



**Master
Thesis**

***Development of a Pro-Poor Tourism
Industry in Mwanza, Tanzania***

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SNV

Connecting People's Capacities

Prologue

In an increasingly globalised world, the lives of people who live half the world's distance away from each other become intertwined more and more. Tourism is one of the contributors to globalism and through the years it has proved to bring benefits to the local community but can also do a lot of harm. Pro-poor tourism is a strategy or tool to turn any kind of tourism, whether small-scale or mass-tourism, into an industry that generates income and other benefits for the local community and even the poor.

Critics have argued that pro-poor tourism does not attend the need for structural change. It does not encourage processes that will change the status quo of the present capitalist world (Harrison 2008). Just as other advocates of pro-poor tourism, I believe that old forms of tourism did not consider the needs and rights of the local community enough. Without contesting the idea that structural change is needed in the long term, advocates of pro-poor tourism argue that already change can be achieved by the introduction of certain standards and aims in tourism right now. Pro-poor tourism delivers the needed tools that could mean a change of thousand of lives in the short term.

During this study I have been focussing on the question how a pro-poor tourism industry could be created in one of the largest cities in Tanzania; Mwanza. Mwanza lies only a couple of hours away from one of the largest attractions of Africa: Serengeti National Park. However, the large flow of tourists that enter Tanzania every year, do not come near the borders of Mwanza region as they all tend to follow the crowd and stick to the beaten path of the Northern Circuit. Therefore Mwanza misses out on possible income generated by the tourism industry. SNV Netherlands Development Organization gave me the assignment to make an inventory of the existing and potential attractions and tourism routes in and around Mwanza City. With the right management and the right interventions, Mwanza might become a blooming tourist destination in which the local people, including the poor, come first.

Many people have helped me during my research and the writing of this thesis, both in Tanzania and the Netherlands. I'd like to start with my supervisor of Utrecht University, dr. Henk Huisman, who I'd like to thank for his guidance through the whole process of writing a research proposal, doing the actual research and writing the thesis. My supervisor in Tanzania, Rinus van Klinken (portfolio coordinator SNV) and Sophie Boshouwers (young professional SNV) have helped me in Mwanza and have guided my research in the right direction. I'd also like to thank Ambokile, the SNV driver, who had to bring us to and pick us up from so many places time and time again. Furthermore, I am grateful for the rest of the SNV team in Mwanza for always showing interest in the work and whereabouts of

Alban Jagueneau and Jes Halim Nauckhoff have been pleasant co-workers during the entire process and I really appreciated the work we've done together and all the discussions we had on what strategy to follow.

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Ally was always willing to help me with my research and answer all my questions even though he sometimes had his doubts about what it would bring to the table for him. With a nice cup of Tanzanian porridge we tried to find all the ins and outs of the tourism industry or other subjects like school systems and politics.

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Asanteni sana!

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Abstract

Mwanza Region in northern Tanzania is one of the poorest regions of the country. The economy of this region is mainly dependent on two industries: fishing and mining. Since both of these industries are confined in nature and won't last forever, the city's economy is in need of an additional industry that will provide the inhabitants of Mwanza with enough job opportunities for the city to sustain itself and hopefully develop further. Since Tanzania's main export product is tourism and Mwanza lies only two hours away from the most visited safari attraction of the country: Serengeti National Park, tourism would be a good option. If managed in the right way, tourism could even create opportunities for the poorest of the poor, such as the street children and lepers in Mwanza. Up till now Mwanza has been missing out on the benefits of the thousands of tourists coming to Tanzania every year. So far Mwanza has not been able to compete with booming tourist destinations like Arusha and Zanzibar but within the city and its surroundings lay great opportunities for Mwanza to become one of the top tourist destinations in Tanzania.

However, tourism does not only bring benefits to the local people. It can also do a lot of harm to the community, its culture and the environment. Examples from other countries and cities show us that revenues from tourism attractions often leak back to developed countries and only a very small percentage stays in the hosting country. There are examples to be found of tourism leading to cultural and economical deprivation. Therefore, it is important that the development of the tourism industry of Mwanza is guided in the right direction, in a way that makes sure the local people, including the poor, benefit first.

During this study research has been conducted regarding the opportunities and obstacles that can be found in Mwanza City and its direct surroundings in respect of pro-poor tourism. The main research question has been:

Which steps have to be taken to create a pro-poor tourism industry in Mwanza City and Mwanza Region?

For the larger part the research has been an exploratory study so necessarily qualitative in nature. In depth interviews and observations have been used in order to get an image of the existing situation in Mwanza and the main opportunities and obstacles the tourism industry is facing. A number of case studies provide an insight in the lives of stakeholders of tourism in Mwanza. For the quantitative part short questionnaires have been used in order to find out the capacity of the attractions and facilities and the demand of the tourists.

It has been found that the tourism industry in Mwanza, though still in its infancy, already holds the basis for a variety of attractions that could be developed into pro-poor tourist attractions. Moreover, there are a significant number of stakeholders present in Mwanza who are eager to change the situation. In this study a intervention-oriented roadmap has been developed that focuses on the creation of networks between stakeholders, improvement of education and training of stakeholders, revision of existing supply chains, innovation and development of new pro-poor attractions and routes, lobbying for governmental change, improvement of the regional infrastructure and building of a tourist friendly and pro-poor reputation.



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List of abbreviations

CBT	Community Based Tourism
CTE	Cultural Tourism Enterprise
(T)CTP	(Tanzania) Cultural Tourism Program
GDP	Gross domestic product
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
INADEV	Institute for African Development
JNIA	Julius Nyerere International Airport
LIC	Low Income Country
MCC	Mwanza City Council
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Events
MID	Ministry of Infrastructure and Development
MIT	Ministry of Industry and Trade
MTA	Mwanza Tourism Association
MITM	Ministry of Industry, Trade and Marketing
MNRT	Ministry of National Resources and Tourism
MSME's	Micro, small and medium enterprises
NBS	National Bureau of Statistics
NGO	Non-governmental organization
SME	Small and medium-scale enterprises
SNV	Stichting Nederlandse Vrijwilligers (Foundation of Netherlands Volunteers)
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism – Eliminating Poverty
TAA	Tanzania Airport Authority
TAZARA	Tanzania-Zambia Railway Authority
TCT	Tanzania Confederation of Tourism
TPSF/CCP	Tanzania Private Sector Foundations competitiveness Cluster Program
TRA	Tanzania Revenue Authority
TRC	Tanzania Railway Cooperation
TShs	Tanzanian Shillings
TTSS	Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey
TTB	Tanzania Tourist Board
UNCDF	United Nations Capital Development Fund
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council

Figure 1: Map of Tanzania



Introduction

Tourism is the world's largest and fastest growing industry and is expected to continue to grow at between 4 percent and 5 percent per annum. Over the past decade, the tourism sector has been increasingly recognized by developing countries as a key sector for growth, economic diversification and poverty alleviation. Since the 1990's it has become a major sector of income for Tanzania as well, mainly due to the beautiful nature and wildlife resources the country can depend upon.

Still though, certain people and certain cities are missing out on the positive effects of the increasing flow of tourists to their regions. Mwanza City, which only lies a two hour drive away from the main tourist attraction of Tanzania, the Serengeti National Park, is one of these cities. Very few tourists are entering Serengeti National Park through the western corridor (most come through Arusha), and almost none travel through Mwanza (SNV 2010). In comparison: The total number of tourist arrivals in Tanzania in 2008 was 750,000 (World Bank 2010); Arusha, the safari capital of Tanzania (TTB 2010), receives some 300,000 tourists every year (REDET 2007), whereas estimates are that Mwanza only receives approximately 3,000 tourists per year (SNV 2010). A healthy tourism industry would bring benefits to the whole region in the form of direct and indirect income generation, tax or levy on tourism income, voluntary giving and support by tourism enterprises and tourists and investment in infrastructure and comparable sectors that also bring benefits to the local community.

To boost the tourism industry, a Mwanza Tourism Task Force was initiated by SNV. Recently it has been formally established as the Mwanza Tourism Association (MTA). Two of the priority initiatives (which can all be found in appendix 1) are; 'conduct a baseline study of Mwanza's tourism industry' and 'develop a Mwanza Tourism Strategic Plan'. This plan would focus on how the existing tourism industry in Mwanza could be improved and new tourism developments planned so as to maximise their contribution to local sustainable economic development and poverty elimination. SNV has assigned three interns to conduct the baseline study and help the MTA write the strategic plan. The initial task was to carry out an in-depth study of the existing tourism routes and attractions in Mwanza, as well as researching the ideas and perceptions of different stakeholders on existing routes and attractions and the development of new routes and attractions in Mwanza. The central question of this study has been as follows:

Which steps have to be taken to create a pro-poor tourism industry in Mwanza City and Mwanza Region?

Mwanza is a promising and lively city that has not been discovered yet by mass tourism but holds the potential of becoming an attractive hub within Northern Tanzania or even the whole of East Africa. It turns out Mwanza is not inferior to Arusha or any other city in Tanzania when it comes to beauty or tourist activities.

In chapter 1 the outline of the thematic-theoretical framework (the literature review) will be given in order to place the study in the current debate about tourism in developing countries. Through this chapter the international context will also become clear since a lot of the literature uses examples from all over the world. In the first sections of chapter 2, the study will scale down one level to the national context: the current situation in Tanzania will be summarized, as well as the path tourism has followed through the years. In the next sections of chapter 2 the regional level, Northern Tanzania, will be highlighted and in the last

sections of chapter 2 the focus will be narrowed down to the local level: Mwanza Region and Mwanza City. Also the context of SNV will be explained. Subsequently, in chapter 3 the methods used during the fieldwork will be elucidated as well as the conceptual model and any additional information on the practicalities of this study. Chapter 4 through 6 are focussed on the results of the research, each concerning one or more of the research questions that can be found in chapter 3. Chapter 4 will focus on the existing attractions in Mwanza. Chapter 5 will focus on the different stakeholders concerned with the Mwanza Tourism Industry and chapter 6 will focus on the obstacles and opportunities that lie on the base of a pro-poor tourism industry in the Mwanza region. And finally a conclusion of the study as a whole shall be given in chapter 7.

Note: Whenever 'Mwanza' is mentioned within this thesis, both Mwanza City and the rest of Mwanza Region are meant. The specifications of 'Mwanza City' and 'Mwanza Region' will be used whenever needed.

Chapter 1 Views on tourism and development

1.1 Introduction

Though tourism is still mainly concentrated in industrialised countries (with France, the US and China in the top three) more and more tourists decide to travel to developing countries. The tourism industry has come to be considered by many as an opportunity for growth in these countries through the creation of jobs and enterprises, infrastructure development and the export revenues earned.

The role of tourism as a development tool was first noted in the 1970's. Though its importance in debates faded during the decades thereafter, it resurfaced at the end of the 1990's with the emergence of pro-poor tourism (Harrison 2008), an approach of tourism which is meant to increase the positive impacts of tourism on poor people (www.propoortourism.org.uk). At the turn of the century, several international organizations launched initiatives that were meant to eliminate poverty through tourism. The World Bank financed infrastructural projects and provided credit for foreign investment (Harrison 2008), the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) launched the ST-EP initiative (UNWTO 2011), the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) along with the Earth Council and the UNWTO wrote the 'Agenda 21' for the travel and tourism industry. The IMF and the World Bank promote tourism as one feature of private sector development which could be used by governments in their Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP's). The adoption in 2000 of the Millennium Development Goals, and particularly the first goal - '*Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger*' - further reinforced the programmes of several multilateral and bilateral institutions in promoting tourism as a way of alleviating poverty.

However, already in the 1970's academics had started to point out that besides the positive contribution of tourism to employment, economic growth, entrepreneurship and inter-sectoral linkages, it was also noted that it could exacerbate inequalities at international and local levels (Kadt 1979).

This chapter will give an overview of the theoretical contributions to the debate on how to use tourism as a development tool. In the first section an overview of facts and figures will be demonstrated in order to sketch a full picture of contemporary tourism. The universal status quo will be pointed out, as well as the status of tourism industries in developing countries. Also, the main types of tourism will be listed, along with the types of people that often choose these kinds of tourism as well as their impacts on society. In section 1.3 the ongoing debate on tourism will be summarized. Main authors whose theories will be compared to one another are Ashley, Goodwin, Harrison, De Kadt and MacCannell. Arguments in favour of as well as arguments against pro-poor tourism will be shown and tourism will be viewed from the perspectives of multiple disciplines. In section 1.4 the various impacts that tourism has on economic growth, the environment, culture and society will be pointed out. Finally in section 1.5 the emergence of pro-poor tourism and its consequences will be elaborated upon.

1.2 Facts and figures

Throughout the years international organizations like the UNWTO and The World Bank have gathered information on tourism. It is therefore interesting to have a look at the status quo and see where the majority of these tourists decided to travel to, what their expenses were and what kind of activities they've been doing. In section 1.2.4 an overview will be given of the types of tourists that are distinguished and what their characteristics are.

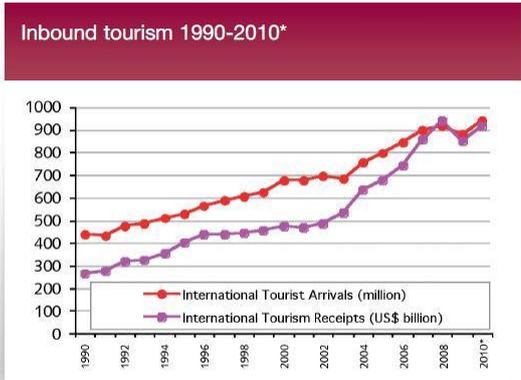
1.2.1 Tourism worldwide

Since the 1950's international tourist arrivals have increased with 3760 percent. In 1950 international tourist arrivals were estimated at a mere 25 million. In the mid 1970s the growth of tourism slowed down due to the oil crisis and the recession, but other than that international tourist arrivals have shown virtually uninterrupted growth. In 2010 the amount of international tourist arrivals had grown to 940 million (UNWTO 2011). These figures make tourism one of the world's fastest growing industries.

Table 1.1 : Numbers of tourism 2010 worldwide	
International tourist arrivals	940 million
International tourist receipts	US\$ 919 billion (€693 billion)
Contribution to GDP	5 percent
Contribution to employment	6-7 percent

Based upon UNWTO 2010

Together, the 940 million tourists in 2010 accounted for some 919 billion dollars in tourist receipts, which meant a contribution to the worldwide Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of an estimated 5 percent. In figure 1b the trend in inbound tourism from 1990 to 2010 can be seen. Europe is currently still the world's largest source market, generating just over half of international arrivals worldwide. The large majority of international travel takes place within the traveller's own region, with about four out of five worldwide arrivals originating from the same region. Accordingly, Europe is also the main destination for tourists, with a market share of 50,7 percent, or 476.6 million tourists. Europe as the biggest source market is followed by Asia and the Pacific with 21 percent of international arrivals, the Americas (16 percent), the Middle East (4 percent) and Africa (3 percent). Europe as the biggest tourist destination, is followed by Asia and the Pacific (21,7 percent), North and South America (15,9 percent), the Middle East (6,4 percent) and Africa (5,2 percent) (Figure 1c, see also appendix 2).



Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ©

Figure 1b

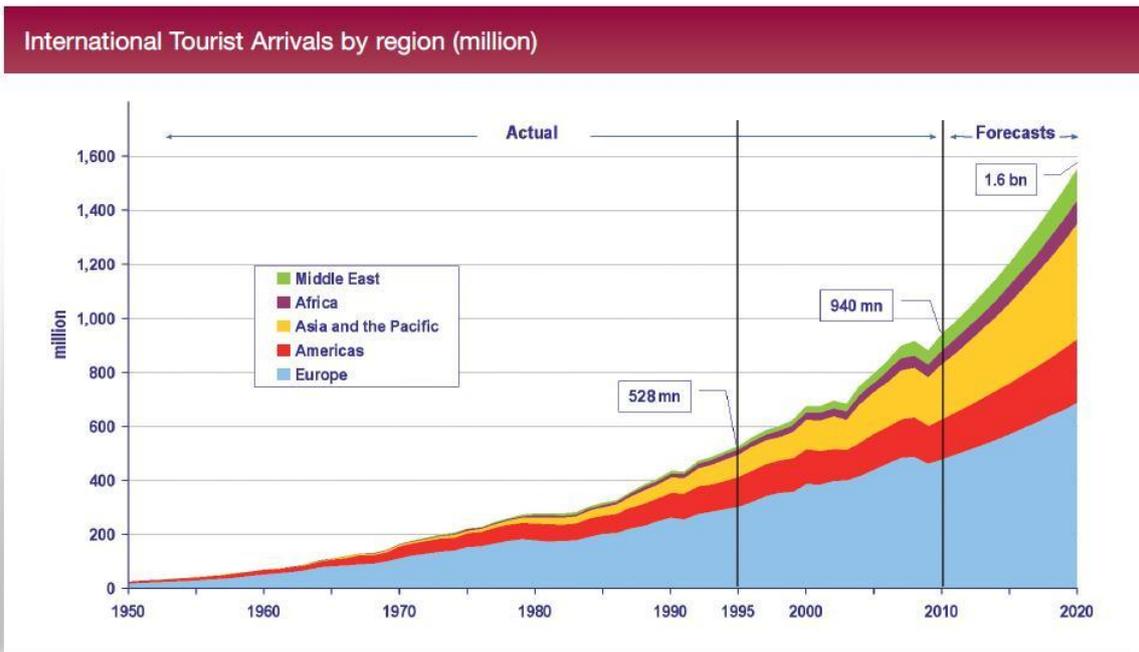


Figure 1c

1.2.2 Tourism in developing countries

Though most tourism still takes place within the industrialized world (France remains the top holiday destination in 2011 (UNWTO 2011)) more and more mostly adventurous tourists have begun to take interest in more 'exotic' Third World destinations (Brown & Hall 2008). The majority of all developing countries are situated in climates which attract 'sun-lust' tourists wanting to escape the northern hemisphere winter (Wearing & Neil 2009, p. xii). This growth can also be seen in figure 1c. In 2010 developing countries received 47,3 percent of the worldwide international tourist arrivals, compared with 30,5 percent in 1997 and 24 percent in 1988 (Appendix 2). Africa was the only region in the world with positive growth figures in tourism during 2009, the year in which economies worldwide were hit hardest by the global economic crisis (WTO 2011). The continent maintained growth (7 percent) during 2010 which was caused mainly by the benefits gained from the FIFA World Football Cup. Accordingly, growth was mainly attributed to South Africa, which accounted for over a quarter of total arrivals in Sub-Saharan Africa: arrivals went up 15 percent in 2010 (See also appendix 3 for a list of major destinations in Africa and the corresponding figures). Other destinations in Sub-Saharan Africa that performed above average in 2010 were Madagascar (+21 percent), Cape Verde (+17 percent), Tanzania and Seychelles (both +11 percent) (UNWTO 2011). Overall, the top destinations in Africa are Morocco (18,8 percent), South Africa (16,4 percent) and Tunisia (14,0 percent). In figure 1d the amount of international tourist arrivals in Africa is shown from 1980 up till 2006.

Though tourism is for a big part driven by large international companies, it has several advantages for the local communities, noted amongst others by Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin (2000). First, besides the money tourists spend on their travel agencies, money is also spent on additional goods and services, like food and beverages, souvenirs, guiding services etcetera. Secondly, tourism can generate a diversified local economy in marginal areas with few other export and diversification options. Remote areas are often of particular interest to tourists since they are pristine and untouched by the mass tourism. And thirdly,

tourism generates employment among women, and lends value to the only assets the poor often have, namely natural resources and culture. Indirectly, tourism can generate income for many different actors as it is not a single economic activity but cuts across different activities, namely: agriculture, trade, hotels and restaurants; transport and communication; financial and business services; public administration and other services. However, it is difficult to quantify tourism as a single activity and measure its share in GDP in the existing system of national accounts (NBS 2011). More on the impacts of tourism on local communities will be explained in section 1.4.

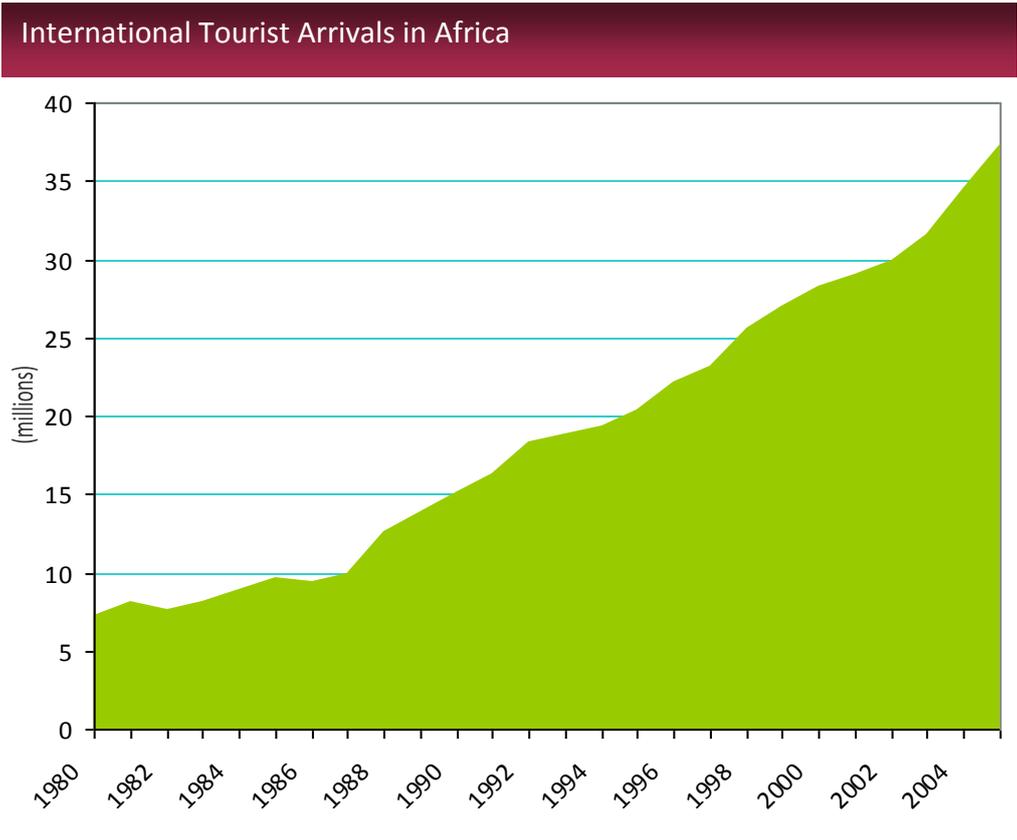


Figure 1d Based upon: UNWTO 2006

It has been stated that tourism is a ‘slippery’ form of capitalism (Markusen 1996; Gibson 2009). Gibson explains that tourism can be divided in two large sectors: the formal and informal sector. Within the formal sector rather large conglomerates like airlines, hotel chains and internet companies make up the rules. However, the tourist industry does allow for others to enter the tourism market and ‘space continually emerges for small operators, itinerant stallholders, artisans, sex-workers, drug dealers and musicians to seek livelihoods’ (Gibson 2009, p. 528). The latter groups together form the informal sector of the tourism industry. The informal sector is characterized by generally independently working individuals with a high level of competition and few partnerships. Because of the immense fragmentation within the informal sector, it is rather difficult for the government or NGOs to get a grip on the sector, hence the term ‘slippery capitalism’.

1.2.3 Tourism through time

Mankind has travelled from the very earliest times. The desire to explore new places and search for a change of environment and experiences is not new. The Romans and ancient

Greeks travelled for Olympic Games and education, and medieval Europeans went on pilgrimages to enrich their faith or spirituality. In the seventeenth century, members from the upper classes engaged in what is now called 'polite visiting' (Page & Connel 2006): travelling through the country on day trips or weekends, visiting the country estates of associates and society figures. During the late eighteenth century respected authors stimulated travel to unknown and remote places by publishing travel stories and novels. During this time another form of tourism emerged, based on the education for young aristocrats: The Grand Tour. *'Tourists visited Classical antiquities principal works of art and architecture, picturesque landscapes, gardens and natural curiosities, as well as mixing with fashionable society on their travels'* (ibid, p. 28). The Grand Tour could last from a couple of months up to three years. Those who couldn't afford to go on a Grand Tour went to seaside resorts and spa towns. Still this wasn't considered travel for pleasure purposes as it was described as health tourism. Travel solely meant for pleasure purposes however, is a relatively new phenomenon (ibid), which became popular in the eighteenth century. Quick development of transportation and communication through the Industrial Revolution in the nineteenth and twentieth century made travelling easier, and no longer solely accessible for the more wealthy members of society. Tourism in its current form, grand scale and *en masse*, erupted in the 1960's. It arose from a snowball effect which started after World War II. In the post-war period the revenue and development potential of tourism were recognized and put to use in the post-World War II economic expansion (Murphey 1985). In the 1970's overseas holidays became more fashionable (Page & Connel 2006) and packaged trips flourished.

However, around the same time academics started to point out that besides the positive contribution of tourism to employment, economic growth, entrepreneurship and inter-sectoral linkages, tourism could exacerbate inequalities at international and local levels (Kadt 1979), and bring damage to both the natural environment of popular tourist destinations as well to the cultures of the local people inhabiting these tourist destinations. In reaction to these warning messages, a variety of 'new' or 'alternative' forms of tourism emerged; ecotourism, sustainable tourism, community based tourism, green tourism, no- or low-impact tourism, responsible tourism, fair trade and ethical tourism. There is often little to distinguish all these types from one another, but the most important similarity of these new forms of tourism is that they all claim to be more responsible in respect to the environment and cultures of tourist destinations. In table 1.2 the shifts in the basic characteristics of tourism are summarized.

Even though these new forms of tourism claim responsibility in theory, each and any one of them also has its opponents and critics that try (and often succeed) to prove that in practice these new forms are hardly responsible or not responsible at all (Leader-Williams 2002; Blackstock 2005; Krüger 2005; Ferraro & Hanauer 2010). Most of these studies however, don't reject the idea of responsible tourism and come up with ideas on how to improve tourist practices in order to make sure claims of responsibility are actually put to practice.

According to UNWTO predictions, tourism will only continue to grow, and developing countries will become more and more attractive, not only for international tourists, but also for domestic tourists. There are more than a few examples of countries and regions that are awaiting a big boom of tourism in the nearby future, spending thousands of dollars on building new accommodation and other facilities. Countries are creating accommodation for

foreigners who will not come at one hundred times the cost of housing citizens who need accommodation immediately (Richter 1992).

Table 1.2: Shifts in contemporary tourism

Old	New
Mass	Individual
Packaged	Unpackaged/flexible
S's (Sun, sea, sand, sex)	T's (Travelling, trekking, trucking)
Unreal	Real
Irresponsible (socially, culturally, environmentally)	Responsible

Source: Mowforth & Munt 2003, p. 26

1.2.4 Types of tourism

Tourists do not form one homogenous group, nor can tourists be categorized in strictly defined groups. It is a very heterogeneous group of people with a variety of characteristics as to income-group, life style, educational background and interests. The trips they make vary in duration, the number of countries visited, the mode of organization, the type of facilities and the motivation for the trip. The typology of tourists described in the section below is therefore neither clear-cut, nor exhaustive; groups are overlapping and more groups might be identified. The following types can be used in a main classification of tourists:

Resort tourism/package tourism

Package tours are seen by many as the most conventional type of tourism. Since the 1960's package tours have been a significant factor in the expansion of international tourism (Pearce 1987). Package tourists are people who want to have a break from the everyday routine and who go on holidays that consist of a package, including transport, accommodation, and often associated activities.

