



Title Understanding the Role of Tourism in Poverty
Reduction, the Case of Communities Adjacent to
Mikumi National Park in Tanzania

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UNDERSTANDING THE ROLE OF TOURISM IN POVERTY REDUCTION, THE
CASE OF COMMUNITIES ADJACENT TO MIKUMI NATIONAL PARK IN
TANZANIA

by

Zacharia Revocatus Kalemo

A thesis submitted to the University of Bedfordshire, in partial fulfilment of the
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ABSTRACT

For over three decades tourism has been said to have the potential to accelerate economic growth that can guarantee significant development especially in developing countries. To some extent, the notion seems to be gripping ground at national level, as many developing countries, including Tanzania have begun recording a relative increase in national incomes as a result of recent boom of tourism industry in these countries. Nevertheless, the notion seems to be off-track and perhaps unrealistic from local perspective, since until now there is little empirical evidence to suggest how much tourism is reducing poverty at household level and individual level. Given this lack of research into the effects of tourism on poverty, the study therefore aimed to contribute to the knowledge base on the role of tourism in poverty reduction, by evaluating how tourism is perceived as agent for improving the livelihoods of poor in communities adjacent to Mikumi National Park (MINAPA) in Tanzania. To achieve this goal, the study developed three key research questions to guide this investigation: How is poverty understood and experienced by the communities adjacent to MINAPA? How is tourism understood as an agent for reducing poverty in these communities? Do barriers to participation of the poor in tourism exist and how could these be overcome? Since this study intended to ascertain data on understandings and lived experiences of poverty, and the perceptions about the interaction of tourism with poverty, the overarching stance for this study is therefore interpretivist, with emphasis on understanding the subjective meaning of lived experiences, rather than explaining the objective aspect of lived experience as in positivist paradigm. The research involved amalgamating phenomenology and ethnography coupled with various research methods in order to gain rich data on phenomena investigated. Themes were identified by using thematic analysis method.

The findings of this study suggest that at the moment tourism is having insignificant contribution on poverty reduction in communities investigated in this study. However, most research participants perceived tourism as a positive initiative that can help to improve the livelihoods of the poor in their communities. But a number of barriers were acknowledged that hinder their participation in tourism, including, lack of involvement and empowerment of local communities in the management and sharing of benefits accrued through tourism in MINAPA. This study has therefore recommended for the renewed cooperation between all stakeholders in tourism, which is built on the real realm of transparency should poverty reduction through tourism turned from theory to reality. The contributions of this study to the tourism poverty reduction knowledge base include information on how tourism is perceived by the resource poor; enhanced knowledge with findings indicating tourism is not improving the livelihoods of the poor in communities investigated in this study; just to mention few.

Key words: Tourism, poverty, poverty reduction, participation of local communities in tourism, Mikumi National Park, Tanzania

DEDICATION

I owe this work to my parents Jeniroza Mayila Luphene and Revocatus Biribora Kalemo for their love, prayers, and unrelenting support from birth. Their inputs have been the main foundation to the success in my academic career.

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DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Master of Science by Research in Tourism at the University of Bedfordshire.

The thesis has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University.

DEFINITION OF ACRONYMS

GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HBS	Household Budget Survey
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MINAPA	Mikumi National Park
MKUKUTA	'Mkakati wa Kukuza Uchumi na Kupunguza Umasikini' (in 'Swahili' for National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP))
MNRT	Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NSGRP	National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty
PHDR	Poverty and Human Development Report
SCIP	Support for Community Initiated Projects
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
STD	Sexual Transmitted Diseases
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism Eliminating Poverty
TANAPA	Tanzania National Parks
TZS	Tanzania Shilling
UN	United Nations
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VDF	Village Development Fund
WTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Context of the Study

For over three decades, tourism has been assumed to have the capacity to ensure effective development in developing countries (Sharpley 2009: 337 – 338). But, until now evidences on positive contribution of tourism on aspect such as poverty reduction in developing countries, particularly at local level, are patchy (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 31). Tourism has therefore been under criticism in recent years, as it seems to be failing to demonstrate its potential as a tool for poverty reduction and overall development. Some tourism detractors have questioned how a private sector activity like tourism could be regarded as a tool that can improve the livelihoods of the poor in developing countries. The detractors believe that the promotion of tourism, particularly the pro-poor based, as a tool for poverty reduction, is apparent effort by tourism proponents particularly the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) to calm the criticism that tourism, in achieving its obligations to deliver profits to tourism businesses and exclusive holidays to tourists, it has been unsuccessful in improving the livelihoods of the poor people who host them (Higgins-Desbiolles 2008: 350).

Conversely, Mitchell and Ashley (2010) disagree with all literature studies arguing that tourism is not beneficial to the poor. In their work, they assert that there are significant flows of benefit from tourism to poor people in all tourism destinations, although the share received by the poor from tourism varies considerably. However, Mitchell and Ashley also concede that, there is virtually lack of data to explain what difference the cash benefits from tourism make on poverty levels around tourist destinations; or how they compare with non-financial and dynamic effects (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 30 - 31).

Given this lack of research into how exactly the benefits received by the poor from tourism (if any) contribute to improving their livelihoods, this study saw the need to deepen the understanding on the role of tourism in poverty reduction. In contrast to the study of Mitchell and Ashley (2010) whose work focused on aggregating and reviewing secondary data, this study took a different path, where

it attempted to amalgamate secondary data and primary data, but with more emphasis on reporting participants' views on how they considered tourism as agent for improving their livelihoods. The approach adapted in this study was an effort to ascertain pragmatic research findings, from the side (i.e. the rural poor) whose opinions are occasionally heard in tourism literature studies; despite their views being at the heart of conclusions on whether tourism does or can improve their livelihoods or not. For the purpose of this study, the poor communities living adjacent to Mikumi National Park (MINAPA) (one of the tourists' destinations in Tanzania) were chosen to serve the purpose of case study for this investigation.

1.1 Research Problem

Over the recent years there has been an increased desire among tourism researchers to determine the significance of the link between tourism and poverty reduction in developing countries. Despite the efforts to unearth this intriguing scenario, yet, until now there has been a limited success, since evidences on positive contribution of tourism on poverty in developing countries, particularly at local level, are quite patchy (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 31). Part of this gap is due to the fact that, no rigorous work has been done to evaluate the full range of impacts of tourism development on poverty across different groups in tourism destinations; also there is a lack of system to document and monitor the changes in poor people's livelihoods due to tourism (Ashley and Goodwin 2007). Therefore, one of the challenges facing tourism researchers today includes demonstrating how much tourism is benefiting the local economy and poor people in tourism destinations particularly in developing countries. This data is very useful to policy makers and resource poor for setting up meaningful choices about an alternative future, especially developing tourism initiatives that are more sustainable and pro-poor based (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 108). This study is therefore an attempt to advance the tourism knowledge base on interaction between tourism and poverty reduction.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

This study is important firstly because it attempts to address poverty reduction a challenge facing many developing countries, and Tanzania in particular (Luvanga and Shitundu 2003: 1). Secondly, the study is important because it attempts to

raise the voices of the 'rural poor in Tanzania'¹ (specifically from the case study area) who might have not yet enjoyed the full benefits of tourism, despite (MNRT 1999: 17) most tourist attractions being situated within their local areas or in their vicinities and in most cases co-existing side by side with the communities (such as MINAPA, in this case). Lastly, this study is important because it aimed to advance tourism knowledge base on interaction between tourism and poverty reduction. This data is vital for sustainability of tourism industry, since current poverty reduction initiatives in many developing countries are blamed for concentrating on expansion of tourism impacts rather than measuring the impacts of tourism on poverty reduction in local communities. As Mitchell and Ashley (2010) observe, the expansion of tourism in developing countries is largely supported by unreliable data indicating that tourism is having an impact on poverty reduction in poor communities (Mitchell and Ashley, 2010: 5).

1.3 Objectives of this Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The aim of this study was to contribute to the knowledge base on the role of tourism in poverty reduction, by evaluating how tourism is perceived as agent for improving the livelihoods of poor in communities adjacent to Mikumi National Park (MINAPA) in Tanzania.

1.3.2 Research Questions

This study was premised by three key research questions:

- How is poverty understood and experienced by the communities adjacent to MINAPA?
- How is tourism understood as an agent for reducing poverty in these communities?
- Do barriers to participation of the poor in tourism exist and how could these be overcome?

¹In Tanzania, about 87 percent of poor population live in rural areas, and poverty is highest in people who rely on agriculture (URT 2006: 4).

1.3.3 Specific Objectives

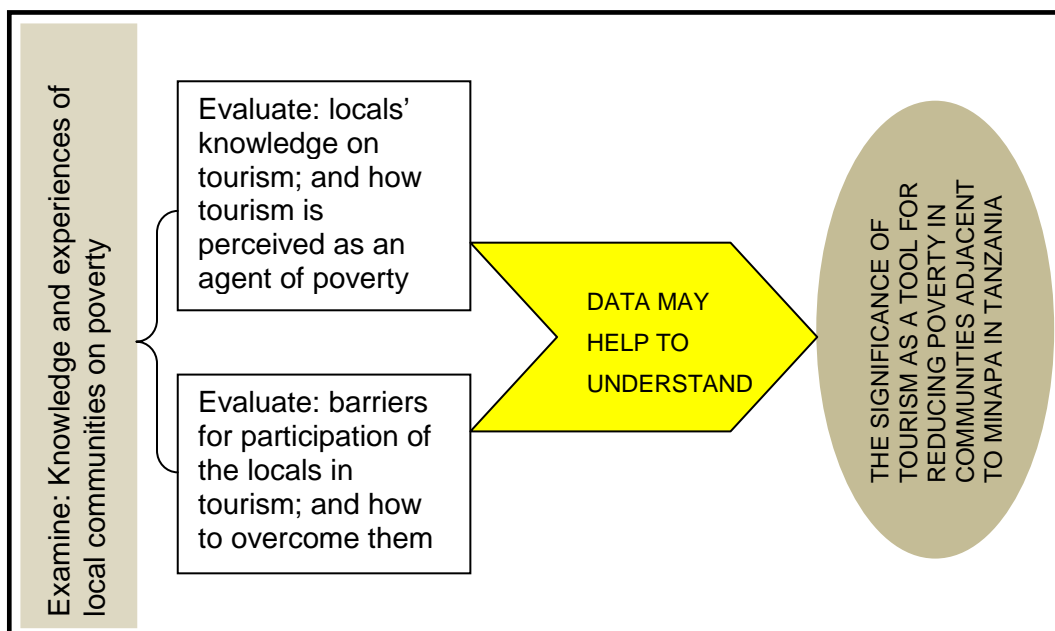
The specific objectives of this study were, to:

- Undertake a critical evaluation of the literature on tourism and poverty reduction;
- Investigate the understandings and experiences of poverty by the locals adjacent to MINAPA;
- Investigate how the locals perceived tourism as an agent for improving their livelihood opportunities; and
- Identify barriers to the participation of the locals in tourism and how to overcome them, and make recommendations.

1.4 Conceptual Framework of This Study

A conceptual framework is a structure of ideas, which is composed of parts that are fitted and united together (Mossman 1962). According to Katani (1999:110) conceptual framework can provide guidance towards realistic collection of data and information. Guided by this tenet, the study modelled the research questions for this study into a simplified conceptual framework (Figure 1) to guide the process of data collection in the field.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for Understanding the Significance of Tourism to the Communities Adjacent to MINAPA in Tanzania



Source: Sketched by researcher to guide fieldwork, 2010

Guided by the framework above (Figure 1) the study firstly aggregated data on participants' knowledge and experiences of poverty in order to identify if poverty was really regarded as serious matter in their communities. This was then followed by carrying evaluation on: how the participants perceived tourism as an agent for reducing poverty in their communities; and whether there are any barriers that hinder or could hinder participation of local communities in tourism; and how to overcome the barriers to participation in order to enhance tourism benefits in their communities. By linking poverty issues with tourism, it enabled a researcher to understand the significance of tourism as a tool for reducing poverty in communities adjacent to MINAPA in Tanzania.

1.5 Definition of Terms: Tourism, Poverty, and Poverty Reduction

The importance of defining the concepts above arises from the fact that, the terms have broader meanings and applications.

1.5.1 Tourism

According to the World Bank (2009), tourism refers to:

the activities of people travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for no more than one year for leisure, business, and other purposes not related to an activity remunerated from the place visited (World Bank 2009, cited in Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 8)

Although the definition above has wider application, however, in developing countries, the concept seems to be interpreted differently. For example, a tourist is commonly equated with foreign person (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 8). Part of this is because tourism is a relatively new development (Cooper et al. 2008: 5), especially in developing countries, and Tanzania in particular (Luvanga and Shitundu 2003: 14 - 15). But the danger is that the contributions of resident tourists to the local economy and poverty reduction may be missed out while concentrating with foreign tourists. Therefore, there is a need to improve the understanding of the concept of tourism across the world, particularly in developing countries.

