

Assessment of the Contribution of Tourist Hotels in Socio-Economic Development in Monduli District, Northern Tanzania

Abidan Aisario Mrema

Stefano Moshi Memorial University College, Tanzania

Abstract: A study to assess the contribution of tourist hotels in socio-economic development was carried out in Mto wa Mbu Ward in Monduli District., Tanzania. Survey data were collected using household questionnaire, focus group discussion, semi-structured interviews and by physical visits. The study revealed that tourist hotels and/or lodges realized TZS 665, 496,000 (US \$ 443,664) per annum and offered employment to 143 people, out of which 19% were females. In addition, hotels and/or lodges investors helped village governments in implementing different socio-economic development projects such as schools, dispensaries, and provision of clean water. Despite these livelihood achievements, only 9.3% of the local communities had the opinion that these investments were beneficial to them. The study concludes that these investments have the potential of improving local communities' livelihood. To achieve this, the study recommends active local participation in the tourism development process through involvement with government and other tourist stakeholders such as tour companies and travel agencies.

Keywords: Community participation, conservation, development, livelihood, Monduli, tourism

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Introduction

In the second half of the twentieth century the service sector like hotels, lodges, and rest houses emerged in the world as a major source of employment whilst the manufacturing industry dwindled (Cole, 2006). This development led to the evolution of service companies and sectors, including railways, shipping, airlines and banking (Blake, Arbache, Sinclair & Teles, 2008). For the hotel industry, research shows that inns had existed since 43 A.D. In developed countries, the hotel industry has become an important economic sector, generating a turnover of approximately US\$15,000 billion in 2001, a 60% increase as compared to US\$ 9,045,000 million a decade ago (Aref & Marof, 2009). Moreover, several hotel groups have grown from small firms to international hotel groups.

In Tanzania, tourism industry has been facing mushrooming modern hotels/lodges in tourist attractions. To cope with this tremendous development, some communities have managed to organize themselves and use tourism as a tool for addressing poverty (Makame &

Correspondence : Abidan Aisario Mrema; Email: abilevi@gmail.com

Boon, 2008). Some of the areas like the northern, south and western parts of Tanzania, villagers and other stakeholders have grouped themselves and entered in tourism activities (Marik & Shechombo, 2003)

Mto wa Mbu (MWM) ward located adjacent to Lake Manyara National Park is one of the tourist attractions in Monduli district with a large number of tourist hotels and/or lodges. However, the investments contribution to the development of the area remains unknown. This study aimed to assess the contribution of the tourists hotels in socio-economic development of the area.

Since tourism is largely dominated by the private sector and associated with economic leakages, it is questionable as to whether it contributes to the critical need for pro-poor growth or benefits poor local residents in Tanzania (Ashley, Goodwin & Roe, 2001; Muganda, 2010). In the competitive global market place, tourism destination should be able to sustain its market share and position and participate effectively and profitably. In addition, destinations should be able to create and integrate value-added products that sustain their resources while maintaining market position relative to competitors (Igiha, 2013). Although there are several studies on the role of tourism in improving community livelihood, there are few studies on the impact of tourist hotels and its contribution in social economic development. More specifically, this study explores the contributions of tourist hotels on employment, supplying opportunities and provision of social services to the community welfare at the household level; the challenges and immediately solutions for win-win situation (Aikaeli, 2010; Muganda, Sahli & Smith, 2010; Ashley, Goodwin, Roe, 2001; Muganda, 2009). Both primary and secondary data technique were employed during the study.

In spite of the potentials of MWM in terms of the number of tourism establishments such as tourist hotels, lodges, campsites, protected area, shopping centres, fertile soil; but still the majority of the community members live with less than one dollar per day. This study is expected to be useful to policy makers in terms of the result revealed. It will also help other participants in tourism related activities. Academicians will also benefit from the additional literature of the study itself.

Further study need to see how these communities can be assisted on proper utilization of available resources for both direct and indirect benefits. To investigate the magnitude of leakages from tourism so as to find out how these can be minimized in order that tourism stakeholders can increase their earnings and indirectly alleviate poverty. Avenues for economic diversification in MWM and domestic tourism promotion can also be considered.

