various NGO based projects undertaken at JUHIWAI since 2009-2013**



**Source:** JUHIWAI database

#### **4.4.2.2 Uyumbu WMA (UWIMA)**

Uyumbu WMA is found in Urambo district. UWIMA is made up of four villages which include Izimbili, Nsogoro, Izengabatogilwe and Isongwa. The criteria for a village to be a member includes village`s readiness, the village must be lawfully registered, village title deed, the village must have a sustainable land management plan and readiness to pay various contributions set by the Community Based Organization [CBO]. According to UWIMA general secretary Miss Hellena Richard, the area has been zoned into six zones depending on various activities that can be undertaken in each zone. These activities include photographic tourism, hunting tourism, resident hunting, bee keeping, fishing and timber harvesting.

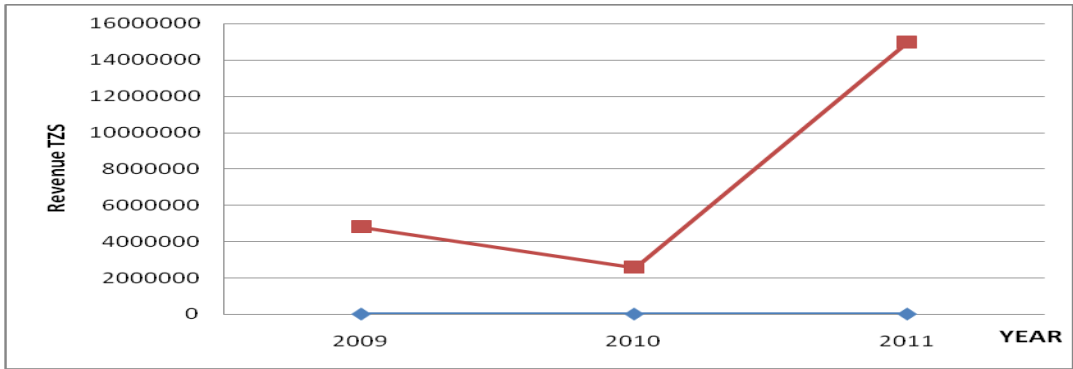
The major sources of income to the WMA include permits for fishing and bee keeping, 25% revenues accrued from tourist hunting and the contributions from the investor. The principal natural resources in the WMA include forest, wildlife, and fish. Although highest priority is currently given to wildlife utilization as the main activity, UWIMA has also considered all other natural resources in the utilization schemes of their WMAs (Arntzen, 2003). Tourist hunting is practiced by ABUSAT. About 25% of the revenues accrued to the WMA is used to cover allowances for the Village Game Scouts when conducting anti poaching activities, 50% as dividend to the beneficiary villages and 25% for administration purposes.

In the period between 2008 and 2012 the WMA received a total of TZS 22,386,131.30 (Figure 4.4.2.2). According to their contract with the investor (ABUSAT), the latter is required to contribute TZS 15,000,000/= in each hunting season to support various village development projects. In 2011 each village received about six million which were used depending on village`s priorities. Isongwa built two teachers` and one housing for their health worker. Izengabatogilwe completed their village office building and

Izimbili constructed village executive officer`s housing. Other Investor`s contributions include building of one primary school and mosque for Nsogoro village, provision of anti poaching vehicle, ration, diesel for patrol activities and provision of employment opportunities for the villagers. In general context the study indicates that villages which are involved in Wildlife management in their areas realize more benefits from tourist hunting activities conducted in their land relative to areas where the programme is not in place.

The finding is in line with Christophersen (2000) who undertaking a study on economic opportunities in WMAs identified, among others, four main economic openings through which rural communities can optimize the use of WMAs. These include; subsistence hunting, non-consumptive tourism, beekeeping, and utilization of forest resources. However the general secretary added that their WMA has a narrow means of getting revenues in comparison with other northern WMAs. The situation is attributed by poor accessibility, nature of terrain, lack of airport and poor investors` competition.

**Figure 4.4.2.2 Tourist hunting revenues (25%) accrued to UWIMA since 2009-2011**



**Source:** UWIMA database

#### **4.4.3 Tourist hunting contributions from other tour operators in Ug. Ecosystem**

Other tour operators owning hunting blocks in Ugalla ecosystem include Tanzania Game Trackers Safaris (TGTS) and Robin Hurt Safaris (RHS). During the time of data collection, TGTS was operating in the two hunting blocks of Ugalla East and West. According to the current hunting block division and reallocation plan, TGTS has been allocated two hunting blocks of Ugalla North and Ugalla South. Ugalla East, Ugunda Game Controlled Area (GCA) and Ipole WMA were allocated to Game Frontiers of Tanzania. Luganzo GCA hunting block is operated by RHS. Ugalla West, Uyumbu WMA and Luganzo hunting blocks are located in Urambo/Kaliua districts. Ipole WMA, Ugunda GCA and Ugalla East hunting blocks are located in Sikonge district.