1.5.2 Poverty, and Poverty Reduction

The concept of poverty is not new. For decades poverty activists have been fighting for the rights of the poor. For example, in 1914 Prof. J. H. Hollander published a small book titled "*The Abolition of Poverty*". His publication came amid concerns about the conditions of working poor in the United States of America. He defined poverty in terms of economic insufficiency for:

the masses who, not lacking in industry and thrift, are yet never really able to earn enough for decent existence and who toil on in constant fear that bare necessities fail (cited in Douty 1970: 69)

In his effort to address the challenges facing the poor working class in America, Prof. J. H. Hollander proposed a minimum wage (poverty line) that was just high enough to keep workers efficient and dependants nourished. However, his work was challenged in subsequent years, since although the wages of workers were improved, yet, poverty remained high in families of working poor. Since then, it was suggested that poverty should be judged in 'absolute or relative terms'² (Douty 1970: 69 - 71).

Today the concept of poverty has evolved even further. However, what is still fascinating is that, there has been no consensus on how poverty is being interpreted across the globe. In part, this is because the interpretation of what is really meant one to be poor involves personal reflection of a value system. But, since the value systems deviate, it has always been difficult for an agreement to be reached on how best to define poverty, although defining poverty is not thoroughly an arbitrary personal matter (O'Boyle 1999: 281). For example in rural Africa, including Tanzania, poverty is generally perceived as a state of deprivation with reference first to food and then to housing, clothing and health (Chingonikaya and Mbwambo 2004/2005: 11 - 12). Poverty is most commonly measured by using incomes or consumption levels. As such, a person is considered poor if his or her consumption or income level falls below some minimum level necessary to meet basic needs. The terms used to describe poverty are frequently known as indicators for poverty. As Maxwell (1999) reveals, the main indicators of poverty are, income or consumption poverty,

²'Absolute poverty' relates to that part of the population whose incomes (or expenditures) fall below a given level (the poverty line) fixed in real purchasing power over time and across social groups. 'Relative poverty' in actual sense means inequality. Relative poverty compares the incomes (or expenditures) of the poor with those of the rich, or some other reference group (Warr 2000: 3)

human development, social exclusion, ill-being, capability and functioning, vulnerability, livelihood unsustainability, lack of basic needs and relative deprivation. The opposite of these indicators is the definition of the term 'poverty reduction' (Maxwell 1999, cited in Chingonikaya and Mbwambo 2004/2005: 11 - 12).

At international level, poverty has been for long measured using the World Bank's definition of poverty, where a state of poverty is regarded as survival on a US\$1 per person per day at 1995 purchasing power parity. However, the World Bank's definition of poverty falls short in its wider application. For instance, in tourism sector, Mitchell and Ashley (2010: 12) observe three main difficulties; first, tourism studies do not use this international yardstick to measure the impacts of tourism industry; second, many developing countries have developed their own national income poverty rates, which are much lower than that of the World Bank's ruler; third, is the fact that, poverty is widely considered as a multidimensional phenomenon that is comprised with factors such as, ability of the poor to influence decisions that affect their lives, vulnerability or resilience to shocks, access to services and assets, strength or disruption of social networks. All these factors need to be taken into account when assessing poverty. But it should be noted that tourism may improve the livelihoods of the poor by affecting many of these aspects, yet without changing household income (Gujadhur 2001; Saville 2001; Bramman and Fundación Acción Amazonia 2001; Ashley and Jones 2001; Poultney and Spenceley 2001).

Generally, the complication of addressing poverty is rightly stemmed on a lack of common definition of poverty. The problem is that, people who believe poverty can be reduced in absolute terms are challenged for failing to recognise the significance of the relative aspect of poverty, and vice versa. To strike the middle ground of these debates, O'Boyle (1999: 282) argues that poverty should be treated as a problem in unmet human physical need. O'Boyle thus question whether, is it practical to express the totality of human physical need in an absolute sense or a relative sense? O'Boyle argues that, unmet human physical need is two-dimensional and poverty is neither "absolute" alone nor "relative" alone, but both. According to O'Boyle, the norm of unmet human physical need has both a minimal-living dimension representing human individuality and an

income-distribution dimension representing human sociality (O'Boyle 1999: 282 - 286). In conclusion, this study shares the view that poverty reduction initiatives (such as tourism projects) should target to reduce both relative and absolute poverty. As discussed in the latter paragraph, treating these components of poverty separately is simply a fallacy of unfinished business. The study believes that it is futile for an initiative to achieve for instance just an objective of closing the gap in income distribution (i.e. reducing relative poverty) and leave the poor living below the minimum living standard (i.e. living in absolute poverty) and vice versa. This section is therefore concluded with assertion that, where the terms poverty and poverty reduction appears in this work, they bear the meanings which reflect both relative and absolute elements of poverty and poverty reduction.

1.6 Structure of Dissertation

This paper is divided into six chapters, where chapter one gives the background information about the research topic, it defines research problem and explains the rationale of this study. The objectives of this study, research questions, and the conceptual framework for the study are all covered in this chapter. Chapter one is concluded by defining key concepts used in this study. Chapter two covers literature review; chapter three defines the study area; chapter four is for the research methodology where the research techniques, strategies and methods used in data collection and analysis have been reviewed to justify their suitability for this study. Field problems, as well as the limitations of this study are also reported in this chapter. Chapter five serves the purpose of reporting various themes and other findings of this study. The attempt has also been done to articulate these themes with existing literatures/management frameworks in order to reflect how their meanings surface within the broader meanings of tourism management and poverty reduction in Tanzania. Chapter six provides conclusions of this study; it sheds light on contributions this study has made to the tourism poverty reduction knowledge base; provides recommendations, and suggestions for future studies.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Claims Made on Impacts of Tourism in Host Destinations

Until now, there is little agreement on whether tourism is really good or bad for developing countries and the population within in particular. As Table 1 indicates, supporters of tourism development in developing countries believe that tourism can have substantial positive effects to the livelihoods of communities and the nation at large.

Table 1: Examples of Claims Made by Tourism Practitioners and Researchers

Positive Claims	Negative Claims
Services generally, and tourism in particular, are among the most viable growth paths for developing countries due to relatively low entry barriers and buoyant growth (Benavides and Perez-Ducy 2001)	Up to 85 percent of the supposed benefits of tourism 'leak' out of developing countries (Bolwell and Weinz 2008), due to the power of international tour operators (Broham 1996), foreign ownership, and high import propensity of tourism (Jules 2005)
Although we need to be cautious of generalisation, 'tourism-led growth' is reality and the sector often outpaces the manufacturing and agricultural sectors in its relative contribution to economic growth (Lejárraga and Walkenhorst 2006)	Tourism employment is seasonal, low-paying and exploitative (Clancy 2001; Slob and Wilde-Ramsing 2006)
Compared with other sectors, a relatively high share of tourism employment is unskilled or semi-skilled and available to a wider cross-section of the labour market	Tourism employment is secured by those with skills, and is not accessible to the poor (Dwyer et al 2000)
Tourism creates opportunities for peripherally located markets because the customer comes to the product (the tourist destination or excursion) and makes discretionary expenditure	Poor people are particularly vulnerable to the costs of tourism – wildlife damage to agriculture, opportunity costs of land, lost access to and depletion of natural resources
Tourism has become one of the major sources of GDP growth in many of the Least Developed Countries (LDC) and a key contributing factor for those that have graduated out of LDC status (Encontre 2001)	Tourism expansion crowds out other domestic sectors, leading to de-industrialisation and long-term reductions in welfare for the population (Dwyer et al 2000; Chao et al 2006)

Source: Adapted from Mitchell and Ashley (2010: 6)

While the positive claims about the benefits of tourism to the poor might be relevant, however, these benefits are being overshadowed by the noticeable negative impacts of tourism in many communities in host countries. Some of these negative impacts of tourism include: the distortion of traditional values and ethics through sex tourism, a case of Barbados (Phillips 2008: 201); the spread of HIV and other sexual transmitted diseases (STD) through women trafficking in countries such as China, Russia, India, Thailand, Cambodia, Burma, Vietnam, Uzbekistan, Nepal, Laos and Philippines (Beyrer and Stachowiak 2003: 105); humiliation and loss of indigenous lands for production and cultural amenities, a case of Nivica, Albania (Campbell 2005); the disturbance of animals and loss of area for production, a case of Kenya (Amuquandoh 2010: 225), just to mention few.

Considering that the negative impacts of tourism are overtly acknowledged, it remains to tourism researchers to unleash more evidences on how specifically the poor in tourism destinations benefits or can benefit from tourism industry. Much of the focus would need to be inclined towards ascertaining answers to explain how much tourism is contributing on poverty reduction, and differentiating between impacts of financial flows on poverty reduction versus other pathways of benefits of tourism to the poor (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 30 - 31). There is also a need to demonstrate whether the contributions of tourism on poverty reduction (if any) merit the expansion of tourism industry, considering the negative impacts left in host communities. Nevertheless, for the reason that every person is a potential tourist/traveller, this study therefore discourages any effort to wreck tourism industry; instead, the study calls for comprehensive and coordinated holistic initiatives to identify and implement sustainable measures that seek to benefit both local communities, ecosystems, tourists, investors, and other tourism stakeholders.

2.1 Practical Examples on Impacts of Tourism on Poverty Reduction

This section presents some few examples on claims made about how tourism is contributing to poverty reduction in local communities in developing countries, and Africa particular. To commence with, Weru (2007) observes that in several African countries governments have instituted mechanisms to directly allocate a percentage of entry fees to parks and reserves to neighbouring communities. The

allocated funds are invested in local projects, and not distributed in the form of cash to individuals. Taking Kenya as an example, Weru (2007) indicated that in Kenya local governments allocate approximately 19 percent of tourism revenues to the local communities adjacent to protected areas. Similarly, Mtui (2007) indicates that in Tanzania the share of revenues collected from park fees, ranging from 7.5 percent to 25 percent are channelled back to the surrounding local communities in the form of development projects such as school and health buildings, bridges, water supply and training. In the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority about \$1.2 million is disbursed to the Pastoral Council whose role is to represent the local community. Nevertheless, Mitchell et al (2009) observed that, the shares of park revenue that are distributed to local communities are much smaller than often claimed by the public authorities (often only amounting to about 5 percent park fees) and there is anecdotal evidence of serious governance issues relating to the disbursement of funds through the Pastoral Council (Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 60 - 61).

For the case of Mikumi National Park in Tanzania, the General Management Plan 2007 - 2017 for MINAPA indicates that through the Park's Outreach Programme, the Support for Community Initiated Projects (SCIP) is made in most communities adjacent to the Park. It is claimed the communities bordering the Park receive technical, material and financial support to implement community based development projects, such as the construction of school, health and water facilities and feeder roads to the villages. Other benefits claimed to be delivered to the neighbouring communities are employment within MINAPA departments, and tourists' facilities. The management plan indicates that the total value of the SCIP contributed to the villages by the Park since the start of the scheme in 1994 is more than US\$ 330,000. Nevertheless, the Park provides benefits to surrounding communities mainly at community level, rather than individual and family levels (TANAPA 2007/2017: 11 - 12, 72).

Donations from tourists are other ways through which the poor are said to benefit from tourism. For instance, with the aid of Cultural Tourism Programme, tourists in Tanzania pay tour fee that integrates contribution to the Village Development Fund (VDF). The VDF funds community development initiatives such as education (classrooms, books, and desks), water supply, and health services

(dispensary rooms, maternity wards). Tourists are also able to make further donations to the projects they visit. It is reported between 2002 and 2005, donations amounted to \$11,700 in one location ('Mto-wa-Mbu') and this amounted to 13% of total local incomes from cultural tours in that period (Mtui 2007, cited in Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 59). To conclude this section, this paper makes a note that although evidences on positive benefits of tourism on local communities are steadily emerging; nevertheless, a lot need to be known; including data on how the poor at individual and household level benefits from tourism, before it can widely be claimed that tourism is a positive initiative for the poor communities in developing countries.

2.2 Barriers to Participation of the Locals in Tourism and How to Overcome Them

According to Abram (1998) the main barriers to participation in tourism in rural areas of poor nations include, the fact that the concept of tourism is new to the people; bureaucracy in decision-making processes – top-bottom approach; tourism planners ignoring local people to participate assuming that they are illiterate and too unaware to be drawn in. On the side of local communities, there is a problem that they lack knowledge on how to participate in tourism. Abram asserts that “The difficulty for ordinary people in accessing technical discourse is often identified as a major barrier to full participation”. It is hence important that local communities get information and understanding about the decision making processes for planning and management of tourism so that they can be actively involved in tourism (Cole 2006: 631). Another barrier to participation of local communities in tourism is believed to be leakage. Leakage affects the participation in many ways. For instance, the locals might be seeing tourism of no value to them, or may lack sufficient fund to develop small-scale tourism businesses but of quality enough to attract tourists (Goodwin and Roe 2001: 379; Mitchell and Ashley 2010: 60 - 61).

Moreover, it is argued that tourism lacks linkages with local economy. This is a problem because individuals from different productive sectors, such as farmers, fishermen, traditional artists, among others, fail to integrate into different economic options (such as tourism in this case) that could help them improve their livelihood conditions (Goodwin and Roe 2001: 379). To overcome the

barriers to participation of local communities in tourism enterprises, Ashley et al. (2000: 5) propose a range of measures, which are summarised in Table 2.