The Study Area

MWM ward comprises of three villages, namely, Barabarani, Migombani and Majengo. The geographical coordinates are 3° 21' 0" South, 35° 51' 0" East (Muganda, 2010). The area is also situated under the Great East African Rift Valley escarpment. The climate of the area is semi-arid with two distinct rain seasons – short rains in October to December and long rain during March to May (Igiha, 2013). The mean annual rainfall is less than 700 mm. The soils vary from alkaline to non-saline-alkaline in reaction. The soil textures of the area are clay, clay-loam, loam, loamy/sand-loam and sandy-loam/sandy-clay-loam. Soils vary from fertile highly erodible volcanic material to a variety of moderate to low fertility sedimentary and basement soil. The main economic activities include irrigation agriculture (rice/banana), tourism and petty enterprises.

Literature Review

Tourism is an important industry in many developing countries providing foreign exchange, employment, incomes and public revenue. It has become an important sector and it potentially constitutes one of the fastest growing sectors. It is one of the top five sources of foreign currency for 83 % of developing countries. The contribution of tourism receipts to total revenues in these countries is within the range of 80 to 20 % (URT, 2011). During 1990-2000, for example, international tourist receipts grew by 45 % or six times faster than exports in general (Bond, 2010). In developing countries of Asia, Latin America and Africa, net foreign exchange contribution amounted to 2.6, 2.6 and 0.7 billion dollars respectively in 1986-2001 (Child, 2008). It is an important foreign exchange earner in many of the Asian economies such as Thailand and Indonesia, as well as small-island economies such as Fiji, Jamaica, Bermuda, Maldives and Seychelles (Russell & Faulkner, 2009). By 1994, tourism provided about 70% of total foreign exchange earnings for Seychelles. Tourism was a major foreign exchange earner for Nepal, its share in the total value of merchandise exports more than trebled from 19% in 1973-74 to about 60% in 1989 before declining to 36% in 1992 (Mwaisumbe, 2010).

Further evidence on the importance of tourism from some African countries indicates that, in Kenya it has overtaken primary commodity exports of coffee and tea, accounting for 13% of Kenya's exports (Muganda, M., Sahli M., Smith, 2010). By 2010 tourism export earnings reached 37% of Kenya's total export earnings relative to 26% for coffee and 20% for tea. In Gambia, tourism is described as '*manna*' from heaven, which will solve its economic difficulties in terms of contributions to foreign exchange earnings, government revenues, regional development stimuli, and creation of employment (Mwaisumbe, 2010).

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) projects that by 2015, tourism jobs will increase faster than those in traditional industries by as much as 59% (UNCTAD, 2010). Employment generation by tourism varies from one economy to another depending on, among others, the size and extent of diversification. For example, in larger and more economically diversified islands, such as Jamaica and Puerto Rico, tourism generates about 5% of total employment. World Economic Forum (2009) shows that in smaller islands the share can go up to one-half and above. For example, in Bermuda tourism employs (direct and indirectly) 75% of the labour force. Direct employment in hotels is the most reliable indicator of the sector's contribution to employment, given that data on other direct employment, indirect employment and capital goods employment is hard to get. In Tunisia and Malta, for example, hotels employ about 0.4 persons per bed (Murray & Ayoun, 2011). Although larger hotels do better here than small ones, other factors such as location, price category, standard of service do matter. In Tanzania, official data indicate that there were around 157,000 people working in the sector in 2000 compared to 96,000 in 1995 (UNCTAD, 2010). This may still be under-estimation, since indirect employment is not taken into account. In 1996 in Zanzibar, tourism direct employment was estimated to be 4,000 people; while indirect employment was estimated to number at 21,000 (URT, 2011). In Kenya tourism is estimated to create about 180,000 formal jobs and 380,000 informal ones, a number that could be doubled if tourism was to be managed and planned more properly, with less crime and political violence interrupting the industry.

Evidence indicate that the level of employment in tourism activities is high, for example accounting for 0.5 million jobs in Spain and about 5 million in India (Ukwayi, Eja & Unwanede, 2012). Employment is also often higher in tourism than other sectors and wages compare well with other sectors but inversely related to jobs. Wages of hotel employees compare

favourably with those in agriculture, and even more when compared to subsistence agriculture. Those in managerial positions earned about 25% more than those in other sectors. Tourists provided the main market for fruit harvest. Translated into wages, it is obvious that wages in tourist related activities (fruits) would be higher than those in non-tourist related activities (Ukwayi, Eja & Unwanede, 2012; URT, 2010), Tax revenues to the government, both direct and indirect ones, are also an important benefit from tourism. Unfortunately, even in the most popular tourist destinations little thought has gone into designing the most appropriate level and form of taxation to be imposed. The impression exists that tax revenues from tourism could be substantially higher than at present, although information on the nature and importance of government revenues from tourism is scanty (Hwang *et al.*, 2014).