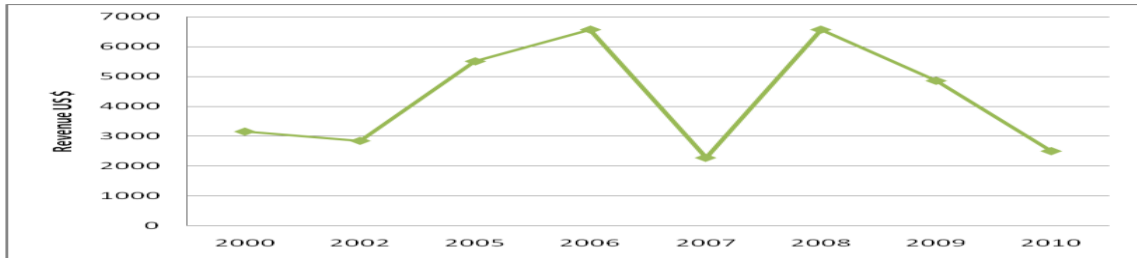
According to the information obtained from the community development officials from TGTS and RHS, two sources of income for community development projects exist. The first and the reliable source is 20% of the trophy fees which is usually given back to the respective districts for supporting different community development projects within the district depending on the proposal made. The second source is donor funded projects which are usually requested from conservation friends of the company. TGTS has an NGO for community development and conservation programmes known as Friedkin Conservation Fund (FCF). FCF is responsible for conservation and community development issues within and adjacent hunting blocks owned by TGTS throughout the country. RHS also owns an NGO for conservation and community development initiative known as Robin Hurt Wildlife Foundation (RHWF). The initiatives have been assisting various conservation and community development related projects in different villages adjacent their hunting blocks. Other supports to the villages adjacent to the hunting blocks depend on the ability of the village to identify the need and writing a proposal to request for the operator`s assistance.

#### **4.5.3.1 RHWF tourist hunting support for community development**

According to Urambo district natural resources officer, RHWF has been allocating a total of US\$34,240 to his district since 2000 to 2010 (Figure 4.4.3.1). The money was used for construction of one police station; twelve holes pit latrine, market place building, four classrooms, and three shallow water wells. Other projects include construction of seven families teachers` housing, one village office and one OCD`s housing. The CDP manager from RHS stipulated that RHWF has been undertaking various community development initiatives across local communities adjacent to its hunting blocks. Among other projects carried out in 1996-2000 period include construction of Lumbe primary school, Lumbe police station, Ukumbi Kakoko village office, water wells and dispensary building in Usinga village. In 2007 Lumbe, Usinga and Nguruka villages in Urambo district were allocated US\$ 6,558 each from RHWF. In 2008 Lumbe, Ukumbi kakoko and Usinga villages got about US\$ 2,276 each from the same source.

Other initiatives that have been undertaken by RHWF include educational sponsorship to a poaching student who is currently in form six at Kaliua secondary school, awareness creation programs through cinemas, provision of modern bee hives and training, provision of job opportunities to the villagers on contractual basis, staffs and village game scouts (VGS) trainings, and alternative cooking energy programs. The study revealed that in the long run RHWF realized that most of their initiatives were not helping individual villagers to do away from income poverty. Currently RHWF has introduced village community banks (VICOBA) as one of their modern initiative to impact and reduce income poverty among the communities surrounding their hunting blocks. The program is in operation in Chunya and Monduli districts and about kicking off in villages surrounding Ugalla ecosystem. The manager identified various reasons that led to a fluctuating community development contributions from his organization. Among others livestock grazing, increased tourist hunting fees, cancellation of bookings made by hunting clients, and poaching pressure in his hunting blocks were mentioned.