Table 2: Actions to Enhance Economic Participation of the Poor in Tourism

Barriers to Participation of the Poor in Tourism	Actions that can Reduce Barriers
Lack of human capital	Education and training targeted at the poor, (particularly women) to enable up take of employment and self-employment opportunities.
Lack of finance, credit	Expand access to micro-finance. Gradual pace of tourism development; avoiding crash development relying on outside investment.
Lack of organisation. Exclusion by organised formal sector interests	Recognise and support organisations of poor producers. Recognise organised tourism interests as just one voice to be heard among others.
Location – far from tourism sites	Develop core tourism assets and infrastructure in relatively poor areas – where a commercially viable product exists.
Lack of market power. No ownership/control over resources of market value. No bargaining power with investors	Strengthen local tenure rights over land, wildlife, cultural heritage, access to scenic destinations, and other tourism assets. Use planning gain to encourage potential investors to develop their own strategies for enhancing local impacts for the poor.
Regulations and red tape. Exclusion from registered and promoted categories of tourism facility/service	Minimise red tape, revise or remove regulations that exclude the least skilled, ensure necessary tourism regulations embrace sectors and activities operated by the poor with appropriate standards and processes.
Inadequate access to tourist market	Enhance vendors' access to tourists through, e.g. sitting resorts near public access routes and vice versa, supporting organised markets for informal and small-scale sellers in towns or adjacent to national parks.
Limited capacity to meet requirements of tourism market	Business support to improve quality, reliability of supply, transport links.
Under-development of domestic/regional/ independent tourism by comparison with international tourism and all-inclusives	Incorporate domestic/regional tourism and independent tourism into planning strategies. Avoid excessive focus on international all-inclusives.
Government support targeted to formal sector	Recognise the importance of the informal sector; support it in planning processes.
New tourism opportunities conflict with existing livelihood strategies	Avoid promoting only full-time jobs. Expand range of options for flexible, part-time involvement. Enhance local control over types of tourism developments.

Source: Adopted from Ashley et al. (2000: 5)

CHAPTER THREE: STUDY AREA

3.0 Location of Tanzania and Its Tourism Attractions

Tanzania is situated in East Africa (Appendix 1.0). It lies between latitudes 1° and 11° south and longitudes 30° and 40° east. Tanzania has an area of 945,000 square kilometres and it is the largest country in East Africa (MNRT 1999: 1). 25 percent of the total Tanzania's landscape is protected area, and part of this, 4.5 percent are National Parks (Meoli 2007). Tanzania has fifteen national parks including MINAPA. The parks are spread all over the country (Appendix 1.1). MINAPA is the fourth-largest Park in Tanzania, and part of a much larger ecosystem centred on the uniquely vast Selous Game Reserve. The national parks provide important sources of tourism investments in Tanzania (TANAPA 2008).

The Tanzania's potential to tourism ranges from its wildlife resources, a spectacular landscape and scenery, water bodies and beaches, a diversity of cultures and numerous archaeological sites. The main tourism attractions in Tanzania include, Mountain Kilimanjaro (Africa's highest Mountain with 5,895 metres high, snow-capped tip, surrounded by dense forest full of diversity of flora and fauna); and Serengeti National Park³ (with an area of 14,763 square kilometres, and is the 'world-acclaimed wilderness with annual movement of tens of thousands of wildebeest between the Mara and Serengeti watering grounds) (MNRT 1999: 1 - 3). However, despite the immense tourism attractions, and the recent increasing in international visitor arrivals and receipts (Appendix 2.0), Tanzania remains one of the poorest nation in the world. Based on the United Nations 2007/08 Human Development Index, Tanzania ranks as 159th out of 177 countries, which makes it the 18th poorest country in the world, where nearly a half of its population live on less than US\$1 a day (SNV Tanzania 2010). Part of this inconsistency in the pattern of economic growth and poverty reduction initiatives in Tanzania is that some sectors like tourism have not done enough in terms of improving the livelihoods of the poor (URT 2005: 7).

³But the natural bounty of Serengeti National Park is at risk due to recent government plan to construct a 480Km highway road to connect Arusha and Musoma, part of this road will pass through the Park. Available at: <http://www.thecitizen.co.tz/component/content/article/37-tanzania-top-news-story/2762-government-on-why-serengeti-road-is-a-must-project.html>. Site accessed on 20 August 2010.

3.1 MINAPA and Adjacent Communities

MINAPA is located in the Morogoro region within three districts of Kilosa, Mvomero, and Morogoro. MINAPA was initially gazetted in 1964 covering an area of 1070 square kilometre. The boundaries were extended in 1975 to its current size of 3230 square kilometre. The Park falls into a gap in the Eastern Arc Mountains, which stretch from Kenya down to southern Tanzania. The purpose of establishing MINAPA was to conserve and protect the Park and its ecosystems, while enhancing tourism services. MINAPA is bordered by eighteen villages (Appendix 3.0) (TANAPA 2007/2017: iii, v).

This study was conducted in the Ward of Doma. The Ward is made up of seven villages, which are Mkata, Mtipule, Msongozi, Kihondo, Maharaka, Misengele and Doma itself. Of the seven villages, only three villages of Mkata, Doma and Maharaka are bordered by MINAPA. For the purpose of this investigation only three villages in the vicinity to the Park were selected to serve the purpose of case study.

Mkata village has the population of 425 people and 82 households; Doma village has the population of 3040 people and 750 households; and Maharaka village has the total of 735 households. The communities of Doma, Mkata, and Maharaka have common activities, these include: agriculture, waving, fishing, hunting, small businesses such as shops, among others. In terms of agriculture, the main crops grown include maize, sorghum, tomatoes. The agricultural activities are characterized by small scale farming that lacks sophisticated farming technology such as farm-tractors. Hence, many farmers rely on 'hand-hoe' for farming activities (Field-data, 2010). Wildlife from the Park is one of the threats to lives and crops facing the communities bordering MINAPA. Some of animals crossing the Park's borders into the public lands include elephants, monkeys, and bush-pigs, among others.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Theoretical Review of Approaches Employed in Study

4.1 Research Technique

It is not in the interest of this study to challenge the methodological aspect of specific researches that have been conducted in the past in tourism. But tourism researchers will agree that as tourism sector is evolving faster, a need for reliable advices to policy makers and resource poor about the significance of tourism as tool for poverty reduction cannot be overemphasised. As observed by Mitchell and Ashley (2010: 108) that previous publications in tourism have failed to provide policy makers and the resource poor in developing countries with adequate analysis of the diverse impacts of different types of tourism from contrasting source markets. In sharing this view, this study believes that amongst the challenges facing tourism researchers today includes identifying and applying the right research methodologies. It is of no wonder for some researchers to find caught in between, and perhaps swivelled, where, instead of applying qualitative research approaches (such as phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory, etc.) in issues that would have been investigated relatively better with these research strategies, instead, a researcher may find to have used a wrong theoretical stance, particularly applying quantitative approaches; and vice versa.

The problem is that, until now there is little agreement on what precisely constitutes a good research because quite often researchers tend to select research approaches on the basis of the nature of the issue, or problem being investigated, but most importantly they are driven by their philosophical stance. But the study in tourism needs to consider between paradigms, positivist or interpretivist. Each approach has its own set of rules and standards to ensure validity and reliability of knowledge claims (Finn et al 2000: 5 - 7). It is of no surprise that tourism researchers are increasingly noticing the significance of applying qualitative approaches instead of quantitative ones in tourism studies ever than before. This is because, for decades, a positivist paradigm had dominated scientific inquiry in tourism studies, and in one way or another that has had a misleading effect in tourism policy frameworks. Nevertheless, in recent

years, tourism studies have taken steps further as it has come to light that the perception of humans investigated by quantitative methods alone is not comprehensive. As Szarycz (2009) asserts:

Its reductionist, anti-subjective perspective does not allow for researching human phenomena as holistic and interactive, nor is it congruent with its epistemology as knowledge based on experiencing human persons (Szarycz 2009: 47).

But, qualitative technique has been prone to criticisms that it is a 'soft', 'non-scientific' and inferior approach to studying social life, and one that is often seen useful only when accompanied by, or as a precursor to, quantitative techniques. Nevertheless, this negative perception has been questioned in recent decades in many social science disciplines because of oversimplification and failure to acknowledge the multiplicity of forms and functions of qualitative research. But over the past few decades, using qualitative approaches to study social life has been considered more acceptable within the mainstream, rather than being viewed as an adjunct to quantitative work. Tourism on the other hand acknowledges the power of quantitative technique, but in tourism quantitative technique is only useful when seeking insights into aspects such as market and migration trends, income generation, and similar issues (Phillimore and Goodson 2004: 3 - 4). Given that this research intended to establish people's understandings and experiences of poverty, alongside how tourism interacts with poverty, the overarching paradigm of the research is interpretivism. The emphases are not on measurement or make explanation (as in positivist approach) but understanding, an attempt to grasp the subjective meaning of social action (Bryman 2008: 15 - 17).

4.1.1 Research Strategies and Methods

Within the interpretivist tradition, qualitative research methodologies were employed to gain access to information from careful selected research participants on activities, understanding and experiences of poverty, perceptions about tourism, among others. The study involved an amalgam of phenomenology to understand people's experiences; and ethnographic observations of the research participants in the field. Phenomenology and ethnography are among of the strategies of inquiry used in qualitative research. Phenomenology and

ethnography were both used in this study because of their power in getting access to the lived experiences and realities, of research participants or an intact cultural group, respectively (Creswell 2003: 14 - 15). Although ethnography has been adopted in this study, but, the research is mainly rooted on phenomenological tradition. This is due to the fact that the study intended to report participants' perceptions on their understandings, experiences of poverty, and how poverty interacts with tourism in their communities. The power of phenomenology in this study is grounded on the basis that it emphasises the ideas of meaning, uniqueness, and lived experience. It aims at getting deeper understanding of the nature or meaning of lived experiences of research participants (Curtin 2006). Phenomenology is distinguished from scientific forms of enquiry by its emphasis on subjective experience (Cohen 1979; Li 2000; Mannell & Iso-Ahola 1987) rather than causal explanation of a person's experience in the lived world (Szarycz 2009).

Guided by phenomenology, the study employed interviews, where it involved a researcher bracketing himself from his presuppositions related to the study, and its possible meanings. Subsequently the study looked to report participant's self experience of the world by presenting interviews and focus groups data in the form of quotations extracted from transcripts and notes. Generally, the sample size for phenomenological study is always small, since its findings are solely aimed at producing in-depth understanding and are not intended to be generalised. However, phenomenological studies are criticised in several aspects. For instance, it is said that some studies erroneously tend to make claims about reality, aspire to a form of objectivity, engage in impractical abstraction, and generalise from sample to population. Phenomenology is also criticised for lack of clarity on how all assumptions that might possibly contaminate or falsify are identified when a researcher brackets his/her presuppositions (Szarycz 2009: 47 - 58).

To minimise the danger of this study producing invalid and unreliable findings, the study firstly tried to implement the study within the phenomenological principles. Secondly, to increase the accuracy of research findings, the study involved amalgam of a multiple of approaches. In this view, an ethnographic field observation was employed in order to cross-check and amplifying the richness of

data ascertained through phenomenology. Thirdly, semi-structured interviews and focus groups were both used, with main focus on ascertaining only participants' views about their understandings, experiences and perceptions on issues that were inquired. To prevent the researcher's presuppositions to be filtered into the participants' views, the researcher distanced himself by just posing question, listening and jotting down participants' views without manipulating them; and after each interview, data was analysed and themes that were identified were presented back to research participants for confirmation of whether the identified themes are the true reflection of what they presented to the researcher. In addition, where consent was obtained, the researcher also recorded the conversations in interviews and focus groups. This method also intended to ensure that words and meanings presented by research participants are prevented from being distorted.

4.1.1.1 Advantages of Semi-structured Interviews versus Other Interview Methods

This study applied semi-structured interview method because the method saves time, by limiting interviews to specific issues of interest on a predetermined research topic. Semi-structured interview uses interview guides with open-ended questions to nurture dialogue in the interview session. Since this study was bound by time, then semi-structured interview method was considered appropriate. This study did not employ unstructured and structured interview methods because: unstructured interview is not restricted to a framework of specific research topic; it is very useful in instances where new research topic(s) is/are explored; also, unstructured interview method demands more time. While, structured interview method, sometimes called standardised interview is most commonly used in survey research to generate quantifiable data; it restricts research participants to closed-ended interview questions, and it administers exactly the same context of questioning to all interviewees in order to obtain standardised measures. The disadvantages of structured interview include the fact that interviewer has more influences on respondents. This poses the possibility of systematic bias in answers (Bryman 2008: 192 - 193, 438 - 439).

4.1.1.2 Application of Focus Groups to the Study

Focus groups were used in this study in order to cross-check with the findings obtained through semi-structured interviews. Bryman (2008: 475) indicates that focus groups generate rich data because participants get chance to share and challenge the views of each other, the phenomena lacking in one-to-one interviews, but not often acknowledged by researchers. It is because of the advantages that can be derived from focus groups this study employed the method so as to learn from focus groups' participants on their views about the issues inquired. Field observations were carried out alongside other research methods in order to learn more about the physical realities of phenomena taking place in the field, such as the locals involvement in tourism activities; poverty issues; among others. This process was very important in this study because it helped the researcher to understand and analyse data collected through other research methods.