Obviously the fiscal impact of tourism may differ from country to country, depending on national policies but also on the linkages with the rest of the economy and the degree of maturity of the tourism sector. Enclave type of tourist centres (where most supplies come from abroad and with mostly foreign employees) are expected to have minimal impact on host country economies and fiscal revenues (Salazar, Xosta & Rita, 2010). Also early periods of tourism development are expected to have high leakages and therefore minimal revenues. On average, it is estimated that about 55% of tourism expenditures remain outside the destination country, rising to 75% in specific (Salami, Kamara & Brixiova, 2010).

Tourism will contribute to poverty reduction if it creates new jobs and provides incomes. From the literature it is clear that it does so, and that often particular groups (youth, women) do benefit. One would like to know more, in this respect, about the types of jobs that are created, the levels of skills required, recruitment policies, involvement of locals, training facilities, challenges on grasping opportunities, proper solutions etc. (Salazar, Xosta & Rita, 2010).

Methodology

Sample Size and Frame

Households form the basic sample units for analysis. The numbers of households were obtained from the village offices. From this study a total of 75 households out of 3,346 from MWM responded to a questionnaire survey. Village registry was used to randomly select the households visited whereby the head of the household and their spouses were asked questions. Heads of households were chosen since they were major decision makers and have influence in the daily livelihood of the household. The sample size for the study was 80 respondents, comprising of 75 households randomly selected from MWM area. Three tourism officials and two government officials from tourist hotel, MWM cultural tourism coordinator and village/ward officers were selected through purposive sampling.

Table 1. Sample frame

Respondent	N
Households	75
Tourism Officials	3
Village/Ward Officers	2
Total	80

Questionnaires Surveys

The questionnaire consisted of both closed and open ended questions. The aspects covered in the questionnaire included: demographic information, social-economic information, benefit flow, impact of tourist hotels/lodges and suggestion for improvements. Before administering the survey, the questions were pre-tested and revisions were made for questions which were ambiguous. A total 25 households which were randomly sampled were picked in each village. This was used so as to generate information and data, which subsequently was used for both qualitative and quantitative analysis.

Focus Group Discussion

Focus group discussion comprising of 10-14 people was used to collect in-depth information from youths, elders and women. Issues which were discussed included benefits realised from hotel investments, barriers to access benefits and suggestions to increase benefits. This instrument was used to capture specific changes. Elders, leaders, women and youth in the areas of study for example, narrated historical information and other changes. The aim was to enable collection of the views of those group in the tourism sector.

Key Informants Interviews

Interviews with various tourism stakeholders such as tourism entrepreneurs, village government leaders, ward executive officers; hotel staff and local communities were done. These stakeholders were considered important due to their extensive local knowledge, experience, expertise, and their involvement with the tourism sector in the study area. Checklist of questions were designed to guide researchers in conducting dialogue with stakeholders in the tourism sector. The aim was to enable collection of the views of officials in the tourism sector, for instance, on local costs, benefits and tourism policies planning and measures.

Physical Visits

The researcher visited some tourism related projects in the study area with the intention of physically seeing, among other things, current status of development projects in study area. The visits also enabled the researchers to physically see various socio-economic activities initiated by local communities in the area, but also provided better understanding of what happens on the ground in relation to tourist's hotels investment and benefits flow. Observations during fieldwork was also used mainly to assist to probe on issues beyond those which were covered in the structured questionnaire and interview checklist.

Secondary Data Review

This involved collecting information and data from existing reports and documents on tourism. Publications relevant to the study were accessed from libraries, search engines and government offices.