The big advantage of package tours is that because tour operators can book accommodations, flights and activities *en masse*, the tour overall becomes relatively cheap. Consequently tourists are dependent on tour operators who arrange (the larger part of) their journey, and often enjoy the luxury of inclusive tours;

tours that consist of a round trip or circle tour performed in whole or in part by air, organized by a tour organizer and offered to the public at a comprehensive published price including, besides air transport, accommodation for the duration of the trip, surface transport and, where appropriate, other amenities. An inclusive tour is normally paid for before departure, is for a pre-determined period, and is to an announced destination or destinations.

(ECAC quoted in Pearce 1987, p. 185)

Typically for this type of tourism encounters with the local people are incidental to the visit. Tourists are transported directly from the international airport to hotels and resort enclaves, which makes it near to impossible for local salesmen and entrepreneurs to sell their products and services to these kinds of tourists. The larger part of the money paid by the tourist never reaches the host destination (Honey, 2008).

Backpack Travelling

Backpack travelling or backpacking is a form of tourism that is getting more and more popular. It is a form of travelling by which the traveller leaves making plans and reservations to a minimum and makes up the path as he or she goes. Several studies of backpackers have added to a list of characteristics that apply to most backpacking travellers: most are younger than thirty, travel on a budget and therefore often choose low-cost travel options like youth

Box 1: The influence of the 'Backpackers Bible'



'The growing demand for backpacker travel has stimulated a dense infrastructure of services dedicated to meet their needs, from backpacker hostels to companies organizing bus trips, and the 'backpacker's bible': the Lonely Planet guide books' (Richards & Wilson

2004, p. 3). The Lonely Planet has published a series of country guides, multi-country guides, city guides, phrasebooks and so on, specially designed for backpackers. Guidebooks, and especially the Lonely Planet because of its immense success, play an influential role in emerging tourist markets. Some even states that, because of its quasi-monopolist role, the Lonely Planet can determine whether hotels close, good places go bad and bad places go bankrupt (Welk 2008).

Tegelberg (2010) goes even further in his accusations of the guidebook. Guidebooks always hold a certain discourse. Though the Lonely Planet claims to stand for responsible and sustainable tourism, Tegelberg has his doubts about the actual agenda of the guidebook. He has used the Lonely Planet Cambodia as an example of how the Lonely Planet silences local perspectives. He states that these guidebooks are primarily concerned with producing an image of the destination countries that appeal to the Western traveller (493). Though backpackers consider themselves to be independent travelers, academics consider it obvious that the Lonely Planet is in control of the choices they make (Welk 2008, p. 86). He concludes that without the book, many would not even have the courage to go travelling in the first place (90). In order to be the independent pioneers they claim to be, and actually discover new places 'where no tourist has gone before', backpackers might have to look beyond the pages of their Lonely Planets.



Source: www.LonelyPlanet.com

or 'backpacker hostels', budget flights and public transport within the destination country (Slaughter 2004; Chang 2009). Richards and Wilson (2004) have pointed out that backpackers also prefer longer rather than brief holidays and social contact with fellow travellers. They are *'independent travellers who autonomously pursue travel experiences and often experience and, in fact expect: lower safety during a trip, greater demand on the traveller's language capability, and higher flexibility in the arrangement of travel plans and itineraries'* (Chang 2009, p. 713).

The interconnection between tourist and the local community is significantly stronger than is the case with package tourism. As opposed to most resort tourists, backpackers do have an impact on the local economy because they often use public transport and buy food and souvenirs from local salesmen. Because of their low budgets however, the economic impact backpackers have on a growing industry is relatively low.

With the pioneer function of backpacking rises another problem. Backpackers often see themselves as anti-tourists; travellers who go off the beaten track do not follow the crowd and therefore do not bring as much destruction as mass tourism often does (Welk 2004). Welk adds *'backpackers are explorers, though not the ones they intend to be: As soon as they leave the beaten track to "explore" new, yet "undiscovered" places, they pave a new one for mainstream tourism. Involuntarily, they seek out locations for prospective tourist centres and serve as "scouts" for the tourism industry'* (Welk 2004, p. 87). Even though the interconnection between the visitor or tourist and the local community is stronger, in regard to using tourism as a development tool, backpacking might not be the ultimate solution.

Voluntourism

Wearing (2001) gives a clear explanation of volunteer tourism or voluntourism:

The generic term "volunteer tourism" applies to those tourists who for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment.
(Wearing 2001, p. 1)

Thus voluntourism can consist of various activities such as scientific research, conservation projects, economic and social development, education, construction and medical assistance. In table 1.3 an overview is given of 2,466 voluntourism projects and the category in which they fall.

Table 1.3: Voluntourism: Project groups and the amount of cases

Group	Total of cases
Community Welfare	805
Teaching	572
Environmental	502
Medical	236
Cultural	131
Business Development	91
Building	54
Research	47
Other	28

Source: Tomazos & Butler 2009, 337

Volunteers often pay more in comparison to what they would have paid for a conventional holiday, even to the same destination (Wearing 2001). The extra payment should be used as a contribution to the project the volunteer will be working on. Voluntourism is considered to make a contribution of any kind to the destination country, as well as have a significant impact on the individual choosing for this type of holiday and his/her lifestyle. Just as with backpacking, most travellers choosing voluntourism are young. The larger part of volunteers is between eighteen and twenty-five years of age (Ibid.). After graduation from high school or university and in between jobs are periods often used for voluntary work.

On first sight, voluntourism seems to be a win-win situation. The volunteer gets to go on a holiday to a destination of his or her choosing and with the money he/she has paid projects can be funded that bring benefits to the local community. However, according to Tomazos and Butler (2009), the nature of voluntourism has significantly changed over the last few years due to the growth of interest in this type of tourism and the large scale

expansion of opportunities. Tomazos and Butler asked the question whether the locations picked for voluntourism were in any need of such assistance as measured by the Human Development Score used by the United Nations. Within the countries with the greatest need, only 147 voluntourism projects were found, whereas in countries with the least need, over 900 projects were located (p. 336). Therefore the growth of voluntourism seems to have more to do with the interest of western volunteers to be involved in such a project, than with the need for help in the destination countries.

Second Home Tourism

Another integral part of contemporary tourism is formed by second homes, an umbrella term for recreational homes, vacation homes, summer homes, cottages and weekend homes (Hall & Müller 2004). Marsden (1969) defined second homes as immobile and unserviced supplementary accommodation, visited at weekends or holidays by the family or guests and/or let to outsiders during a certain period of the year. The phenomenon of second home tourism grew, as did many other forms of tourism, with the arrival of greater economic prosperity in most industrialised countries.

Second homes are often major contributors to regional economies (Hall & Müller 2004). According to Visser (2004) second homes make positive contributions to amongst others building conservation, a range of forward and/or backward economic linkages such as service fees and a significant number of employment opportunities. However, second homes also hold significant implications for the destination communities such as distortion of land, house and other prices in local markets. *'In some areas, second homes are seen as putting further pressure on existing housing stock and forcing up prices, thus making it harder for permanent residents to obtain housing* (Hall & Müller 2004, p. 3). Visser (2004) also notes the escalation of property prices beyond the reach of local residents.

Domestic tourism

Second home tourism is closely related to- and often overlapping with domestic tourism: nationals travelling outside the normal place of residence to other areas within the country (Burkart & Medlik quoted in Sindiga, 1996). In historical perspective, domestic tourism is in fact the first form of tourism ever practised (Pierret 2011). In the last decade domestic tourism has shown a spectacular growth, especially in non-Western countries (Skanavis & Sakellari 2011). Today it continues to account for the larger part of the total amount of

tourist arrivals. It is estimated that out of the 4.8 billion tourist arrivals per year, 4 billion, or 83 percent, correspond to domestic tourism (Pierret 2011).

The most important advantage of domestic tourism is its ability to provide a base load to counter the seasonality of international tourism arrivals (Skanavis & Sakellari 2011). Domestic tourists are said to be more resilient to shocks in tourism like seasonality, crime, or security incidents (Richter 1992). More on this topic will be shared in section 1.2.6. In Kenya and other developing countries, domestic tourism is being encouraged by offering locals reduced accommodation rates (Sindiga 1996). The effect is however that because of the reduced prices for accommodation and activities, the lower purchasing power and lower expenditure overall, domestic tourists don't contribute to the economy as much as international tourists do.

Visiting friends and relatives (VFR)

Travelling for the main purpose of visiting a friend or relative in another country or region has become a phenomenon on its own, with many studies dedicated to the subject focussing on consumer activities and expenditures. The VFR definition given by Backer (2007) is: '*VFR travel is a form of travel involving a visit whereby either (or both) the purpose of the trip or the type of accommodation involves visiting friends and / or relatives*' (p. 369). Seaton and Palmer (1997) characterize VFR tourists in the UK as being young, single or married/single with children under 15, and belonging to the higher classes in society. They state that these characteristics might be representative for VFR tourists of other nations as well.

The importance of VFR tourists has long been underestimated. Scholars thought that because visitors make less use of tourist facilities - they often stay as guests in private dwellings instead of hotels or other tourist accommodations - and because they are assumed to have a low level of spending, their economic value is not as high as that of other forms of tourism (Seaton & Palmer 1997). Neither can they be controlled or stimulated as other tourists can be. However, VFR Tourism has turned out to form a quite large part of international arrivals, ranging from 19 percent to 30 percent. Boyne, Carswell & Hall (2002, p. 253) have made an overview of the sustainable characteristics of VFR Tourism:

- VFR Tourism is small scale;
- It is not seasonally structured to the same extent as 'normal' holiday tourism;
- There are no extraordinary infrastructural demands;
- There are limited direct employment impacts from a reduction in VFR tourism;
- VFR tourism is, and must be, locally participatory.

The low expenditures that visitors make might be compensated by hidden patterns of expenditure *by hosts* in VFR tourism (Seaton & Palmer 1997). Seaton and Palmer add that '*it also has practical implications for destination marketers since it suggests that, in large cities and smaller towns without prime tourism attractions or scenic advantages, destination agencies might be better advised to prioritise the VFR market rather than flogging dead horses in trying to create significant recreational markets*' (p. 354). And since VFR destinations vary significantly from recreational destinations (ibid.), these towns and cities might find it useful to prioritise the VFR market.

1.2.5 Alternative forms of tourism

Since the mid 1980's ecotourism and community tourism have began to gain attention among decision makers, advocates and practitioners. Though pro-poor tourism has similar characteristics of both ecotourism and community-based tourism, it is not synonymous with

either of these two. Both ecotourism and CBT are niche types of tourism (Harrison 2008). Ecotourism focuses on the need to ensure that tourism does not erode the environmental base on which it depends, while community-based tourism tries to respect the cultures which people fear will fade (Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin 2000). Pro-poor tourism on the other hand is not a niche type of tourism and doesn't need to be associated only with small-scale tourism. Even mass tourism can potentially be considered as a form of pro-poor tourism (Harrison 2008). However, both CBT and ecotourism can be used in combination with pro-poor principles. Instead of being alternatives, they can be complementary.

Community Based Tourism

Community Based Tourism (CBT) is based on the involvement of the local community in planning, enabling and implementing tourist activities. It is supposed to make sure control stays in the hands of the local community and revenue is divided equally among all involved. CBT is meant to establish personal intercommunication and understanding between the local community and tourists. López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares & Pavón (2011) see an important contribution of CBT too: *'tourism linked to a community's inherent cultural and natural resources is one of the recurrent factors in fostering the development of such communities'* (p. 70). In other words, if tourists are attracted to a certain area because of its interesting culture and environment, the local community can benefit. The authors explain that a certain area's own cultural and environmental resources can be used to create services, goods and activities for tourists, implying an additional source of income for the locals involved (including women, disabled and young people) and an attraction for international tourists. According to the authors it should always be a complementary activity and never a substitution for primary sector activities like agriculture, fishing, and livestock farming. The fact that the authentic culture becomes an attraction on itself, might help to preserve this particular culture with all its characteristics and traditions. A huge advantage of CBT over other forms of tourism is that the actual area of attraction does not need to be built or adjusted to a great extent. The attraction is already present in the form of the local community itself, its houses, its objects, etcetera. In the article of López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares & Pavón a case-study is presented carried out in the so-called *Flowers Route* in El Salvador. The main outcome of this study is that the local community thinks very positive of this type of tourism, because it is perceived as a way of generating economic benefits and, at the same time, creating new jobs, even though they assume that private companies benefit even more.

Blackstock (2005) has summarized the main failings of the community development perspective:

Firstly, CBT accounts lack the transformative intent of community development, as CBT is presented as a way of ensuring the long-term survival of a profitable tourism industry rather than empowering local residents. Secondly, local communities are presented as homogeneous blocks, devoid of internal power struggles or competing values. Thirdly, CBT accounts ignore the external constraints to local control. (Blackstock 2005, p. 40)

Her overall conclusion is that the current conceptualization of CBT is naïve and unrealistic. However, she does not reject the starting point of CBT as mentioned above. Her points of

criticism are nonetheless important to keep in mind while pursuing a sustainable tourism industry with the help of CBT.

Ecotourism

Around the same time as CBT was established, another alternative form of tourism was brought to life, which was meant to have a more sustainable approach towards the environment: Ecotourism. Wearing and Neil (2009) explain ecotourism as follows: *'Ecotourism is a type of specialty travel, incorporating a diverse (and often bewildering) array of activities and tourism types, from bird watching, scientific study, photography, diving, trekking, to regeneration of damaged ecosystems'* (p. xii). And: *'As there is no strict consensus on a specific definition of ecotourism it had been suggested that it also is responsible travel that conserves natural environments and sustains the well-being of local people'* (Wearing & Neil 2009, p. 232).

An important disadvantage of ecotourism is that areas only attract tourists if there are spectacular or readily visible natural features around (Wells 1991) and therefore only a minority of protected areas in developing countries has the potential for large revenues through ecotourism. One major component attracting ecotourists is a flagship species (Leader-Williams 2002). Flagships usually comprise charismatic species such as tigers, elephants and primates, and therefore it is not surprising that ecotourism blossoms on the African plains and Central American jungles (Kruger 2003). Animals that are significantly important for the prevalence of ecosystems but are less charismatic, can hardly be seen as a flagship species.

Ecotourism can also become too successful if not managed right. An example is the eco tourism on the Galapagos Islands. These Ecuadorian islands in the Pacific Ocean form a prime ecotourism destination because of flag species such as the Land Iguana, the Galápagos Giant Tortoise, sea lions and countless endemic birds. However, more and more case studies have shown that ecotourism projects are far from sustainable as a result of tourism that expands too rapidly, without sufficient planning, government and community control (Honey 2008). The study of Krüger (2003) on 188 case studies on ecotourism, pointed out that only 17 percent of these case studies report a positive effect of ecotourism to conservation rather than being sustainable. He concludes that local community participation is paramount for the success of an ecotourism project (p. 596), which makes ecotourism and community-based tourism a favourable combination. Ecotourism can only bring benefits to protected areas and the surrounding local communities if it is small-scale and locally operated or owned (Weaver 1991).

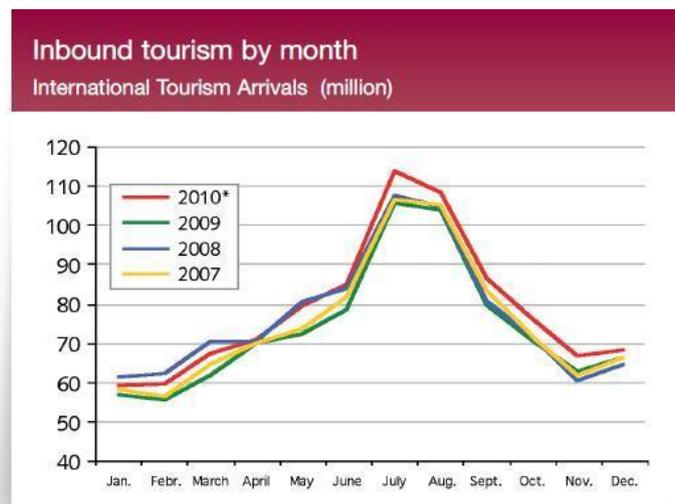
1.2.6 The Vulnerability of Tourism

Tourism is often described as a relatively fragile industry because the motivation of tourists to travel to a certain country is highly dependent on numerous factors and tourists are easily discouraged by for example high crime rates, diseases, economic fluctuations and currency instability, let alone sudden shocks such as wars, outbreaks of deadly contagious diseases, natural disasters and incidents of terrorism. Incidental events can bring down tourist numbers for a certain amount of time. More frequent incidents can eventually lead to a complete collapse of tourism in a certain destination (Pizam and Fleischer 2002). In this section a number of factors shall be described that influence the amount of tourists travelling to a certain destination.

Seasonality

One of the main problems that tourism industries have to cope with is seasonality. Seasonality in tourism can be defined as *“the temporal imbalance in the phenomenon of tourism, which may be expressed in terms of dimensions of such elements as numbers of visitors, expenditure of visitors, traffic on highways and other forms of transportation, employment and admissions to attractions”* (Butler 1994, p. 332). The main causes of seasonality can be categorized in two groups: Natural causes and institutional causes. Natural causes are beyond the control of decision makers and include climatic factors such as temperature, sunlight and rainfall. Institutional causes are a combination of religious, social and cultural factors, partly under the control of decision makers, such as the schedule of school holidays and the planning and scheduling of festivals or cultural events in tourism destinations. The high season or peak-season in tourism is characterised by higher amounts of tourists, and higher prices for accommodation, transportation and activities. The low season or off-season is characterised by lower amount of tourists which causes stakeholders on the supply-side of tourism to downgrade their prices in order to attract as much tourists as possible. In figure 1e, inbound tourism by month is shown for the years 2007 up to 2010. The high season is clearly visible during the months July and August, during which most of the countries of the northern hemisphere enjoy summer holidays. Though for tourists these price-fluctuations might be useful, for the supply-side and especially for small local entrepreneurs, these fluctuations form a huge problem.

Figure 1e



Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ©

Terrorism, political instability and war

Situations that threaten the safety of tourists in or nearby a destination country, such as incidents of terrorism, political instability and war form another category of problems tourism industries can face. A country does not even have to be instable itself. Instability in a certain country can easily affect neighbouring nations and have a negative impact on their tourism industries (Richter 1992, 35). Richter adds: *‘Countries without well-defined images among the travelling public are often even more damaged by well-publicized strife in nearby countries’* (38) and *‘one of the most common problems with political instability is that episodic violence or conflict far removed from tourist areas receive so much media attention that it appears the entire nation is engulfed in violence’* (41). Richter names four types of

political instability that can influence tourism industries, of which instability in a neighbouring region is the first. Secondly, internal turmoil within a country will discourage tourists from coming or staying. Thirdly, tourists may sometimes be deliberately targeted and used as coercion by anti-government forces to get the government agenda on a certain topic. And finally tourism development in itself may be a factor of political instability.

The interrelationship between security incidents on the one hand and the tourism industry, tourists, and the local community on the other, has gained substantial global interest in the aftermath of the September 11, 2001 attacks on US targets by al Qaida (Mansfeld & Pizam 2006). According to numbers of the UNWTO however, the annual amount of international tourist arrivals fell by less than one percent after the terrorist attacks in September 2011.

Another example of a country that has suffered from tourism setbacks is Israel. In Israel, the amount of international tourists fell substantially in 1991, the year of the first Gulf War, and also in the period of 1996-1998, when frequent terrorism incidents happened (Fleischer & Buccola 2006). The authors describe that on the other hand the amount of international tourists rose rapidly when Israel signed peace treaties with Jordan and the Palestinians in 1995. Also, Israeli domestic tourists seem to be less influenced by terrorism threats in their own country. On the contrary, *'Israeli occupancy rates seem to rise somewhat during terror crises'*. According to Fleischer and Buccola (2006) international tourists last an average of two months in reacting to increases in terrorist attacks.

Although the governments of developed nations in the case of political upheaval might be able to exercise damage control and keep tourists out of harm's way, development of a nations' ability to cope is stalling. Moreover, governments in developed nations can recommend their citizens against travelling to a certain destination, outside of the control of the receiving governments. *'When, as a result of a coup d'état in the West African state of The Gambia, the UK Foreign Office advised British tourists to avoid the country (advice that was subsequently taken up by other European tourist-sending countries, The Gambian economy and tourism industry virtually collapsed'* (Mowforth & Munt 2003, p. 14). Other examples are Jamaica, Sri Lanka, Fiji and the Philippines, who have seen their tourism dependant economies being shattered by the negative advice of Foreign Affairs due to violence and coups. Negative travelling advice, which can even be based on irrational fear (Richter 1992), can damage or even destroy a tourism industry for long periods of time.

Natural disasters and diseases.

High risk of tsunami's, earthquakes, tropical cyclones and tornado's, volcanic eruptions, avalanches or outbreaks of deadly and contagious diseases form a threat to tourism industries, especially because of tourism's attachment to high-risk areas with exotic scenery (Murphey & Bayley 1989). *'The search for ever more exciting and spectacular landscapes sometimes makes hazardous zones the sites of tourist activities'* (ibid, p. 46). Whenever a natural disaster happens within a tourist destination, tourists are not expected to return to the area for some time. In the past various natural disasters have resulted in considerable damage and in some cases even in the devastation of whole tourism industries, such as the outbreak of the Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) in 2003, and the tsunami in the Indian Ocean in December 2004 (box 2). The amount of international arrivals in Asia and the Pacific dropped by 12 million (-9 percent) due to the SARS epidemic (Hall & Page 2006). Tourists are often reluctant to return to an area where so many people died and therefore a

natural disaster like the ones mentioned can cause damage to a tourist industry that might last for years.

Box 2: The impact of the 2004 Tsunami on tourism

On 26 December 2004 an earthquake in the Indian Ocean caused a giant tsunami, which destroyed large parts of the coastal regions of Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Kenya, Malaysia, Maldives, Myanmar, Seychelles, Somalia, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Thailand. The tsunami was the most destructive tsunami in modern history in terms of death toll, displacement of people and property loss (Meprasert 2006). This massive natural disaster caused the death of approximately 230 000 individuals. At the beginning of 2005 tens of thousands were missing and more than 1.7 million people were displaced. The affected area of south-eastern Asia is an important holiday destination for tourists from all over the world. During the annual Christmas break in 2004, an unknown number of tourists from dozens of nations spent their holidays there. Many of those who lost their lives were tourists or people working in tourism. Among the deaths were some 7000 tourists. Indirectly the tsunami destroyed many livelihoods, because so many persons depended on tourism for income generation.



The 2004 Indian Ocean Tsunami
Source: <http://www.ecotourismlogue.com/>

Solutions to shocks and seasonality problems

Richter (1992) highlights the impact of domestic tourism as a solution to internal shocks within a country. His example of domestic tourism in Israel underscores this theory. Since domestic tourists are more resilient to all kinds of security incidents and seasonality, they could 'cushion' seasonality or absorb some tourism capacity when international tourist flows are diminishing. The downside of this problem however, is that with a few exceptions, developing countries often lack a domestic base for tourism. Disaster planning (adaptation and mitigation) could form an important solution to shocks in tourism industries after natural disasters.

1.3 The ongoing debate on tourism

1.3.1 Tourism through a multidisciplinary lens

Because of its complex nature, a variety of disciplines is involved in the study of tourism. Basic disciplines like economics, psychology, sociology and geography contribute to the large amount of studies on the subject. But as soon as the immense impacts of tourism became clear disciplines like environmental studies, anthropology and development studies started

adding their theories. Also disciplines such as management and marketing have been of influence. In this section an overview will be given of the two disciplines that with the discipline of development studies were most important to this study: geography and anthropology. In section 1.3.2 the dominant views on tourism and development will be given, mostly as seen from the perspective of development studies, which forms the base for this study.

Geography

The main contributions of geographers to the study of tourism have been spatial analysis of where tourism develops and why. During the 1930's geographers started researching and writing about tourism, but only in the 1960's important reviews of the geography of tourism started to gain influence (Hall & Page 2006). Significant contributions by geographers to the study of tourism have been the tourism area cycle of evolution (Butler 1980) and the notion of a tourism system (Hall 2000).

The tourism cycle first proposed by Butler in 1980, also called the Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC), has become one of the most used frameworks in tourism studies. It involves a six-stage evolution of tourism, namely exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and post stagnation; and this last stage is further characterized by a period of decline, rejuvenation, or stabilization (Ibid). Though the model cannot be applied to all destinations in the same uniform manner, it has proved to be useful in countless studies (Zhong et al 2008).

The notion of a tourism system acknowledges the fact that tourism can be defined as a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting components. Together these components form a single functional structure: the tourism system. Though more than one explanation exists, a tourism system is most often seen as containing at least these four basic elements:

- A *generating region* – this is the source region of the tourist and the place where the journey begins and ends;
- A *transit region or route* – this is the region tourists must travel through to reach their destination;
- A *destination region* – this is the region the tourist chooses to visit and where the most obvious consequences of the system occur;
- The *environment* – within which the travel flows are located and with which the tourist interacts (Hall 2000, p. 76).

The geographical tourism system model is useful when identifying the flow of tourists from one location to another and the importance of connectivity between the generating region and the destination.

Anthropology

Anthropologists only started writing about tourism in the 1960s. For a long time the subject was not taken seriously in academic surroundings, but since tourism is all about meetings between different cultures, it was only a matter of time, before anthropology scholars would start to conduct research regarding this topic. The discipline of anthropology has brought focus to the host-guest relationship that emerges within tourist destinations as well as the cultural dimensions, or rather the cultural exploitation by tourism (Smith 1989). The first edition of Smith's own work, *Hosts & Guests: the Anthropology of Tourism*, in 1977 was one of the most influential publications within the anthropology of tourism. The hosts are the

members of the local community and the guests are the tourists. One of the most important conclusions of the publication is that tourism is *not* the major element of cultural change in most societies. In anthropology literature, the locals or ‘hosts’ are often portrayed as the victims of tourism, as people who are overwhelmed by the enormous impact tourism has and who have been dragged along in the tourism system. But Smith narrates how most of the case studies in the book show examples of cases in which contacts between hosts and guests have changed appreciably through the years. Some success stories recount that local employees obtained positions of considerable responsibility and ‘motivated employees who have perceived tourism to be an avenue for upward mobility have repeatedly proven this to be true’ (p. 7). Problems that keep on rising though are seasonality, which leaves many employees jobless during the low season, fluctuations in currency, and political problems including terrorism that keep tourists away from these destinations.

Of course, much more on the topic of tourism has been published by academics from various disciplines. It would be impossible to mention the contributions of all disciplines in a text of this size. Therefore, in table 1.4 the contribution to the study of tourism of each discipline has been summarized, as laid out by Page & Connell.

Table 1.4: Disciplines contributing to the study of tourism

Discipline	Example of contribution to tourism studies
Geography	Spatial analysis of where tourism develops and why
Ecology	The impact of tourism on the natural environment
Agricultural studies	The significance of rural tourism to rural diversification
Parks and recreation	Recreation management techniques in natural areas such as national parks used by tourists
Urban and regional planning	The planning and development of tourism
Marketing	The marketing of tourism
Law	The legal framework and implications for tourists and tourism operators
Business and management science	The management of tourism organizations
Transport Studies	The provision of tourist transport services
Hotel and restaurant administration	The provision of hospitality services and accommodation for tourists
Educational studies	Tourism curriculum design and development
Sociology	Sociological analyses and frameworks to understand tourism as an element of people’s leisure time
Economics	The economic impact of tourism
Psychology	Tourist motivation to explain why people travel
Anthropology	The host-guest relationship
Safety management and ergonomics	The design of environments and activities which are safe for tourists
Development Studies*	The impact and opportunities of tourism in developing countries*

*Source: Page & Connell 2006, p. 8 (*added by the author)*

1.3.2 Dominant views on Tourism and Development

Within the discipline of (international) development studies light has been shed on the impact tourism has on developing countries as well as the opportunities tourism can bring for developing countries. Whether tourism is an appropriate tool for poverty elimination in developing countries has been subject to controversy. Particularly the social and cultural consequences of tourism have been of great concern to many and this specific discussion has divided academics of all kinds of disciplines in two camps: Those who are in favour of using tourism as a development tool, and those who are against it.