4.1.2 Sampling Procedures and Techniques

Purposive sampling and snowball sampling were used in this study to identify cases to be involved in the study; and recruiting new participants for the study, respectively. Purposive sampling is a non-probability form of sampling where a researcher does not seek to sample research participants randomly. The goal of purposive sampling is to sample cases/participants in a strategic way, so that those sampled are relevant to the research questions that are being posed. The sampled cases/participants are selected with respect to their relevance to the understanding of a social phenomenon. Nevertheless, the limitation to this approach is that its findings cannot be generalised to a population (Bryman 2008: 415). This study used purposive sampling to establish specific 'cases'⁴ for the investigation. This study being conducted mainly within phenomenological tradition, therefore the findings of this study were not intended to be generalised. It was for this reason purposive sampling was appropriate for this study.

In qualitative research, snowball sampling is an approach whereby a researcher establishes initial contacts with a small group of people who are relevant to the

⁴ The term cases is used in this study to imply, the three villages adjacent to MINAPA in the Ward of Doma, in which this research was conducted (i.e. Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka villages); and the research participants.

research topic and then use these to make contacts with others (Bryman 2008: 183 - 184). Snowball sampling was used in this study to make initial contacts and recruiting new research participants in the villages studied prior to conducting interviews and focus groups.

For ethical reasons, all research participants were cautioned either to give their names or not, and most of them chose not to. This study therefore has avoided using participants' names or nicknames in reporting research findings. However, where quotations have been presented in the work, the sources of quotations are distinguished by using anonymous names, coined by combining three things: specific research session a participant was involved in (i.e. either interview or focus group); sex (e.g. Woman or Man); and their place of origin (i.e. village they came from, e.g. either Mkata, Doma or Maharaka).

4.1.3 Data Analysis

This study employed thematic analysis as a method for analysing notes and transcripts generated through field interviews and focus groups. Data analysis involved back and forth approach in conjunction with field interviews and focus groups. The analysis involved identification of themes which were eventually communicated back to the research participants while the field research was going on for approval as to whether the themes identified captured the actual scenarios of the story they presented to the researcher about their understandings and experiences of poverty, activities, and so on. On the other hand, the process of validating themes to the research participants was necessary in order to increase the internal reliability and internal validity of the research findings (Bryman 2008: 376 - 377).

4.1.3.1 Application of Thematic Analysis to the Study

Thematic analysis is one of the ways of analysing informants' talk about their experiences (Aronson 1994). The analysis involves searching across a data set (e.g. a number of interviews or focus groups or a range of texts) to find repeated patterns of meaning. Those approaches which consider specific aspect, latent themes and are constructionist tend to often cluster together, while those that consider meanings across the whole data set, semantic themes, and are realist/essentialist, often cluster together too, although a different combination is

said to be possible. But this study adopted a realist/essentialist stance because, the method gives opportunity to report apparent experiences, meanings and the reality of participants across the whole data set, as such, a researcher minimally present the findings that are not based on his/her theoretical interest in the area or topic. This is not the case with for instance constructionist paradigm, which specifically examines the ways in which events, realities, meanings, experiences and so forth are the effects of a range of discourses operating within society. The latter method is more useful to studies that look to ascertain specific information from research participants (Braun and Clarke 2006: 81, 86).

With essentialist practices, inductive approach is used to identify themes within the explicit or surface meanings of the data without going beyond what a participant said or what has been written, as in latent or interpretative approach. Working within inductive framework, enabled a researcher to code the data without needing to fit it into a pre-existing coding frame, or the researcher's analytic preconceptions. However, in the end, an attempt was made to theorise the significance of the patterns and their broader meanings and implications (Braun and Clarke 2006: 78, 83). The significance of this process as indicated by Aronson (1994) is that "By referring back to the literature, the interviewer gains information that allows him or herself to make inferences from the interview...session."

But one may want to know why thematic analysis was specifically chosen for this study? The choice of thematic analysis for this study resided primarily at the heart of fulfilling this study's research questions and adheres to the theoretical frame underpinning the study, i.e. generating qualitatively oriented research findings that are in line with interpretivist paradigm. Data analysis techniques such as content analysis, allows for quantitative analyses of initially qualitative data (Ryan and Bernard 2000). This would have diverted the core interest of this study. Normally, themes identified in thematic analysis tend not to be quantified except in special circumstances (and that is beyond the interest of this study) (Braun and Clarke 2006: 98). Thematic analysis is however criticised that it is an approach that has no identifiable heritage or has it been outlined as a distinctive cluster of techniques. Nonetheless, the process of searching for themes is seen in many if not most approaches to qualitative data analysis such as, grounded theory,

critical discourse analysis, qualitative content analysis, and narrative analysis (Bryman 2008: 554). In this regard Braun and Clarke (2006: 78) believe that thematic analysis should be considered as method in its own right. This method is preferred by some researchers because it is flexible.

Thematic analysis is often framed as a realist/experiential method (Aronson 1994; Roulston 2001); however, Braun and Clarke (2006) contend that thematic analysis is actually compatible with both essentialist and constructionist paradigms. Braun and Clarke further argue that contrary to interpretative phenomenological analysis or grounded theory and other methods like narrative analysis, discourse analysis, or conversation analysis, 'thematic analysis' is not wedded to any pre-existing theoretical framework, and therefore it can be used within different theoretical frameworks (although not all) and can be used to do different things within them. Because of this theoretical freedom, thematic analysis is considered to be a flexible and useful research tool that can potentially provide a rich and detailed, yet complex account of data. In addition, Braun and Clarke (2006) explain that thematic analysis does not require the detailed theoretical and technological knowledge of approaches such as grounded theory and discourse analysis; it can offer a more accessible form of analysis, especially for those early in a qualitative research career (Braun and Clarke 2006: 78, 81). It is on the basis of these advantages it merited the adoption of thematic analysis in this study.

How were themes identified in this study? Generally there are many ways of determining themes and their prevalence through thematic analysis method. Each approach is argued to be valid if it maintains consistence on how themes have been generated within a particular analysis. In this study the mechanism of identifying a theme resided at the level of the data item. Meaning that themes were identified based on whether they appeared anywhere in each individual talk conducted and provided some answers to the research question(s), rather than being influenced by their prevalence across a data set. As Braun and Clarke (2006: 82) argue:

the 'keyness' of a theme is not necessarily dependent on quantifiable measures – but rather on whether it captures something important in relation to the overall research question and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set.

4.2 Field Work

4.2.1 Scope of the Study and Justification

The scope of this study is limited to reporting participants' views about their understandings and experiences of poverty, alongside how tourism interacts with poverty. Therefore, with the aid of purposive sampling technique, only villages that are bordered with MINAPA from the Ward of Doma (i.e. Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka) were selected for this investigation. The sampling units (i.e. research participants) were people from careful sampled informants who had knowledge about the research topic under investigation, and they were selected from the three villages named above.

The Ward of Doma was primarily chosen for this study because of its accessibility and because of its nature of rural setting. The nature of rural setting of the Ward motivated the study to be conducted in the area to investigate the issues of poverty, since poverty is a common phenomenon in rural areas in Tanzania (URT 2006: 4). On the other hand, the villages of MKata, Doma and Maharaka were purposely sampled from the Ward of Doma because they are located adjacent to the Park; and so it was assumed that there is a likelihood of these villages being involved and/or benefiting in initiatives taking place in MINAPA (such as tourism) as compared to other villages not bordering with the Park in the same Ward.

4.2.2 Field Phases and Primary Data Collection

4.2.2.1 Phase One

Fieldwork was scheduled to start from April 2010 and finish in June 2010. Field research was divided into three phases. Phase one involved the processes of surveying the study areas, pre-testing of qualitative interview guides, introduction of the researcher to key informants in the study areas; and pre-booking for semi-structured interviews. This phase also included the process of making arrangement for the materials and means of transport for the research. These activities were conducted from the second week of April 2010. The researcher in phase one specifically contacted few key informants who were deemed to have knowledge about the research topic. This small group was comprised mainly of

Village Authorities from three villages mentioned above. An arrangement for individual interviews was made with each participant agreed to participate in the study.

4.2.2.2 Phase Two

Phase two commenced from the third week of April 2010, and it did last for two weeks. Phase two started by conducting semi-structured interviews to the local authorities who were pre-booked in phase one. At the end of each interview a participant was asked to name other participants whom he/she thought had knowledge on the topic. The process of obtaining new participants for the subsequent interviews followed the snowball sampling until the researcher could not see any new data emerging. As recommended by Taylor and Bogdan (1998) that the size of the sample in qualitative interviews should be determined toward the end of research, rather than at the beginning. A researcher should continue to conduct interview until additional interviews yield no new insights into the phenomena of interest. This point where an interviewer stops conducting further interviews is also referred to as a point of theoretical saturation (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). In general, interviews took place on an average of 1 hour to 1½ hour in accordance with the participant's time. In each village interviews were conducted within two days.

The sample size for interviews conducted in each village was seven interviewees in Doma village, eight interviewees in Mkata village, and six interviewees in Maharaka village. The sample sizes generated in this study are parallel to that suggested for phenomenological studies. As argued by Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007: 116) that the sample sizes in qualitative research should not be too small that it is difficult to achieve saturation and at the same time not too large that it is difficult to undertake a deep, case-oriented analysis. Specifically, it is recommended the sample size of interviewing up to 10 people in phenomenological research.

4.2.2.3 Phase Three

Phase three was set merely for conducting focus groups. This phase commenced from the second week of May 2010 and lasted for two weeks. The main activities in phase three included identification and making pre-bookings with participants for focus groups. Purposive sampling was firstly used to establish the participants to be involved in focus groups. In order to allow new insights on the topic to emerge, new participants were picked but from within the same villages that were earlier selected for this study. The first group interviewed in each village was obtained from the list of people who were mentioned by individual participants who were previously interviewed in each village. The process of contacting and make bookings for the focus groups was done in the second week of May, 2010. Focus groups began in the third week of May 2010. In each of the three villages, focus groups were conducted with the participants who agreed and turned up on the day for the discussions. At the end of each focus group, the group was asked to mention other people from the same village whom they thought had knowledge on the topic. Contacts were then made to the new list of participants. Those who agreed to participate in the focus groups were interviewed in their respective villages on the third week of May 2010. The researcher stopped conducting further focus groups in each village when no new insights were emerging from focus groups. The decision to end carrying further focus groups in this study was inspired by Calder's (1977) approach, who proposes that:

when the moderator reaches the point that he or she is able to anticipate fairly accurately what the next group is going to say, then there are probably enough groups already (Calder 1977, cited in Bryman 2008: 477).

Based on the arguments above, this study ended by conducting two focus groups in each of the three villages studied. The sizes of the groups in each focus group conducted ranged between five to nine people, which slightly deviated from the typical group size proposed by Morgan (1998a) of six to ten members (Morgan 1998a, cited in Bryman 2008: 479). In this occasion the deviation from the usual pattern proposed above was observed due to some participants who were pre-booked for focus groups failing turn on the day of study. This caused slight deviation from the usual pattern proposed above.

4.2.3 Secondary Data

This study is grounded on both primary and secondary data. Secondary data have been used to establish theoretical frame for this investigation, and to deepen the understanding of the implication of the research findings. The research process therefore has involved also aggregating and reviewing relevant literatures on tourism and poverty reduction, among others. The main sources of secondary data for this study include: electronic journals; books; policy/strategic papers and regulations, poverty papers; websites, just to mention few. These sources have been acknowledged in this paper where they have been used.

4.3 Data Management

The processes of handling and treating primary and secondary data were done as follows:

- Data collected with digital voice recorder were transcribed verbatim by researcher manually, and translated from Swahili Language into English Language.
- Field notes and transcripts were arranged in order, in separate files so as to distinguish the data collected in different occasions.
- Photographs were downloaded and saved in a secured computer for privacy.
- Secondary data were arranged in order, so as to distinguish data obtained from different sources.

4.4 Reflection of the Fieldwork

4.4.1 Field Problems

The main field problems encountered in this study were:

- Long distance of travel: a researcher needed to make long travel, approximately 140 to 200Km for a return trip each day research sites were visited for the study because of inadequate accommodation for visitors at research sites.
- Some participants declining interviews to be recorded. This necessitated a researcher to be keener in listening and taking notes. This exercise was arduous; sometimes it prompted back and forth conversation.

- Some research participants failing to attend pre-booked research sessions: This problem affected both interviews and focus groups sessions. But attempt was done to recruit new participants in respective villages, through snowball sampling. However, because of the short notice, very few participants accepted to participate in interviews and focus groups sessions.

4.4.2 Field Achievements

Although the study encountered some difficulties in the field (refer Section 4.4.1), however, the research was completed successfully with all research questions and objectives investigated accordingly.

4.4.3 Limitation of the Study

The findings of this study cannot be generalised due to the research strategy (phenomenology) that was used to guide this investigation. Specifically, the sampling techniques used (purposive sampling and snowball sampling) are non-probability. Hence, the results lack external validity, and therefore the findings of this study represent sole opinions of research participants.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.0 Description of Poverty

Poverty was generally acknowledged by all research participants to be a very serious problem in all three villages into which this study took place. The participants described poverty in terms of a person or a family lacking access to sufficient food, education, health services, clean water, electricity; poor accommodation, and poor clothing; poor farming conditions, among others.