**Figure 4.4.3.1: TH revenues from RHWF (part of 20%) accrued to Urambo district since 2000-2010**

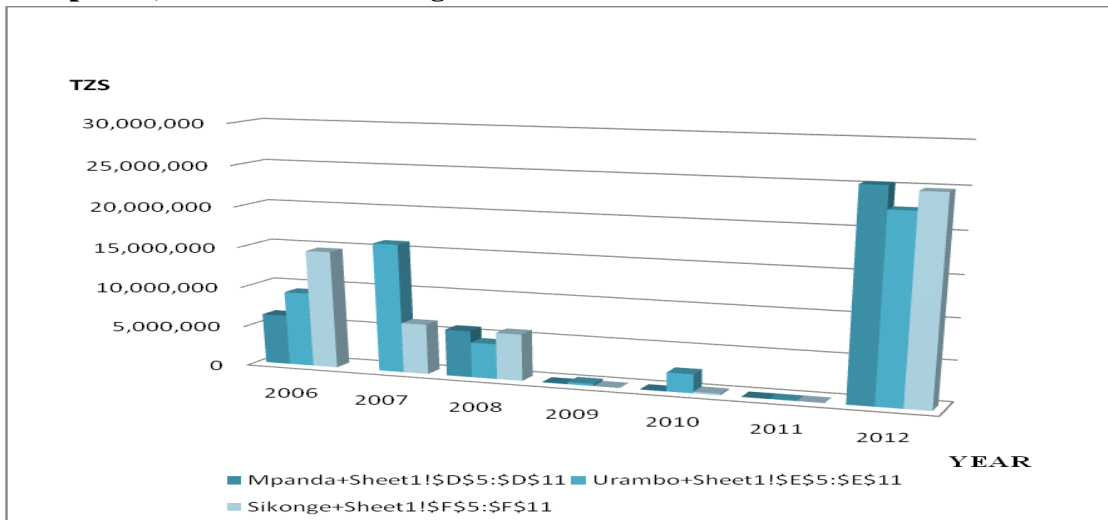


**Source:** Urambo district natural resources office

#### 4.4.3.2 TGTS/FCF tourist hunting support for community development

According to TGTS/FCF community development director Miss Aurelia, FCF has been supporting a number of community development projects in Ugalla ecosystem. Urambo Sikonge and Mpanda districts have been the beneficiaries. Giving a detailed account the director elaborated that a total of TZS 144,342,238/=were disbursed to these districts in the period following 2006-2012 (Figure 4.4.3.2).

**Figure 4.4.3.2: Tourist hunting revenues from TGTS/FCF ( part of 20%) accrued to Mpanda, Urambo and Sikonge districts since 2006-2012**



**Source:** (FCF Headquarters, Arusha)

In the period from 2006 – 2008, a total of TZS 68,356,536/= was disbursed to the three districts to support various community development projects. The projects that were supported and the funding amount in bracket include Urwira village beekeeping programme (TZS 6,250,000/=) in Mpanda district, construction of staff housing (5,270,786/=), construction of Nsenda secondary school classrooms (9,050,250/=), Kangeme village bee keeping project (9,925,000/=) and Urambo environmental awareness scheme (1,000,000/=) in Urambo district. In the same period Sikonge district received about TZS 20,881,000/= for construction and finishing of Msuva secondary school girls` hostel. In 2008 a total of 4,378,500/= was used to reinforce environmental education and tree nursery projects in Imalakoye, Mole, Ukumbi siganga and Urambo secondary schools located in Sikonge and Urambo districts.

The period following 2009 to 2011 was accompanied with a little support of TZS 7,198,500 to Urambo and Sikonge districts as a result of a few proposals received. The projects that were supported include environmental education and tree nursery projects (TZS 2,782,500/=), students sponsorship at Mole, Tutuo, Ukumbisiganga, Urambo and Uyumbu secondary schools (TZS 1,596,000/=), Kangeme village bee hives project (TZS 2,350,000/=), and village community banks (VICOBA) trainings (Urambo - TZS 270,000/= and sikonge 200,000/=). The rest of the money accumulated in the respective period was carried forward to 2012. In 2012 a total of 70,223,602 /= was disbursed to support different proposed community development projects in these districts in which Mpanda received a total of TZS 25,313,301/=, Sikonge TZS 24,813,301/= and Urambo TZS 22,643,301/=

The projects supported were conservation related and aimed towards poverty reduction and empowering the community as well as inflicting good attitudes towards wildlife. Nevertheless the beekeeping project established in Kangeme village survived for a

period of four years only. The factors that led to its failure include poor cooperation among villagers and lack of sense of ownership among the group members. According to Urambo district community development coordinator, many NGO based projects that were established in different villages in his districts collapsed due to lack of motivations and the villagers` readiness. The problem was attributed by the nature and the tradition of the people living in this area. He warned that any development initiative that is made towards poverty reduction should be thoroughly studied based on the demographic characteristics of the community in question, their attitude towards work and the major economic activities undertaken to ensure that the project(s) meet the desired needs of the community other than perceived ones.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Conclusion**

Generally this study was tailored to assess the contribution of hunting tourism on socio-economic development for local communities surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem. Specifically the first objective assessed the socio-economic status of the local communities living in this ecosystem, the second objective determined potentials and challenges of tourist hunting conducted in this ecosystem and the last objective assessed various corporate social responsibilities availed to local communities by different tourist hunting actors operating in this ecosystem.

##### **5.1.1 Socio-economic status of the local communities living in Ugalla ecosystem**

The study found that the socio-economic status of the local communities living in Ugalla Ecosystem differs from one village to another depending on the extent of the village's participation in wildlife management and major economic openings available to them. Villages which are members to the local institutions existing in the area such as WMAs, fishing and bee keeping cooperatives have a promising social and economic status relative to none members. In general context it can be concluded that the socio-economic status of the local communities living in Ugalla ecosystem is poor due to availability and poor quality of the social services provided to this community and the meager economic earnings the villagers and staffs working with different institutions in this industry generate.