In 1976 MacCannell published *The Tourist: A new theory of the leisure class*, in which he stresses the human interaction concerned with tourism. Lippard states that MacCannell's book is still relevant 'because few of the questions it poses have been resolved and many more have been added' (Lippard 1999, p. ix). MacCannell argues that tourism is a kind of resistance to the development of modernism. By travelling internationally and seeking for communities that 'still live the real life', tourists reaffirm the alienation from their own society.

In 1979 De Kadt of the Institute of Development Studies at Sussex University published a summary that had been written for the Washington seminar in December 1976 at which participants from eighteen countries (eleven being developing countries) attended. This seminar was sponsored by the World Bank and UNESCO and was aimed at the discussion of the social and cultural impacts of tourism on developing countries and solutions for negative impacts for policy-makers (Kadt 1979). The seminar and the papers presented on that day as well as the discussion that followed formed the base of Kadts book *Tourism: Passport to Development?* Harrison (2008) refers to this book as a 'path-breaking collection of papers' (p. 853) because its content is 'as valid now as three decades ago'. In this book Kadt lays out the pros and cons of tourism as a development tool. Although he recognised the contribution tourism could make to employment, economic growth, entrepreneurship and inter-sectoral linkages, he also noted it could exacerbate inequalities at international and local levels.

In 1992 Harrison edited and published another important work, called *Tourism & the Less Developed Countries*. Harrison gives a review of global tourism trends and patterns, which reveal the dominance of tourism within the developed countries. He also examines development and modernization theories and the impacts and development roles of tourism are questioned, showing that some Least Developed Countries (LDCs) have become dependent on tourism's contributions to foreign exchange earnings, employment, and GDP (Getz 1993).

Government agencies all over the world promote tourism as a panacea for underemployment in economically depressed areas, and numerous authors have contributed their theories to the debate, in favour or against this trend. Amongst them is Ashley, who wrote numerous publications about how tourism could be used as a development tool. She argued that in recent strategies and theories the needs and opportunities of the poor were not taken into account. '*Donor-supported tourism master plans focus on creating infrastructure, stimulating private investment and attracting international tourists. Investors are often international companies and local elites, whose profits are generally repatriated abroad or to metropolitan centres. Links with the local economy are often weak, with the possible exception of employment*' (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin 2000, p. 1). She argued for a shift to expanding and scaling up the contribution that tourism can make to poverty reduction (Ashley & Mitchell 2008) to make sure that every individual linked to the tourism industry can benefit maximally. Along with Goodwin, Ashley and Harrison wrote a variety of papers concerning pro-poor tourism. More on this topic will be presented in section 1.5.

1.4 Impacts of Tourism

During the 1970's a number of highly critical studies began to uncover the unequal economic and social impacts the tourism industry caused by showcasing the fate of small Caribbean island economies (Bryden 1973; Hills & Lundgren 1977). These studies were among the first that made an attempt to measure the costs and benefits of tourist development in terms of social opportunity costs and returns (Bryden 1973). The spill over effects from tourism turned out not to be all positive. Still much work in the tourism industry is poorly paid, deskilled, insecure and at times even dangerous (Gibson 2009). Also, social impacts that result from tourists wandering around, even small numbers of tourists, can significantly disrupt local community values and lifestyles (Hall, Jenkins, & Kearsley, 1997). And while tourism generates income at some places, other places and people are excluded from the benefits of the massive tourism stream. This section gives an overview of the main impacts tourism has on various elements in developing countries.

1.4.1 Economic Growth and Leakages

The first and most important reason why tourism is considered to be a tool for development and poverty alleviation is its impact on economic growth in destination countries. Tourists bring foreign exchange earnings into the destination country, and thus by making use of local facilities and buying local products, 'new money' enters the destination country. For a long time national governments and donors have generally aimed to promote private sector investment, macro-economic growth and foreign exchange earnings, all within the tourism sector (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin 2000). The idea was that the more tourists would come, the bigger the economic gain for the hosting country would be. Accordingly, it was generally assumed that through the 'trickledown' effect, all sectors and levels of society would benefit from tourism (Goodwin 2006). However, due to foreign control of tourism industries and exploitation of the labour force, local people often do not experience the benefits of tourism. Tourists often stay in accommodations which are owned by outsiders and local elites, and spend time at attractions from which local poor people (for instance, suppliers of goods and services) are excluded (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin 2000, p. 3). Summarized, there are four main reasons for the fact that local people miss out on the benefits of tourism:

- Imported skilled labour;
- imports of luxury goods, food and other goods and services;
- repatriation of profits by foreign companies;
- the important role of marketing, transport and other services based in the originating countries (Ashley et al. 2000).

Much of the money made through tourism in developing countries leaked back to developed countries as they owned the majority of hotels, tour operators and airlines (Mowforth & Munt 2003). According to McCulloch, Winters and Cirera (2001, p. 248) between 55 percent and 75 percent of tourism spending leaks back to developed countries. One of the problems was and is that a lot of tourists make use of the so-called all-inclusive formulas, whereby the tourists stay for the duration of their whole trip within the walls of a resort, and therefore their spending does not benefit the local population as much as it could (see also section 1.2.4: resort/package tourism).

Different stakeholders have been seeking for different solutions to problems of revenue leakages. For example, the Gambian Government has decided to ban 'all-inclusives' in response to local demands (Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin 2000). Also, there is some

evidence that where the local elite, rather than external elite, own formal sector enterprises, they are more likely to use local suppliers (Shah 2000). It has been concluded that tourism needs a consciously pro-poor strategy to tackle the problem of tourism revenues not reaching the poor (McCulloch, Winters & Cirera 2001). This has led to the emergence of the concept of pro-poor tourism (see section 1.5).

1.4.2 Environment

All scholars arguing for the use of tourism as a development tool have to admit that tourism often damages the environment through unregulated construction, over-use of resources and pollution of land and water (Goowdwin 2006). It is not possible to facilitate the visitation of hundreds or even thousands of tourists, without the development of facilities to accommodate and entertain them (Holden 2008), which consequently places pressure on natural environments and resources. Moreover, tourism often offers the natural environment as a part of its product (Batta 2000). Mutual influence is therefore unavoidable. In table 1.5 the impacts of tourism on the environment are summarized.

Table 1.5: Impacts of tourism on the environment	
Impact aspect	Potential consequences
Floral and faunal species	Destruction of breeding habits: killing of animals through hunting: Killing of animals in order to supply goods to the souvenir trade; Change in extent and nature of vegetation cover through clearance of plantation to accommodate tourist facilities
Pollution	Water pollution through discharges of sewage, spillages of oil/patrol: air pollution from vehicle emissions, combustion of fuel for heating and lighting: Noise pollution from tourist transportation and activities.
Erosion	Compaction of soil causing increased surface run-off and erosion: Change in risk of occurrence of land slides: Change in risk of avalanches, damage to river banks.
Natural resources	Depletion of ground and surface water, depletion of fossil fuels to generate energy for tourists, Depletion of mineral resources for building material.
Visual Impacts	Due to littering, sewage discharge and poorly sited buildings

Source: Batta 2000, p. 64

Not only mass-tourism is the cause of this degradation. Tourists, like backpackers, often go off the beaten track, claiming that they have a more responsible way of travelling and do not ruin natural environments by entering with large groups. Initially of course, this holds some truth, *‘but getting ‘off the beaten track’ often means that the track soon becomes a road, even a highway* (Wearing & Neil 2009, xi). Backpackers and other pioneers often pave the road for the larger tourist flows to follow.

On the other hand, there are some cases in which tourism can actually protect and help preserve the environment. Just because the environment constitutes a very important part of tourism, it is in the interest of the industry to conserve and protect that same environment. Otherwise *‘the situation of over-exploitation of this important resource by the industry leads to the phenomena of “tourism killing tourism”* (Batta 2000, p. 62). Tourism thus often leads to improvement and preservation of (national) parks and other environmental elements, of which the national parks in Sub-Sahara Africa form a good example.

1.4.3 Socio-cultural costs and benefits

'The very presence of foreigners in the exporting country is widely believed to generate significant social effects by demonstrating alien and, what is perhaps worse, unattainable life-styles and values' (De Kadt 1979, p. x). Domestic tourism is not unproblematic either; because of differences in class, status and ethnicity, its consequences may be similar to those of international tourism (Harrison 1992). In order to attract tourists, changes in the physical landscape are made, centres of entertainment are developed, attractive and modern hotels are built and public beaches may be exploited and developed in order to meet the demands of international visitors. These physical changes are also obvious to the local population, who might want to enter these same facilities, but are often seen as 'unsuitable' (ibid.) and unwanted. In order to keep these unwanted visitors out, high prices are charged. This situation causes power inequalities.

But cross-cultural exchanges are not negative in principle. They can also contain learning experiences for both the tourists as well as the local population. Brown and Hall mention that '(some) people in developing countries may welcome the de-traditionalisation of their communities and the access to infrastructure and new ways of life that tourism brings (2008, p. 840).'

1.4.4 Conflicts

Conflicts keep on rising between hosts and guests, non-national managers and native employees, and land-use planners and environmentalists. Many of these conflicts are based on power inequalities between the hosting local community and the visiting tourists. 'Where wide economic disparities exist between hosts and guests (...) tourists may be singled out for robbery or terrorism – not because they are tourists, but because they are easy targets' (Smith 1978, 7).

It has occurred that indigenous populations had to make way for tourism facilities. In 1997 tribe people of the Karen ethnic minority were forcefully removed to make room for a giant nature reserve that functioned as a prestige project of Burma. Villagers that refused to move were killed (*Observer* 23 march 1997). In table 1.6 an overview is presented of the positive and negative impacts of tourism in developing countries.

Table 1.6: Positive and negative impacts of tourism		
Tourism affects	Possible positive impacts	Possible negative effects
Livelihood goals	Tourism can support livelihood goals such as economic security, cultural life, health E.g. by increasing cash income of workers/entrepreneurs, contributing to cultural restoration, catalysing improvements in hygiene.	Tourism can undermine economic security, self-determination and health E.g. by creating dependency on a volatile industry among workers, creating local inflation, disempowering residents from decision-making, exacerbating spread of disease.
Livelihood activities	Expand economic options E.g. by creating employment and small business options for the unskilled and semi-skilled, or by complementing other activities, e.g. earnings in agricultural lean season; development of transferable skills.	Conflict with other activities E.g. constrain fishing, gathering, or agriculture if land and natural resources are taken away; clash with busy agricultural seasons; increase wildlife damage to crops and livestock.
Capital assets	Build up assets (natural, physical, financial, human, and social)	Erode assets E.g. lost access to natural assets if local

	E.g. enhanced physical assets, if earnings are invested in productive capital; enhanced natural capital, if sustainability of natural resource management is improved.	people are excluded from tourism areas; erode social capital if conflict over tourism undermines social and reciprocal relations; over-burdening of physical infrastructure (sewage, water supply).
Policy and institutional environment	<i>Improve the context or residents' ability to influence it</i> E.g. by expanding local markets, focusing policymakers' attention on marginal areas. Participation in tourism planning and enterprise can give residents new status, information and skills to deal with outsiders.	<i>Exacerbate policy constraints</i> E.g. diverting policy-makers' attention, resources and infrastructure investment to prioritise tourism over other local activities. Improved transport access and markets can undermine local production.
Long-term livelihood priorities	<i>'Fit' with people's underlying long-term priorities</i> E.g. to diversify against risk, or build buffers against drought, by developing an additional source of income which continues in drought years.	<i>Create or exacerbate threats to long-term security</i> E.g. physical threats from more aggressive wild animals due to disturbance by tourists; economic vulnerability can be exacerbated due to dependence on volatile tourism.

(Source: Ashley, Boyd percent Goodwin 2000, p. 4).

1.5 Pro-poor tourism

1.5.1 The emergence of pro-poor tourism

In the last couple of decades international tourism became to be considered more and more as playing a key role in poverty alleviation (Harrison 2008). In fact, the focus on tourism as an alleviator of poverty is not new, but since the 1990's the concept of pro-poor tourism has led to '*a popular, simple, sharper and more appealing moral focus on the links poorer residents in destinations have with tourism enterprises*' (p. 855). The definition of pro-poor tourism provided on www.propoortourism.org.uk is:

Pro-poor tourism is about increasing the positive impacts of tourism on poor people. Pro-poor tourism is not a specific product but an approach to the industry. It is an approach that seeks to increase participation of poor people at many points in the sector, and that aims to increase their economic and social benefits from tourism while reducing the negative impacts on the poor.

The UNWTO (2004) has presented seven different mechanisms through which the poor can benefit directly or indirectly from tourism:

1. Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises;
2. Supply of goods and/or services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor;
3. Direct sales of goods and/or services to visitors by the poor (informal economy);
4. Establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor – e.g. micro, small and medium sized enterprises (MSME's), or CBT (formal economy);
5. Tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor;
6. Voluntary giving and support by tourism enterprises and tourists;

7. Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality.

(For a full description of each mechanism, see appendix 4)

1.5.2 The downside

Although it is difficult to oppose the morally correct intentions of pro-poor tourism, it is important to acknowledge some limitations this approach brings with it. In 2008 Harrison wrote a critique on pro-poor tourism in which he summarized the main problems and issues found by various academics. He concludes that critics have argued that pro-poor tourism is based on an acceptance of the status quo of existing capitalism. Harrison (2008) mentions some theoretical and substantive objections that can be made to pro-poor tourism. The two most viable ones, according to the author, are considered here.

First, there is the risk of missing 'the big picture'. Pro-poor tourism fits in the current neoliberal system, a capitalist context and does not ask for radical change which is needed according to some. In the eyes of these critics tourism is something that should not be encouraged in the first place because it is a capitalist industry, 'a major internationalized component of Western capitalist economies; it is one of the quintessential features of mass consumer culture and modern life' (Britton 1991, p. 451). In contradiction to this statement Gibson argues that "tourism's very premise – travel – is much older than industrial capitalism" (2009, p. 529). And as Harrison (2008) stated, pro-poor tourism is not meant as a theory that will alter the world system, but rather as an attempt to improve the benefits that tourism brings to the poor.

Second, there is the fact that pro-poor tourism is academically and commercially marginal. According to Harrison there is no relative financial security and pro-poor tourism practitioners tend to maintain outside and largely ignorant of academic debates.

It could be mentioned that pro-poor tourism, like so many other development interventions, forgets to include the poorest. As Ashley notes, 'Pro-poor tourism is not an appropriate tool for reaching the poorest – those with fewest assets and skills who are least able to engage in the commercial economy' (2006, p. 10). This is indeed true for the direct forms of pro-poor tourism. But some of the UNWTO mechanism mentioned above, will have an effect on the poorest. Tax or levy on tourism revenues can be used to benefit the poorest, as can voluntary giving and support by tourism enterprises and tourists. Furthermore, investments in infrastructure will benefit all, including the poorest.

1.5.3 How to develop a pro-poor tourism industry

Goodwin has explained what an intervention at a local level in tourist destination areas should look like:

- Enable local community access to the tourism market and avoid enclaves;
- Maximise the linkages into the local economy and minimise leakages;
- Build on and complement existing livelihood strategies through employment and small enterprise development;
- Evaluate tourism projects for their contribution to local economic development not just for their national revenue generation and the increase in international arrivals;
- Ensure the maintenance of natural and cultural assets;
- Control negative social impacts;
- And control the rate of growth of tourism (1998, p 4).

A tool that could be useful in developing pro-poor tourism is the clustering of activities and attractions in less developed areas in order to stimulate cooperation and partnerships within the earlier mentioned informal sector. This strategy is described by Briedenhann & Wickens (2004) who interrogate its usefulness in the rural areas of South Africa. If all individuals that are trying to obtain livelihoods through tourism in more or less the same way, could be approached as categorized groups, economic development could be enhanced for all of them.

Another useful strategy is looking for attractions that fall into the category of multipliers. Michael (2007) explains multipliers with an example:

Consider what happens when a new economic activity commences, such as the construction of a new tourist resort in a relatively isolated location. This project will cost many millions of dollars (or the local currency equivalent). In normal circumstances, the funds will be raised through the global financial market and injected into the local economy to pay for the construction, including the importation of equipment, technology and the like. The building phase will utilise local labour and equipment, which increases current domestic production and income, but this is new production and new income that is unrelated to, or autonomous from, the previously existing level of economic activity. Much of the money invested in the construction of this new resort is now effectively transferred to the local suppliers and workers as a new source of disposable income that they did not have before. This is not the end of the process, rather it is the beginning of the multiplier effect, for those who receive an increase in income in turn purchase consumer goods and services, increasing the demand to create domestic output and so creating more income for others. More income leads to more demand, more demand leads to more production and more production leads to more income — so that the total sum of expenditure will have a value several times greater than the original investment. When the resort opens, there will be new jobs created and another round of multiplier effects will begin. (Michael 2007, 39)

Michael also mentions the accelerator effect which might arise as a consequence if an enterprise is established successfully, by stimulating the creation of a number of new activities in support of this new tourism market.

Smith (1978, p. 1) formed an equation to show the three key elements that form the foundation of tourism:

Tourism = leisure time + discretionary income + positive local sanctions

Leisure time is the time someone can spend on other things than work, discretionary income is money not needed for personal essentials such as food, clothing, housing, health care, transportation and so forth and positive local sanctions are linked to the motivations that one can have to travel as a result of social acceptance and pressure. The majority of inhabitants of developing countries lack at least the first two elements, which makes it difficult for them to travel. Tourism therefore, is a privilege that up to date is mostly enjoyed by westerners - around 25 times more Europeans than Africans take a holiday (Brown & Hall 2008). Because of this, poor people might have difficulties imagining what it is that a tourist wants and expects. Language and an understanding of tourist expectations are among the

most important skills within the tourism sector (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin 2000). The four main elements that are needed in order to attract tourists are infrastructure, facilities (hotels, tour operators), attractions and marketing. In chapter 2 more shall be explained as to what extent these elements are already in place in the research area.

1.6 Conclusion

Tourism is a powerful, money generating industry and can, if implemented in the right way, create livelihoods for many, including women and disabled. Foreign exchange generated through tourism can circulate through the local economy, as explained by the 'multiplier effect' and directly benefit local businesses that are not in the first place focused on tourism. However, there are many academics who continue to doubt tourism's role as a development tool. There are a lot of pitfalls that can make a new tourism industry resemble tourism industries all over the world, where the money immediately leaks back to the developed countries via tour operators and investors in hotels and attractions. These leakages can only be prevented or reduced if the tourism industry becomes sufficiently integrated in the local economy.

Chapter 2 Tourism development in Tanzania

2.1 Introduction

Tanzania is a country of extremes: the highest mountain of Africa, the Kilimanjaro, the lowest point of Africa, at the bottom of Lake Tanganyika, the second biggest fresh water lake in the world, Lake Victoria; all can be found within the borders of Tanzania. Also the biggest land animal, the African elephant grazes the Tanzanian plains. Every year hundreds of thousands of tourists enter the country to go on a safari in search for the Big Five or dream away on the exotic beaches of Zanzibar. But aside from beauty, Tanzania has known a long history of poverty. Ranked 148 out of 169 countries on the United Nations Human Development Index (2010), Tanzania is still considered one of the Least Developed Countries (LDCs) in the world. One out of three residents lives below the poverty line of 1 US\$ dollar a day (UNDP Tanzania 2010) and decently paid jobs are scarce.

Mwanza is the second largest city of Tanzania, located on the Southern shore of Lake Victoria. Tourists travel *en mass* to the Northern Regions of Tanzania (*the Northern Circuit*), but almost none of them sets foot within the Mwanza Region, and therefore none of the inhabitants of Mwanza reaps the benefits of the large amount of foreign exchange which is generated by the tourism industry.

In the present chapter the regional context of Tanzania, the Northern Circuit and Mwanza will be shown. The aim of this chapter is to make clear why Mwanza specifically could benefit from tourism and pro-poor tourism in particular. In section 2.2 the national context of Tanzania will be highlighted. In section 2.3 the regional context of Northern Tanzania will be highlighted with a focus on the Northern Circuit and the differences between tourist destinations Arusha and Moshi and the Mwanza Region and in section 2.4 the focus will drop down to the local level and all will be explained about Mwanza Region and Mwanza City.

2.2 National context: Tanzania

Table 2.1: Quick facts about Tanzania

Full name	United Republic of Tanzania
Population	44.841.226 residents
Capital:	Dodoma (official), Dar es Salaam (commercial)
Largest city	Dar es Salaam
Area	945.087 square kilometres
Major languages	English, Swahili
Major religions	Christianity, Islam
Life expectancy	56 (men) / 57 (women) years
Monetary unit	Tanzanian shilling (1 EUR = 2,220.39 TZS)
Main exports	Sisal, cloves, coffee, cotton, cashew nuts, minerals, tobacco and tourism
GNI per capita (current US \$)	530
Employment to population ratio, 15+, total (percent)	78 percent
Income share held by lowest 20 percent	7,3 percent (2000)
Poverty headcount at national poverty line	33,4 percent (2007)
Net ODA received per capita (US \$)	55
GINI index	37,6

Based on data from the World Bank, xe.com, UNDP Tanzania, CIA World Fact book and the Citizen 2010

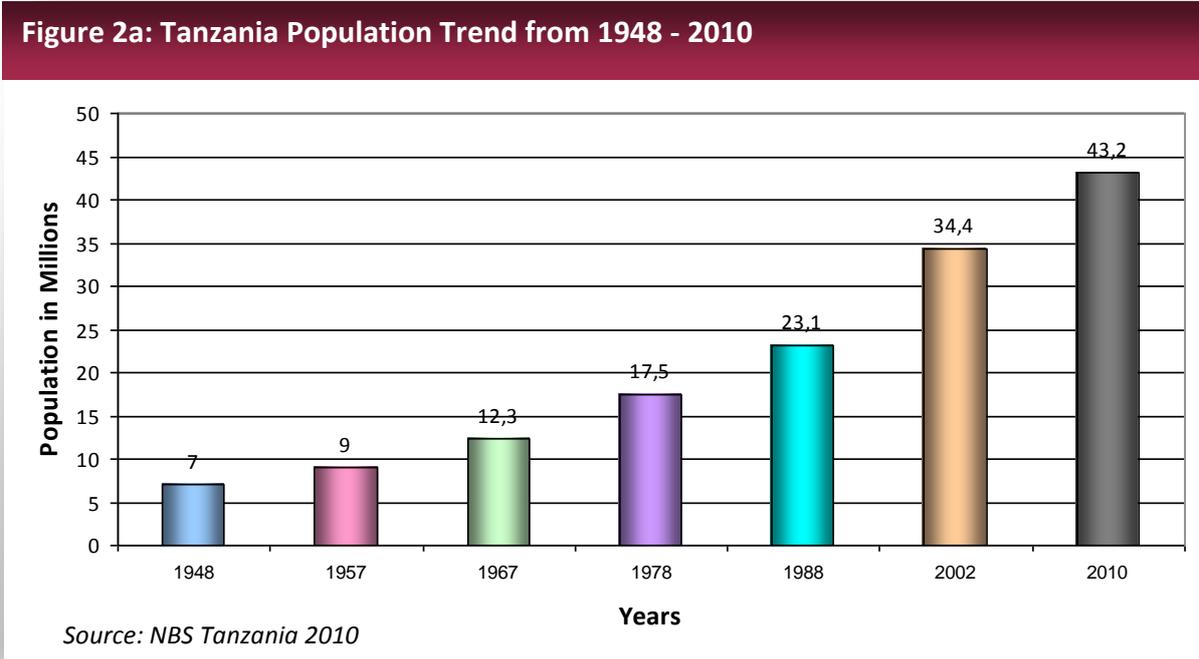
2.2.1 Geographical context

Tanzania is located in East Africa, bordering Kenya to the north, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of Congo to the west, and Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique to the south (Figure 1, p. 1). To the east Tanzania borders the Indian Ocean. The Zanzibar Archipelago, the semi autonomous island group of Tanzania, is separated from the mainland by a channel, which is 36 kilometres across at its narrowest part. With a surface area of 947,300 square kilometres Tanzania is the largest country in East Africa. The geography of Tanzania can be divided in three geographical zones, namely plains and lowlands along the coast, a central plateau covered in grasslands, divided in two by the Great Rift Valley, and highlands which are mainly in the north. The climate varies from tropical along the coast to temperate in the highlands. There is a long dry spell from May to October, followed by a period of rainfall between November and April (TDHS 2010). In the northeast of Tanzania is a mountainous region that includes Mount Meru (4,566 metres) and Mount Kilimanjaro (5,895 metres), the highest peak of Africa. To the west of these mountains stretches the central plateau with Serengeti National Park, which has the greatest concentration of migratory game animals in the world. The central plateau is mostly arid and consists of the least fertile ground in Tanzania (Ndembwike 2011). Next to Serengeti lies the volcanic Ngorongoro crater within the Ngorongoro Conservation area that is home to a large concentration and diversity of wildlife. There is another mountainous region in the South with the Rungwe Mountain (2,960 metres) as the highest peak. Tanzania is bordered by three of the largest lakes on the African continent: Lake Victoria in the North (the largest lake of Africa and second largest in the world), Lake Tanganyika in the west (the deepest lake in Africa and second deepest in the world) and Lake Malawi in the southwest. East of Lake Malawi is the enormous expanse of the Selous Game Reserve, with over 55,000 square kilometres the largest game reserve in Africa.

2.2.2 Demography and Human Development

With a population estimated between some 43 million (NBS 2010) up to more than 44.8 million residents (World Bank 2010) and a population density of 49 to 51 people per square kilometre of land area (ibid), Tanzania is one of the most populous countries in Africa. The population has gone through a tremendous growth in the last decades (shown in figure 2a) and is still growing with an average growth of 3 percent a year (World Bank 2011). It is estimated to have reached the amount of 75.5 million residents by 2030. This trend builds up an immense pressure on the delivery of public services, as the growth of domestic revenue and foreign aid cannot keep up (IMF 2011). A lack of efficient and adequate public services will only increase poverty in Tanzania. In 2009 only 54 percent of the population had access to an improved water source and only 24 percent had access to improved sanitation facilities (World Bank 2011). In primary education each teacher has more than 50 students to tend to and about 64 percent of children in Tanzania don't make it into secondary school. Still about 23.6 percent of the population aged between 15 and 24 and is illiterate (2009 estimates). The life expectancy at birth of a Tanzanian resident was 57 years in 2009 (ibid). Some progress has been made though during the last decades. Combined efforts of the government, the World Bank, IMF and countless NGOs have reduced for example the maternal mortality ratio by more than 10 percent and the infant mortality rate has even been reduced by 33.3 percent. But despite these few gains, Tanzania remains in the Low Income Country (LIC) category and is pretty off track in the process of reaching the MDGs (MDG Progress report 2000-2008). Much of this is due to the devastating income poverty

brought on by a weak micro economy among the country’s residents. More on this topic will be explained in section 2.2.3.



Over 90 per cent of the population consists of indigenous African groups, of which there are 126 in total in Tanzania (The Citizen 2010). The largest indigenous groups are the Sukuma and the Nyamwezi, living in the north and the northwest of the country respectively. Other major ethnic groups include the Haya, the Ngonde, the Chagga, the Gogo, the Ha, the Hehe, the Nyakyusa, the Nyika, the Ngoni, and the Yao (ntwk.esaanet.com). The population also includes people of Indian and Pakistani origin, who make up a significant minority in the urban areas, and small Arab and European communities (Ibid.)