According to the research participants, the poor are divided into three main categories: extremely poor – owning between 1 to 1.5 acres of land. These live in poor houses built with earth-bricks and cannot afford to buy iron-sheets to cover their roof; they lack capital to manage their farms, and so mostly they are employed by other people; they can afford only one meal or less per day; and they live on Tanzanian Shilling (TZS) 1, 500/= (equivalent to Pound STG⁵ £0.63) or less per day. The second category is the middle class – owning between 1.5 – 3 acres of land. These live in relatively good houses; they can manage their farms; they have small businesses like selling charcoal; they can afford two to three meals per day; and they live on TZS 5000/= (equivalent to Pound STG £2.09) or less per day. The last category, made up of relatively rich people – they own 5 – 10 acres of land. They live in better houses, they own relatively big businesses such as shops, restaurants; they can manage their farms; they can afford all three meals per day; and they live on TZS 5000/= up to TZS 10,000/= (equivalent to Pound STG £4.18) per day. In actual context, in all the three communities where this study took place, the research participants rated that 90 - 95 percent of households in their communities fall in the category of extremely poor; while the middle class and relatively rich households were rated to fall within 5 - 10 percent.

Through the analysis of interviews' and focus groups' notes and transcripts, themes on factors that were regarded by research participants as main causes of poverty in their villages were aggregated and presented in Table 3.

⁵Exchange rates for 22 February 2011, Pound STG £1 purchased at TZS 2391.6797 (Bank of Tanzania 2011, available at: <http://www.bot-tz.org/FinancialMarkets/ExchangeRates/ShowExchangeRates.asp>, accessed on 23 February 2011).

5.1 Research Themes

This study analysed field notes and transcripts in order to identify themes that were answering this study's research questions. The themes identified were aggregated into major categories, and presented in tables (Tables 3, 4, 5, and 6). Each table however contains themes that address specific research question.

5.1.1 Themes on Main Factors Contributing to Poverty in Studied Communities

As Table 3 indicates, five main categories of themes were established under a research question, how is poverty understood and experienced by the communities adjacent to MINAPA? Each of the five categories contains a number of themes. The descriptions of these themes are provided below and where necessary some extracts of texts from field notes and transcripts are accompanied for clarification of the theme(s).

Table 3: Themes on Main Factors Contributing to Poverty in Studied Communities

Main Categories of Themes	Themes
Poverty due to physical condition of individual/household	Age
	Sickness and pregnancy
	Disabilities
	Family with large number of dependants but with low income
Poverty due to inadequate resources	Inadequate land
	Poor farming facilities
	Lack of capital
Poverty due to physical environmental factors	Weather fluctuation
	Threat from wild animals
Poverty due to inadequate institutional support	Unsustainable infrastructures
	Poor supply of subsidies
	Shortage of extension officers
	Stringent condition for loans
Poverty due to other factors	Pastoralists' inversion
	Undiversified economic activities

Source: Field-data 2010

5.1.1.1 Poverty Due to Physical Condition of Individual/Household

The main themes that were identified under the heading above are: age, sickness and pregnancy, disabilities, and having family with large number of dependants but with low income. In participants views 'age' was one of the factors causing some families to become poor. From the wider picture, age is one of the criteria used in their villages to assess the state of wellbeing of a person especially in events where free donations are to be distributed to the community members. Since the majority of community members are poor, 'older people' were mentioned to be mostly hit by poverty. Therefore, when aids (such as food) are distributed to the poor, the older people are among the priority groups. Sick people with prolonged illnesses (such as HIV/AIDS sufferers) and pregnant women who cannot work were also mentioned as another category highly affected by poverty. Other groups of people mentioned to be highly hit by poverty are those with disabilities, and families with large number of dependants such as children but with poor earnings. All these were mentioned to be priority groups for being granted aids, before other ordinary people in the community can also receive, if the aid package in excess.

5.1.1.2 Poverty Due to Inadequate Resources

The themes identified under the heading above are: inadequate land, lack of capital, and poor farming facilities. To other families/individuals, poverty was said to be experienced because of inadequate land for farming, or lack of capital, or having poor farming facilities, or both. Below are some quotes taken from some interviewees as they were explaining their situation of poverty:

As you can see, our community is poor; people have low incomes because farming is conducted manually using hand-hoes (an interviewee man from Mkata).

Poor people in our community normally can possess up to one and a half acres of land, they are not able to manage their farms properly, most of the time they do hunting, work in others' farms, or are employed to carry loads to earn a living (an interviewee woman from Doma).

5.1.1.3 Poverty Due to Physical Environmental Factors

The themes under the heading above are: weather fluctuation, and threat from wild animals. In the process of explaining how poverty is experienced by the poor in their communities, the research participants mentioned that, some families are hit hard by poverty due to the influence of changes in weather condition, and the threats from wild animals crossing the Park. These cases are further clarified hereunder with quotations captured from some interviewees' talks:

Agriculture is a key sector in our village, but in recent years productivity has gone down due to bad weather, this has contributed to poverty in our village, we do not have enough to eat and we have poor access to other basic needs (one interviewee man from Mkata).

The shortage of rainfall has been major causes of poverty in our community, farmers can no longer rely on it; the poor are suffering the most from this; for instance, the majority of people here nowadays can hardly afford one to two meals a day, and they live in really bad houses (an interviewee woman from Maharaka).

Our harvestings from agriculture are very low, we don't have enough stock to reserve for future use, all this is because of bad weather, and this is why most of us are in this condition of poverty (a focus groups man from Mkata).

...because we are bordered by the Park, our crops are often destroyed by wild animals especially elephants; most farmers now have stopped planting for instance sorghum crop which is mostly eaten by elephants. We are not happy because the poor are becoming poorer (lamented by interviewee Man from Doma).

5.1.1.4 Poverty Due to Inadequate Institutional Support

The themes identified that fall under the heading above are: unsustainable infrastructures, poor supply of subsidies, shortage of extension officers, and stringent condition for loans. Most research participants complained that the government was doing very little to improve their livelihoods. For instance, the participants mentioned that their villages are often subsidised with seeds every year, but the problem is that seeds are supplied too late, quite often not timed with rain season, hence affecting their production. Moreover, it was also complained that, the villages lack enough number of extension officers, who could help farmers to adopt irrigation technology in farming to raise their productivity and halt the problem of food shortages in their communities. The government is also blamed for not facilitating access to loans for people living in

rural areas. Most participants complained that the current procedures for acquiring loans are not easier for all. For instance, one of the interviewee lamented:

In order to get loans they want us to provide evidences of assets we own, my brother, what assets can you see here! This is not fair (a focus group's man from Mkata).

In the case of infrastructures, the government is blamed for not building enough schools, hospitals, good roads, and for not supplying them with portable water, and electricity. For example, one of the interviewee from Doma village lamented that:

Look, our children are supposed to go more than 3Km on foot to reach the primary school, I don't think their children experience the same (an interviewee woman from Doma).

While the issue of school was very significant for the village of Doma, however, other villages had other problems which were more challenging. For example, participants from Mkata village were particularly concerned with the problem of lack of portable water in their village. One of the interviewee said:

You have seen yourself the water we drink here, I am sure you can't drink? [She laughs]... we have been forgotten (a focus group's man from Mkata).

The participants also complained that most of the community members are poor, but they are not supported by the government to educate their children particularly at secondary school level; instead parents are obliged to pay the school fees in full, and that was said to be difficult for many poor families to afford. For instance, one of the interviewee was quoted saying:

It is a burden when children pass for secondary schools, in fact, most families here pray for their children to fail in their final exams. I can't afford more than two meals in a day with my family, where am I going to get that money for school fees? (a focus group woman from Maharaka).

5.1.1.5 Poverty Due to Other Factors

The main themes under the title above are: pastoralists' inversion, and undiversified economic activities. Some research participants complained of pastoralists' inversion onto their farms, causing damages to their crops. Moreover, the participants mentioned that their communities lack economic diversity, as such, most villagers engage in agriculture, which however lacks sophisticated farming equipments, over-reliance on weather, and the crops are threatened by wild animals from the Park.

Since poverty was mentioned to be very high in all three villages studied, therefore, the research participants were asked whether they considered tourism as an agent for improving their livelihood opportunities; and whether there are any barriers that prevent or could prevent their participation in tourism; and how to overcome the barriers in order to enhance their participation in tourism to reduce their poverty. The analysis of field notes and transcripts on these issues, yielded several themes, and they were summarised in tables (Tables 4, 5, and 6 respectively).

5.1.2 Themes on How Tourism Was Perceived As an Agent of Poverty Reduction

Field results suggest that most research participants believed that tourism could help to reduce their poverty. Such belief was categorised as positive talk. On the other hand, few participants were not sure how tourism could be used to improve their livelihood opportunities. Such view was categorised as neutral talk, as indicated in Table 4.

Table 4: Themes on How Tourism could be used by the Poor to Reduce Poverty

Main Categories of Themes	Themes
Positive talk	Locals can benefit from tourism through trading of local products and services
	Locals can benefit from tourism through providing tour-guide services
	Locals can benefit from tourism through developing local tourists' attractions
Neutral talk	There is lack of awareness about tourism

Source: Field-data 2010

5.1.2.1 Positive Talk

Participants who believed that tourism could be used to improve their livelihoods suggested that the locals can benefit from tourism through engaging in initiatives such as: trading of local products and services; providing tour-guide services; and developing local tourists' attractions, as Table 4 indicate. In describing how tourism could be used to reduce poverty, some research participants were quoted saying:

In our village, we make things like mats, hats, and many other cultural products. But we sell them at cheaper prices to local businessmen. But if we had tourism market here, we could have sold them at better prices (an interviewee man from Mkata).

If tourism is developed in this village I will be one of 'mama-nitilie', I will cook good food, I am sure tourists would love to eat it and that would get me and my family out of poverty (an interviewee woman from Doma).

In terms of locals engaging in tourism through providing tour-guide services, here it was suggested that young men in their villages could engage in escorting

tourists in community lands that are situated outside the Park boundaries. In emphasising this, one man from Mkata was quoted lamenting that:

We see new faces coming in our village quite often, they pick some men to escort them to the bush for hunting, but they pay very little. If the government can help us to expand this tour-guide service many young men will benefit (an interviewee man from Mkata).

Moreover, on the aspect of developing local tourists' attractions, it was suggested that this would make tourists stop first in their communities before they visit MINAPA, and hence help their local economies. Among the proposed tourists' attractions that could be developed include: building camp sites, snake-watch sites, birds catching and selling them in portable huts; and tourists visiting their 'Wildlife Management Area'. In relation to the Wildlife Management Area, it was explained that currently there is already a proposed project called 'KIDOMA' which is in the process of registration. The land is bordered by MINAPA and it is formed from eight villages that joined together: Doma, Maharaka, Mkata, Kilangali, Mabwelebwele, Tindiga, Mbamba, and Malangali. When the process of registration completes, it was said that the area could boost tourism industry in their areas.

5.1.2.2 Neutral Talk

The findings of this study also suggest that few research participants were sceptical on whether tourism can really bring benefits or negative impacts to their communities because the majority of community members are illiterate, poor, and they do not have enough knowledge about tourism business. Therefore, it was argued that investment in tourism would require a prior tourism education. In connection to this, one woman from Maharaka said that:

Some of us are aware about tourism. However what we don't know is how one can benefit from it. We are just used to know tourism is for MINAPA (a focus group's woman from Maharaka).

5.1.3 Themes on Barriers to Participation in Tourism

Table 5 below summarises the main categories and respective themes on the barriers that limit the participation of the locals in tourism.

Table 5: Themes on Barriers to Participation in Tourism

Main Categories of Themes	Themes
Barriers at local level	Poverty
	Lack of awareness on how to invest in tourism
	Lack of traditional skills
	Lack of qualifications to work in tourism
	Ineffective local authorities
	Prevalence of hostilities between Park and locals
Barriers at sectoral level	Lack of involvement of the locals in tourism Management
	Lack of transparency in sharing tourism benefits
	Lack of capacity building programmes
Barriers at government level	Community-based tourism not promoted
	Lack of incentives to locals

Source: Field-data 2010

5.1.3.1 Barriers at Local Level

The main themes identified that shed-light on the barriers to participation in tourism at local level are: poverty, lack of awareness on how to invest in tourism, lack of traditional skills, lack of qualification to work in tourism, ineffective local authorities, and prevalence of hostilities between the Park and adjacent communities.

With regards to poverty, many participants expressed their concerns that the poor in their communities may not be able to engage in tourism businesses because they do not have enough capital to be able to supply high quality products and services in tourism industry. It was also mentioned that the participation of the locals in tourism is hampered by the lack of knowledge on how to invest in tourism; similarly, some also were concerned that people in their village are lacking traditional skills to create some cultural products, and so they do not really see how they can participate in tourism. The problem of lacking traditional skills was specifically mentioned by some participants from the villages of Doma and Maharaka. Below is an extract of text, in which a research participant tried to

elaborate on this issue:

Our people at Doma lack traditional skills. If we can get experts to train us on how to create cultural products and perform some traditional dancing that could attract tourists to come to our village. Just imagine, currently tourists travel 50Km more through our village to watch things which can also be shown here! (a focus group's man from Doma).