Table 2. Household social characteristics

Village	N	Sex%		Age%				Economic Activities %					
		Male	Female	18-35	36-45	46-55	>55	LV	BS	EM	AG	CP	ST
Migombani	25	80	20	48	32	8	12	16	8	4	64	4	4
Barabarani	25	52	48	48	20	8	24	12	30	12	24	6	16
Majengo	25	84	16	40	44	8	8	28	16	2	48	2	4
Average	25	72	28	45	32	8	15	19	18	6	45	4	8

Source: Field data (2011)

N= Sample Size LV= Livestock keepers BS= Business People EM= Employees
 AG= Agriculture CP= Carpenters ST= Students

Data Analysis

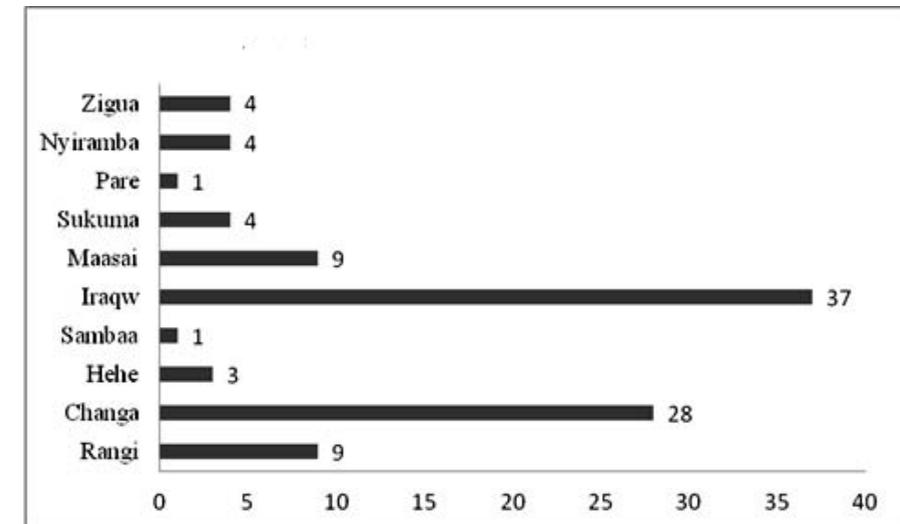
The edited and coded data obtained through questionnaire was subjected to analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Responses were summarized into a number of different categories for entry into SPSS. The categories were identified after looking through the range of responses received from the respondent, and then each response category was assigned a number.

Results and Discussion

Respondent's social characteristics

The socio-economic characteristics of the study area are presented in Table 2. At Migombani village, 80% of the respondents were males and 20% were females. In Barabarani village, 52% were males and 48% were females. In Majengo village, 84% were males and 16% females.

Overall in the three villages combined, the majority of the respondents were males (72%, n=75). The higher proportion of male relative to their female counterparts could be due to the patriarchal nature of village community in MWM. In terms of the respondent's age, many (45%) were in the age range of 18-35 years; followed by the age group of 36-45 (32%). Respondents' social economic activities during data collection were also identified. About 45% were involved in agriculture while 19% were engaged in livestock keeping and 18% in business ventures. UNWTO (2012) revealed that in communities where culturally and environmentally appropriate forms of tourism take place, and where women are involved in running or servicing tourism ventures, this often leads both to greater respect for women and a reconsideration of gender role stereotypes. According to Ateljevic (2008), ensuring women have some control over income derived from ecotourism is particularly difficult in societies where men control household finances. In some cases, women's groups use tourism as a source of revenue for community projects. For example, in Nepal, where Langtang women perform cultural dances for tourists and use the funds raised to restore their local monastery. Salami, Kamara and Brixiova (2010) and Ghodsee (2003) argue that assisting economic sectors like tourism employing large percentages of women at comparatively high wages will help improve the relative economic well-being of women and their families. In other cases however, in terms of formal employment, local women are often overlooked when lodges and other tourist sites are developed. In many contexts, women miss out on formal employment opportunities in tourism



Source: Field data (2011)

Figure 1. Ethnic Groups in the study area (kala figure caption bottom of graph)

because social norms continue to restrict the type of economic activities in which women may engage (Muganda, Sahli & Smith, 2010).