2.2.3 Macro Economy versus Micro Economy

The economy of Tanzania is mainly dependent on agriculture comprised of crop growing, animal husbandry, forestry, fishery and hunting (TDHS 2010). According to the World Bank, about 16,136,000 residents are economically active in agriculture which has a share of 28 percent in GDP. Other main industries are fishing, mining and tourism. Professional, technical, and managerial occupations engage only 3 percent of women and 5 percent of men (World Bank 2008).

In the last century several shocks with severe destabilizing effects have affected the economy of Tanzania. Oil shocks, collapse of commodity prices, drought, breakup of the East African Community and the Uganda War and a poor economic policy have caused fiscal instability that lasted until the end of the twentieth century (Government of Tanzania). The low standard of the economic policy consisted of deficiencies in budgetary management, poor tax administration, weaknesses in expenditure controls, and shortcomings in the management of the financial sector (IMF 1996). In the 1990’s Tanzania made substantial progress with structural reforms and in early 1996, the government committed itself to a shadow programme monitored by the IMF, which focused principally on ‘...eliminating the main impediments to sound budgetary management, and on reforming the financial sector’

(ibid). From September 1996 a three-year Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility (ESAF)¹ was run which ensured a growth in GDP of 4 percent in 1996-1997 and 3.4 percent in 1997/98. Since 2000 the growth of GDP has had an average of 7 percent. The country's abundant natural resources ensure export opportunities such as the exportation of minerals and food crops (ESAANet 2007).

Despite the positive macro economic outlook, caused by the high rate of economic growth over the years, poverty dropped only by two percent during 2001-2007. The micro economic outlook on household level remains weak and poverty remains widespread with one in three living below the poverty line (IMF 2011). In 2008 78 percent of the population of Tanzania (aged between 15 and 64) was employed (UNDP 2010), which is relatively high. But 90 percent of the employed population lived on less than 1.25 dollar a day. In 2010 78 percent of women were employed versus 84 percent of men (TDHS 2010). Nominal household consumption remains extremely low. Almost 98 percent of households spend less than TShs 58,000 per month per adult equivalent on food and basic necessities (2007 prices), and approximately 80 percent spend less than TShs 38,600 per month or TShs 1,380 per day (PHDR 2009). Though working in the agricultural sector is considered to be a job, it consists of self-sustaining farming and is therefore unpaid. Of all women who work in agriculture 72 percent do not earn a salary. Child labour has not vanished yet in Tanzania: in 2008 still 36 percent of children aged between 5 and 14 were working (UNDP 2010). Especially for small and medium-scale enterprises (SME's), the economic climate is unfavourable as the interest rate spread is relatively high (12.5 percent in 2008), making it difficult for the SME's to save or invest. According to the MDG progress report, income poverty remains one of Tanzania's most important problems and thus, accelerated effort is required for Tanzania to attain or come closer to attaining income poverty-based targets by 2015.

2.2.4 Government

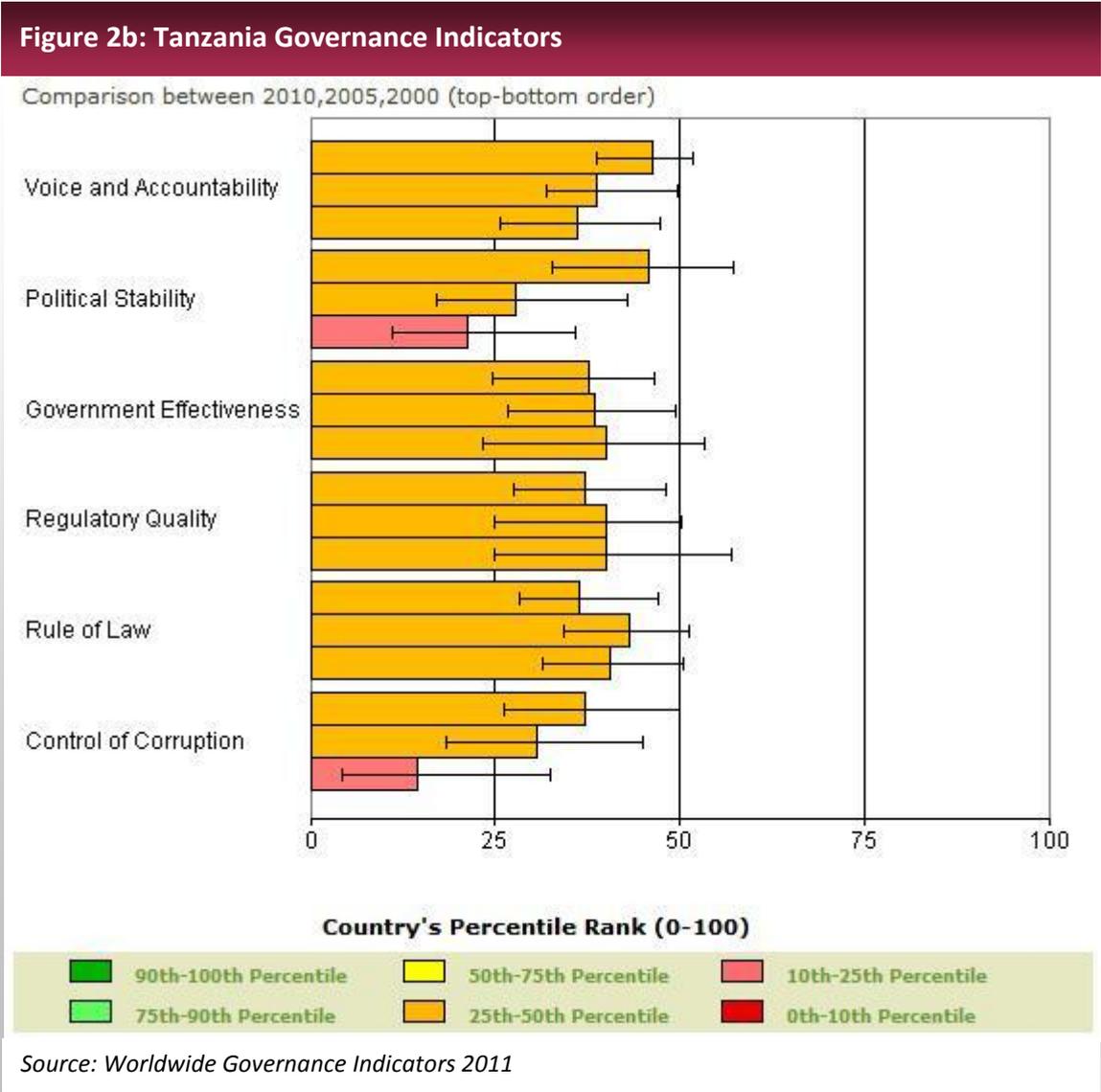
Before Tanzania acquired its current title of United Republic of Tanzania in 1964, the mainland was known as Tanganyika with Zanzibar as a separate autonomous island. After World War I, and following a period of Arab and German rule, Tanganyika was decreed to Britain by the League of Nations (Wade, Mwasaga & Eagles 2001). It gained independence on 9th December 1961 and became a republic in the following year. Zanzibar became independent in December 1963 and the People's Republic of Zanzibar was established after the Revolution of 12th January 1964. The first autonomous government of Tanganyika was led by Julius Nyerere, under whose leadership Tanganyika joined with the island of Zanzibar to form the Republic of Tanzania on 26th April 1964. Nyerere's one-party government was based upon a unique brand of socialism called *ujamaa* ("family-hood"). Nyerere fought for a society based on mutual assistance and economic as well as political equality.

Tanzania has held Presidential and Parliamentary Elections (general elections) after every 5 year period. Following results from the Presidential and Parliamentary Elections held on 14th December, 2005, the 4th President of Tanzania, H.E. Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete was sworn into office on 21st December, 2005 for a five-year term of office. Kikwete won a second term as president with 61 percent of the votes on November 6th 2010. Since 1985, Tanzania has maintained a two term limit for the Presidency.

¹ ESAF is a concessional IMF facility for assisting eligible members that are undertaking economic reform programs to strengthen their balance of payments and to improve their growth prospects. ESAF loans carry an interest rate of 0.5 percent per annum, and are repayable over 10 years, with a 5 -year grace period (IMF 1996).

Tanzania is divided in 26 administrative regions and 130 administrative districts. The political capital of the country is Dodoma, but the country’s commercial capital is the better known city of Dar es Salaam. Other big urban centres include Arusha, Moshi, Tanga and Mwanza to the north of the country, Morogoro in the east and Mbeya and Iringa to the west. Tabora and Shinyanga are also important economic places in central Tanzania.

The government of Tanzania has shown some significant changes in the last decade, according to the six governance indicators provided by the World Bank Group (figure 2b).



Progress is particularly evident within the sectors of voice and accountability, political stability and control of corruption, and with a few exceptions the Tanzanian government scores higher than the other East African countries (Worldwide Governance Indicators 2011). However, Tanzania still finds itself in the lower 50th percentile of over 200 countries and territories covered by the project.

Despite efforts of the government to reduce corruption by preventing, investigating and sanctioning corrupt practices, both petty and grand forms of corruption continue to be present in political and administrative systems (Chêne 2009). The enforcement of

regulations and laws remains limited since anticorruption institutions suffer a lack of staff, resources and coordination. The civil society of Tanzania remains relatively weak since they are excluded from official policy dialogue, which severely limit its contribution to the anti-corruption reform process (ibid).

2.2.5 Development Policy

One of the main objectives of the Tanzanian Government's policy is poverty reduction. Plans for poverty reduction have been outlined in the Tanzanian Development Vision 2025, the National Poverty Eradication Strategy of June 1998 and the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers, the first in October 2000 and the latest in January 2011.

Within the Tanzania Development Vision 2025 targets were set which were (and are) expected to have been attained by the Tanzanian people by the year 2025: *'a high quality of life; peace and tranquillity and national unity; good governance; an educated society imbued with an ambition to develop; and an economy which is competitive with sustained growth for the benefit of all people'* (p. x). Investment in infrastructure is seen as a high priority and a strategy for development that must be spearheaded by the government. Also promotion of science and technology education, promotion of information and communication technologies (ICTs) and the utilization of domestic resources (natural, financial and human) are named as strategies to achieve the set goals. The latter is seen as the foundation on which the Vision rests: *'These resources should be utilized to build adaptive capacity for promoting economic activities that enjoy comparative and competitive advantages with a view to minimize the impact of external economic shifts and shocks'* (p. 21).

An important strategy of the Tanzanian government is to try and attract foreign direct investment, and to this end the Tanzania Investment Centre (TIC) has been established. The TIC encourages foreign investors to invest in agriculture, livestock, manufacturing, health and education, mining, tourism, banking and insurance and economic infrastructure, by offering favourable investment incentives.

A sector seen as playing a significant role in development is the SMEs sector. The Tanzanian government sees the development of SMEs as a great contribution to employment creation and income generation. It is associated with more equitable distribution of income and therefore seen as an important poverty alleviation tool (Ministry of Industry and Trade 2002). Thus, the government tries to stimulate development and growth of SME activities through improved infrastructure, enhanced service provision and creation of conducive legal and institutional framework so as to achieve competitiveness (ibid).

Since the tourism sector is also seen as an important poverty alleviation tool, the government tries to stimulate its development by improving knowledge and know-how; attracting investment capital; enhancing and expanding the tourism product; improving service standards; improving access and infrastructures; improving security; creating greater market awareness and; strengthening institutions and economic linkages (Tourism Master Plan 2002).

2.2.6 Nature and Wildlife

Tanzania has one of the highest levels of biodiversity and wildlife richness in the sub-Saharan African region. As stated by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (2009), Tanzania is the only country in the world which has allocated more than 25 per cent of its total area for wildlife national parks and protected areas. Leader-Williams, Kayera & Overton state that

'15 percent of the total surface of Tanzania is devoted to wildlife in protected areas where no permanent human settlement is allowed. A further 10 percent of Tanzania's surface area is devoted to protected areas where wildlife co-exists with humans' (1996, p. vii). In combination with the areas of protected forests this adds up to 27 percent of the country's surface area excluding human settlement. All together, Tanzania counts sixteen national parks (appendix 5), thirty-one game reserves, fifty game controlled areas, one conservation area and two marine parks. In these nature parks and areas a large and diverse variety of flora and fauna resides, including endemic species and sub-species. Wildlife plays important social and economic roles in the country, as it forms the cause of widespread local human-wildlife conflict, as it forms a source of often illegal sustenance for millions of rural villagers but also forms a prerequisite for the national tourism industry (Nelson, Nsala & Rogers 2007). Large parts of these areas used to be utilised by rural Tanzanians, who became excluded after the area was deemed to be meant for conservation. Rural communities therefore often do not see the wildlife conservation as being to their benefit (Leader-Williams, Kayera & Overton 1996). During the 1980's local interests were considered in only one protected area in Tanzania: the Ngorongoro Crater Conservation Area, which was established in 1959. The conservation of the crater had the dual mandate of protecting the interests of resident Maasai pastoralists and of conserving the natural heritage of the area (ibid.). Hunting of wildlife in Tanzania is only permitted under license, with the exception of wildlife threatening human life and property (Leader-Williams, Kayera & Overton 1996), but during the mid 1970's and 1980's Tanzania lost a very large number of rhinos and elephants due to poaching. To restore balance a new policy was established that was based on the concept of community based conservation. Rural people would get more involved in taking joint responsibility for the sustainable management of wildlife and other natural resources among or close to which they live, and to share in the direct and indirect benefits of its management. Currently, for example surrounding the Selous Game Reserve, at least 50 out of 80 villages have created their own Wildlife Management Areas (Balduis 2009).

2.2.7 Infrastructure

Railway network

Tanzania has two operating railway systems: The Tanzania Railway Corporation (TRC) and the Zambia Railway Authority (TAZARA) which together cover some 2,600 kilometres of railway across the country (Tanzania Government) (figure 2c). The railroad consists of lines linking Dar es Salaam to Lake Tanganyika, with branches to Mwanza, Mpanda, and Arusha. The TAZARA, opened in 1975, provides a



Figure 2c: Railways in Tanzania. Source: sharemap.org

link between Dar es Salaam and Zambia (INADEV 2000). There is an interface of the two railway lines at Kidatu whereby goods from southern Africa are transhipped.

Marine infrastructure

Steamships link the mainland with Zanzibar. The major seaports are Dar es Salaam, Mtwara (INADEV 2000) and Tanga (Government of Tanzania 2011) which are all operated by The Tanzania Harbours Authority (THA). Minor ports in Tanzania are the ports of Kilwa, Lindi and Mafia in the Indian Ocean. There are also ferries and steamships covering the distance on the great lakes of Tanzania. Lake Victoria functions as the link between Uganda, Tanzania and Kenya. Out of the twenty-five ports of the Victoria Lake, the main ports are Mwanza and Bukoba (Tanzania), Kisumu (Kenya), and Entebbe, Port Bell and Jinja (Uganda). Lake Tanganyika connects Tanzania with Burundi, The Democratic Republic of the Congo and Zambia. The lake has seventeen ports of which the main ports are Kigoma and Kasanga (Tanzania), Kalemie (The Congo) and Mpulungu (Zambia). And there is Lake Nyasa (Lake Malawi), connecting Tanzania with Malawi and Mozambique. Main ports are Itungi, Mbamba Bay, Liuli and Manda (Tanzania), Monkey Bay (Malawi) and Metangula (Mozambique) out of fourteen ports in total.

Air infrastructure

Tanzania holds three international airports, namely the Julius Nyerere International Airport (JNIA) in Dar es Salaam, Kilimanjaro International Airport near Arusha and Moshi and Zanzibar International Airport. Domestic airlines link the mainland with Zanzibar. The national airline company is Air Tanzania, but most domestic flights are covered by Precision Air and Fly 540. All airports fall under the responsibility of the Tanzania Airports Authority (TAA), founded in 1999. Apart from the international airports, there are airports in Masoko, Kigoma, Lindi, Mafia, Mpanda, Mtwara, Musoma, Mwanza, Shinyanga, Songwe and Tabora.

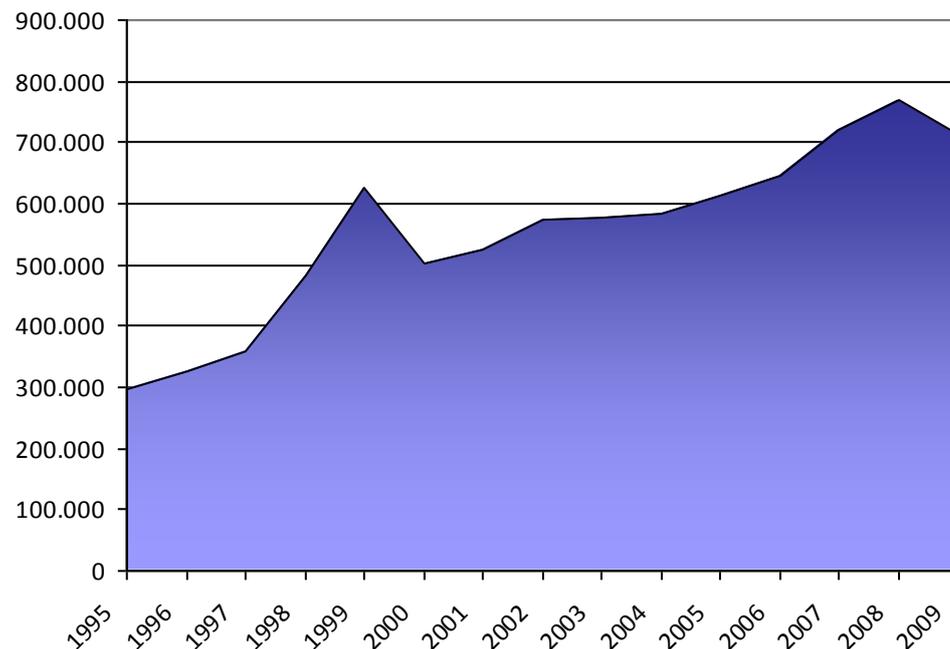
Road infrastructure

Tanzania's road network is of limited quality: only a small portion of the 88,200 kilometres of roads are paved. In 2008 the tarmac road in Tanzania only consisted of 7 percent of the total lengths of roads (World Databank). The main problem with dirt roads is that they often become impassable during the rainy season and can remain that way during weeks at a time. In 2007 each kilometre of road contained three vehicles and only four out of each thousand residents owned a passenger car (World Databank).

2.2.8 Tourism

International tourism started to expand rapidly in Tanzania during the 1970's, mainly due to a growing industry within Kenya (Wade, Mwasaga & Eagles 2001). Tourists would cross the Kenyan-Tanzanian border to visit the northern national parks of Tanzania as an "add-on" to their safari in Kenya. The growth of the industry was brought to a halt in 1977 when the border with Kenya was closed but recovered again in the mid 1980's and has become the nation's second leading foreign exchange earner (Wade, Mwasaga & Eagles 2001). In 2009 the number of tourist arrivals went down from 770,376 in 2008 to 714,367 (figure 2d). As a result, tourism earnings declined by 10 percent from USD 1,288.7 million in 2008 to USD 1,159.8 million. The decline is partly attributed to the global financial crisis and the A(H1N1) influenza pandemic. Currently, Tanzania is ranked relatively low in tourist destinations in

Figure 2d: International Arrivals Tanzania 1995-2009



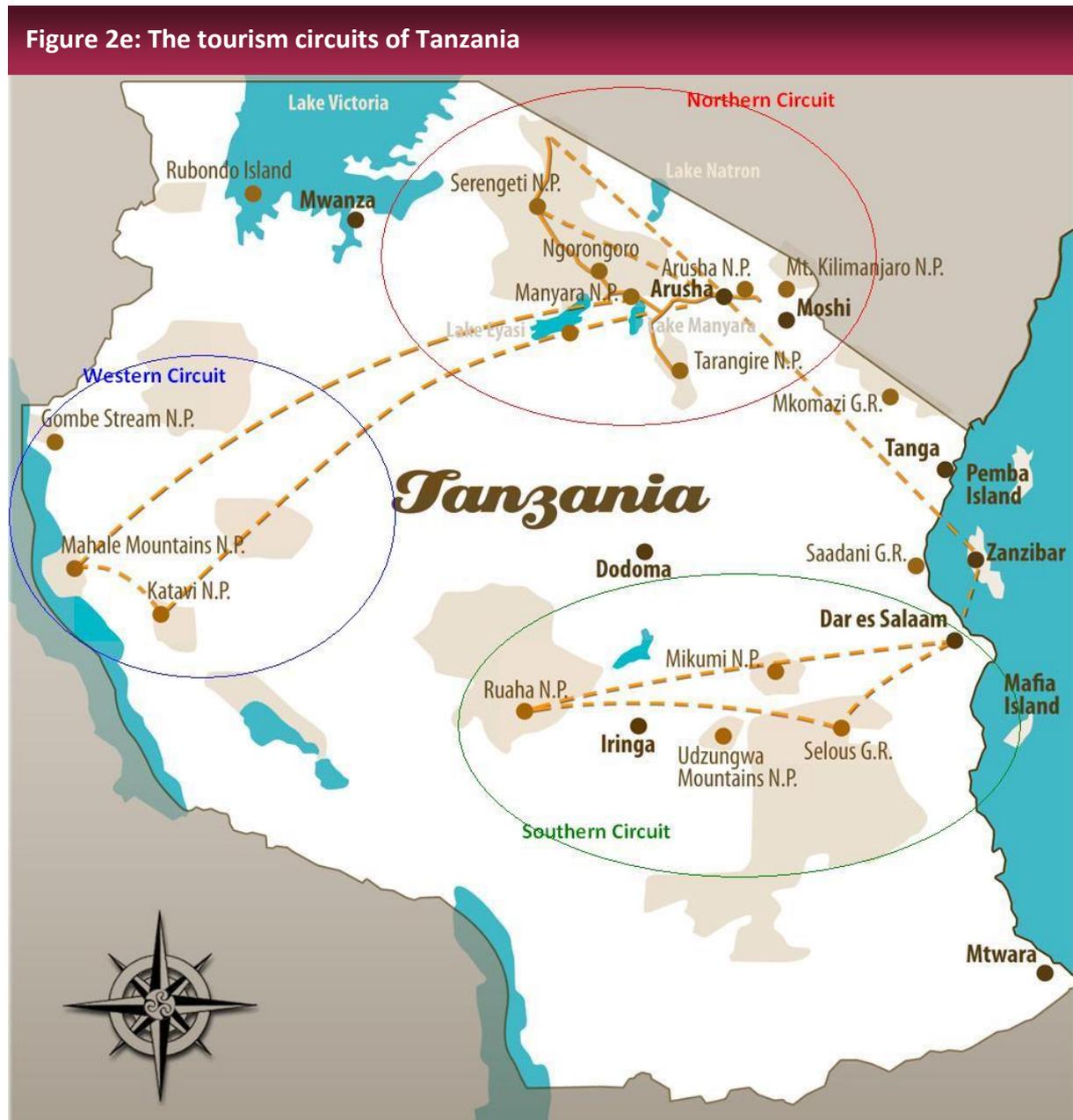
Based on: *Tourism Statistical Bulletin, Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism 2010*

Africa, with a market share of 1.6 percent of international tourist arrivals in Africa. But still tourism contributes to the nation's GDP by 12.9 percent (WTTC 2011). The current policy of the government is to promote low-density, high-quality and high-prices tourism (Wade, Mwasaga & Eagles 2001; Kweka et al 2003). According to many, Tanzania has the potential to develop a diverse and sustainable tourism industry (Wade, Mwasaga & Eagles 2001, Kweka, Morrissey & Blake 2003, SNV 2010b) but at this moment tourism is largely concentrated in the Northern part of the country, the city of Dar es Salaam and the island Zanzibar (Kweka, Morrissey & Blake 2003). Most tourists visit the 'Northern Circuit' which consists of a safari from Arusha, to Lake Manyara and Tarangire National Parks, Ngorongoro Crater, and on to Serengeti National Park. Other circuits exist but are rarely travelled.

Wade, Mwasaga and Eagles (2001, p. 96) name three significant deficiencies in the Tanzanian tourism product: lack of infrastructure; lack of trained staff; and governmental and bureaucratic factors such as a lack of legal and regulatory framework towards tourism and little coordination amongst private sector actor groups. According to the Economic Commission for Africa and the Economic Policy Research Centre (Gerosa 2003, 22) the government is exploring ways for making the tourist sector more pro-poor. Especially ecotourism is a fast growing sector in Tanzania (ibid.) One of the recommendations presented in the International Exit Survey was: *'There is a need of diversifying our tourist products from relying heavily on wildlife tourism to opting for other products like beach or marine based tourism, ecotourism, and cultural tourism in order to prolong the length of stay and increase earnings'* (NBS 2011, x). In chapter 6, I will explain how Mwanza can contribute to this diversification of tourist products.

Attractions

The main attractions in Tanzania include wildlife and nature, cultural tourism, mountain climbing, historical sites and beaches. The focus of attention in Tanzania lies on the island of Zanzibar, the northern cities Arusha and Moshi, Mount Kilimanjaro and the National Parks and Game Reserves. The parks that attract most visitors are Serengeti National Park, Ngorongoro Crater, Arusha National Park, Lake Manyara National Park, Tarangire National Park, Arusha National Park, Kilimanjaro National and Selous Game Reserve. According to offerings of the bigger tour operators like Kilroy Travels, Explore Tanzania and Wayo Africa, the Northern circuit is by far the most marketed and visited (figure 2e).



Source: compiled from www.exploretanzania.nl

With one hundred and twenty six ethnic tribes, Tanzania has a rich cultural background. Cultural Tourism is one of the main spearheads of Tanzania's tourism industry. From 1996 to 2001 a Cultural Tourism Program (CTP) was set up. It was jointly executed by the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB), Ministry of natural Resources & Tourism (MNRT) and SNV and aimed to *'engage local communities in Tanzania in income generating tourism activities to alleviate poverty and diversify the country's tourism products'* (TCTP 2011). During the project seventeen Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTE's) were established and currently there are twenty eight CTE's located in various regions within Tanzania.

The TTB defines cultural tourism as follows: *'Cultural tourism is a pro-poor/ community based form of tourism initiative in Tanzania that gives a chance to local people to organize some excursions/tours in their present natural environment where the real culture of the people is explored by tourists'*. The CTE's established during the five year project are quite successful in directly contributing to poverty reduction through direct fees, jobs/salaries for local people, markets for local products (food and handicrafts) and all are in business still. Annually the twenty-eight CTE's together receive some 30,000 visitors.

Tourists

Currently, most international tourists in Tanzania come from Europe (mainly Italy, the United Kingdom, Germany and Spain) and North America. According to the Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (TTSS) this is largely due to enhanced promotional efforts in those countries. The Majority of the visitors in 2009 were of the age group 25 to 44 (55.1 percent). The second in prominence was the age group of 45-64 (27.1 percent), followed by the age group of 18-24 (10.1 percent). The age group of above 65 accounted for about 6.9 percent of the international visitors. About 65 percent of the visitors came under the package tour arrangement, while 35 percent of the visitors came under the non-package tour. The majority of the visitors (79.1 percent) came for the purpose of leisure and holidays, followed by those who came for Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFRs; 8.2 percent). The 2009 International Exit Survey revealed that the majority of the visitors left the country via Julius Nyerere International Airport (30.8 percent) and Zanzibar Airport (30.5 percent).