Another barrier to participation in tourism that was reported in both villages studied was that most community members were lacking qualifications to enable them grab jobs in tourism taking place in MINAPA. Below are some of the statements given by some research participants as they were trying to elaborate why they feel marginalised in tourism:

I can't blame the Park for not employing us in tourism. Things have changed now. In the past people from our communities were employed in the Park with 'standard seven education'. For example, here at Maharaka we have three men, at Mkata one man, and at Doma another man, both work as security guards. But these days they need educated people (an interviewee woman from Maharaka).

Guys let us be honesty [he laughs]...tourism jobs are advertised in newspapers these days. Unless you study up to 'form four' or beyond, forget getting jobs in the Park. Our problem in this village we are not educated (a focus group's man from Doma).

Another barrier to participation in tourism was said to be due to the ineffectiveness of the local authorities. This issue was raised particularly by two individuals in interviews in a wake to blame their local authorities for failing to disseminate information they get from the Park when they attend meetings in some occasions. Many people in the studied villages are said to be unaware about how tourism business is being conducted in the Park, also they do not know either whether they are entitled to participate in the management of tourism, or even receive any benefits from the Park.

In terms of hostilities between the Park and adjacent communities, some participants said that this could spoil the locals' interest in tourism especially if the current conflicts are not prevented from escalating. The main conflict mentioned was that of adjacent communities to MINAPA being regularly attacked by wild animals from the Park. Of these animals, elephant was said to be posing more threat to human lives and agricultural crops. The research participants asserted

that in recent years few people have lost their lives and some are in hospital as a result of being attacked by elephants from the Park. Although it is legally binding to be compensated, as a remedy to e.g. damage of crops or death of a person due to attack by Park's animals, however, the victims have never been compensated, it was lamented by research participants. In the wake of increasing wildlife attacks, some research participants seemed to be worried about the fate of their lives. For instance, one of the research participants from Mkata said this:

Who is better, human being or animals? Should we die at the expense of conserving wildlife for tourism? Something must be done here (complained by an interviewee woman from Mkata).

5.1.3.2 Barriers at Sectoral Level

The barriers to participation of the locals in tourism at sectoral level were explained from three perspectives: lack of involvement of the locals in tourism management; lack of transparency in sharing tourism benefits; and the lack of capacity building programmes. Some research participants lamented that MINAPA are not involving their communities at all in the management of tourism and the Park. It was also complained that there has been a lack of transparency in the ways how the neighbouring communities to the Park receive benefits accrued through tourism. The participants also blamed the Park's management for not educating them on how tourism in MINAPA is managed. One of the participants in focus group at Mkata shouted angrily:

Yes, we are now used to this, once they promised us to build hospital and do many other good things in our community, but they have never come back. We just hear, we are entitled to receive ten percent from the Park each year, but we don't know where the money is going (a focus group man from Mkata).

5.1.3.3 Barriers at Government Level

The main themes for the barriers at Government level are: lack of promotion of community-based tourism; and lack of incentives to locals. Some research participants said that if the government would promote community based tourism, it could enhance tourism development in their villages, and eventually enhance participation of the poor in tourism, especially if incentives are made available to the poor.

5.1.4 Themes on How to Enhance Participation in Tourism

Table 6 below summarises the main categories of themes and respective themes on measures that were suggested by research participants as means of enhancing participation of local communities in tourism.

Table 6: Themes on How to Enhance Participation of the Locals in Tourism

Main Categories of Themes	Subthemes
Approach at local level	Alleviation of poverty
	Raising awareness about tourism
	Improving traditional skills
	Enhancing access to education
	Improving efficacy in local authorities
Approach at sectoral level	Mitigating hostilities between Park and locals
	Involvement and empowerment of locals in tourism management
Approach at Government level	Enhancing capacity building programmes
	Promoting community based tourism
	Giving incentives to rural poor

Source: Field-data 2010

5.1.4.1 Approach at Local Level

Things that were proposed by research participants for improving the participation of the poor in tourism at local level are: alleviation of poverty, raising awareness about tourism, enhancing access to education, improving traditional skills, improving efficacy in local authorities; mitigating hostilities between Park and neighbouring communities.

Most research participants believed that if the measures above are put into action, not only would the proportion of poor participating in tourism be improved but also, there would be a significant reduction of poverty in their communities.

5.1.4.2 Approach at Sectoral Level

At this level, the research participants recommended a need for not only involvement but also empowerment of local communities in tourism management. The research participants were not happy with the current trend where they are treated by MINAPA as bystanders. Instead, they called for a new partnership that would recognise the local communities as equal and important allies to the Park,

since they have lived on, and managed the natural resources in the Park since time immemorial. The participants suggested that, the Park's management should take concerted efforts to provide tourism education, and how the locals can engage in the management process, which was complained not being implemented by the 'Department of Community Relation' (i.e. 'Kitengo cha Ujirani Mwema' in 'Swahili' language).

5.1.4.3 Approach at Government Level

At government level, most participants proposed the government to provide incentives, such as improved access to loans, and free education in schools. In addition, it was proposed that the government should promote community based tourism more proactively.

5.2 Discussion of Results

Before starting to discuss the findings of this study, the researcher reminds a reader of this work that the findings of this study are not meant to be generalised, they are just sole opinions of the research participants. Nevertheless, although the findings of this study cannot be generalised, yet, it is important to put them into context of tourism poverty reduction literature in order to understand the significance and application of the study's findings before they can be claimed as a contribution to tourism knowledge base. As Braun and Clarke (2006) assert that after themes/patterns have been indentified in a study, it is important to theorise their significance and broader meanings and implications (Braun and Clarke 2006: 78, 83). The significance of this process as indicated by Aronson (1994) is that:

By referring back to the literature, the interviewer gains information that allows him or herself to make inferences from the interview...session (Aronson 1994).

In context, the inferences this study would to, are conclusions made at the end of this paper, to reflect the significance and broader meanings and implications of this study's findings to the general understanding of how tourism is interpreted in the really world by the poor, as far as poverty reduction through tourism is concerned.

5.2.1 State of Poverty in Rural Areas in Tanzania

Poverty is a serious matter in Tanzania. Since the launching of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) Tanzania has increased its capacity to act on poverty in order to comply with the MDG of reducing by half the households' poverty by 2015. To achieve this and other MDGs, Tanzania developed the 'National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty' (commonly known by its Swahili acronym, 'MKUKUTA'). Through MKUKUTA Tanzania set three major clusters of development targets for the period commencing 2005 - 2010: growth and reduction of income poverty; improvement of life and social well-being; and governance and accountability (Daly 2009: xxi). This section will try to analyse the development made in reducing poverty in rural areas. The analysis will provide indication on the relevance of various themes identified in this study.

Based on the Tanzania's Poverty and Human Development Report (PHDR) of 2009, poverty rates remain highest in rural areas. As Table 7 indicates, the percentages of households living below the national income poverty lines are higher in the rural areas than in the big city (i.e. Dar-es-Salaam) and other urban areas. The target of MKUKUTA was therefore, to reduce the incidence of basic needs poverty to 24 percent in rural areas and 12.9 percent in urban areas by 2010; while the MDG on poverty, targeted to reduce the incidence of poverty in Tanzania by 50 percent from 1990 – 2015. The MDG projection meant that the 39 percent of Tanzanian households who were living below the basic needs poverty line in 1991/92 would be reduced to 19.5 percent by 2015. But from Table 7, it can be understood that the slow trends in the reduction of poverty imply that Tanzania is lagging behind in terms of achieving both MKUKUTA and the MDG poverty reduction targets (Daly 2009: 11 - 12) and therefore attaining the MKUKUTA and MDG targets by 2010 and 2015 respectively, is certainly impossible, unless there is a high and fast growth rate of GDP, faster in countryside than in urban areas (URT 2006: 4). For this to happen, concerted efforts will be needed to address the factors which reinforce poverty in Tanzania, which are unequal distribution of resources, incomes and opportunities (URT 2005: 27).

Table 7: Incidence of Poverty in Tanzania (Expressed in Percentage)

Poverty Line	Year	Dar-es-Salaam	Other Urban Areas	Rural Areas	Mainland Tanzania
Food	1991/92	13.6	15.0	23.1	21.6
	2000/01	7.5	13.2	20.4	18.7
	2007	7.4	12.9	18.4	16.6
Basic needs	1991/92	28.1	28.7	40.8	38.6
	2000/01	17.6	25.8	38.7	35.7
	2007	16.4	24.1	37.6	33.6

Source: HBS 2007 (NBS 2009 adapted from Daly 2009: 11)

As themes in Table 3 indicate, the research participants did not shy-away to throw their anger to the government for not doing enough to improve their living conditions. One of the areas highlighted by participants to be underdeveloped in their villages includes infrastructures. Based on participants views coupled with field observations, the study identified that the villages of Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka, face common problems of lacking: good roads, access to decent learning atmosphere (e.g. schools being located too remote for the children); access to portable water, and electricity; and poorly equipped health centre, to mention few. These data although cannot be generalised but to a degree, they inform about the magnitude of the task to address and achieve the targets of MKUKUTA and the MDGs. It is indeed a huge task because some households still rely on untreated water for domestic use (Appendix 4.0). Moreover, in both villages where this study took place, it was acknowledged that peasants rely on hand tools for farming (Appendix 4.1 and 4.2) and rain-fed cropping methods. In terms of availability of energy, both communities are not connected to the national grid of electricity. The lack of electricity in these villages indicates Government's failure to achieve its MKUKUTA target of providing reliable and affordable energy in Tanzania. Currently the national grid of electricity is predominantly serving the urban population (Table 8).

Table 8: Percentage of Households Connected to the Electricity Grid

Year	Dar es Salaam	Other Urban Areas	Rural Areas	Mainland Tanzania
2000/01	58.9	29.7	2.0	10.0
2007	50.8	25.9	2.5	12.1

Source: HBS 2000/01 and 2007 (NBS 2002, 2009 adapted from Daly (2009: 27)

Consequently, the majority of households in rural areas use biomass as an alternative source of energy for cooking (95.8 percent of the population use firewood and charcoal, and the use of charcoal for cooking has increased from 4 percent in 2000/01 to 7 percent in 2007 in rural households) (Daly 2009: 26 - 27). The lack of electricity in rural areas, especially in the villages investigated in this study poses serious threats to biodiversity and the environment in MINAPA and surrounding areas. Therefore, poverty reduction in these communities is really a matter of serious concerns; perhaps tourism could play a key role towards improving the livelihoods of the poor in these villages, especially if sustainable measures are put in place, much of the discussion about tourism is covered in next sections of this chapter five.

5.2.2 Significance of Tourism to Locals and Issues of Participation in Tourism Tanzania

The aim of this section is to discuss the significance of the themes identified in this study on: how tourism was perceived as a tool for poverty reduction; barriers to participation in tourism; and how to enhance the participation of the studied communities in tourism. To understand this, the Tanzania's National Tourism Policy of 1999, the Tourism Act of 2009, and the Mikumi National Park General Management Plan 2007 – 2017 are used to lay the foundation for broader understanding of the significance of the above themes.

5.2.2.1 Tourism and Local Communities in Tanzania

Most participants of this study believed that tourism can be used to improve their livelihood opportunities. However, few research participants were sceptical about the potential of tourism as a tool for poverty reduction; this is largely due to the lack of knowledge on how to engage in tourism businesses. As Table 5 indicates, participants who believed tourism can be used to reduce their poverty suggested involving in tourism activities such as: trading of the local products and services; providing tour-guide services; and developing local tourists' attractions. But how relevant are these themes as far as the state and management of tourism in Tanzania is concerned?

The relevance of the themes above is implicated in the structure of tourism management plans/strategies of Tanzania, where the Government is committed

to link tourism with poverty. To put this into context, it is clearly stated in the general objective of the Tourism Policy of 1999 that:

The National Tourism Policy seeks to assist in efforts to promote the economy and livelihood of the people, essentially poverty alleviation... (MNRT1999: 5).

The Tourism (Tourism Development Levy) Regulations of 2009, Section 3 also asserts that:

The object of the Tourism Development Levy shall be to finance the implementation of activities related [to] tourism development including -
(a) tourism research, community development projects, awareness campaign, destination, marketing promotion of Small and Medium Enterprises in tourism and capacity building for development of the sector; or
(b) any other activities for the advancement and furtherance of the sector (URT 2009: 3 - 4).

Moreover, the desire to help local communities benefit from tourism is also highlighted in the General Management Plan for MINAPA 2007 – 2017. The Management Plan has four Management Programmes/Strategies: ecosystem management; tourism management; community outreach; and park operations. The community outreach programme/strategy purpose is:

To reduce threats to MINAPA and support livelihoods while maintaining good relationships with adjacent human communities for sustainable conservation (TANAPA, 2007/17: 1, 65).