As for ethnic groups (see Figure 1), overall, the majority (37%) were Iraqw, followed by Changa (28%). Other minor groups include Rangi, Maasai Nyiramba, Sukuma, Zigua, Hehe, Sambaa and Pare. Mariki and Shechambo (2003) argue that the study area is the most linguistically diverse and complex in Africa. It is the only place in the African continent where the four major African language families –Bantu, Khoisan, Cushitic and Nilotic –are spoken. The area has a multi-ethnic community comprising of 120 tribes out of about 126 ethnic communities in Tanzania (Aref & Marof, 2009).

Contribution of Tourist Hotels and Lodges in the Area

Several tourist hotels and/or lodges with varying rates exist in the area (Table 3). Income realized by hotels varied from one village to another. The variation of income varied due to factors such as the quality of the hotel, accessibility and location. Overall, Barabarani hotels generated TZS 28,914,000 per month which was 8.2% more than that realized by Majengo and Migombani hotels. Generally, at village level Barabarani had the highest share of benefits generated mainly from Serena hotel (57% of the total) followed by Migombani village. This was expected mainly because these two villages are the most active villages in that they have high number of business ventures and large coverage compared to Majengo village. Field data reveals that these hotels have 143 employees, of which 80% are local people. This means that the presence of these hotels have a significant contribution in local communities livelihood. According to Aref and Marof (2009), the contribution of livelihood is in terms of employment and income realized by the hotels. This income is presumably channeled in part for the purchase of food stuff.

UNCTAD (2010) argues that tourist hotel and lodges bought food, drinks and souvenirs from locals. Examples include carvings for decorations, banana, vegetables, local wine, hence

Table 3. Hotel incomes and employment status in the study area

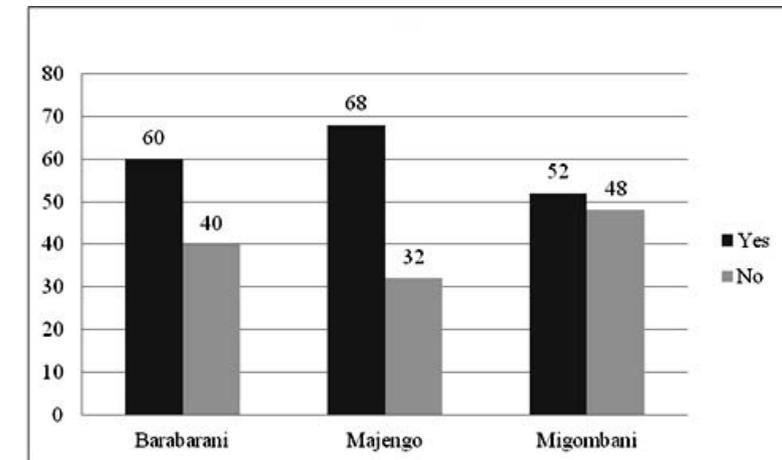
Hotel Name – Barabarani village	Seasons. Average No: Tourist per day		Price /night	Average Income per Month	No: Workers	Individual Average Salary per month (both local and foreign).	
	Low	High	TZS	TZS	Foreign	Local	TZS
Twiga Tent & Lodge	2	7	173,800	5,214,000	4	16	233,000
Njake Lodge	4	13	237,000	7,110,000	6	20	292,000
Serena Hotel	7	17	553,000	16,590,000	10	31	385,000
Sub-Total	13	37	963,800	28,914,000	20	67	910,000
Majengo village							
Eumoto Lodge	3	10	158,000	4,740,000	2	12	250,000
Kiboko Camp & Lodge	1	4	126,400	3,792,000	1	7	211,000
Sub-Total	4	14	284,400	8,532,000	3	19	461,000
Migombani village							
Fig Camp & Lodge	3	10	189,600	5,688,000	2	8	275,000
Migunga Camp & Lodge	2	7	173,800	5,214,000	-	9	20,5000
Nsia Lodge	1	6	237,000	7,110,000	3	12	210,000
Sub-Total	6	23	600,400	18,012,000	5	29	690,000
Grand Total	23	74	1,848,600	55,458,000	28	115	2,061,000
Average	3	9	231,075	6,932,250	4	14	257,625
Grand Total	23	74	1,848,600	55,458,000	28	115	2,061,000
Average	3	9	231,075	6,932,250	4	14	257,625

Source: Field data (2011)

contributing in building local community income. According to Igiha (2013), where agriculture is the main source of household income in an area, there is still a tendency of households to participate in non-agricultural activities in order to increase their income. Where incomes from direct tourism activities make significant contributions to the total household income, the participating households were found to have higher income compared to non-participating households. Although such households received income from tourism supplies, the margin of profit was not very significant. This was due to the presence of middlemen who bought food products from the community in cheap prices and sold to the lodges and camps (Mwaisumbe, 2010). Apart from such deficiencies, the level of income of community members of tourist destinations was slightly better than the national averages. This is indicative of the positive contribution of tourism (Aikaali, 2010).