2.3 Regional context: Northern and Northeast Tanzania

As explained in the section above, Tanzania owes a lot of its tourist numbers to tourists who cross the border from Kenya. Tourists cross this border in order to add some of the Northern Tanzanian parks to their safari trip in for example Maasai Mara, the famous National Park in southern Kenya. This might be the reason for the popularity of the Northern part of Tanzania over any other parts within the country. Only the island of Zanzibar receives the same amounts of visitors. Since Northern Tanzania is so popular and Mwanza also lies in the North, it is well worth to have a look at what this northern part has to offer and what the main differences are with what can be found in the Mwanza Region. For this chapter information has been used from the socio-economic profile of each region as well as from the 2010 country report of the NBS, 'Tanzania in Figures'.

2.3.1 Geographical context

For this study Northern Tanzania is not so much defined as consisting of several districts, but as consisting of the 'Northern Circuit', the most popular route among tourists (figure 2f). This

circuit covers the Arusha region, the Kilimanjaro region, the Mara region and large parts of the Manyara and Shinyanga region and borders Kenya in the north.

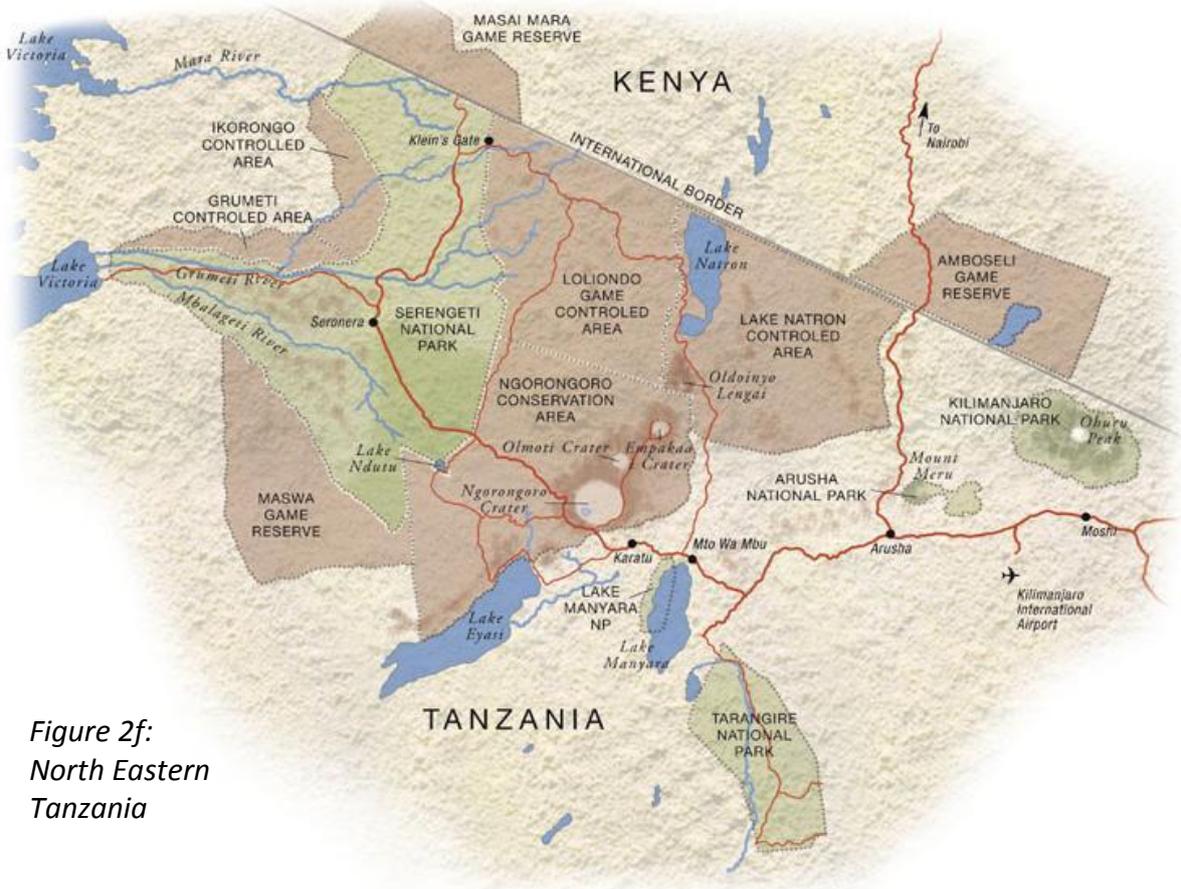


Figure 2f:
North Eastern
Tanzania

As has been said in the earlier section, the northeast of Tanzania consists of a mountainous region with a temperate climate: cooler than the inland and less humid than the coastline. The region includes Mount Meru and Mount Kilimanjaro, to the west of which lay the Ngorongoro Conservation area and Serengeti National Park. The most important cities are Arusha, Musoma and Moshi. The region contains several lakes, such as Lake Manyara, Lake Natron, Lake Eyasi and Lake Babati, together covering a surface of 3,571 square kilometres. Added to the surface of water Lake Victoria covers on Tanzanian surface (15,092 square kilometres) the total water surface adds up to 18,663 square kilometres. In table 2.2 the area surface, population size and main ethnic groups per region are shown.

Table 2.2: Characteristics of regions

	Area surface	Population size in 2010	Main ethnic groups
Arusha	82.428,5 sq. km	1.665.000	Iraqw, Arusha, Maasai, Meru and Barbaig
Kilimanjaro	13.209,0 sq. km	1.636.000	Chagga and Pare
Manyara	50.836,0 sq. km	1.388.000	?
Mara	30.150,0 sq. km	1.823.000	Kurya, Jita and Luo
Mwanza	35.187,0 sq. km	3.566.000	Sukuma, Zinza, Haya, Sumbwa, Nyamwezi, Luo, Kurya, Jita and Kerewe
Shinyanga	50.781,0 sq. km	3.842000	Sukuma, Nyamwezi and Sumbwa

Based on the socio-economic profile of each region

2.3.2 Economy

Economically the northern and north-eastern regions are very important to the country as a whole. Arusha region particularly is very important when it comes to tourism. Arusha is the absolute centre of the Northern Tourism Circuit. Next to tourism, the Arusha region relies on agriculture. Both commercial and peasantry farming are carried out in the region. Agriculture and tourism each make up 40 percent of the Regions GDP and Arusha's share in the national economy is increasing still. The Kilimanjaro, Manyara, Mara and Shinyanga regions' main economic activities are agricultural production and livestock rearing. Mara and Mwanza region also have an extended fishing industry.

2.3.3 Government

Each region has its own local authorities which are supported by the sectoral ministries. The ministries execute their role through the regions, which links the central and local government. The regional commissioner (RC) is the principle representative of the central government within the region. All executive functions within the region are exercised by or through the RC. The RC is appointed by the president and has the following four main responsibilities:

- Maintaining law and order in the region; the RC has the power to arrest and detain
- Determining the specific direction of efforts in implementing the general policies of the government in the region
- Facilitating and assisting the Local Government Authorities (LGAs) in the region
- Any other function delegated to him by the president (Mollel 2010)

The RC is, in turn, assisted by the regional secretariat, which is divided in separate divisions. The head of the regional secretariat, the Regional Administrative Secretary, is appointed by the president and is the principal advisor to the RC (ibid). Each of the local governments tries to attract investors to the region and the tourism sector is promoted as a favourable investment sector.

2.3.4 Nature and Wildlife

The northern region is famous for its five national parks: Serengeti National Park, Kilimanjaro National Park, Lake Manyara National Park, Arusha National Park and Tarangire National Park, for the Ngorongoro Crater and for its mountains: Mount Meru and Mount Kilimanjaro. Though the economic importance of these nature areas is apparent at local, regional and

Box 3: Serengeti National Park

The name Serengeti is derived from *Siringet*, the Maasai term for 'Endless Plains' and The Serengeti National Park certainly does justice to its name. The immense plains of the Serengeti (14,763 square kilometres) in the North of Tanzania and crossing the border with Kenya, host the largest mammal migration in the world, when more than 1,500,000 wildebeests follow some 200,000 zebras in a 2,000 kilometres round pilgrimage in search of fresh grazing and water (www.Tanzaniaparks.com). Except for wildebeests and zebras, other common mammals to be found in Serengeti are impalaas, gazelles, buffalos, giraffes, elephants, wild pigs, hippos, jackals, hyenas, lions, leopards and cheetahs, but also countless birds, reptiles and amphibians can be spotted on the endless plains. Besides these plains, Serengeti also contains a variety of other habitats such as forests, swamps, kopjes, grasslands and woodlands.

Because of its magnificence and beauty the Serengeti is an important attraction for thousands of tourists each year, who can choose from a wide range of walking, driving or hot air balloon safaris offered by one of the hundreds of tour operators. The Serengeti has been a protected area since 1940 and became a World Heritage Site in 1981 (UNESCO). Still though, people are worrying about the prevailing existence of the park, as the pressure of visiting tourists never diminishes and recently a proposal was done by the Tanzania's Transport Sector Improvement Program for the construction of a highway in the northern area of the park. The concern of the potentially irreversible damage that will be done when the highway will be built, has spread throughout the international community, and has received a great deal of attention from conservationists, international organizations and the public alike. Still though, no decisions have been made whether the highway will become a concrete project.



The Wildebeest Migration

national scales, wildlife in the northern Tanzania's plains still has to cope with unsustainable bush meat poaching and licensed resident hunting (Rodgers, Melamari and Nelson 2003). Areas surrounding the protected parks, which are used by wildlife to move from one area to another (which is needed to sustain a healthy population), are being lost to agriculture and settlements. The tension between nature conservation and human development keeps building up pressure. Though northern Tanzania has made significant steps in creating local wildlife-based benefits, especially through tourism, major institutional constraints must be addressed if viable community-based conservation is to be enabled (ibid).

2.3.5 Infrastructure

The infrastructural advantage of north-eastern Tanzania over the Lake Zone region is that the former has an international airport: Kilimanjaro International Airport. An international airport means easy access for international tourists, and these tourists will consequently be tempted to stay in the area and visit all kinds of attractions from there. In comparison with the rest of Tanzania both regions have a well developed economic infrastructure. The regions are also easily accessible by road from Nairobi or Dar es Salaam. However, larger part of the road between Mwanza and the north-eastern area is unpaved and in extremely bad condition, which poses a threat for the flow of tourists who would want to travel from one region to the other.

2.3.6 Tourism

Except for safaris Tanzania is also very popular for its climbing trips on Mount Kilimanjaro, a dormant volcano which lies some 525 kilometres away from Mwanza, near the border with Kenya. The cities Arusha and Moshi however lie in direct proximity of the Kilimanjaro and therefore are way more popular as a starting point for mountain climbers. Mt. Kilimanjaro is called by some 'The Roof of Africa' (www.mountkilimanjaro.com) and is the highest mountain on the African continent. Its highest peak, the Kibo, rises to 5,895 meters above sea level. Each year around 22,000 people climb Mount Kilimanjaro. Moshi is situated directly on the lower slopes of Mt. Kilimanjaro and functions as the starting point for the majority of Kilimanjaro tracks. Arusha lies 128 kilometres from Mt. Kilimanjaro, and is also popular as a starting point for Kilimanjaro tracks. However the city lies much closer to Mount Meru, the second tallest mountain of Tanzania (4,566 meters). The city of Arusha is seen as the safari-capital of Tanzania, since most of the safaris going through Serengeti and Ngorongoro Conservation area have Arusha as their starting point.

Mto wa Mbu (Swahili for 'river of mosquitoes') is a village also used by tourists as a starting point for their safari trip through Serengeti, located right between the Eastern entrance gate of Ngorongoro Crater and Arusha. Besides being close to these two main attractions of Tanzania, the village lies in close proximity of the entrance to Lake Manyara National Park. It was one of the most important hot spots during the Tanzania Cultural Tourism Program and many of its residents earn their money by working in the tourism industry. They can depend on thousands of tourists visiting each year.

2.4 Local context: Mwanza Region and Mwanza City

Mwanza is Tanzania's second largest town, located in the north of Tanzania, on the edge of Lake Victoria. Its position as the largest Tanzanian port on Lake Victoria, which borders Uganda to the north-west, and Kenya to the north-east, had made Mwanza a major centre of economic importance in the region, and export and transport between the countries is a foundation of Mwanza's economy. The achievement of City Status in 2000 resulted in an increase in local businesses, improvements in infrastructure and an influx of capital (SNV 2009). Tea, cotton, and coffee plantations throughout the area produce large volumes of cash crops that pass through Mwanza on their way to the market. The economy in this region is dominated by smallholder agriculture employing 85 percent of the region's population and complemented by an expanding fishing sector.

Mwanza City has grown rapidly over the past decades, from a population of 11,300 in 1948 to 476,646 in 2002. The current total population of Mwanza City is estimated to be just above half a million people, with an annual natural growth rate of 3.2 percent, internal migrations of people from rural to urban areas of 8 percent and a birth rate of 4.6 percent. The population density is 134 people per square kilometre, being the second in the country after Dar es Salaam (MCP 2010). Because of its very high population density, aggravated by serious pressure on land and food insecurity, the Mwanza region is among the poorest in Tanzania (UNDP & UNCDF 2006).

2.4.1 Geographical context
Mwanza Region

Mwanza Region lays in the northern part of Tanzania, bordering Kagera Region to the west, Shinyanga Region to the south and south east and Mara region to the north (figure 2g A). Mwanza is one of the smaller regions of Tanzania, occupying only 2,3 percent of the total land area of Tanzania mainland (MRSEP 1997). Only 20,095 square kilometres of the in total 35,187 square kilometres of Mwanza Region occupy dry land. 15,092 square kilometres are covered by Lake Victoria. Thus 43 percent of the region’s surface area is water.

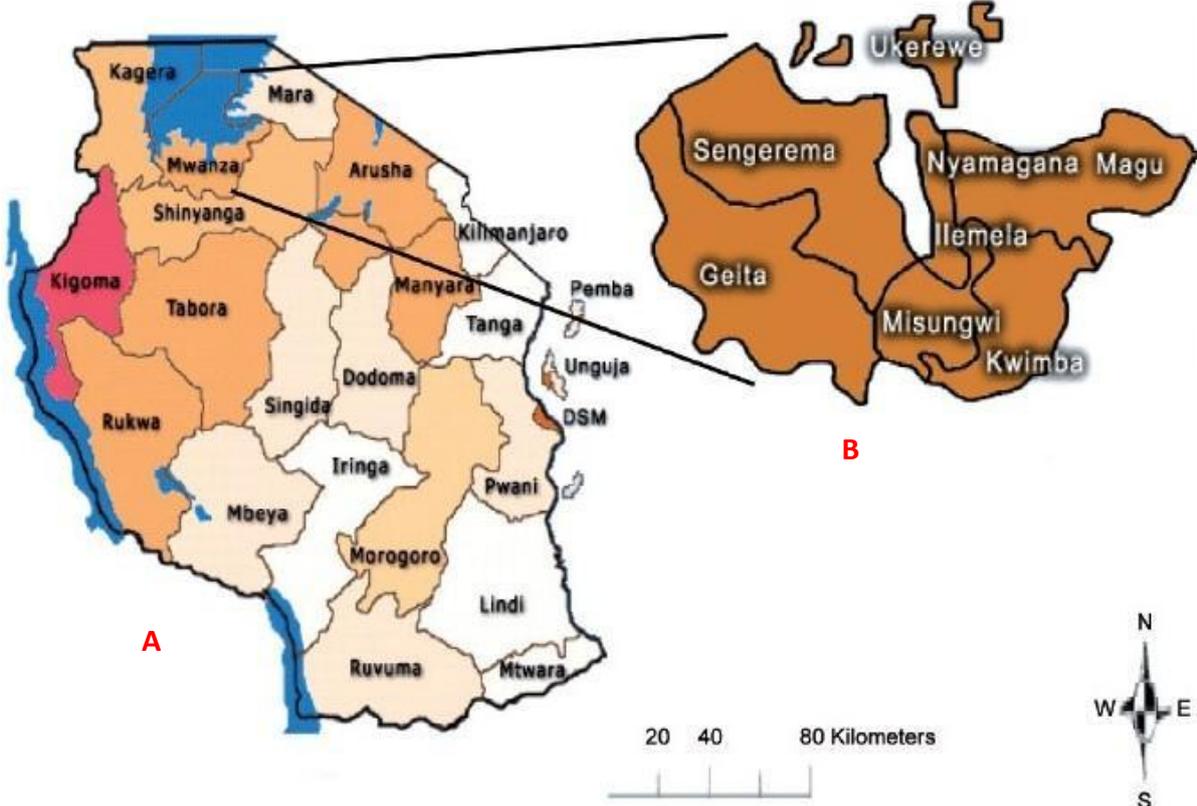


Figure 2g: Location of Mwanza region.
 Source: www.jgid.org

Mwanza is divided in seven administrative districts as from July 1996 (it used to be six) namely Geita, Kwimba, Magu, Misungwi, Mwanza (divisions Ilemela and Nyamagana), Sengerema and the island of Ukerewe (figure 2g B). Misungwi is the newly established district of the region excised from Kwimba district. The districts are divided into 33 divisions,

these in turn are further subdivided into 168 wards. The village is the basic administrative unit: there are 682 villages in Mwanza region.

Mwanza Region receives heavy rainfall almost throughout the year. It experiences between 700 millimetres and 1,000 millimetres of rainfall per year, divided over two rain seasons i.e. between the months of October and December, and between February and May. Temperature variations are minimal but do get influenced by altitude and proximity to the Lake Victoria amongst other factors.

Mwanza City

Mwanza City is located on the southern shores of Lake Victoria in Mwanza Region. In the north the city is bordered by Lake Victoria and Ukerewe District, in the South by Misungwi District, the Sengerema District borders in the West, and Magu District in the East. Mwanza City covers an area of 1,325 square kilometres of which 425 are dry land and 900 square kilometres are covered by water. Of the 425 square kilometres dry land area, approximately 86.8 square kilometres are urbanized while the remaining areas consist of forested land, valleys, cultivated plains, grassy and undulating rocky hill areas (MCP 2010). The city lies at an altitude of 1,140 metres above sea level. It covers an area of 1,324 square kilometres: 424 square kilometres (32 percent) are dry land and 900 square kilometres (68 percent) are covered by water (MCP 2010). The mean temperature of Mwanza City ranges between 25.7 °C and 30.2 °C in summer and 15.4 °C and 18.6 °C in winter.

2.4.2 Demographical Context

As already apparent from the earlier section, the main ethnic groups in Mwanza region are the Sukuma, Zinza, Haya, Sumbwa, Nyamwezi, Luo, Kurya, Jita and Kerewe. The Sukuma are by far the largest ethnic group of the region, making up 90 percent of the population and have inhabited and farmed the region for centuries. The other groups consist of various small minorities and are mainly to be found in the Mwanza Municipal area. The Sumbwa and Zinza are mostly found in Geita and Sengerema districts respectively (MRSEP 1997).

Mwanza region holds a population of 3,566,000 inhabitants, which is with 8 percent of the total population the largest of any region in Tanzania. Because of its small surface, consequently its population density is rather high as well. With 178 people per square kilometre it has the second highest population density of Tanzania (Dar es Salaam has the first) (NBS 2010) and with a growing rate of 3.2 percent a year (UNDP & UNCDF 2006) the population growth is superior to the national average of 3 percent. The amount of poor people in urban areas is rising fast as people move from rural areas to the city to try their luck and find a job, but due to lack of education end up being unemployed or engaged in the informal sector. Just as other large cities in Tanzania, Mwanza faces the problem of increasing numbers of street children (Lugalla & Mbwambo 1999). And 70 percent of the population is accommodated in so-called unplanned (squatter) settlements. These are characterised by a high congestion of buildings, poor accessibility, lack of infrastructure like electricity, roads, and telephones, lack of public facilities like dispensaries, and inadequate hygienic services like toilets and waste disposals (MCC 2010).

2.4.3 Economy

Mwanza Region

The main economic activities carried out by Mwanza region's population are agricultural production, livestock keeping, mining and to significant extent fishing. About 53 percent of

the total regional income consists of agriculture, mainly through the production of cotton, maize, rice, millet, cassava and fruits. Despite its potential, Mwanza region has a relatively low economic performance. In a research conducted by the UNDP and UNCDF the region ranked 10th amongst 12 selected regions with 48,508 TShs. per year (2006).

Mwanza City

In comparison to other regions of Tanzania, Mwanza has a particularly high income inequality. In 2004 Mwanza region had a Gini-Coefficient² of 0.48. The economy of Mwanza City is heavily dependent on mining and fishing, which are both industries confined in nature. Mining on itself can never be a sustainable industry, since it depends on the excavation of non-renewable resources. With the large amount of mining companies (there are 46 companies in the region only prospecting for gold) already excavating the minerals in the region, the overexploitation of these natural resources might have its consequences quite soon. Despite the abundance of mineral wealth in the Lake Zone, the majority of the people remain poor, which is according to many a direct consequence of the government's mineral policies (Naluyaga 2010). Villages around the mines hardly benefit from the investments in the mining sector, if they benefit at all. In communities like Karumwa in Geita district, electric cables and water pipes pass over and under the village to the mines, but the local people have remained without reliable power or water (ibid).

Fishing, if managed wrong, can cause fish stocks to plummet. Currently there are six large fishing companies in Mwanza, which have been established in the 1990's. These include Mwanza Fishing Industries, Nile Perch Fisheries, Tanzania Fish Processors, VicFish, Tan Perch Industries and Omega Fish Tanzania. Since the introduction of more efficient nets in 1905 and the expansion of markets following extension of the railway, the fish stock started to decline. Though overall fish catches increased five fold between 1975 and 1990 due to the introduction of the Nile perch and new species of tilapia, recently catches have declined again, and the fish that get caught are smaller and smaller in size. Indications are that the maximum sustainable yield (MSY)³ has been exceeded (Ogutu-Ohwayo 2001). Since the fish industry has created direct employment for over 8,000 locals and outsiders and indirectly employs about 300,000 others (MCP 2010), the decay of this particular industry, without any alternatives, would have massive consequences for thousands of people.

The declining of the fishing industry and other agricultural industries in Mwanza region has made young people within the economically active group reluctant to join the agricultural sector. As an alternative many have engaged themselves in petty businesses, often within the informal sector⁴. New employment opportunities have to be sought for the younger generations and the generations to come, since some 50 percent of the population of the city is unemployed (MCC 2010).

² The Gini-Coefficient is a measure of statistical dispersion, often used as a measure of inequality of income, ranging between 0 and 1, with a value of 0 expressing total equality and a value of 1 maximal inequality.

³ Maximum Sustainable Yield (MSY) describes the largest average catch or yield that can continuously be taken from a stock under existing environmental conditions. When a stock is at or above MSY levels, fishing of the stock is occurring at a sustainable rate (Source: HealthyTuna.com)

⁴ The Informal Sector in Mwanza refers to micro-enterprises that are not registered and do not have business licences. These include selling old clothes, vegetables, carpentry, selling small items like cosmetics, shoes, souvenirs etc. These businesses do not generate enough money in order to pay for a trade licence and therefore these businesses are often permitted. Some markets have even been established to accommodate these informal traders (MCC 2010).

Since two of the main industries of Mwanza are deemed to end, consequently there is a need for the diversification of industries. Mwanza has to anticipate on the fact that these industries will not sustain the Mwanza residents forever. Either the other existing industries have to be expanded or a new industry has to be introduced. Looking at the large picture of Tanzania, with tremendous revenues generated by the tourism industry, the question rises whether Mwanza would be able to get a piece of the tourism pie. By stimulating a healthy tourism industry within Mwanza Region and Mwanza City, an economical buffer could be created and vulnerability of the economy would decrease.

2.4.4 Government

Mwanza Region has one local government, six district councils and one city council. Mwanza City consists of two districts, namely Nyamagana and Ilemela which both fall under the local government of Mwanza. Mwanza operates under a committee system, comprising twenty-five elected and nominated councillors. Mwanza City has eight committees each focusing on a different department: Engineering; Urban Planning and Environment; Finance and Trade; Community Development; Health and Sanitation; Human Resources and Administration; Agriculture, Livestock and Co-operative; and Education and Culture.

2.4.5 Development Policy

Within the Mwanza City Profile 2010 the following is stated:

The development of Mwanza City should be people centred with the main objective of engendering wealth and sharing it equitably within the society. To achieve this, the City has to ensure that there is good governance and the rule of law to create equal opportunities for all residents to achieve their maximum potential.

The City council has established its own six city goals, intended to be achieved by 2025/2026:

1. Improving standard of living and eradicating poverty
2. Involving the community in planning and implementation of Council's activities
3. Addressing gender balance in provision of services & Development
4. Addressing environmental conservation
5. Efficient and effective use of Council's resources in service delivery
6. Increasing transparency and accountability of the council to the electorate
(For sub-goals, see appendix 6)

The city council invites anyone interested in investing to come to Mwanza. On their list of potential investment areas (appendix 7) the part of tourism and recreation is particularly large.

2.4.6 Nature and Wildlife

Mwanza City has the smallest National Park of Tanzania, a boat ride away from the city centre: Saa Nane Island National Park. The island only gained the status of national park this year, and especially in comparison to other national parks in Tanzania, it is rather small: 0.5 square kilometre. It used to have caged animals primarily, which gave the island a sad look. Recent changes might have turned the island into the peaceful getaway it was intended to

Box 4: Lake Victoria: nightmare or paradise?



Lake Victoria or Lake Nyanza, as it was officially called, is one of Africa's great lakes and the world's second largest freshwater lake by surface area: 68,800 square kilometres. The lake is crucial for the livelihoods of millions of people living in the surrounding regions in Kenya, Uganda and Tanzania (Ndembwike 2011). Quite recently though, Lake Victoria has been the stage of 'Darwin's Nightmare', a documentary much criticized in Tanzania while nominated for best documentary at the Oscars of 2007. According to many Tanzanians, the documentary has damaged the reputation of Tanzania and Mwanza in particular (Tanzanian Affairs 2007). The documentary narrates about the introduction of the Nile Perch with its devastating consequences, the following massive exportation of the fish and the cargo planes that come to get the fish in exchange for ammunition, supposedly used in African wars across the continent. It includes the stories of homeless children, prostitutes and Russian pilots amongst others and leaves an image of damage and despair. Though the documentary is based on facts, it doesn't show the other side of the lake: a beautiful environment which is still home to a large variety of animals, such as lizards of all sizes, countless birds like fish eagles, king fishers, egrets, cormorants and gannets and even crocodiles and hippos. Lake Victoria could be utilized as a main attraction of the Mwanza region, for bird watchers and tourists interested in boating and fishing. The largest threats to lake tourism are Bilharzia (a worm parasite) and crocodiles (hippos are only to be found around Rubondo Island). But the opportunities should definitely be explored.

be. The animals too large for the island were removed and all other animals were freed from their cages on the island. Except for Saa Nane island, which holds a variety of mainly imported animals, not endemic to the region, Mwanza City and surroundings are home to interesting animals such as the flat-headed rock agama and other lizards, fish eagles, vervet monkeys, and crocodiles.

2.4.7 Infrastructure

Mwanza Region is connected to other parts of the country by road, rail, water and air networks. Mwanza City has a total road network of 861 kilometres, of which 68 kilometres are tarmac roads. There is a tarmac road connecting Dar es Salaam and Mwanza with several bus companies driving daily. However, the present gravel roads between Mwanza and the north-eastern area of Arusha, Moshi and Tanga are in extremely bad condition, which poses a threat for the flow of tourists who would want to travel from one region to the other.

It used to be possible to travel to Mwanza by train via the railway of the TRC, coming from various destinations, the main stations being Dar es Salaam, Tabora and Kigoma (see section 2.2.7, figure 2c). However, the railway station in Mwanza has been closed for about a year now and there are no indications of when it will open again.