By considering the general trend of tourism performance in Tanzania (Appendix 2.0) where the number of international tourists arrivals and receipts have been increasing in recent years, there is no doubt that such increase in revenues and the number of visitors can be very helpful in addressing the issues of poverty through tourism in communities adjacent to MINAPA. But for this to work successfully, the promises made in the tourism management guidelines and regulations must be implemented rigorously and transparently. But, currently, this seems not to be happening in Tanzania. For example, although the General Management Plan of MINAPA 2007/17 acknowledges constant support by the Park to adjacent communities, yet, the research participants revealed that the Park has done little to improve their lives (TANAPA 2007/2017: 11 - 12, 72). Most participants in this research lamented that there is no structure in place that links

the local communities with the Park's management. This is contrary to the claims made in the management plan of the Park (Field-data, 2010). Moreover, in terms of employment in the Park, the findings of this study suggest that the poor in all three villages investigated are currently not getting jobs in tourism sector, despite being bordered by the Park. As suggested by research participants for 'community-based tourism'⁶, perhaps this could be a key to integrating their communities in tourism should it be developed in their areas.

5.2.2.2 Barriers to Participation of Local Community in Tourism in Tanzania

As Table 5 indicates, themes on barriers to participation of communities of Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka in tourism are poverty, lack of awareness on how to invest in tourism, lack of incentives, and lack of qualification to work in tourism, among others. The significance of these themes arises from the fact that they are among of the barriers that have been acknowledged in the Tanzania's National Tourism Policy of 1999 which limit full exploitation of potential of tourism in Tanzania. As indicated in the national policy, these barriers include (MNRT 1999: 3 - 4):

- The underdevelopment of culture as a resource to attract tourists due to the prevailing low cultural gratitude that pervades the local communities.
- Inadequate regional and international tourist linkages.
- There is poor co-ordination and inadequate land management for the development of tourism.
- The inadequacy of awareness and appreciation especially on the part of local communities, of tourism and the importance of setting aside and preserving tourist attractions. Moreover, local communities are not involved in the decision-making, development and sharing of the proceeds from the tourism resources and tourist trade.
- The deficiency in investment opportunities and limited indigenous and community participation in investment activities within the tourist sector.
- The poor institutional and technical capabilities and co-ordination among various ministries, the private sector, NGOs and other organisations involved in tourism development.
- The inadequacy of infrastructure.

⁶Community based tourism has been defined by WWF as a form of tourism "where the local community has substantial control over, and involvement in, its development and management, and a major proportion of the benefits remain within the community" (WWF 2001, cited in Goodwin and Santilli 2009: 11).

- The meagre sources of finance, as well as financial institutions to cater for the development of tourist sector.

5.2.2.3 Measures to Enhance Participation of Local Communities in Tourism

Themes in Table 6 suggest measures for enhancing participation of local communities in tourism. Some of these measures include alleviation of poverty; raising awareness about tourism; enhancing access to education; involvement and empowerment of locals in tourism management; enhancing capacity building programmes; promoting community based tourism, to mention few. These themes are parallel with the existing tourism policy/plans that seek to expand tourism industry in Tanzania, alongside improving the livelihoods of the poor in tourism destinations in the country. For instance, the National Tourism Policy of 1999, contains a number of specific policy strategies in key areas that need to be enhanced: product development and marketing; cultural tourism; setting land for tourism; infrastructure development; employment and human resource development; community participation; enabling investment climate; financing and technical support; among others (MNRT 1999: 8 - 30). Also, the General Management Plan for MINAPA 2007 - 2017, contains strategies for improving participation of local communities in management and sharing the benefits of tourism through outreach programme (TANAPA 2007/2017: 1 - 91).

Although the concept of participation has received significant mention in Tanzania's tourism management frameworks, however, there seems to be very little happening in practice. As lamented by research participants in this study that the locals are not involved in any activities taking place in the Park. Under the current arrangement, it is the Park deciding what the locals can receive from the benefits accrued through tourism. But, the problem is that the benefits which the Park claims to be channelling to the neighbouring communities are quite insignificant, and as such, the research participants were not happy with the way how they are treated by the Park (Field-data 2010).

Therefore, as suggested by research participants, there is a need for their communities to be involved fully and empowered in all activities related to the management of the Park, tourism industry, and sharing the benefits accrued

through tourism, so that tourism can have substantial contribution to their livelihoods. This stance of research participants is parallel to neopopulist theory, which suggests that local communities should be central to tourism planning and management, and it encourages the voices of those most affected by tourism to be heard (Scheyvens 2002: 51, 53). Although there is an increasing government support to participate fully local communities in tourism, but the problem has been on the side of implementation of policy/plans. It might be on a brink for some tourism initiatives in Tanzania to be adopting the concept of participation just as a buzz-word. But participation as model for success needs to be approached from broader perspectives. As Mowforth and Munt (1998) emphasise:

The debate is currently not one of whether local communities should be involved in the development of tourism to their areas, but how they should be involved and whether 'involvement' means 'control'....

Regardless whether participation means control or not, but what needs to be acknowledged is that communities can actively participate in tourism initiative if they have a sense of ownership of the initiative (Guevara 1996). For this to happen, communities have to be empowered, and all dimensions of empowerment⁷ must be taken into account, which are: economic, social, psychological and political (Scheyvens 1999). The communities should be empowered prior to engaging them in tourism projects so that they can choose whether or not tourism is an appropriate activity to pursue, and so that they can exert control over any tourism which does develop (Scheyvens 2002: 61). Neopopulist and postmodern thought reject mainstream development paradigms which seek a universal truth, preferring to seek out diverse voices and disagreeing that the meaning of development is contested (Blaikie 2000). But, Neopopulists campaign that development is about empowering disenfranchised groups, providing them with opportunities to have greater control over their own lives and wellbeing (Friedmann 1992). In really sense, neopopulists aim to promote all forms of tourism initiatives which can enhance the wellbeing of local communities, and not tourism to be used for developing itself. Community based tourism development is one of the forms of tourism advocated by neopopulist. As

⁷Empowerment has been defined as a process 'through which individuals, households, local groups, communities, regions and nations shape their own lives and the kind of society in which they live' (France 1997c, cited in Scheyvens 2002: 59).

Brohman (1996a) reveals:

Community-based tourism development would seek to strengthen institutions designed to enhance local participation and promote the economic, social, and cultural wellbeing of the popular majority. It would also seek to strike a balanced and harmonious approach to development that would stress considerations such as the compatibility of various forms of tourism with other components of the local economy; the quality of development, both culturally and environmentally; and the divergent needs, interests, and potentials of the community and its inhabitants.

Nevertheless, critics of community based tourism disagree with the notion of involving actively communities in the management of tourism projects. In their view they argue that the inclusion and involvement of communities in the ownership or planning of tourism initiative, does not guarantee tangible livelihood and economic gains to the community, nor is active local participation in a tourism initiative a precondition for benefits reaching communities and local employment; it is suggested that other benefits are at times secured at the expense of local initiation and control (Ahmad 2001; Dwyer and Edwards 2000; Kontogeorgopoulos 2005; Li 2006; Nelson 2000).

Moreover, critics of active participation and empowerment of communities argue that, where communities are heavily involved in tourism initiatives several problems tend to occur, such as: conflicting stakeholder agendas, jealousies and external power struggles, growth of artificial hierarchies and elites may occur; diminishing or undermining potential benefits to the community (Blackstock 2005; Kontogeorgopoulos 2005; Swarbrooke 1999; Taylor 1995; Wyllie 1998). Hence, Community Based Tourism Initiatives (CBTIs) are seen as alternatives to other types of tourism which promote activate participation and empowerment of communities in tourism initiatives. These supporters of CBTI argue that despite CBTIs taking the stance of not involving actively communities in tourism management, yet, the initiatives focus primarily on delivering net livelihood and economic, social and/or environmental benefits to communities and their members in a responsible and sustainable manner (regardless weather they are poor or not, and whatever their backgrounds, whether from developed or developing countries) (Simpson 2008: 2 - 3). It is therefore argued that to distribute benefits to community, the tourism initiative need not always involve the community in any rights, tenure or control of the project (Ahmad 2001;

Kontogeorgopoulos 2005; Li 2006; Nelson 2000). Nevertheless, CBTIs are also challenged for the reason that the process of delivering the benefits of tourism to the communities is pretty fragile, since the communities lack any influence (stake) in the process. In this view, it is encouraged that communities should be participated at all stages in CBTIs because that gives stakeholders a better chance to have an influence in shaping community development and to deliver the maximum benefits while ensuring the sustainability of tourism ventures (Campbell 1999; Jones 2005; Murphy 1985, 1988; Olsen 1997; Ross and Wall 1999; Scheyvens 1999).

But, as highlighted earlier, the challenge of ensuring the right proportion of tourism benefits are delivered to the communities does not reside on whether the communities are actively or passively involved in tourism initiatives. It is argued that community involvement alone is not enough (Ahmad 2001; Blackstock 2005; Kontogeorgopoulos 2005; Li 2004, 2006) and does not ensure the delivery of benefits. Instead, interaction and communication with private sector; including investors, developers, planners, and managers from outside the community seems to be critical to the success of any CBTI in particular (Belsky 1999; Murphy 2003; Wearing and MacDonald 2002). Nevertheless, more studies are needed to illustrate how CBTIs work in practice in a variety of contexts and how the right proportion and most effective benefits can be delivered to the relevant community (Simpson 2008: 15).

To conclude this section, the study makes a note that the challenge facing tourism investment today seems to surpass the context of 'control' of tourism initiatives by local communities, as an avenue for ensuring that the benefits of tourism are delivered to the beneficiaries at the right proportion. This paper argues that whether tourism initiatives embrace neopopulists stance or passive stance, the key issue lies on transparency and commitment towards achieving a common-good. As tourism industry is battling to demonstrate its merit as a tool for poverty reduction especially in developing countries and Tanzania in particular, the debates in tourism should therefore be wedged towards finding ways to merge the ideas of two camps together (holistic approach) to achieve a synergic effect of reducing poverty (both relative and absolute) in communities hosting tourism ventures (who certainly cannot wait to see this happening), while

maintaining profits for the tourism industry itself so it can survive; however, without compromising the survival of biodiversity and ruining the entire environment.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Conclusions

Based on data ascertained in this study, the paper concludes that the role of tourism in reducing poverty in developing countries, especially at local level, remains litigious subject. Part of this is because the available data on how tourism is improving the livelihoods of the poor in local communities are in some cases incongruous with field observations. For example, although the Management Plan for MINAPA 2007/17 boasts to have had delivered significant support in communities bordering the Park (TANAPA 2007/2017: 11 -12, 72), yet, based on participants' opinions and field observations, this study has identified that the benefits received by communities adjacent to the Park in the villages of Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka are not significant, and poverty remains very high in these villages (Field-data 2010). Perhaps, the overarching difficulties in reaching to a conclusion of whether a tourism venture has rationally contributed to the reduction of poverty in communities or not, rests on a formidable task of developing a universal poverty reduction borderline (yardstick). Indeed, this will remain to be a subjective judgement until a common consensus comes into light. Nevertheless, it is important that where tourism initiative vows to reduce poverty in local communities, it should endeavour to demonstrate how it is reducing poverty both in absolute and relative terms; before an initiative can claim to have had done enough in terms of improving the livelihoods of the poor without ruining biodiversity and environment as whole.

Further conclusion, although most research participants in this study indicated that tourism could play a key role of improving their livelihoods, however, this stance needs to be treated cautiously. It should not be generalised that tourism has wide support in local communities, not only because of the research strategy (phenomenology) adopted in this study which restricts the generalisation of this study's findings, but also in really sense, more evidences are needed to be passed back to the resource poor to advise them about the magnitude of the costs and benefits that could be derived from tourism initiatives, before the poor themselves can make decisive choices on whether to embrace tourism initiatives in their villages or not. This would need holistic approach to be harnessed in

exploring this area instead of employing single discipline (such as tourism alone).

Last but not least, even if the majority of research participants considered tourism to have the potential to improve their livelihoods, however, there are number of key issues that need to be harmonised in these communities before the full potentials of tourism can really be realised in their villages. Such challenges include, enhancing the participation and empowerment of local communities in tourism management and sharing of the benefits accrued through tourism in MINAPA. But, it is worth noting that participation and empowerment have become central to the recent discourses in tourism, on how to ensure a decent proportion of benefits of tourism are delivered to the intended beneficiaries. Although in this study the research participants called for renewed efforts by the Park to participate and empower their communities in the management and sharing of tourism benefits, however, in the end it is up to the Park to decide. The problem is that there are generally two camps with diverging opinions on how they regard participation and empowerment of local communities in tourism initiatives. One camp believes that active participation and empowerment of local communities in tourism does not necessarily guarantee that the benefits of tourism would be delivered to the intended beneficiaries. On the other hand, the other camp, particularly the neopopulists believe that active participation and empowerment of local communities in tourism, is a key to the success of tourism investment, in terms of ensuring equitable sharing of costs and benefits of tourism initiative.

While most tourism investors would prefer to adopt passive participation of local communities in tourism initiatives (as the case of MINAPA) but, in reality this seems to be more repressive, since there is no guarantee of transparency. It is because of this, the communities into which this study took place seem to be sidelined as bystanders instead of being integral part to the Park's initiatives, including tourism businesses. Therefore, the study calls for more deliberate and scrupulous efforts to identify and implement sustainable measures that would guarantee effective conservation of biodiversity in MINAPA, while ensuring both parties with stake to the Park share equitably and responsibly the costs and bests of tourism industry operating in the area.