##### **5.1.2 Potentials and Challenges of hunting tourism in Ugalla Ecosystem**

The study envisages various potentials and challenges hunting tourism experiences in this ecosystem. The major potentials of the industry include generation of revenues and

foreign currency to support the economy, preservation of natural environment, supporting rural livelihoods, creation of employment opportunities, capacitating local institutions, instituting wildlife population control and promotion of community development in the area. The main challenges found were poaching, livestock grazing in protected areas, human population pressure, changes in hunting fees and taxes, poverty and illiteracy, political influence in allocating hunting blocks, budgetary constraints, insufficient operational gears, lack of transparency, inadequate staffing and infestation of the main water source in the ecosystem by water hyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*)

### **5.1.3 Corporate social responsibilities availed by different tourist hunting actors in Ugalla ecosystem**

The corporate social responsibilities availed to the local communities in Ugalla Ecosystem range from government, hunting operators and Non-governmental Organizations involved in the area. The government on its side has been allocating 25% of the revenues accrued from tourist hunting activities conducted in the area to the responsible districts and WMA, coordinating, formulating policies and relevant legislations favoring the establishment of WMAs to some of the villages surrounding the hunting blocks found in this area and creating enabling environment for the local people living in this ecosystem to access and operate legal economic activities such as fishing and bee keeping in Ugalla Game Reserve. In addition to that the government has been running various anti poaching and operational activities to control poaching and conserve the natural habitat and the concomitant wildlife.

On the other hand the hunting operators in collaboration with the NGOs have been allocating part of 20% of trophy fees accrued from the wildlife hunted in the area inconsistently. The money and various donor supports have been used in improving social services such as schools, teachers' housing and police stations constructed in some of the villages surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem. Environmentally friendly projects such as tree nurseries, students' sponsorship, anti poaching and modern bee keeping programmes have been established in some of the villages. More over some NGOs have

gone an extra mile towards capacitating one of the WMAs to ensure that the local communities in this ecosystem benefits from the wildlife found in their land.

Conclusively, throughout the entire study the researcher has found that in spite of a number of initiatives different tourist hunting actors have been undertaking and the potentials vested by tourist hunting business to the social economic transformation for local communities surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem, yet majority of villagers living in this ecosystem are poor. The potentials of the industry have not yet been fully explored and effectively integrated towards poverty alleviation and thus poaching control in Ugalla ecosystem. In most of the cases the situation has been instigated to the challenges the industry face. Nevertheless the contribution of the industry towards social economic development and transformation for the communities surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem can never be underestimated. Construction of schools, dispensaries, water wells and police stations in the ecosystem have been one of the advancements in halting poverty at community level. The government`s role in enabling some of the villages adjacent to the hunting blocks towards establishment of WMAs in their area and provision of tourist hunting dividends at district and community owning WMAs worth accreditation and appreciation.

Strict management measures such as anti poaching and law enforcement practiced by the authorities managing the ecosystem by using tourist hunting resources has enabled many of the PAs to remain relatively pristine and thus creating legal economic openings such as fishing and beekeeping practiced by various villagers within the protected areas in Ugalla ecosystem. The challenges envisaged pave a way for multiple opportunities through the vehicles of corporate social responsibilities. Awareness creation and conservation education and extension could help the villagers to comprehend, appreciate and deduce various ways the community would be benefiting through tourist hunting practiced in Ugalla ecosystem. Stakeholders` involvement and meetings are called to

inform, educate, share knowledge and resources and enlighten the parties on various issues that might have been marginalized and overlooked in the road towards sustainable tourist hunting business and community development. As confirmed by Robin Hurt CDP manager;

*The annual stakeholders` meetings have been platforms through which the parties involved negotiate and reach consensus about critical issues debilitating the industry. Communities where stakeholders` meetings are annually undertaken have been benefiting more relative to areas where the meetings are inexistent.*

## **5.2 Recommendations and policy implications**

A theoretical framework (Fig.2) depicts in general the factors influencing realization of sustainable tourist hunting business. The government in collaboration with the tour operators, non-governmental organizations and local communities can play an ultimate role in utilizing the potentials vested by tourist hunting to overcome its challenges through the vehicles of corporate social responsibilities to unveil a holistic achievement of triple bottom line i.e. people, planet and profit. In line with the findings of this study the following can be recommended.