Mwanza has a relatively small airport (only two airstrips), which handles domestic and regional flights. Domestic flights cover Bukoba, Shinyanga, Arusha (Kilimanjaro International Airport) and Dar es Salaam, and regional flights cover Nairobi (Kenya), Entebbe (Uganda), Pemba (Mozambique). There are three commercial airlines operating out of

Mwanza, namely Precision Air, Fly 540 and Coastal Aviation. There are also cargo aircraft landing at the airport weekly. The cargo planes mainly come to carry fish fillet to Europe and the Middle East. The airport's only runway can handle airplanes with weight up to 180 tons. The airport is planned to be upgraded to the status of an International Airport. The airport has a lack of well maintained, satisfactory and sufficient buildings for passengers and cargo (MCP 2010).

A ferry is daily covering the distance between Bukoba and Mwanza and Musoma and Mwanza. Other ferries also connect the city with Kenya and Uganda. Out of the twenty five ports of the Victoria Lake, the main ports are Mwanza and Bukoba (Tanzania), Kisumu (Kenya), and Entebbe, Port Bell and Jinja (Uganda). For smaller trips within the region of Mwanza, ferries are available at least twice a day, for example to cover the distance between the Mwanza district and Sengerema or the island of Ukerewe.

Within the city, the main form of transportation is the dala-dala, which is a mini van. The dala-dala is built to transport about 18 people (driver and conductor excluded) but in practice often transports up to 26 people. Dala-dalas cover pretty much every corner of the city, though for larger distances you might have to change vans a few times. Since the dala-dalas are the cheapest form of transportation (about 15 eurocents per 10 kilometres) the larger part of Mwanza residents is able to use this form of transportation.

2.4.8 Tourism

Because of its beautiful surroundings and the gentle climate of Mwanza area, this region could function as an extra getaway for tourists. Tourism has a promising future as an engine for Mwanza's long-term economic growth, but only if Mwanza invests in these sectors in a sustainable fashion. Attractions of the region include: Lake Victoria, The Bujora Museum, Ukerewe Island, Saa Nane National Park, Rubondo Island National Park and the environmental surroundings. Opportunities for the expansion or development of new attractions have been explored in this study, and more information can be found in the following chapters.

MTTF and MTA

In October 2008 the Mwanza Tourism Task Force (MTTF) started with the main goal to develop Mwanza into a sustainably managed tourist destination and additional gateway into Serengeti national Park. The MTTF had roughly 35 members, consisting of various tourism stakeholders who met on a monthly basis. The MTTF had formed four committees, namely:

- Mwanza Tourist Information office committee
- Mwanza City tours and guides training committee
- Karibu Fair and Marketing committee
- MTTF Institutionalisation committee

The MTTF run campaigns and conferences and has set up two Mwanza Tourism Forums in which stakeholders, including government ministries and agencies, hoteliers, tour operators, service providers to the tourism industry, community tourism initiatives, region government representatives, local government authorities and representatives of neighbouring regions and destinations were invited to discuss investment prospects.

In 2010 the MTTF chose to form the Mwanza Tourist Association (MTA). In the words of its co-ordinator Ms. Kalikawe the MTA is an association of Mwanza locals who endeavour to work towards the growth of tourism in the Mwanza region so that it makes significant

contributions to employment creation, income generation and to the growth of Mwanza's GDP (Kalikawe 2010).

The MTA has established strategic partnerships with various governmental institutions and private organizations such as the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB), the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT), Regional Administrative Secretariat, Tanzania Private Sector Foundations competitiveness Cluster Program (TPSF/CCP), Tanzania Confederation of Tourism (TCT) and the Tanzania Airport Authority (TAA).

In appendix 1 the objectives and initiatives of the MTA are summarized. In chapter 5, section 5.4 observations from the field will be given about the current status of the MTA.

2.5 Conclusion

Though macro-economic conditions in both the whole nation of Tanzania, as well as in separate regions are quite stable and outlooks are positive, income poverty remains widespread. Various organizations stress the need to put more effort to reduce the rate of unemployment or semi-employment within the informal sector. Tanzania can already count on an enormous and steady inflow of tourists each year, contributing to the nation's GDP by 12.9 percent (directly and indirectly). Due to the popularity of the Northern Circuit though, tourists tend to all follow the same path, thereby leaving other regions untouched. Mwanza Region is in need of a diversification of its industry and could benefit greatly if the flow of tourism would be adjusted so that Mwanza City and its surroundings would form an integral part of the northern circuit. Accelerated effort is required to make sure that the industry does not, like other industries in the region, only contribute to the macro-economy. Revenues have to end up with the people who need it the most, and therefore a pro-poor focus would be in place. The combination of a large amount of unemployed and poor people with a favourable tourism climate brings opportunities for the growth of a pro-poor tourism industry in the Mwanza region.

In the following chapters opportunities and obstacles will be explored regarding the chances to turn Mwanza into a blooming tourist destination. With the information gathered in chapter 1, the steps will be sought that are necessary for the establishment of a pro-poor tourism industry.

Chapter 3 Methodological framework

3.1 Introduction

This study was conducted in the context of an ongoing cooperation of Utrecht University and SNV Netherlands Development Organization. Master students of International Development Studies from the university were hosted for a period of thirteen weeks at the Lake Zone Portfolio Office of SNV in Mwanza. Two of them, Jes Halim Nauckhoff and the author of this thesis, Anjelle Rademakers, were positioned on the tourism project. In addition, another MSc student was involved, namely Alban Jageuneau from the University of Paul Valéry, Montpellier III. The initial assignment was to make an inventory of potential and existing tourism routes in and around Mwanza City. The inventory study was to consist of the following components:

- an in-depth study of the existing tourism routes and attractions in Mwanza, as well as researching the ideas and perceptions of different stakeholders on existing routes and attractions and the development of new routes and attractions in Mwanza;
- a description which of the emerging MTA activities are of direct relevance to existing and potential tourism routes and how this link can be strengthened (e.g. what activities are of particular interest to tourists? How can tour operators tap into this?).

These components led to the question from which elements in the community data should be gathered. After intensive discussions, a list was created of data that needed to be collected in Mwanza City and surroundings. This list included:

- Tour Operators
- Meeting, Incentive, Convention and Exhibition (MICE)-market
- Weekend Escapes (Domestic and East African tourism + expats living in Mwanza)
- Cultural and natural heritage
- Voluntourism
- Special Interest Tourism (i.e. fishing and bird watching)
- Souvenir Shops

This list of subjects was divided over the interns. Alban Jageuneau focused on the MICE-Market and voluntourism. Jes Halim Nauckhoff focused on weekend escapes of expats living in Mwanza (consisting mainly of miners) and special interest tourism, and the author, Anjelle Rademakers, focussed on tour operators, souvenir shops and cultural and natural heritage. Therefore, this study is focussed on these last elements. The core research question remains with a strong focus on the pro-poor principles.

3.2 Research question and sub questions

Based on the initial assignment, combined with the need for a pro-poor strategy, the core research question of this study was formulated as follows:

Which steps have to be taken to create a pro-poor tourism industry in Mwanza City and Mwanza Region?

To achieve the aim of this study the following sub-questions were formulated:

- *What are the existing attractions and tourist-routes in Mwanza and what are their characteristics?*
- *Who are the different stakeholders of tourism in Mwanza, what are their characteristics and what are their main ideas and perceptions about attractions and tourist routes?*
- *What are the main obstacles for Mwanza in attracting more tourists and what are the main obstacles for entrepreneurs to improve their tourist businesses?*
- *What new attractions and tourist-routes could be developed?*

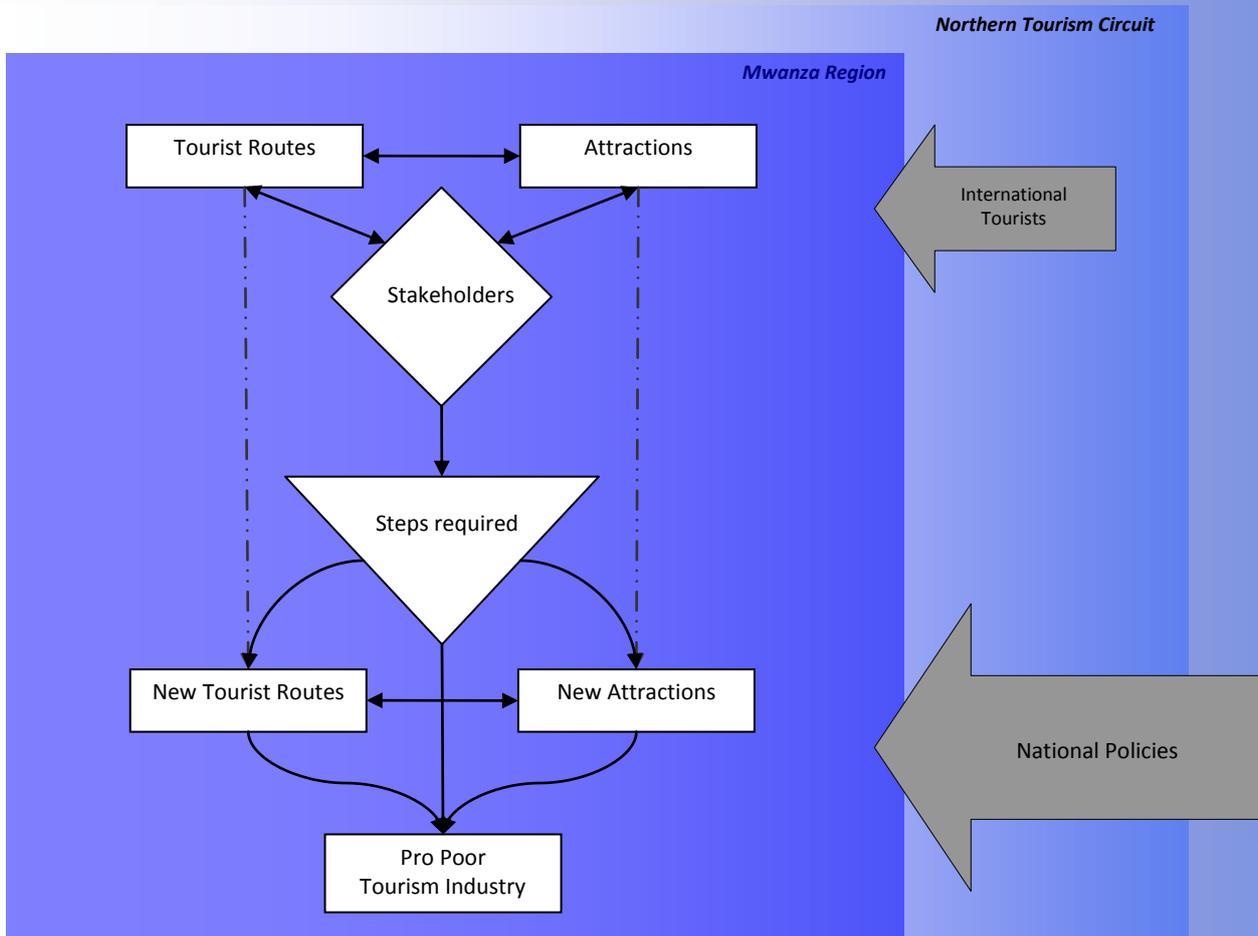
In this thesis, these questions will be dealt with one by one, each chapter concentrating on one or two questions and their answers. The first question; *'What are the existing attractions and tourist-routes in Tanzania and what are their characteristics?'* will be answered in chapter 4. The second question; *'Who are the different stakeholders of tourism in Mwanza, what are their characteristics and what are their main ideas and perceptions about attractions and tourist-routes?'* will be answered in chapter 5. In chapter 6 the obstacles and opportunities will be highlighted, thus focussing on the remaining two sub-questions. And finally in chapter 7 the main research question will be answered, based on all the previous chapters.

3.3 Conceptual model

The research has been focusing on which steps should be taken to create a pro-poor tourism industry. In the conceptual model (figure 3a) an overview is given of what this study consists of. A pro-poor tourism industry is formed by routes and attractions that make sure international tourists will want to visit this particular location and stakeholders like entrepreneurs and employees who are working in the different tourism enterprises and facilities. Ways have to be found to encourage tourists to add Mwanza to the conventional route through the Northern Circuit. In the case of Mwanza, new routes and attractions will have to be developed, not only to attract tourists, but to make sure the industry brings benefits to the local community and that it creates opportunities for the poor in particular. Along the way of becoming a pro-poor tourism industry, stakeholders will face certain obstacles, which will have to be dealt with. Keeping these elements in mind, the steps will be found that are needed to create a pro-poor tourism industry. In section 3.4 the terms mentioned above will be operationalised.

Figure 3a: Conceptual Model

National Context



While mapping all of these elements, a strong focus was kept on the underlying connections between the elements. It was investigated whether networks existed between the individual actors, whether unions existed and what the overall cohesion looked like of the current Mwanza Tourism Industry.

3.4 Operationalisation of concepts

In order to be able to do research in respect to the conceptual model above, certain concepts have to be operationalized:

Attractions

Any place or event of interest that can or is supposed to attract tourists, which directly or indirectly generates income like a national park, zoo, ceremony, festival, ritual, etc.

<i>Cultural and natural heritage</i>	<p>It was decided to go in line with what UNESCO defines as cultural heritage without leaving aside natural heritage resources;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tangible cultural heritage: movable cultural heritage (paintings, sculptures, coins, manuscripts, etc.) and immovable cultural heritage (monuments, archaeological sites, and so on) • Intangible cultural heritage: oral traditions (story telling), folklores, performing arts, rituals, and so on)
<i>Domestic Tourism</i>	Tanzanian citizens travelling outside the normal place of residence to other areas within the country (Burkart & Medlik quoted in Sindiga, 1996).
<i>Facilities</i>	All the services connected to tourism that host, accommodate, guide, protect, inform or support tourists in any way.
<i>International tourists</i>	Persons who are travelling through Tanzania for pleasure, like families on holiday, backpackers, businessmen in their leisure time, etc.
<i>Obstacles</i>	Any reasons for low expenditure by tourists or the complete absence of tourists and the malfunctioning of (micro) tourism enterprises. E.g. hassle from vendors might also discourage tourist to spend their money.
<i>Pro-poor tourism</i>	<p>In chapter 2 the definition was given of pro-poor tourism as stated by www.propoortourism.org.uk and I will use this definition throughout my research. The definition is as follows:</p> <p><i>Pro poor tourism is about increasing the positive impacts of tourism on the local community. Pro-poor tourism is not a specific product but an approach to the industry. It is an approach that seeks to increase participation of the local community at many points in the sector, and that aims to increase their economic and social benefits from tourism while reducing the negative impacts.</i></p>
<i>Route and attraction characteristics</i>	Distinguishing features or qualities of tourist routes and attractions.
<i>Stakeholders</i>	Any person who influences or is influenced by the Mwanza tourism industry, like the tourists themselves, the local community, tourism entrepreneurs, the authorities, etc.
<i>Tourist Routes</i>	Any path that is taken by tourists in our through Tanzania and/or that is offered by a tour operator. A tourist route offered by a tour operator can be defined as a route organised around themes whose natural, historical, artistic or social interest is patently

Tanzanian. The route must be based on a number of highlights, with places particularly rich in historical associations (definition borrowed and slightly altered from Council of Europe, cited in Briedenhann & Wickens 2004, 72).

3.5 Methods used

The actual fieldwork has been conducted between February and May 2011 and consisted of various research methods that have been used in order to find adequate answers to the research questions. In this section all will be explained about the used methods in chronological order.

The research consisted of two parts. In the first part an inventory was made of what elements, needed to establish a tourism industry, already exist in Mwanza and information was gathered on what their basic characteristics were. The amount and characteristics of tour operators were mapped, as well as the amount and characteristics of souvenir shops. In the second part a more in-depth study was conducted concerning the souvenir shops and cultural tours that could be established in cooperation with some of the stakeholders.

3.5.1 The search for respondents

The small-scale tourism industry in Mwanza made it possible for the author to include all single members of certain focus groups in the research. Thus, there was no need for sampling.

Actors

Among the actors that can be found in Mwanza Region are tour operators, souvenir shops and employees working at tourist attractions. At the time of the fieldwork fourteen tour operators were located in Mwanza, which all have been approached and included in the study. Eleven souvenir shops, both formal and semi-formal and one informal souvenir seller (Mr. Tito, see section 5.3) have been approached. Except for Mr. Tito, informal souvenir sellers have been left out of the inventory, since they were un-traceable; they do not have permanent stands or working hours, and there is no way of knowing how many there are. (For an explanation of the differences between formal, semi-formal and informal souvenir shops, see chapter 5, section 5.3). The larger part of the actors was very willing to cooperate in the research. Especially the artists of the souvenir shops were very eager to cooperate and share their ideas on tourism in Mwanza. The tour operators were a bit more reluctant, which was explained by some of them by the fact that they were afraid their ideas would be copied. However, after the aim of the research was explained, all approached actors cooperated in some extent.

Attractions

All attractions that could be found in the region have been visited and the researchers have been talking to employees of them all (if there were any). To make sure as many of the attractions as possible were included in the research, every informant has been asked whether he/she knew of more attractions in the area with stakeholders that could be interviewed. It is difficult however to give the exact number of attractions and sites that were visited, because some of them can barely be defined as an attraction and at some sites

no interviews could be conducted because there were no employees. The ultimate amount of attractions visited was approximately twenty attractions.

3.5.2 Quantitative research methods

As mentioned earlier, the first part of the research consisted of an inventory of the existing tourism elements. Short questionnaires were used in order to collect the basic characteristics of each tour operator, souvenir shop and attraction site. These questionnaires were adjusted little by little along the way. Questionnaires can be found in appendices 8-10. This first sets of questionnaires were used during short interviews and conducted by the author herself.

A second set of questionnaires (appendix 11) was handed out to nine souvenir shops (excluding the Maasai Market and Mr Tito) which were self-completion questionnaires. The Maasai Market and Mr. Tito were considered by the author to be too different from the rest of the souvenir shops to be used for comparison. The questionnaires were meant to gather information on the amount of clients each souvenir shop received over a month and what their average expenditure was. However, this method proved to be less of a success. Even though the researcher explained the questionnaire beforehand and translation was provided by a research assistant, questions were misunderstood and in the end results were hardly comparable. Some of the questionnaires got lost during the month, and since there was no time to start all over again, in the end only seven questionnaires were returned to the researcher/author of this study.

3.5.3 Qualitative research methods

While the first part of the research was more quantitative, the second part of the research consisted more of qualitative research methods, such as semi-structured interviews⁵, Focus Group Discussions (FGD's) and observations. The semi-structured interviews mainly focused on the status of the tourism industry thus far and opportunities that people might see for the future, both for themselves within the tourism industry as well as for the tourism industry as a whole. FGD's were conducted during the design of the village tour (see box 11). Observations were conducted at all attraction sites (both cultural and natural heritage and sites that consisted of daily life situations, such as markets).

In addition to the techniques mentioned above and because of her anthropological background, the author has brought in a method often used in anthropological research; through unstructured interviews and (participating) observations narratives have been sketched of the complete context perceived by the stakeholders. These narratives have been written down in the form of short case studies. Together, these case studies should give the reader a more in-depth idea of what kind of position stakeholders are in, and how they perceive the tourism industry in their city.

3.5.4 First analysis and sharing of results

Towards the end of the fieldwork, in May and June, a field report has been written, with the initial findings and first analysis of the study. This report has been shared with key stakeholders, both for the dissemination of results and the generating of critical feedback. The research data have been shared via presentations given at the St. Augustin University

⁵ ' "Semi-structured" interviews follow a form of interview schedule with suggested themes, but there is scope for the interviewee to develop their responses' (Desai & Potter 2006, p 144).

and at the portfolio office of SNV. With respect to the latter, all possible stakeholders were invited, but only a couple of them actually showed up.

3.5.5 Supervision and collaboration

During the fieldwork supervision and support have been provided by the following:

- Sophie Boshouwers, young professional working with SNV in tourism in Mwanza;
- Rinus van Klinken, Portfolio Coordinator for SNV in Mwanza, provided overall guidance and supervision.
- Collaboration was developed with the tourism department of St. Augustin University in Mwanza, of which students were appointed, who could function as research assistants and translators.
- Translation and collaboration has also been provided by Abdala Matongo and Ally Juma, two individual actors within the tourism industry.

3.6 Design of a Village Tour

As requested by SNV, a new pro-poor tourism initiative was designed during the second part of the research. The goal was to create a village tour, using a local intermediary, local communities and local businesses to create a sustainable product that would benefit the poor while also attracting international tourists to pass through Mwanza on their way to Serengeti National Park.

3.6.1 Village tour action plan

During the period of fieldwork, the following steps have been taken:

- Making contact with the community. The local government has been approached and asked whether they were interested in participating. The necessary documents have been obtained.
- An initial meeting was held in order to explain to the local government what CBT consists off and to answer first questions.
- A visit to the village was conducted in order to investigate the potential of the area and to see what kind of attractions/activities could be included in a cultural tour.
- A community meeting was held to inform the members of the community about the project and see if they would be interested in participating.
- A budget was created and discussed with the community.
- Packages have been designed for half a day and full day trips.
- A pilot tour has been conducted with outsiders to see if the concept would work.

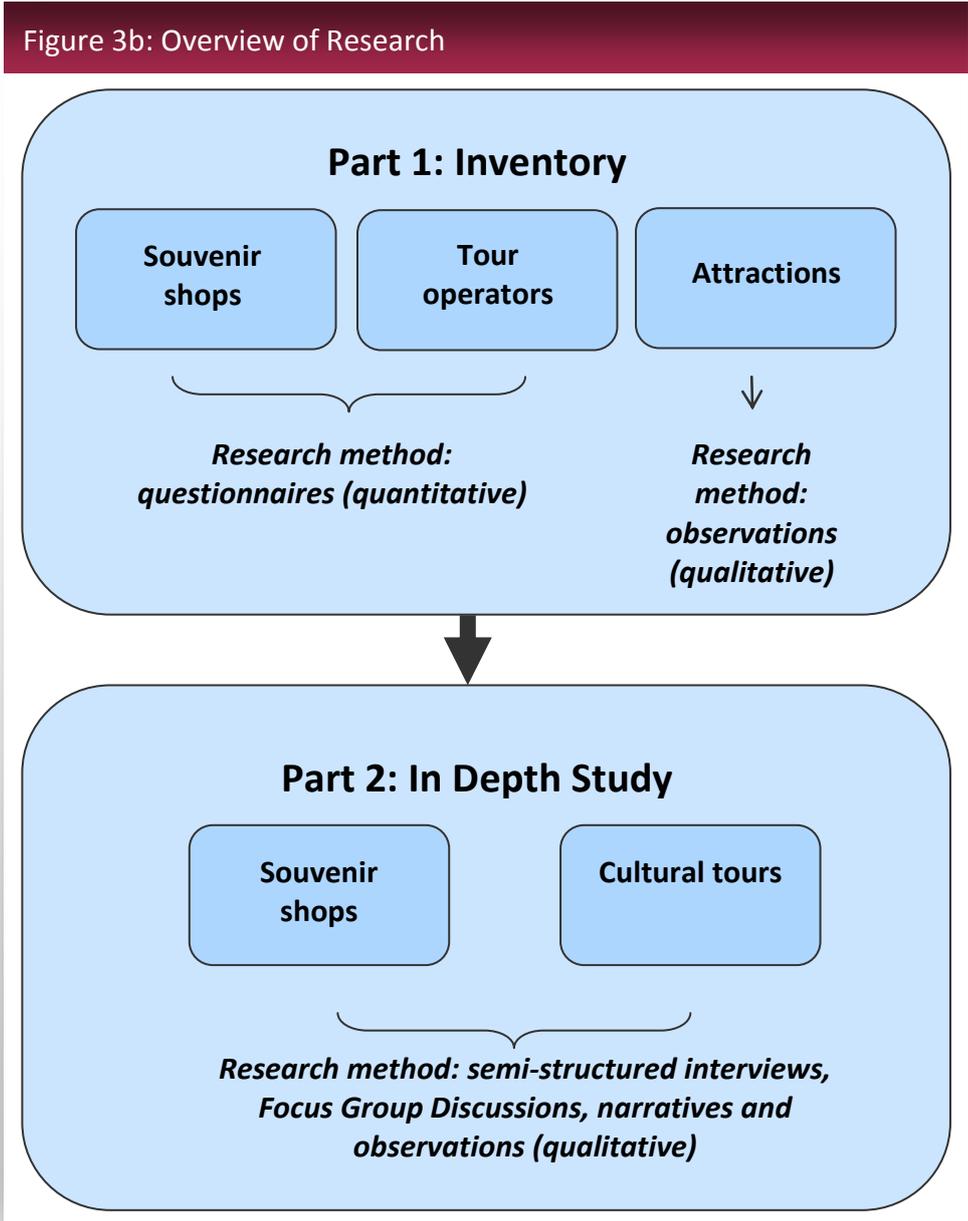
3.7 Limitations and reliability

The absolute number of respondents was extremely low, due to the fact that there were only a handful of actors working in the Mwanza tourism industry at the time of the fieldwork. Consequently, all actors could be approached, which meant that outcomes were 100 percent representative for the 'population'. However, the fact that not all questionnaires were returned to the researcher/author of this study, reduces the

representativeness of the result somewhat. Since a large part of the Mwanza tourism industry is informal, it is difficult to get a grasp of the complete picture.

3.8 Summary

In this chapter an outline has been given of the methodological framework this study was based upon. In figure 3b an overview has been given of different steps during the research.



Chapter 4 Existing Attractions & Routes in Mwanza

4.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the first empirical question of this study, which was formulated as follows:

What are the existing attractions and tourist-routes in Mwanza and what are their characteristics?

In section 4.2 all attractions found within Mwanza City and in the direct surroundings of the city, will be presented. In section 4.3 the status of tourist routes in and around Mwanza will be analyzed and in section 4.4 the characteristics of these attractions and routes will be described. Among these characteristics, a strong focus lies on the question who the beneficiaries of each attraction are.

4.2 Existing attractions

To come up with a list of attractions in Mwanza is not easy, since the city is not focused on tourists. The list of attractions would become extremely short if only attractions would be included that are aimed at attracting tourists. Therefore the definition has been made as broad as possible, including viewpoints and sites that are part of daily life such as markets. Included in this study are all attractions found within Mwanza City, the most important attractions found within Mwanza Region, and some attractions just outside Mwanza Region which could make an important contribution to new routes that would include Mwanza, namely Serengeti National Park, Rubondo Island National Park and the Julius Nyerere Museum. In this section, each possible attraction found will be described in short.

4.2.1 Cultural heritage

Kageye Historical Site

About 40 kilometres North-East of Mwanza lies the village of Kayenze. Though in recent days Kayenze has turned into a calm fishing village, in the late nineteenth century the area used to be the most important port on the southern coast of Lake Victoria. The only remembrance of those days is the historical site of Kageye, just outside the village. The site is owned by the Sukuma Museum (see section 4.2.2) but in appearance not comparable with the museum just outside of Mwanza. This site was once the stage of slave trade, until in 1878 missionaries put slavery to an end. The site consists of a meadow with trees and a mixture of monuments, graves and remains from different areas can be found, such as remains of one of the oldest Sukuma chiefdoms, Arab establishments, remains of slave markets and graves of missionaries and travellers.

Despite the rich history, the site is greatly underdeveloped and unexploited. The graves and other remains aren't being taken care of and many have fallen to a state of unrecognisable debris. Only a handful of people visit the site every month and the entrance money (1,000 TSh which is approximately 41 eurocents) is far from enough to renovate the

site. However, without renovations this site is nowhere near ready for visitors, let alone mass tourism. Though the local government has been promising to invest in the site for years, nothing has happened so far.

Arriving on their own, tourists won't be able to enter the site, unless they are coincidentally noticed by one of the villagers who can contact the guide. A guide from the village who only speaks Swahili can provide visitors with a tour around the site. However, the story is incomplete and inarticulate, which is only worsened by the fact that a translator is needed to make sense of it all.