6.1 Contribution of Study to the Tourism Poverty Reduction Knowledge Base

The main contributions of this study to the understanding how tourism interacts with poverty reduction in local communities are:

- This study has enhanced the understanding how tourism is perceived by the resource poor; whose views are occasionally heard in tourism literature studies.
- So far, there are no pragmatic examples to demonstrate how much tourism is improving the livelihoods of the poor, as far as the communities involved in this study are concerned. This finding thus, superimposes pressure on existing calls for tourism to demonstrate its potentiality as a tool for poverty reduction in local communities particularly in developing countries.
- Barriers to participation of local communities in tourism exist but proactive approaches that seek to overcome these barriers in the field are either not existing or patchy.

6.2 Recommendations

In general, the study calls for:

- Renewed cooperation between all tourism stakeholders, in all channels of tourism investment, from proposal, planning, implementation to management, and sharing the costs and benefits of tourism.
- Transparency should be at the heart of all tourism ventures that seek to improve the livelihoods of the poor.
- There is a need to provide comprehensive and realistic advices to the communities of Mkata, Doma, and Maharaka about how to participate in tourism industry, as well as the costs and benefits of tourism investments in their communities before tourism is widely supported as a tool that could guarantee poverty reduction in their communities.
- There is an urgent need for poverty-reduction yardstick, whether tourism based or a universal one, that embraces all aspects of poverty (i.e. relative and absolute elements) in order to enhance the understanding and interpretation of the extent to which tourism initiatives are contributing to poverty reduction in host communities.

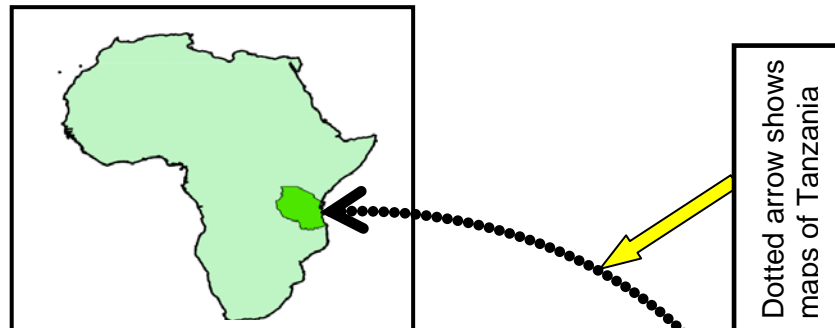
6.1.3 Suggestions for Future Research

Future studies should endeavour to:

- Extend the scope of this study, with comparative analysis (e.g. national perspective) on how tourism is perceived by resource poor in tourism destinations as a tool for improving their livelihoods.
- Quantify the costs and benefits of tourism investments in communities in tourism destinations.
- Evaluate the links and miss-links between tourism and National Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) and MDGs initiatives in Tanzania in order to understand how the locals can maximise the benefits of these programmes tourism.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1.0: Sketch Map of Africa Indicating the Position of Tanzania



Source: Adapted from Meoli (2007)

Appendix 1.1: Map of Tanzania Indicating Country's National Parks



Map⁸ Source: Adapted from TANAPA (2009:35)

⁸The black arrow and the circle in Appendix 1.2 have been sketched in this study to indicate the position of Mikumi National Park, where this study was conducted in villages (i.e. Mkata, Doma and Maharaka) that are adjacent to the Park.

Appendix 2.0: International Visitor Arrivals and Receipts in Tanzania, 1995 - 2009

Year	Number of visitor arrivals	Annual change (%)	Receipts (US\$ Mill)	Receipts (TZS Mill)
1995	295,312	12.89	259.44	155,663.00
1996	326,188	10.46	322.37	194,220.00
1997	359,096	10.09	392.39	235,446.00
1998	482,331	34.32	570.00	370,500.00
1999	627,325	30.06	733.28	586,624.00
2000	501,669	-20.03	739.06	628,201.00
2001	525,000	4.65	725.00	665,115.00
2002	575,000	9.52	730.00	705,618.00
2003	576,000	0.17	731.00	759,070.40 ⁹
2004	582,807	1.18	746.02	812,676.89 ¹⁰
2005	612,754	4.8	823.05	929,058.84 ¹¹
2006	644,124	5.12	950.00	1,079,137.00 ¹²
2007	719,031	11.62	1,198.76	1,290,542.25 ¹³
2008	770,376	7.14	1,269.68**	1,520,429.10 ¹⁴
2009	714,367	-7.27		1,159,824,136

Source: Adapted from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tourism Department, unpublished official statistics, data obtained from Tourism Research Department in June 2010

Note:

- **provision
- The exchange rates indicated in footnotes below have been adopted from the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism, Tourism Department.

⁹ Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2003: US\$=TZS 1038.4.

¹⁰ Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2004: US\$ =TZS 1089.35.

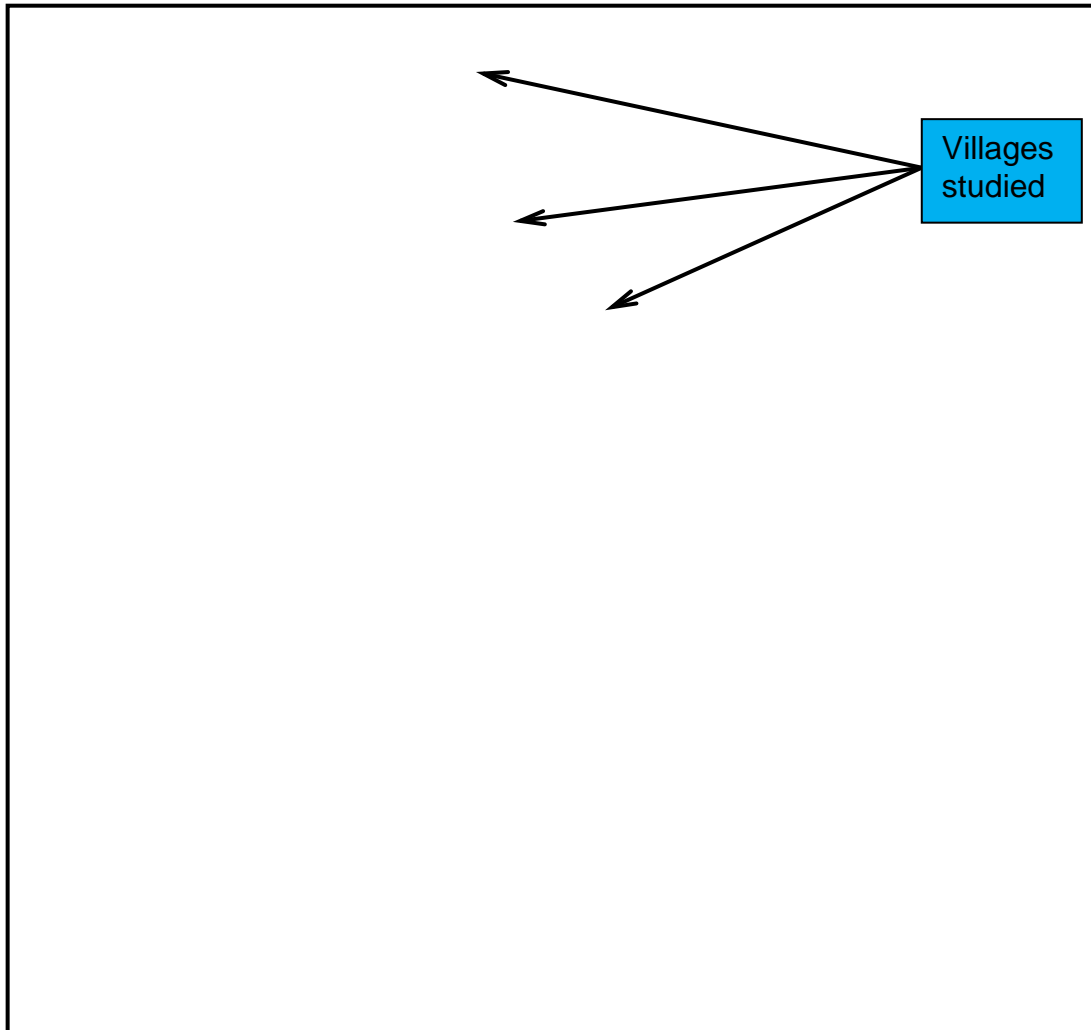
¹¹ Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2005: US\$=TZS 1128.8.

¹² Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2006: US\$=TZS 1251.9.

¹³ Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2007: US\$=TZS 1244.1.

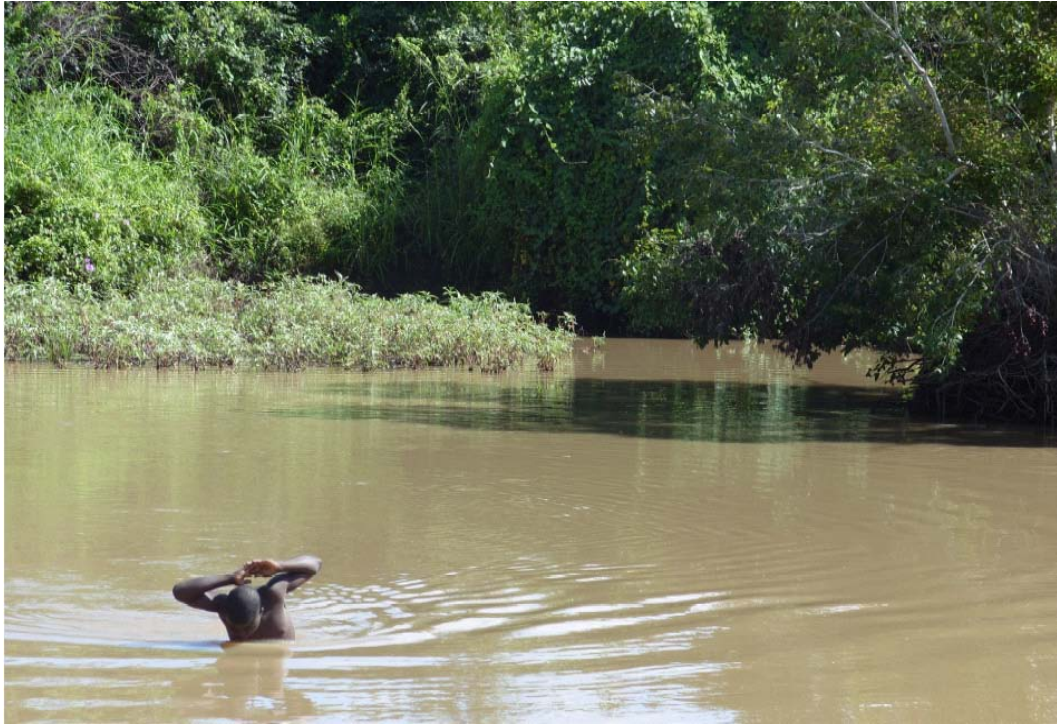
¹⁴ Mean Annual Exchange Rate for 2008: US\$=TZS 1197.49.

Appendix 3.0: Sketch Map of Mikumi National Park and Its Vicinity Villages



Source: Adapted from MINAPA Authority, Field-data 2010

Appendix 4.0: Mkata Resident Drinking Untreated Water from the River



Source: Field-data 2010

Appendix 4.1: A Peasant Preparing His Farm with Hand-Hoe at Mkata Village



Source: Field-data 2010

Appendix 4.2: Another Peasant Cultivating His Farm with Hand-Hoe at Mkata Village



Source: Field-data 2010

Appendix 5.0: Interview Guide Used in this Study

Understanding the Role of Tourism in Poverty Reduction, the Case of
Communities Adjacent to Mikumi National Park in Tanzania

by

Zacharia Revocatus Kalemo

Supervisor

Prof. A. Holden

Academic Year: 2009/2010

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study is to evaluate how tourism could be used in the reduction of poverty in communities adjacent to Mikumi National Park in Tanzania. This research meets ethical standards, as it has been approved by the University of Bedfordshire Research Ethics Committee (UREC).

You are kindly requested to participate in this interview and provide answers with highest level of honesty. This research is being undertaken in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the Master of Science Degree by Research in Tourism at Bedfordshire University in the United Kingdom. All information provided will be treated with utmost discretion and used **ONLY** for the intended academic purpose. Please be assured that neither your name nor photo would appear in this thesis without your permission. Please be also assured that one copy of the final draft of this research will be handed back to your village local office as a memento for future reference. This research is privately sponsored; it is not funded by any organization or institution.

Poverty Questions

1. How can you describe poverty?
2. How do you describe the quality of life of the people in this community?
3. In what way(s) does poverty affect the people in this community?
4. What criteria do you use to describe poverty or people who consider themselves to be poor in your community?

Tourism Questions

1. What can you say about tourism activities/programmes in your village?
2. In what way or ways do you participate in tourism activities?
3. Let me ask you, could you tell me the benefits you derive from your participation in tourism?
4. To what extent and through which mechanisms does tourism contribute to poverty reduction in your community?
5. What is your perception about tourism development as an agent for improving your livelihoods?
6. In what ways can tourism be used to enhance the livelihood opportunities of your community?
7. Tell me, what would you consider as barriers which affect your participation in tourism?
8. What do you think are the recommendations that could be implemented to increase tourism opportunities to the people in your community?

Name of interviewee:

Age:

Education Level:

Gender:

Occupation:

Village residing:

Thank you for your cooperation

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