### **5.2.1 Reforming the system governing wildlife management in Tanzania**

Section eight of the wildlife conservation Act 2009 (URT, 2009) calls for;

*The Minister in consultation with relevant authorities and subject to other written laws, to cause the establishment of a wildlife Authority which shall be autonomous and whose structure and functions adequately addresses the protection, management and administration of wildlife resources outside the Ngorongoro Conservation Area and National Parks and which shall be capable of implementing and fulfilling international obligations relating to wildlife conservation by engaging such companies for purposes of this section.*

The establishment of this Authority which is autonomous in nature will do away the poaching, political, financial, marketing and the management challenges Wildlife Division has been experiencing since its establishment and open new ventures for more revenues generation within the same areas where tourist hunting is undertaken. The

endeavor will create purposeful and practical climate which will capacitate the WD in various protection, sustainable utilization, administration and community development initiatives. The minister for Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT) Hon. Ambassador Khamis Kagasheki (MNRT budgetary estimates, 2013/14) promised the parliament that the processes towards the establishment of the same will be finalized in November 2013.

### **5.2.2 Empowering local communities through microfinance credits**

The income poverty most of the communities in this ecosystem suffer calls for mitigation measures that address individuals other than the community at large. Microfinance projects such as village community banks (VICOBA) established by some of the tourist outfitters worth appreciation yet the latter have to see into ways the initiative could be capacitated. External support from the tour operators could solve unemployment problem many of the women and youth in various villages surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem have.

Even Hast, M. (2010), on his study on “The ORGUT-SEDIT VICOBA Project in Tanzania” pointed out the experiences and performances of Village community bank (VICOBA) in Tanzania through support from ORGUT. The researcher revealed that VICOBA was a village savings and loans scheme based on groups of between 25–30 people that have proven to be very successful even in very isolated, illiterate and poor rural areas. The study of well-established groups showed that VICOBA in Tanzania caused unexpected positive ripple effects in broader development terms. Taking into account most of the villagers are farmers and a few people undertakes small business activities, bee keeping and fishing, provision of vocational trainings and capital to people surrounding Ugalla ecosystem through VICOBA could help them to gain knowledge and skills on the modern honey harvesting methods, saving, packaging, candle making, modern fish preservation and add value to their products.

### **5.2.3 Capacitating district natural resources offices**

The findings that Sikonge and Urambo district natural resources offices are incapable of undertaking natural resources protection, monitoring of tourist hunting activities in their area due to inadequate budget, understaffing and patrol facilities, necessitate immediate actions to be carried to rescue the situation. Governance system that open new ventures and encourage retention schemes in different departments could help and encourage creativity among the human capital and increase revenues at district council level.

### **5.2.4 Stabilizing human population**

No goal is more crucial to healing the pristine environment Tanzania is endowed with and promoting socio economic transformation than looking into ways the human population could be stabilized. There is a need to develop effective programs to reduce infant mortality and ensure the survival and excellent health programs to our country. With a population of about 44.9 million people (URT, 2012) and the number expected to double in 2050, a more careful analysis suggests that rising per capita income is also associated with several of the basic causes of demographic transitions (Al Gore, 1990). High literacy rates and education levels are important, especially for women. Once they are empowered intellectually and socially, they make decisions about the number of children they wish to have. Low infant mortality rates give parents a high level of confidence that even with a small family, some of their children will grow to maturity, carry the family name and genes and provide physical security for their parents when they are old as Mwalimu Nyerere said that *“The most powerful contraceptive is the confidence by parents that their children will survive”*.

### **5.2.5 Developing and sharing appropriate technologies**

Appropriate technologies that will reduce dependence level on ecosystem such as the use of biogas/natural gas than firewood and charcoal will enable the ecosystem to remain natural and thus lower habitat destruction and environmental degradation. For instance construction and use of fuel-efficient stoves may reduce wood consumption and thereby contribute to a reduced deforestation rate (FAO, 2006). Initiation of successful

small-scale income-generating activities (IGAs) among villagers, which can improve people's livelihoods and take care of the environment, demands proper marketing strategy (Barstow, 2002). Stakeholders in tourist hunting should look into ways through which the dependence level by the local communities on environmental resources could be lowered. Among other strategies include rural electrification, improved accessibility and provision of irrigation schemes.

#### **5.2.6 Proper land use plans and livestock control**

The government has to enact and implement policies that integrate and harmonize different multi sectoral issues to ensure that the decisions that are carried in different sectors are in harmony with each other. The calculation of gross national income (GNI) should take into account the depreciation of the natural environment and thus pave a way through which natural resources would be protected and utilized sustainably for fostering community development.

#### **5.3 Areas for further research**

There is a need to conduct similar study in other ecosystems such as the Maasailand ecosystem and/or Selous/Coastal ecosystem and see whether the results will be the same. A throughout analysis of the contribution of hunting tourism on socio economic development for local communities surrounding various ecosystems in Tanzania will help us to diagnose the pros and cons of the industry in Tanzania ideal for management decisions.