Some remains and a reconstruction to be found at Kageye Historical Site

Ghandi Hall

Right in the city centre you can find a building called Mahatma Gandhi Memorial Hall. It was built in 1952 as a memorial for Mahatma Gandhi and in front of it a sculpture is placed of the Indian philosopher. The hall is empty except for some tables and chairs piled up in the corners. There is nothing to see and no one to narrate the story of why this hall was built at this particular time in Mwanza.



The outside and inside of Ghandi Hall

Robert Koch House

Also to be found in the city centre, on a hill towering over the Samaki roundabout (a central point in Mwanza) is the Robert Koch House. The house was built by German colonists before the First World War for medical research. In reality, it was never used for this purpose, but instead the British and Tanzanian government used it for administration. Robert Koch was a German physician, famous for his contributions to the isolation of bacteria and awarded with the 'Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine' for his tuberculosis findings in 1905. Whether he has ever set foot in the Robert Koch House, or why the house was named after him remains unclear.

Nowadays, since it wasn't being used, the house is in a state of a squat dwelling and a group of Maasai have taken up residence in the building. Visitors or other interested persons can still enter, but find nothing more than empty rooms with waste and debris in the

corners, as well as outside. Due to a lack of maintenance large holes have weakened the outer walls and the glass in the windows is cracked or gone.

Despite its current state, the outline and form of the building is still intact and its location and view over the city is quite impressive. The building has a lot of potential to be turned into a tourist attraction, either as a museum, a visitor's centre or a viewpoint where tourists can enjoy the view while having a drink on the terrace or in one of the rooms.



The Robert Koch House

Churches, mosques and temples

Scattered in and around Mwanza lie many churches, mosques and Hindu temples, some of them more impressive than others. However, none of these has the capability or aim to attract mainstream tourists, nor do they have people to guide tourists around.

Tanzania is one of a few countries where people of different religions live closely together in harmony. The various houses of faith could become part of an interesting religion tour through the city.



Churches and one of the mosques in Mwanza

Bukoba Ferry Monument

The MV Bukoba was a Lake Victoria steamer ferry that carried passengers and cargo between the ports of Bukoba and Mwanza. On the 21st of May in 1996, just thirty minutes before reaching Mwanza port, the MV Bukoba sank some 56 kilometres off the coast of Mwanza. Though the vessel had turned over, it had remained on the surface, partially buoyant. However, rescuers, who could hear trapped passengers screaming and banging, ignored the pleas of fishermen and decided to drill a hole into the hull to rescue those trapped inside. The effect was the air which had kept the hull afloat was released and shortly after the boat sank. Only 53 people survived. The president of Tanzania at the time, Benjamin Mkapa, declared three days of national mourning for the almost 700 victims that drowned that day (Tanzanian Affairs 1996). The monument was built to commemorate what is considered to be East Africa's worst ship disaster.

The monument stands on one of the rocky hills surrounding Mwanza and Lake Victoria. There is no entrance fee or personnel to narrate the story to visitors, nor is there an explanatory text. The names of the victims can be read on the bottom of the statue.



The Bukoba Ferry Monument and the views from the monument over Lake Victoria and the rock scenery below

Gallows Tree Monument

In the middle of Mwanza, next to one of the main roundabouts, a reconstructed tree trunk can be found. The trunk is a monument for the Gallows Tree where in the German colonial time criminals were condemned and hanged.

European Cemetery

In a corner of Capri Point, the first European Cemetery of Mwanza can be found. It is a Tanzanian tradition to bury the dead within the homestead of the family. In this way ancestors are kept close and can protect the family. Therefore, when German colonists arrived in Mwanza, there was no cemetery yet. The first European cemetery was built in 1890 by the Germans, later taken over and expanded by the English and finally by the Indians. Nowadays also some African names can be found on the cemetery.



Graves and goats at the European Cemetery

Ukerewe Island

Ukerewe Island is one of the districts of Mwanza region and is located about 45 kilometres North of Mwanza. It is the largest island within Lake Victoria with a land area of approximately 530 square kilometres.

Ukerewe Island is known for housing a large population of Africans with albinism. Albinism is a genetic condition whereby people are born with little or no pigment in their skin, hair or eyes (which often appear red). It affects a quarter of a million Tanzanians. Across sub-Saharan Africa the condition has been viewed as a curse or a bad omen for centuries; some believe albinos, who are susceptible to disfiguring skin cancers and nearsightedness, to be sadistic, or to have evil powers. Meanwhile, some witchdoctors believe that parts of albinos' bodies, when mixed with a potion, can make people rich. In the past, elderly women with red eyes have been killed after being accused of witchcraft, and

newborn albinos have sometimes been killed shortly after birth. In 2007 the number of albinos being killed rose sharply. This happened mostly in the areas of Mwanza, Shinyanga, Mara and Arusha. Because of poverty, it has been known for family members to collude with the killers - for money. Many albino children were abandoned on Ukerewe Island by their families.

4.2.2 Museums

Sukuma Museum/Bujora Cultural Centre

The Sukuma Museum/Bujora Cultural Centre, which can be found approximately one hour from Mwanza in the area called Kisesa, is the only attraction in Mwanza that is developed and ready for tourist numbers to grow. As was explained in chapter 2, sections 2.2.2, the Sukuma are the largest tribe of Tanzania and live mainly in the North and all over Mwanza Region. The open-air museum in Kisesa holds a collection of different Sukuma attributes and buildings. One of the centerpieces is a Sukuma church which is still being used. The museum only generates direct income for a few people, the employees and a local Sukuma drumming group that performs its shows every now and then for the museum guests. However, it is the only actor in Mwanza that attracts a significant number of tourists to the city and the nearby villages and thereby generates some extra revenue for the whole region.

Every year the Sukuma Museum organizes the so called Bulabo festival, by which the old Sukuma dancing and drumming traditions are maintained. Different Sukuma dancing groups enter a three weeks lasting competition in which they battle against each other using different instruments and even animals like pythons, porcupines and hyenas. The group that attracts the most spectators wins the battle. The participants get paid only by fees from the visitors. There is no prize money. The festival attracts a lot of Tanzanian salesmen and small businesses, who sell their products and food to the visitors.



Some of the Sukuma attributes and buildings displayed within the Sukuma Museum

Saa Nane Island Museum

Within Mwanza City also lies the Saa Nane Island Museum. Here a collection of stuffed animals, mainly birds, and skeletons is displayed in one small room. The animals are clearly old and not preserved well: they are falling apart. All animals have a name-tag which is attached to their sockets with adhesive tape. The entrance to the museum is free.

Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere Museum

A small museum dedicated to the father of the nation, Mwalimu Nyerere, can be found in his hometown, Butiama village, near Musoma, three hours from Mwanza. A nominal entrance fee is required. The museum amounts to one simple, main room. The collection houses mainly small gifts and awards, occasionally with corresponding photographs, that

Nyerere received for his lifetime of work and achievements. The museum also includes a few artefacts from his home and private life. Most objects have a short description in Kiswahili and some also have corresponding English translations but this practice is inconsistent. While the overall standard of presentation is a bit lax, the museum does offer a good sense of Nyerere’s importance and reverence in Tanzania and the broader international community.

A short walk up the road, accompanied by an English speaking guide, leads to the mausoleum where Nyerere is buried and to the family compound. A marble structure adorned with mourner’s flowers marks the late leader’s grave. Nearby are the graves of his parents and other family members. The compound includes Nyerere’s two homes, where he resided in youth and presidency as well as the new home constructed just weeks before his death. Both are still occupied by Nyerere’s wife and family. The location at the top of a bluff also offers a quality viewpoint overlooking the countryside. As it is, the museum is worth a short stop in route. However, the quality and appeal is not currently such to warrant a half day trip from Mwanza solely to visit the museum. The museum has recently acquired a new director, the potential results of which are yet to be known.

Surrounding Butiama village, a number of cultural tours are being offered by the Tanzania Cultural Tourism Program. The tours can take up either half a day or a full day. Attractions in this area consist of german soldiers hiding caves, graveyards, panoramic views of Lake Victoria, the Serengeti plains and the surrounding human settlements, hot springs, visits to community development projects, cotton farms, local schools, and health centres found in the area, and visitors can stay overnight with Wazanaki family to enjoy traditional food and their unique lifestyle (TanzaniaCulturalTourism.com). Together these attractions form an interesting daytrip from Mwanza.

4.2.3 The attraction of daily life

Mwanza City holds various markets which could function as attractions and will keep tourists busy for at least some hours. So far, the markets have not been used yet as tourist attractions, but they could form an important aspect of the pro-poor tourism industry. Tourists can buy all sorts of products at the markets, from fruit and vegetables to Tanzanian *kangas* and *kitenges* (colorful drapes that are worn by the women throughout Tanzania) and all kinds of other Tanzanian and African attributes that can function as souvenirs. There are also some annual markets that could be exploited to attract more tourists to the region, like the Saba Saba and Nane Nane markets. Salesmen from all over East Africa gather here to sell their products on the Saba Saba market on the eight of August. And on the ninth of September another large East African market is held whereby all kinds of agricultural products are sold.

Table 4.1: Variety of Markets in Mwanza City			
Market	Repetition	Products	Proximity to centre
Main Market	Daily	Everything	City centre
Kirumba Market	Daily	Food	City centre
Second Hand Market	Daily	Clothing	City centre
Maasai Market	Daily	Maasai Products	City centre
Sunday Market	Weekly	Clothing and fabrics	Airport Road
Saba Saba	Once a year	East African products	Airport Road
Nane Nane	Once a year	Agricultural products	Out of town

The markets are part of the everyday life of the inhabitants of Mwanza and might therefore not be considered to be attractions for outsiders (see also chapter 5). However, markets have proven to be great attractions in many cities all over the world. They are a great way to get an impression of the life of Tanzanian inhabitants and even provide the visitor with informative interactions with the local community.



Products and market stands of the Main Market

4.2.4 Natural heritage

Aside from Lake Victoria itself, there is a lot of unexploited natural heritage in the region as well, like the rock scenery all around Mwanza which often offers stunning views over Lake Victoria; the Jiwe Kuu, 'Big Rock', for example is a viewpoint from where people can watch the sun set over the lake. There are some beaches in direct proximity of Mwanza as well, belonging to Tanzanian owned resorts. These resorts however are not as extended as resorts in other coastal towns that keep the tourists inside during their entire stay. Therefore these resorts have great potential of generating income for the region as well.

Bismarck Rock

Located in the waterfront by the Kamanga ferry harbor, a geological balancing rock formation can be found, probably left by centuries of wind and wave erosion. The Bismarck rock has become the local landmark and symbol of Mwanza City. There are a few theories why the rock was called Bismarck Rock, one of them claiming that once a statue was situated on top of the rock, but thrown down by the British after World War I. The statue is said to still lie somewhere in the lake. Another theory is that the rock was just called this way because the single rock balancing on top of the others supposedly has the same shape as Bismarck's helmet.



Bismarck Rock

Jiwe Kuu

Jiwe Kuu (pronounced as Djeeweh Koohoo) is an amazing viewpoint towering over Lake Victoria. To get to the viewpoint, visitors have to make a stroll through the neighborhood of Bwiru and beyond and walk through wooden settlements where Mwanza residents feed their kids and dry their laundry. It is a beautiful walk, slowly (or at some spots rather fast) ascending to one of the most beautiful rock formations in the city. Jiwe Kuu itself is a gigantic flat boulder, on top of which little pools have formed and other smaller boulders are lying around in fascinating formations. The rock offers a stunning view over the lake and with good weather is one of the best sites to view the beautiful sunset over Lake Victoria.

Only a few stakeholders in tourism know of the rock and therefore not a lot of tourists ever find their way up. However, the residents living around the rock might be able to benefit from a bigger flow of tourists to this particular viewpoint. Salesmen could sell fruits and sodas to tourists who are tired from the walk to the top.



Views of and from Jiwe Kuu

Lake Victoria

The most important attraction of Mwanza City is without a doubt Lake Victoria itself. Lake Victoria or Lake Nyanza, as it was officially called, is one of Africa's great lakes and the world's second largest freshwater lake by surface area: 68,800 square kilometres. The Lake is one of the chief headwater reservoirs of the Nile.

The Lake has an interesting but devastating ecological history. A short summary of the Lake's history was already provided in Box 4 (page 48). The Lake certainly has attractive power though, as it is a beautiful environment and home to interesting fish species (such as the Nile Perch and Tilapia), lizards, crocodiles and hippos, and countless birds like fish eagles, king fishers, egrets, cormorants and gannets. Aside from interesting fauna, the shores of Lake Victoria are filled with all kinds of trees and plants such as wild palms, tamarinds, hyacinths and sycamores and the Lake scenery is completed by large boulders and rocks



Views of Lake Victoria

So far, Lake Victoria has not been used a lot for tourist activities. Every now and then some tourists get on a boat ride from Tunza Lodge, the Tilapia Hotel or one of the other hotels in

town but this remains on low scale. The largest threats to Lake Tourism near Mwanza are bilharzia (a worm parasite) and crocodiles (hippos are only to be around surrounding Rubondo Island). Despite these threats, the lake offers many opportunities for tourist attractions, which will be presented in chapter 6.

Mwanza Beaches

Tour operators and other stakeholders like to point at the beaches that can be found here and there around Mwanza. Lake Victoria does not have natural sand beaches, all these beaches are therefore artificial and owned by hotels or resorts. Great effort has been put into designing these beaches in such a way that they can concur with beaches such as those in Dar es Salaam and Zanzibar. However, the main problem with these beaches is that swimming is at own risk because of the bilharzia.

Some of the beaches, like the one at Tunza, are already open for visitors. At the time of the fieldwork many others were under construction.



Private beaches in Nyegezi and Tunza Beach in Ilmela

Saa Nane Island

Some of the most important attractions of Tanzania are the national parks, three of which can be found in direct proximity of Mwanza. The first one is Saa Nane Island National Park, the smallest national park of Tanzania located only a short boat ride away from Mwanza City Centre. Though only half a square kilometre big, the island houses impalas, rock hyraxes, velvet monkeys, wild cats, clawless otters, de-brazzas monkeys, snakes, lizards, tortoises, crocodiles and again the whole scale of water birds.

The island used to have a variety of caged animals as well, but during the first months of 2011, right after it had gained the status of National Park, innovations were carried out. The animals too large to survive on such a small island were removed and only the smaller animals which could coexist remained. All animal species are free to walk around on the island.



Saa Nane Animals

Rubondo Island

Then there is Rubondo Island National Park, also located on an island in Lake Victoria two hours by ferry from Mwanza. Mwanza is seen as the gateway to Rubondo Island National Park, located in the southwest corner of Lake Victoria. Rubondo consists of ten separate islands, together making up some 457 square kilometres. Ninety percent of the park is humid forest; the remainder ranges from open grassland to lakeside papyrus beds (www.tanzaniaparks.com). The island houses a great variety of different animals, both indigenous and introduced species. The indigenous species include hippos, crocodiles, vervet monkeys, genets and mongooses, yellow-spotted otters, bushbucks, aquatic sitatungas (antelopes) and all kinds of birds such as kingfishers, paradise flycatchers, herons, storks and spoonbills. Some species were introduced to the island, such as chimpanzees, African grey parrots, black-and-white colobuses, elephants and giraffes. And as in other places in Lake Victoria, in the waters tilapia fish and Nile perch can be found. In addition to the fauna, tamarinds, wild palms, sycamores, papyrus, wild jasmine and forty different orchids grow on the island.



Views on Rubondo Island

(photo of elephants, source: In2EastAfrica.net)

The third and most important National Park in close proximity of Mwanza is the Serengeti National Park (a small fraction of the park is even located within Mwanza Regions borders), it's western gate located two hours by car from the city centre. The proximity to this world famous safari heaven is a significant advantage over other Tanzanian cities (with the exception of Arusha) and offers the possibility to add Mwanza to the Northern Tourist Circuit. More on this topic will be explained in section 4.3.

4.3 Existing Routes

4.3.1 Mwanza as alternative gateway to the Serengeti

As mentioned in section 4.2.4, Mwanza lies in close proximity to the world famous Serengeti National Park. Currently, Arusha is considered to be the gateway to the park, because of its proximity to the Ngorongoro Crater Conservation area, which directly borders Serengeti National Park. Visitors coming from Arusha drive past the Ngorongoro Crater on the way to Serengeti, where they spend one or more days driving around before they head the exact same way back, visiting the crater on their way in or out. If Mwanza was to be included as a standard stop in this Northern Circuit, tourists would enter the Serengeti from the west, spend a few days, drive through the Ngorongoro Conservation area, visiting the crater and then go straight on to Arusha and the other conventional tourist cities. The advantage over the current route that many tourists take, is that tourists won't be travelling the exact same way back and forth.

4.3.2 Tourist routes within the city

Tourist routes within the city are close to non-existent. Some tour operators mention that they offer city tours or cultural tours in the neighborhood, but since no tourist ever asks for these tours, they are seldomly sold. The tour operators mainly focus on safari-trips

It is easy for tourists to feel lost in Mwanza City. The most important reason for this is that many stakeholders do not know where to send tourists. Some examples might illustrate this point. Before the author and the other MSc. students arrived in Mwanza, they ran into a small group of backpackers who had been in Mwanza a little while ago. Answering the question what they had done there, the response was 'Nothing! There was nothing to do'. The experience of the author as well as of co-students and visitors was that there is actually a lot to do in Mwanza. The only problem is that you have to find the exact right person to point you in the right direction. Many people in Mwanza do not know where to send tourists, even those working in tourist facilities. This is shown by the next two examples.

A group of tourists staying in the Ryan's Bay Hotel early in the year had asked at the reception where they could find someone to take them out on a boat on Lake Victoria. The receptionist of the hotel did not know where to send them, and eventually they didn't go on a boat ride at all. Tourists, who visited the Saa Nane Museum, asked the hostess where they could go next. Except for the Bujora Museum, she had no idea what to tell them.

Mwanza City does not have a visitor's centre or tourist information office yet. One of the tour operators claims to be a tourist information office, but they do not have more information about the city than any of the other tour operators. Consequently, it is difficult for tourists to get a good map of the city. The only map that tourists might lay their hands on is the one provided by Mwanza-guide online. However, this map only shows the main streets of the city centre and has become somewhat outdated (appendix 12).

Except for the Bujora Museum, none of the attractions have a road sign leading tourists in the right direction. Therefore, tourists will only find these attractions if somebody knows where they are and how to get there.

4.4 Characteristics

4.4.1 Lack of interaction

The first and most obvious characteristic of attractions in Mwanza is that they all lack an element of interaction. Most of the attractions are formed by sites, views, monuments or natural phenomena which can only be looked at. There is no interaction with the local community, no story told, no lesson to learn. All are rather passive kinds of tourist activities. The direct consequence of this lack of interaction is that there are almost no beneficiaries of tourism in Mwanza.

4.4.2 Lack of personnel

The second characteristic is closely related to the first. Since most attractions are only meant to be watched, there is no personnel needed. Out of the nineteen attractions found in and around Mwanza, only four hire personnel such as tour guides, receptionists, etcetera. And the numbers of people hired are extremely low. Kageye Historical site for example, only has one man looking after the site, at the same time functioning as a tour guide. The Bujora museum is the only attraction with a fully equipped team of tour guides, workshop leaders, receptionists and at intervals a Sukuma dancing and drumming group which can perform a

Sukuma show when visitors are interested and willing to pay a little extra. Again the consequence of this lack of personnel is that there are only a few who benefit from tourism in Mwanza.

4.4.3 State of attractions

Many of the attractions are in a severe state of underdevelopment or ruin. The Robert Koch House, Kageye Historical Site, Ghandi Hall and other buildings and sites have all been neglected and are visited seldomly. The way they are being used now is not contributing to their further development or exploitation, since entrance fees are rather low or not charged at all. The natural attractions are not being exploited in any way. Other attractions that make up part of the every day life of the inhabitants of Mwanza, such as the various markets in the city, are not exploited for tourism either.

4.4.4 Visibility and accessibility

Neither the inhabitants of Mwanza, nor the tourists know where to find most of the attractions in Mwanza. Only the Bujora museum has a road sign, which is situated on the path leading to the museum. For the other attractions applies that there are no road-signs, no maps, no brochures, no guides, or anything else that could lead the tourists in the right direction. Therefore, tourists will only find these attractions if somebody knows where they are and how to get there.

4.4.5 Characteristics of existing routes

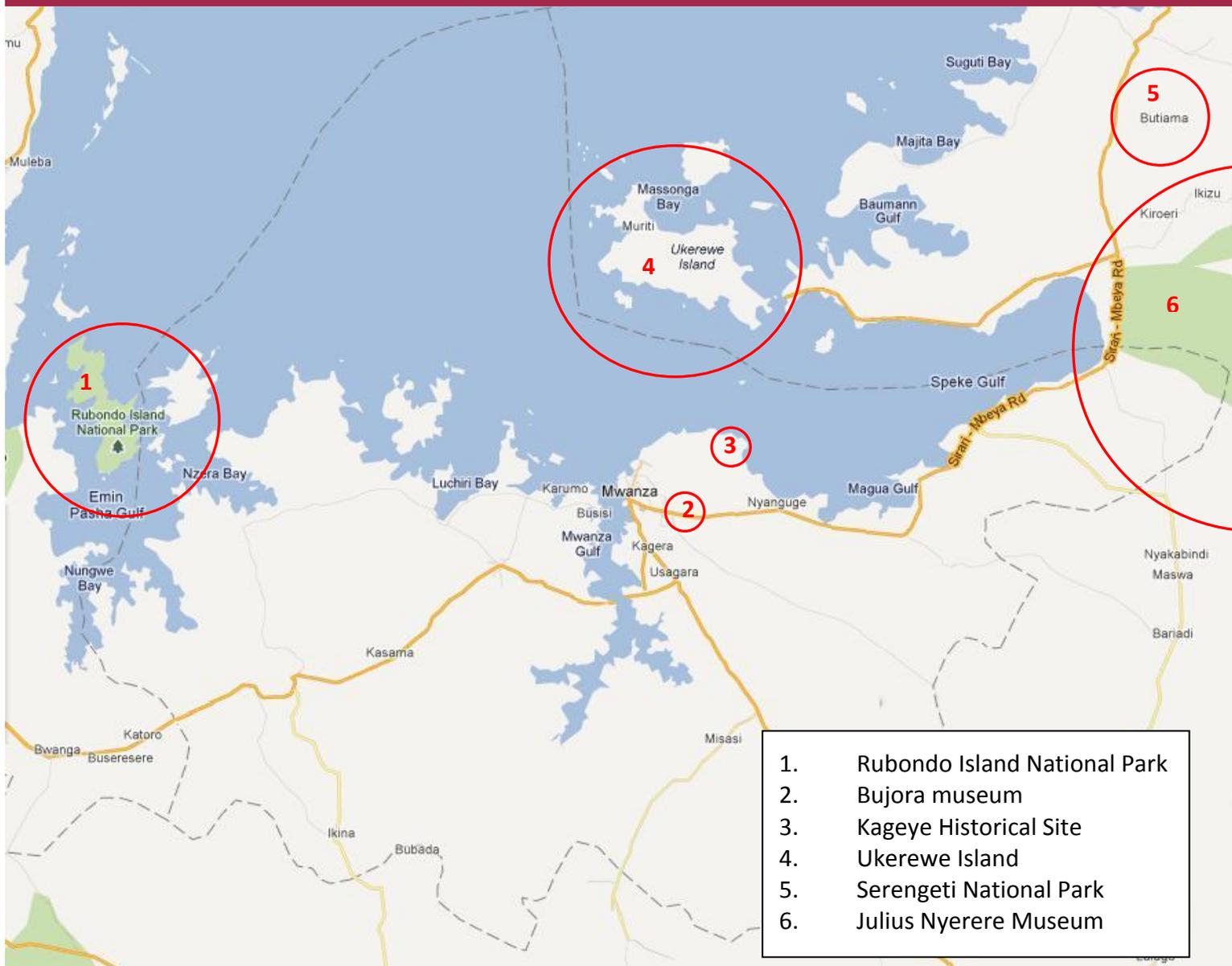
There is only one standardized route which includes Mwanza Region and that is the route whereby Mwanza is used as either the starting point or in fewer cases the ending point of a safari-trip through the Serengeti. This route definitely lacks marketing. When surfing on the internet, looking for a safari trip in Tanzania, all routes start and often end in Arusha.

Standardized routes within and around Mwanza City are non-existent. When tourists do want to make a local tour, they are either advised to go on their own, or the route is improvised. It is no wonder no tourist ever goes on a city or village tour if they do not even know this tour is an option. The possibility of offering a variety of local tours should definitely be explored, as local tours become more and more popular among tourists and offer a range of opportunities for the poor (see also chapter 6).

4.4.6 Location of attractions

In figure 4a the geographic locations of the attractions in and around Mwanza Region are presented.

Figure 4a: Location of attractions in Mwanza Region

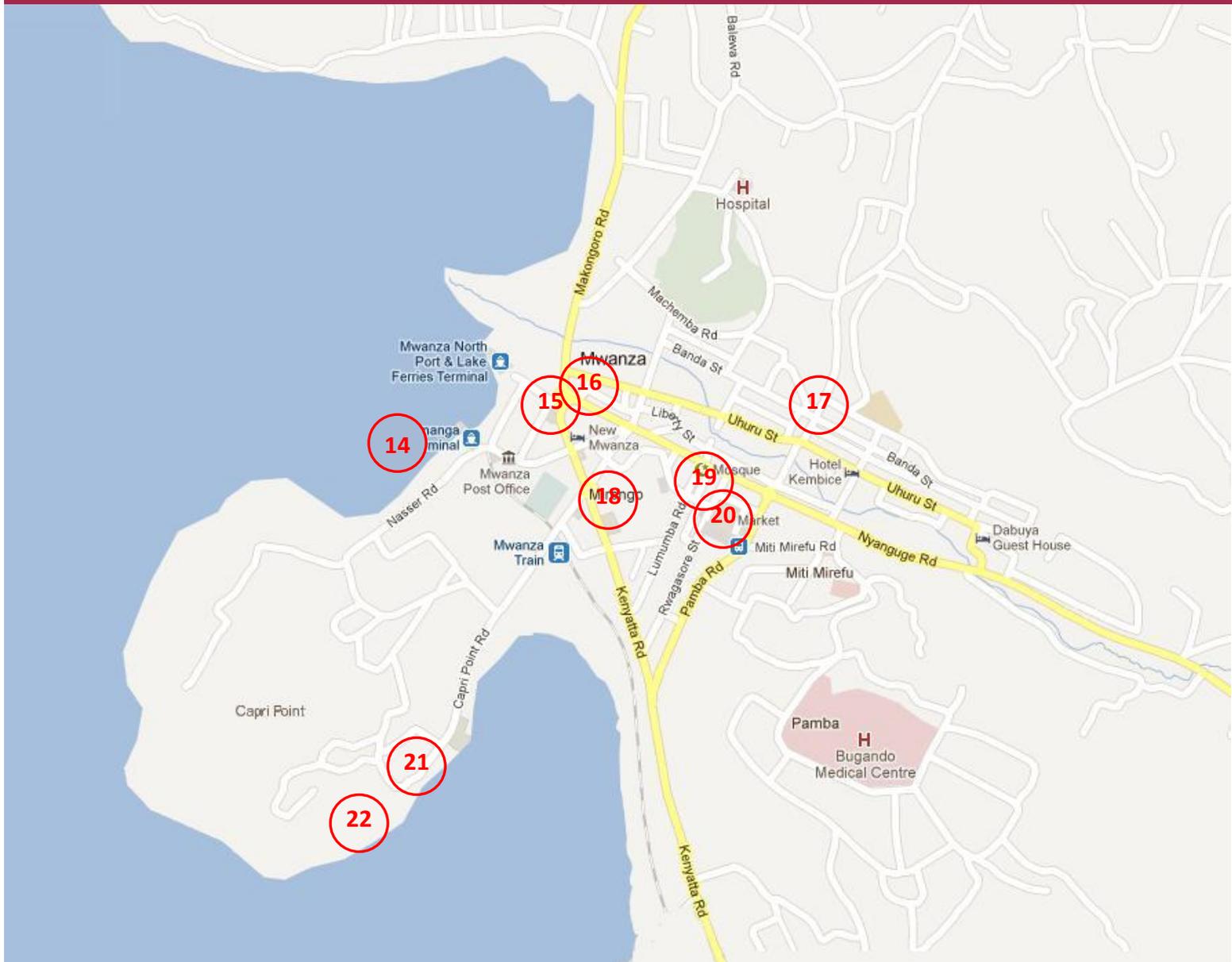


In figure 4b and 4c the geographic locations of the attractions in Mwanza City are presented.