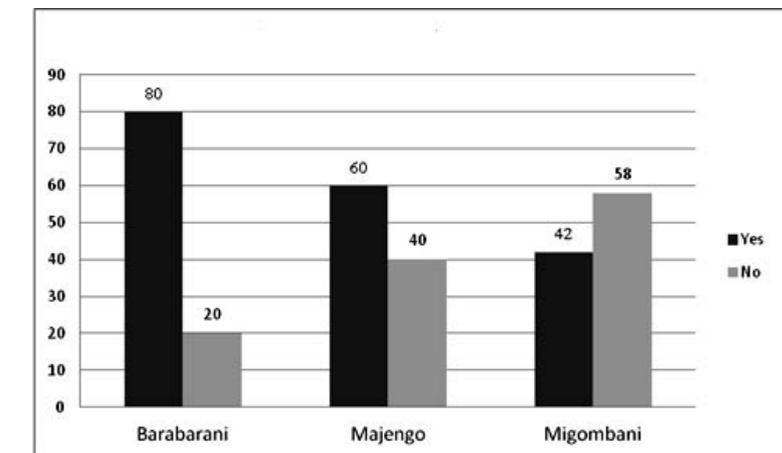
Perceived Benefits from Hotels and Lodges

Respondents were asked if they were benefiting from tourist accommodation facilities available in the area. The answers were limited to Yes or No. About 60% from Barabarani village agreed that tourist hotels contributed directly and indirectly in improving their livelihoods. In Majengo, 68% had similar views while in Migombani the proportion was relatively lower (52%). Overall, 60% had the opinion that they were benefiting from tourist hotels and/or lodges (Figure 2).



Source: Field data (2011)

Figure 2. Households benefits satisfaction level



Source: Field Data (2011)

Figure 3. Hotel staff benefit satisfaction Level

In spite of the benefits, there was the perception that the government could do more in enabling the local communities to tap tourism potentials in their areas. And this can be done through identifying potential areas for tourism business activities by promoting them, linking them with markets, and facilitating joint ventures, rural finance and overcoming the lack of communication and trust (Igiha, 2013). Since visitors are often unaware of local circumstances and of development efforts which are being made, the government needs to work together with tour companies and other development partners in making sure that visitors are made aware of the local circumstances. This will help create more linkages between tourism and the local economy (Igiha, 2013; Muganda, Sahli & Smith, 2010; Marik & Shechombo, 2003).

As for hotel staff, the majority of the respondents (61%; N=75) were of the opinion that they benefited from tourism activities in their locality. The remaining respondents could not agree on this point (see Figure 3). For those who could not agree, the reasons we related to

Table 4. Household benefits from tourist hotels and lodge

Benefits	Barabarani (N = 25) %	Migombani (N = 25) %	Majengo (N = 25) %
Receiving foreign exchange	24	16	20
Market for our local Products	20	20	28
Orphans get support direct from tourist when they make culture tourism	0	16	16
Employment opportunities	40	28	32
Improvement of social services	12	12	4
Improve relations	4	8	0
Total	100	100	100

Source: Field data (2011)

low wages, poor working environment, wildlife threats and lack of job security. On the side of hotel management, Lake Manyara Serena Lodge assistant manager had this to say:

“Communities surrounding the area have many expectations from our hotels and lodges but we can't manage to provide them with all their requirements, we have set priorities on clean water and education services”.

When asked to identify the type of benefits realized, the main ones were employment, market for local products e.g. horticultural crops and artisanal products, foreign exchange and improvement of social services (Table 4). Despite the benefits obtained, there are a number of barriers that limit the ability of local communities to capture created opportunities, such as lack of income-generating projects/activities, entrepreneurial skills, and employment opportunities for senior positions.