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**APPENDICES**  
**Transmittal letter**

**MZUMBE UNIVERSITY**  
**School of Business**

**Masters in Business Administration-Corporate Management**

**Questionnaire Prepared for Village leaders, local communities and Poachers**

A questionnaire to be responded by selected Village leaders, local communities and Poachers caught in Ugalla Ecosystem

***Introduction***

The questionnaire is prepared for an academic purpose for the fulfillment of Masters of Science Degree in Business Administration-Corporate Management. The objective of the study is to assess the potentials and challenges of tourist hunting in promoting conservation and socio-economic development of communities surrounding Ugalla ecosystem.

Your response is very important for the success of the study. Hence, you are requested kindly to give your response by selecting your answer from the alternative choices or by filling the gaps provided. Your name will be kept secretly. I would like to thank you for your assistance.

**Appendix I: Key Questions for Village leaders, local communities and Poachers caught in Ugalla Ecosystem**

**Part A. Personal Particulars**

1. Name of the village .....
2. Respondent gender status A. Male B. Female ( )
3. Respondent age  
A. 1-17 ( )

- B.18-44 ( )
- C.45-60 ( )
- D. Above 60 ( )
4. Occupation of the respondent
- A. Farmer ( )
- B. Fisherman ( )
- C. Employee ( )
- D. Beekeeper ( )
- E. Business ( )
- F. Wage labor ( )
5. Education Level
- A: Informal education ( )
- B: Primary school, ( )
- C: Secondary/advanced school ( )
- D: College/University ( )
6. For how long have your family been in this village?
- A. Less than one year ( )
- B 1-5 years, ( )
- C.6-10 years, ( )
- D. greater than 10 years ( )

**Part B. Social Economic Information**

7. What are your major economic activities? (You can tick more than one)
- A. Agriculture ( )
- B. Livestock keeping ( )

- C. Fishing ( )
  - D. Business ( )
  - E. Bee keeping ( )
8. Type of crops cultivated, (You can tick more than one)
- A. Tobacco ( )
  - B. Maize ( )
  - C. Rice ( )
  - D. Groundnuts ( )
  - E. Sunflower ( )
  - F. Others if any (mention please) ....., ....., .....
9. Type and number of livestock kept. Please fill the table below by using the choices provided (A). 1-10, (B).11-50, (C).51-100, (D). >100

S/N	TYPE	NO. OF LIVESTOCK
1	Cattle	
2	Goats	
3	Sheep	
4	Pigs	
5	Chickens/ducks	

5. Do you conduct fishing? ( )
1. Yes 2. No
6. If yes where do you carry it out? Please tick and name the responsible source.
- A. River ..... Please give the name of a river.....
  - B. Lake ..... Please give the name of a lake .....
  - C. Dam .....Please give the name of a dam.....
7. Type of honey, choose any one.
- A. Stingless bees ( )
  - B. Sting bees ( )
8. Number of hives, choose among the given choices
- A. 1-50 ( )
  - B. 50-100 ( )

- C. 100-200 ( )
- D. Greater than 200 ( )
9. Amount of honey per season (liters), choose among the given choices
- A.1-20, ( )
- B. 20-50, ( )
- C. 50-100 ( )
- D.100-200, ( )
- E. More than 200 ( )
10. Price of honey per liter. ( )
11. Location of the hives, choose among the given choices
- A. Inside protected areas, ( )
- B. Outside protected areas ( )
12. How much do you earn from all of your economic activities per annum?  
Tshs.....
13. How many children do you have and how many are at school? ( )
14. How much do you earn from all your economic activities annually ( )
15. How many of the following items do you have in your village:
- A.Primary schools ( )
- B. Secondary schools ( )
- C. Water wells ( )
- D. Dispensaries ( )
16. What were the sources of funds for the construction of the items mentioned above? .....
17. What kind of support have you been getting from tourist hunting players operating in Ugalla ecosystem?

S/N	Type of support	Source of support	Amount in Tsh
1			
2			
3			
4			

**Wildlife related Information**

18. Do you like wildlife? A. Yes B. No. ( )

19. If the answer is Yes or No, Why \_\_\_\_\_

20. Why some villagers are involved in poaching activities?

A. High need for game meat ( )

B. Source of income ( )

C. Lack of alternative income generating activities ( )

21. Mention some of the benefits your village has been getting through conservation

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22. What kind of problems have you been facing due to existence of wildlife adjacent to your village? \_\_\_\_\_

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24. What do you think should be done to you as an incentive to stop poaching?

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**APPENDIX II: Key Questions for staffs working with different players (WD, Outfitters/NGOs)**

**Part A: Personal Particulars**

1. Name of the organization,
  - a), Wildlife Division ( )
  - b) Outfitter ( )
  - c) NGOs ( )
2. Position of the respondent in his/her Organization.....
3. Marital status
  - i) Single ( )
  - ii) Married ( )
  - iii) Divorced ( )
  - iv) Widow ( )
4. How many children do you have? ( )
5. How much do you earn from your job per year (salary Tshs.....)
6. Nature of the employment
  - i)Permanent ( )
  - ii) Temporary/Contractual ( )
7. What other additional payments do you earn excluding salary (You can tick more than one)
  - i) Night out Allowance (amount per year).....
  - ii) Housing.....estimated value/year.....
  - iii) Free transport ( )
  - iv) Tips (Amount per year).....
  - v) Bonuses (Amount per year.....)
  - vi) Loans .....
  - vii) Pension ( )
6. What risks are associated with your job? (You can tick more than one)

- i) Isolation from family (How long?) ( )
- ii) Risk of contracting HIV aids ( )
- iii) Risk of being killed by poachers ( )
- iv) Lack of social interactions ( )
- v) Lack of risk allowances ( )
- vi) Hatred from local community ( )
- vii) Lack of operational gears ( )
- viii) Lack of social services ( )
- ix) Others (mention please) ( )

8. Potentials of working in this industry

- i) Creation of employment ( )
- ii) Income generation ( )
- iii) Foreign exchange earnings ( )
- iv) Complex cultural interaction ( )
- v) Access to game meat ( )
- vi) Exposure ( )
- viii) Educational sponsorship ( )
- ix) Reinvestment in other tourist related activities ( )

**Part C: Socio-economic status and conservation sustainability**

1. How long have you been working with your organization? \_\_\_\_\_
2. Where do you live? A; Staff quarters, B; Your own house C; Rent house ( )
3. Do you have your own car?
  - i. Yes ii. No ( )
4. What has your organization done to improve your standard of living as well as your family`s well being?\_\_\_\_\_

- 
5. What is the reason behind increased poaching activities in Ugalla Ecosystem?\_\_\_\_\_
- 
6. Why do some of the workers sometimes may be networking with poachers?\_\_\_\_\_
- 
7. What do you think your organization can do to stop local people from poaching?\_\_\_\_\_
- 
8. Is tourist hunting a tool for conservation and community development?  
A. Yes B. No If yes, can you say how?\_\_\_\_\_
9. What should be done to enhance conservation, socio-economic development of local communities and staffs as well as profitability of tourist hunting business?\_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix III: Key questions to Wildlife/Tourist companies/NGOs management**

1 Name of the organization \_\_\_\_\_

2 Position of the respondent \_\_\_\_\_

3 Area of Operation \_\_\_\_\_

4 What are the potentials of Tourist Hunting in promoting conservation of Ugalla Ecosystem and socio-economic development of the local communities?

a) Potentials for Conservation\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

b) Potentials for local communities development\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

5 What are the challenges of Tourist hunting in promoting conservation and socio-economic development of communities surrounding Ugalla Ecosystem?

a) Challenges to conservation\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

b) Challenges in promoting socio-economic development of local communities

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

6 Why poaching has remained as the potential threat to conservation?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

7 What can be done to stop local people from poaching?

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

8 What has so far been done to conserve wildlife and inflict a sense of ownership to local communities in Ugalla Ecosystem?

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9 How can we bridge the gap between conservation and socio-economic development of the local communities in Ugalla Ecosystem?\_\_\_\_\_

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10 What kind of projects have you initiated to support the local community as an incentive to stop them from poaching?

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11 How much return from tourism does your organization bring back to conservation and support local community development?