Challenges in the hotel and/or lodges sector

A number of challenges were identified during Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) involving youths, elders and women groups. The challenges to the local communities were lack of empowerment in accessing capital assets and quality education and inadequate linkage between the hotel sector and other sectors such agriculture (see Table 5). Other challenges include under recording of revenues realized by hoteliers, inappropriate and/or contradictory policies, controlled access to tourist destinations and poor hoteliers-local communities' relationship.

Pereira, Correia, and Schutz (2012) identified a wide range of challenges faced by investors and other stakeholders in the tourism industry. He categorized these obstacles into operational, cultural and structural limitations. Those categorized as operational limitations included the centralization of public administration of tourism development, lack of co-ordination between involved parties and lack of information made available to the local people and insufficient data and poor dissemination of information. Under these conditions, low public involvement in the tourism development process is obvious as people are not well-informed.

Suggestion for Achieving a Win-Win Situation

During focus group discussion, respondents suggested three main mechanisms that could contribute in improving both local community and investors benefits. The first mechanism

Table 5. Focus groups perception on challenges

Village	Groups		
	Youth	Women	Elders
Barabarani	Empowerment and involvement Access to tourists Leakage of revenues	Empowerment and low involvement of communities	Access to tourists Appropriate policy
Migombani	Inappropriate and contradictory policies	Empowerment and low involvement of communities	Inappropriate and contradictory policies
Majengo	Access to tourist destinations Empowerment and low involvement of communities	Leakage of revenue Partnerships	Access to tourist destinations

Source: Field data (2011)

is to ensure that there is an active local community participation in the tourism development process. The second is to make the destination competitive so that it is able to attract sufficient number of tourists. This should be done in cooperation with government and other tourist stakeholders like tour companies and travel agencies. This reflects the argument that tourists are not drawn to the area simply to stay with local communities but because of the attraction base available which would provide the types of experiences that they seek (Gertner & Kotler, 2011). Lastly, it is important to ensure that destination is sustainable to promise viable tourism business.

Zhao and Ritchie (2007) argue that there are determinants which may lead to socio-economic development of a local community. The first determinant is the need to create economic opportunities which local communities must have access to and can take advantage of to change their life. The second is empowerment of local communities. This means strengthening the community's ability to act for themselves and to have voice in the local decision-making process. It also aims to enhance their capacity to influence their interests and engage, pursue and benefit from any economic opportunity. In particular, empowerment involves getting rid of the barriers that work against the local communities; and build the community's capacity to engage effectively in markets. Zhao and Ritchie (2007) further argue that, since the poor have limited financial capacity and therefore limited capacity to tackle various risks such as ill health, economic shocks and natural disasters; creating opportunities and empowerment is not enough. In this case, the third component – security – is fundamental to make the two determinants, opportunity and empowerment, accomplish the desired objective of poverty alleviation. In simple terms, a social security system is needed to enable empowered local communities to alleviate poverty through tourism while protecting them against risks mentioned above.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study has demonstrated that tourist hotels and lodges have the potential to assist in socio-economic developments of adjacent areas and beyond through initiating socio-economic

development projects, employment, and support for local farmers through purchase of their produce for use in hotels. Despite these positive achievements, there are a number of barriers that limit the ability of local communities or other stakeholders to capture tourism created opportunities. Some of the barriers include lack of local communities' empowerment in accessing capital assets and quality education and inadequate linkage between the hotel sector and other sectors such as agriculture, which enables farmers to easily sell their farm products.

Recommendations

- Financial support: Tourist accommodation ventures have to establish a system on providing soft loans to locals in order to support more community initiated projects that can meet the demand of hotels and camps at the area, both in terms of quality and quantities. Moreover, training on storage of farm products in order to add values to their food stuffs and other products is also essential. This will increase the extent to which the local communities gain benefits out of these ventures surroundings their area.
- More emphasis should also be given to direct benefits: Tourist accommodation ventures need to re-look on how to improve the direct benefits to the community rather than concentrating on indirect benefit. This will increase contribution in alleviating poverty among local communities.
- Integration of stakeholders: it is important to integrate all the key stakeholders who can contribute to insure that local communities benefit from tourist accommodations ventures. They need to relook into policy and planning implication in supporting local community welfares of an area. The stakeholder may include tour operators, national parks authority, government, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and local communities. This may also indirectly increase conservation benefits.

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