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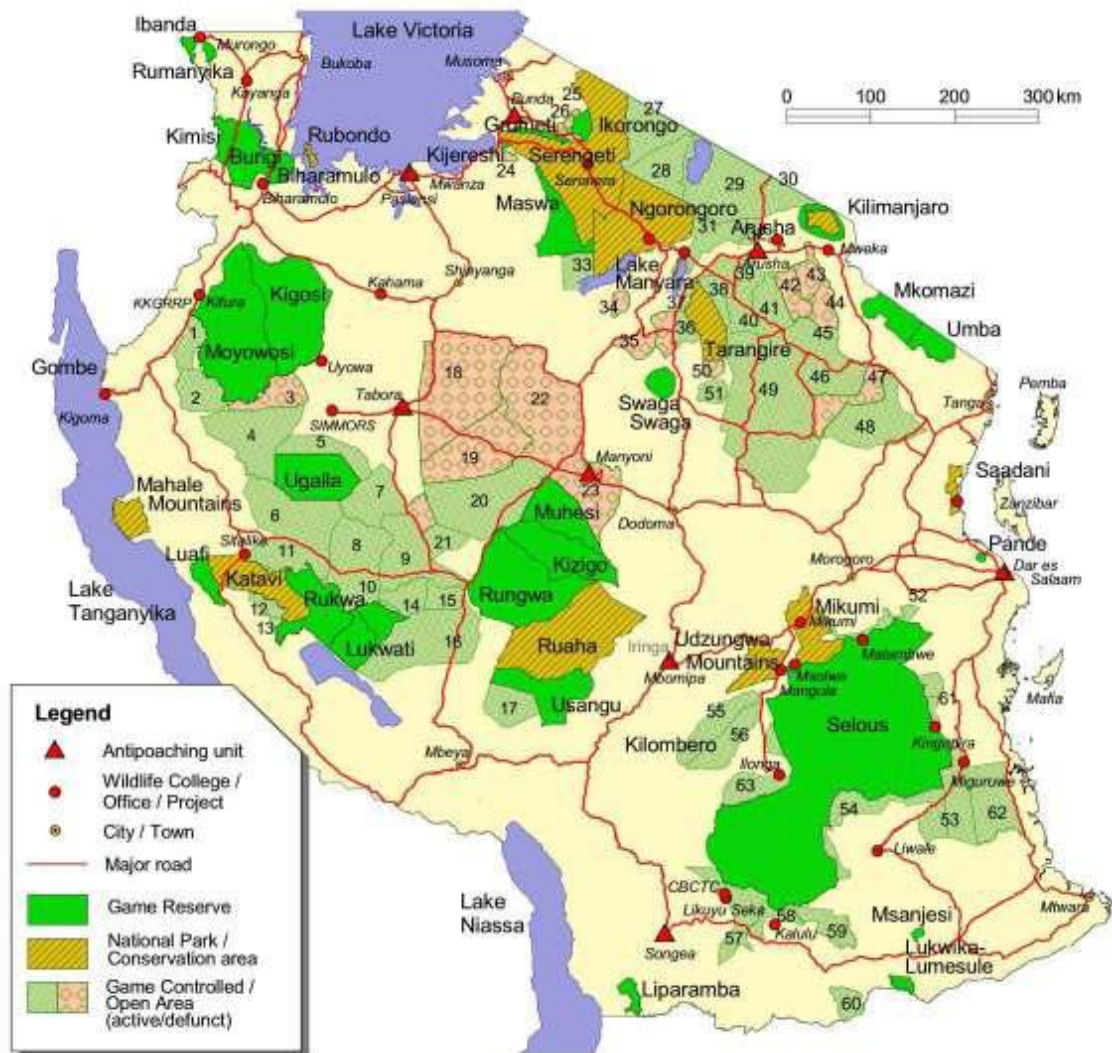
12 What strategic measures should be undertaken to promote sustainable management of wildlife? a) Conservation b) People – Local communities/staff development and c) Organizational wealth.

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xxxxx **Thanks for your cooperation** xxxxx.

## ANNEXES

### ANNEX I: SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF PROTECTED AREAS NETWORK IN TANZANIA



Source: Baldus and Cauldwell (2004)

## **Open areas (OA) and game controlled areas (GCA)**

### **Western Tanzania Ecosystem**

1 Makere Forest	7 Ugunda GCA	13 Lake Rukwa GCA
2 Uvinza OA	8 Inyonga West GCA	14 Piti West OA
3 Gombe GCA	9 Inyonga East GCA	15 Inyonga East
4 Luganzo GCA	10 Rungwa River GCA	16 Chunya OA
5 Ugalla OA	11 Mlele North GCA	17 Utengule Swamp OA
6 Msima GCA	12 Mlele South GCA	18 Wembere OA North
19 Wembere OA Centra	20 Wembere OA South	21 Itulu Forest East
22 Singida OA	23 Manyoni OA	

### **Masailand Ecosystem**

24 Maswa OA	31 Mto wa Mbu GCA	38 Lolkisale
25 Nyichoka OA	32 Monduli Juu	39 Simanjiro West
26 Sibora OA	33 Maswa Makao	40 Simanjiro Kitangare
27 Loliondo GCA	34 Yaeda Chini OA	41 Simanjiro Naberra North
28 Loliondo South GCA	35 Lake Balangida	42 Simanjiro East
29 Lake Natron GCA	36 Babati OA	43 Sanya Lelatema
30 Longido GCA	37 Burunge	44 Ruvu Same
45 Ruvu Masai	48 Kitwai South	50 Mkungunero
46 Kitwai	49 Masai OA	51 Kondoa OA
47 Kitwai Central		

### **Selous / SE Coastal Ecosystem**

52 Gonabis / Jukumu WMA	56 Kilombero GCA South	60 Tunduru Forest
53 Liwale OA North	57 Namtumbo WMA	61 Tapika OA
54 Liwale OA South	58 Tunduru WMA	62 Kilwa OA North, Central & South
55 Kilombero GCA North	59 Sasawara Forest	63 Mahenge OA South

# ANNEX II: PROTECTED AREAS IN UGALLA ECOSYSTEM