Figure 4b: Location of attractions in Mwanza City



Figure 4c: Location of attractions in Mwanza City Center



- | | | | |
|-----|--------------------|-----|-------------------------------|
| 14. | Bismarck Rock | 19. | Mosques, temples and churches |
| 15. | Hanging Tree | 20. | Soko Kuu – Main Market |
| 16. | Ghandi Hall | 21. | Saa Nane Museum |
| 17. | Second Hand Market | 22. | European Cemetery |
| 18. | Robert Koch House | | |

4.5 Conclusion

If organizations like the Mwanza Tourism Association (MTA) want poor inhabitants of Mwanza City to become beneficiaries of tourism, one of the first steps that have to be taken, will be to attract (more) tourists to the city. And to attract tourists, the city needs to have attractions. This chapter was based on the question: *What are the existing attractions and tourist-routes in Mwanza and what are their characteristics?*

Within and around Mwanza City a number of attractions and points of interest can be found such as cultural heritage sites, monuments, colonial buildings, museums, national parks, natural scenery, and all kinds of activities that make up the daily life of the inhabitants of Mwanza, but could form interesting attractions for tourists, such as markets, fishing harbors, compounds and so on. In table 4.2 the various characteristics of the tourist attractions in Mwanza are being shown.

Attraction	Interaction with community	Number of employees	Exploitation*	Entrance fee
Saa Nane Museum	No	Less than 10	±	Free
Saa Nane Island National Park	No	More than 10	+	30 dollars
Robert Koch House	No	None	-	Free
Churches, Mosques, & Temples	No	n/a	-	Free/no entrance
Bukoba Ferry Monument	No	None	-	Free
Soko Kuu - Main Market	Yes	n/a	-	Free
Kirumba Market	Yes	n/a	-	Free
Second Hand Market	Yes	n/a	-	Free
Sunday Market	Yes	n/a	-	Free
Lake Victoria	No	None	-	Free
Jiwe Kuu (Big Rock/Dancing Rocks)	No	None	-	Free
Bismarck Rock	No	None	±	Free
Hanging Tree	No	None	-	Free
Ghandi Hall	No	None	-	Free
European Cemetery	No	None	-	Free
Bujora Museum	No	More than 10	+	7000 TSh
Kageye Historical Site	No	Less than 10	±	1000 TSh
Mwanza Beaches	No	???	±	???

- * + = *Exploited to some extent*
 ± = *Exploited but in need of development*
 - = *Un-exploited by tourism*

** *The majority of beaches were not open to the public at the time of the fieldwork*

As can be seen in table 4.2, most of these attractions and sites lack interaction with the community, do not create employment opportunities for many, are quite underdeveloped and unexploited and don't generate money for any stakeholders. Moreover, currently none

of them can be labeled pro-poor. The further development of the existing attractions might lead to the employment of some more locals. However, the grand multipliers and accelerators that are needed to build up a pro-poor tourism industry (see chapter 1, section 1.5.3) are not yet in sight. New plans for totally new attractions should be made to include the poor residents of Mwanza City and surroundings in the benefits that tourism might bring. In chapter 6 will be elaborated upon the opportunities for a pro-poor tourism industry that have been found for Mwanza.

Chapter 5 Stakeholders

5.1 Introduction

This chapter addresses the second question of this study, which was formulated as follows:

What kind of tourism stakeholders are present in Mwanza, what are their characteristics and what are their main ideas about attractions and tourist-routes?

Since the tourism industry in Mwanza is still in its infancy, there are only a limited number of stakeholders to be found within this city. The tourism industry mainly consists of tour operators, souvenir shops and hotels. Together with the Mwanza Tourist Association (MTA) these are the main actors in tourism in Mwanza. During the fieldwork most attention has gone to the souvenir shops, since these turned out to have and aspire the most interesting pro-poor opportunities. The tour operators have been included in the inventory as well. The hoteliers though were already approached by SNV in previous years. Therefore, they have not been included in this research. The main findings of the earlier research done by SNV on hoteliers are presented in section 5.5.4 In section 5.2 and 5.3 the tour operators and souvenir shops in Mwanza will be presented with their characteristics and perceptions of tourism in Mwanza. These case studies can be found at the end of the respective sections. To get an idea of the situation of the stakeholders, case studies have been made from five different stakeholders in Mwanza. In 5.4 the MTA will be presented and in 5.5 other stakeholders are mentioned, as well as the earlier findings of SNV on the hotels.

5.2 Tour Operators

There are at least fourteen different tour operators operating in Mwanza, employing 2 to 30 people. However, it was rather difficult to get a full figure of the tour operators because the majority was reluctant to give much information about their activities. A short questionnaire that was handed out to all tour operators was returned by only one of them. The researchers opted for short interviews to increase the response rate, but these too turned out to be rather unreliable. The given answers during interviews were contradictory or illogical. For example, when asked how many employees were working for one particular tour operator, the informant included people who earned money by selling fruits and vegetables to the hotels with which the tour operator cooperated. Also it became apparent that tour operators 'share' their employees whenever the situation asks for it. Drivers and mechanics are 'borrowed' from other companies when needed. For these reasons it was extremely difficult to come up with total numbers of employees or clients. The information presented in this section was gathered from the various short interviews, as well as from websites of the tour operators.

5.2.1 Characteristics.

On average the tour operators in Mwanza carry out four to five safari groups each month. They often have one or two employees who are busy with organizing safaris and these employees are not always in the office: it occurs that you have to talk to them over the phone within the office. The main reason tour operators are still in business seems to be that they resort heavily to other services, like arranging flights or bus tickets, car rental and hotel bookings for all kinds of customers. Especially since the MICE-market (meetings, incentives, conferences and events) in Mwanza is relatively large (Jageuneau, 2011), these other services provide a steady source of income. Each month around 3,000 of people, mostly from other East African countries, enter Mwanza, which means business for air corporations. Since cars are a luxury item, local people often make use of busses to travel from one city to the other for the purpose of visiting their families etc.

Together the tour operators have a fleet of at least 30 safari vehicles which can transport some 215 tourists (In comparison, one of the bigger tour operators in Arusha has a fleet of 280 vehicles on its own (Leopard Tours 2011) which can altogether transport some 2,000 tourists (Leopard Tours, personal communication 4-8-2011). All operators offer tailor made safaris. Most of them also offer local trips like city tours, or trips to nearby points of interest, but none of them explicitly advertise these local trips. According to the tour operators tourists do not ask that much for city tours, they are primarily interested in safaris to the Serengeti. Since the tour operators do not explicitly advertise for city or village tours, the question could be raised whether tourists would be interested if they would know the option was there. Also, the threshold for tourists to go on a relatively expensive city tour organized by a tour operator could be rather high, since the activities and attractions included in these tours are not inaccessible without the mediation of a tour operator. In other words, tourists don't necessarily need the help of tour operators in visiting attractions like the Bismarck Rock, Saa Nane Island, the Bujora Museum, etcetera.



Box 5: Fortes' Outreach

Tour Operator Fortes Africa Ltd tries to contribute to the development of Mwanza by supporting various development projects in the region like Forever Angels, Neema Project, Starehe Children's Home (all orphanages) and Touch Foundation (an NGO working on health care). This strategy is considered to be Pro-Poor by the UNWTO mechanisms, as mechanism 6 includes voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises (UNWTO 2004). Besides the donations, the owner of Fortes Africa Ltd pays for HIV-tests for all his employees.

5.2.2 Tour Operators' perception of tourism in Mwanza

Cooperation between tour operators

The perception of the cooperation between the tour operators in Mwanza differs to a great extent between the various stakeholders. Two of the tour operators have expressed their willingness to work together but both have experienced feelings of resentment from the

other tour operators to cooperate. One of the managers mentioned that the tour operators will not work together because they are afraid someone might steal their ideas. This statement seemed to be confirmed by the experience of the researchers during the fieldwork that many of the tour operators were reluctant to answer all questions or give full information about the trips they offer. However, other stakeholders mentioned how competition between stakeholders was low and that they could rely on each other when in need of an extra driver or other employee.

Exploitation and development of attractions

Tour Operators in Mwanza do see potential in Mwanza as a tourist destination. Especially Lake Victoria and the Sukuma culture are seen as potential attractions that give Mwanza a competitive advantage over other cities. Other attractions that are mentioned are Saa Nane Island, the Bismarck Rock and the beach resorts such as the Malaika Beach Resort which is included in several day-trips. However, the general view is that more attractions are needed.

The government's role

Tour Operators in Mwanza are not focused on promoting Mwanza as a new tourist destination. None of them has (or is willing to tell about) a plan to increase the popularity of Mwanza or even market their own products. They take a rather passive role and point to the government and other authorities, who should arrange for the Mwanza Airport to become an International Airport. As was mentioned in chapter 2, section 2.2.7, the only international airports in Tanzania can be found near Dar es Salaam and Arusha. Tour operators think the fact that international visitors need to take an additional flight from either Dar es Salaam, Arusha or Nairobi and not being able to fly directly into Mwanza is an important reason for the small number of tourists. Except for the tour operators, many other stakeholders - like the souvenir shops and hoteliers - have focused all their hope on the upgrading of the airport. Other roles that are attributed to the government by tour operators are the marketing of the region, as this has been severely neglected, and support of the development of Mwanza with funding and promotions.

Box 6: Alternative Tour Operators and Informal Guides

Aside from the formal sector of tour operators, also alternative tour operators and informal guides can be found. There is for example Tukutane Tours Tanzania, which can be labelled as an alternative Tour Operator. A Tour Operator business set up by Tanzanian-Dutch couple, Perfect and Anne, who care in the first place for the relationship between tourists and the local community. They want tourists to get to know the culture and authenticity of the locals and they want Tanzanians to share in the profit coming from tourism. Both Perfect and Anne have another job as their main occupation, the Tukutane tours business is being done as a sideline. It is therefore a small tour operator without a safari vehicle of their own, or any other employees. Still though, this kind of tour operators bring maximum benefits for the local community.

An example of an informal tour operator is Abdala Matongo. He has his own souvenir shop in the Tunza Lodge but has been trained to work as a tour guide. He used to work for a large tour operator in Arusha, but came to Mwanza because competition was too keen. In Mwanza however, he discovered like so many others, that there are too few tourists to maintain a prospering business in tourism. Every now and then he can take a few tourists for a tour around the city or a trip to Serengeti, but this happens hardly often enough to provide him with a basic income. There are probably more tour guides like Matongo in Mwanza, but since they are not registered it is very difficult to trace them.

5.2.3 Tukutane Tanzania: the result of a joint venture

In 2009 a Tanzanian-Dutch couple, Perfect Elias, born in Mwanza, and Anne Kuijs, born in Anna Palauwna in the Netherlands, established their own tour operator business which they called Tukutane Tanzania, which means 'we meet'. Their idea was to combine safaris with local visits, which bring benefits to Tanzanian communities.

For ten years, Anne has been a tour leader for the Dutch tour operator Djosser in Kenya and Tanzania, at the same time earning her degree in occupational therapy. Now she is working for Bugondo Hospital, earning a local salary. Perfect teaches at the College of Tourism in Mwanza. Anne and Perfect met during a sports project of Terre des Hommes Netherlands, which lasted from 2002 to 2006 and was located in the four Northern regions of Tanzania. Besides their daytime jobs, Anne and Perfect decided to organize trips for those tourists who seek for something different than spending their money on luxury resorts and a pretty sunset on Zanzibar. Through their trips, which all start in Mwanza, they want to offer tourists the opportunity to get to know "...the most intriguing aspect of Africa: the people and their hospitality, their culture, their authenticity and their pride (www.tukutane-tanzania.nl). To enhance the interaction between tourists and locals, Anne and Perfect can teach their guests the basics of Kiswahili, beginning with 'Habari gani?' (What's the news?) and other greetings and answers.

The aim of Tukutane Tanzania is to offer unique experiences to tourists, while making sure that Tanzanians share in the profits. They do this by hiring bicycles from local people and boats from fishermen, they let tourists stay at local guesthouses, and make visits to the local witch-doctor or take tourists to see the rehearsal of a local Sukuma dancing group. Also they generate donations for development projects. Regarding role division, Anne makes the plans and programs, while Perfect is the tour guide. Every now and then some of Perfect's students take over the role of tour guide, which is an excellent way for them to practise the skills they've been learning in college.

With two Land Rovers, that each have room for seven tourists, Tukutane Tanzania's capacity is small in comparison to most other tour operators in Mwanza. However, so far the demand for trips has not been overwhelming. The majority of clients they receive are couples, often from the Netherlands, and occasionally from Germany or America. On average they receive some six clients per month, but during some months they do not have any clients. Even though Anne and Perfect's main offer is taking visitors on local trips, hardly anybody ever asks for these



Even with the opportunity to get in touch with the Real Africa, most tourists seem only interested in going on safaris. The overall image might change if more tourists could be attracted from the Northern Circuit which has several community based tourism projects in its route. However, because of their small-scale business, Anne and Perfect cannot afford to pick people up in Arusha and

Anne on a visit to the traditional healer

by passing the costs to the customers, the trip becomes too expensive and no tourist will opt for them. When tourists want to start in Arusha, Anne usually advises them to pick a tour operator over there, but as they don't have any personal contacts or connections with tour operators in Arusha, at that point potential clients are lost to the offers of larger tour operators. For this matter, Anne would very much like to promote Mwanza as a tourist destination. If more tourists would be tempted to choose a tour operator in Mwanza, the local trips offered by Tukutane Tanzania might finally commence.

Other problems that Perfect and Anne face are the quality of for example boats and bicycles that they hire from the locals. The bicycles could use some improvement and are not very practical for the sandy roads in Mwanza. Boats are not always completely waterproof and often have problems with the engines. But maybe these problems can be seen as the charm of 'going local'.

5.3 Souvenir shops

5.3.1 Characteristics of Souvenir Shops

As said before, a large part of the contemporary tourism industry in Mwanza consists of souvenir shops. Currently, all souvenir shops in Mwanza are owned by Tanzanians. However, less than half of the artists, employees and owners were born in Mwanza; the majority comes from Arusha and Mto wa Mbu, and some come from Moshi, Dar es Salaam, Kagera, Bukoba and Zanzibar. Often the argument was heard that competition in Arusha and elsewhere was too strong, and therefore business was shifted to Mwanza.

The souvenir shops can be divided in three different categories:

1. Formal (registered)
2. Semi-formal (unregistered)
3. Informal (street vendors, etc)

The formal souvenir shops are registered with the Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA) to whom they have to pay taxes. These shops are settled within a concrete building in which they can stay for an indefinite amount of time. The organizational structure of these shops consists of an owner and one or more employees. In some shops the owner is also working as salesman, in other shops he or she is directing the shop from the outside.

The semi-formal souvenir shops are not registered with the Tanzania Revenue Authority. They have a sort of arrangement with the local authorities (the city council) who tolerate them in a certain area. Typically, the sellers working in these shops are the artists who make most of the products/souvenirs which they sell in their shop themselves. They often work in a group, each artist specialised in a different sort of art and each taking care of the shop at another day or time. The artists are allowed to build some sort of hut, in which they can sell their products, but these huts are always temporarily, so they cannot build concrete buildings. The arrangements with the city council are based on trust, there is no contract that can guarantee their space in town, but the artists are confident that they will not be asked to leave without prior notice. All of the stakeholders in these semi-formal souvenir shops know each other. The main reason for this is that three out of four huts are built right next to each other. Their relationship can be described as partly competitive, partly supportive. Some of the products they sell are the same, some can only be found in

one of the shops. Whenever a client requests a product that is not available in the first shop, the artists will send these clients to the shop where this same product is available.

The informal souvenir ‘shops’ cannot actually be called shops, since they do not make use of concrete and unmovable buildings or huts to sell their products. This group consists mainly of street vendors, the number of which is hard to find out, since they are always in different places at non-fixed times. Mr. Tito is the only street vendor who can always be found in the same street at more or less the same spot, near the supermarket with imported products, U-turn, a place where a lot of tourists come. Products that are sold by street vendors don’t differ much from the products that are being sold in the actual souvenir shops. The only limitation is naturally the amount and size the vendors can carry with them.



Mr. Tito,
with his ‘souvenir-bicycle’

Other souvenir selling entities that fall in this category are organizations like schools or tour operators that sell some souvenirs in order to earn some extra income. Examples are the International School of Languages, the Paradise Conference Centre, restaurant Binti Maringo and tour operator Serengeti Expedition. In table 5.1 all the formal and semi-formal shops found in Mwanza are shown in the right category. Mr. Tito, a street vendor, is added, though he does not own an actual immovable shop. However, he is the only street vendor of souvenirs in Mwanza that can be found in the same place almost always. His ‘shop’ consists of a bicycle with a carton box in which he keeps all his merchandise.

Table 5.1: Characteristics of Souvenir Shops in Mwanza

Category	Name of shop	Organizational structure	Number of employees
Formal	Jaet	Owner – employees	2
	Jambo	Owner – employees	2
	Mwanza Culture	Owner – employees*	2 (including owner)
	New Mwanza Hotel/ Rafiki Women Centre	Owner – employees	2
	Gloa Crafts	Owner – employees	2
Semi formal	Hakuna Matata	Artists	6
	Tupendani	Artists	4
	Weusi Wakale Waenzi Art Gallery Mwanza	Artists	6
	Tunza Lodge	Artist	1
Informal	Mr. Tito	street vendor	1

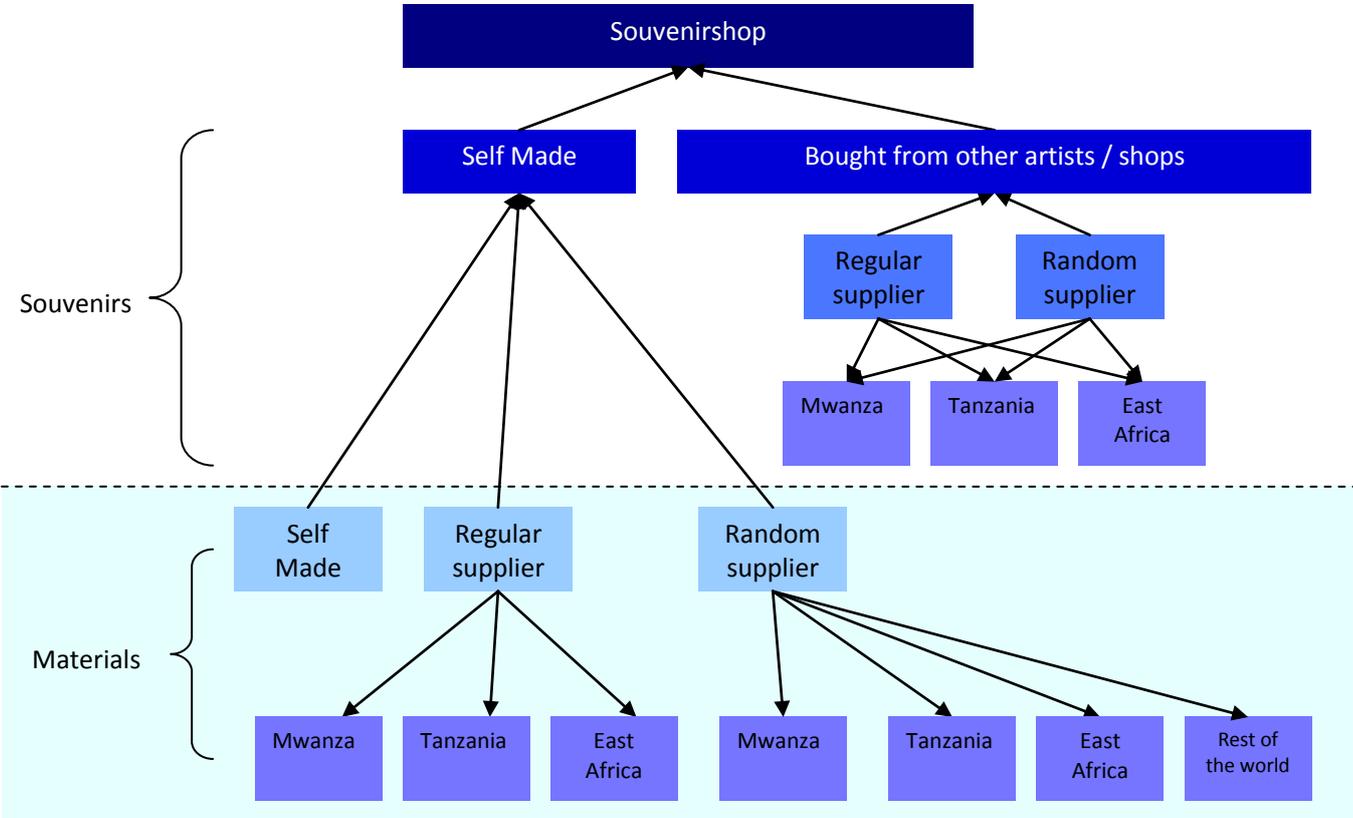
**In the cases of Jaet, Jambo, Rafiki Women Centre and Gloa Crafts, the owners of the shop are not salesmen themselves. Only in the Mwanza Culture shop, the owner was also selling the souvenirs.*

Products

The products that are being sold in the souvenir shops follow a complicated supply chain which is not easily unravelled. Souvenirs and materials come from so many places, which

makes it difficult to track all different paths. A simplified supply chain is shown in figure 5a. Some souvenirs are homemade. The materials or different parts that are being used for these souvenirs are either self-made (materials gathered in nature or waste materials), bought *en masse* from a regular supplier or bought randomly from suppliers that were found by coincidence. One necklace can for example contain self made paper beads (rolled from cut up magazine paper), natural beads like pits from fruit and plastic beads bought in local shops. Paintings for example consist of canvas and paint that are often bought in high-volume from the same supplier in town. Souvenirs that are not self made are either bought from other souvenir shops in Mwanza, elsewhere in Tanzania, or even outside of the country. Some street artists try to sell their products via shops of others. Sometimes artists just walk by and see if anyone is interested in selling their art.

Figure 5a: A simplified supply chain of souvenir shops in Mwanza



Souvenir-shops don't offer a lot of souvenirs that are typically from Mwanza. There are some paintings of the Bismarck Rock and some fish-related objects but much more than that cannot be found. Souvenirs with city or land name-labels that can be found in so many tourist attractions all over the world are not yet merchandised in Mwanza. Souvenirs can hardly be described as unique, and a big part doesn't have a connection with Tanzania, as they are imported from other countries in East Africa. Still though, employees are always ready to tell you that their products are more special than the products from the shop next door.

Future prospects

Though most souvenir stakeholders share the opinion that ‘business is bad’, almost none of them considers shifting jobs. Moreover, they are making plans of expanding their shops, opening new shops and diversify their offerings. Some hope to sell souvenirs in Europe one day and one stakeholder has already achieved a small international business, selling some art in Japan and Italy. Jane Banura, the owner of two souvenir shops, has plans to open a new Cultural Centre where all artists and all others who are interested can come together to share knowledge and ideas and teach others how to make music and pieces of art. The three shops at Capri Point (Hakuna Matata, Tupendani and Weusi Wakale Waenzi) as well as the souvenir shop within Tunza Lodge and Jane Banura, owner of Jambo, have ideas for the development of workshops for tourists. Also they are interested in developing lessons for local people such as street children and women, so they can make a living with the making and selling of souvenirs.

Some of the souvenir shops play an important role in community development and in enabling poor people to earn a living for themselves. For example, at the International School of Language a small souvenir shop is run, of which all profit goes towards children’s school fees and school staff salaries. The disabled people living in Bukumbi (box 9) currently sell their self-made souvenirs to volunteers in town, and might sell their products in the nearby future to Jane Banura, owner of the Rafiki Women Centre (souvenir shop in New Mwanza Hotel) and Jambo Souvenir Shop.

Box 7: Bukumbi

Within one hour from Mwanza lies Bukumbi, a village for disabled people, set up by a Dutch NGO and later taken over by a British NGO (Bridge2Aid). The people living in Bukumbi are of ‘no use’ to society, sometimes have to fear for their lives and therefore want to live in a safe environment. People living there are (physically) handicapped, lepers and albinos. Most of them take care of themselves, others get aid from the Bukumbi Village Hospital.

Bukumbi holds a training centre, which aims at giving the residents of Bukumbi a purpose of living. As the manager said: ‘They were just rotting away’. Now people can come in the center, learn how to sew, make jewelry and beads, make a living, and participate in society. The jewelry and other products made at the training centre are sold to international volunteers in Mwanza. There are plans to sell souvenirs in souvenir shops and hotels throughout the city as well. The people get a salary for what they make and the profit goes into a community fund, which is used for the development of the village. This way, the disabled of Mwanza get the opportunity to provide themselves with an income generating livelihood.



Bukumbi Training Centre

5.3.2 Owners and employees' perception of tourism in Mwanza

The problem that stakeholders working in souvenir shops see in the tourism industry is mainly the lack of customers. Though competition in Mwanza is relatively low, various stakeholders described business as being 'very bad' because of the low amount of customers. In table 5.2, several numbers are presented regarding the business in all souvenir shops in Mwanza. The table contains the total numbers over one month (March).

Table 5.2 Souvenir Shops in Mwanza at a glance: the month of March

Shop	Number of customers	People visiting without buying	Turnover
Jambo	61	16 (26 percent)	444,000
Mwanza Culture	63	7 (16 percent)	1,328,000
Tupendani	60	17 (28 percent)	274,000
Jaet	79	24 (33 percent)	(7,639,600)
Tunza Lodge	25	5 (20 percent)	209,000
Gloa Crafts	12	?	238,000
Hakuna Matata	31	5 (16 percent)	316,000
Average	47	12.33 (23 percent)	468,167 *
Total	331	74 (30 percent)	10,448,600 Tsh

**The average amount of money spent has been calculated with the exception of Jaet Shop, because this shop sells products of a totally different price range.*

The average number of customers per month is 47, ranging from 12 to 79. On average clients spend about 11,885 Tsh (€ 5.46) per entry, with people who don't buy anything included and about 13,731 Tsh (€ 6.31) when the latter are excluded. On average 23 percent of clients leave without buying anything. Stakeholders complained they sometimes didn't sell anything for weeks in a row. Many of the stakeholders state they depend on their family in order to make a living. None of them (owners excluded) has another job on the side. Though a lot of the customers are foreigners, locals also shop for souvenirs. Locals often shop for the more practical products, like bags, sandals, scarves and wallets.

Some of the stakeholders also mention that artists and employees within the semi-formal souvenir shop category are often low educated. In order to improve their business they could use some training in business management and, not in the last place, languages. Not all tourism stakeholders are fluent in English, let alone any other language. Beside the fact that not all employees can speak English, not all tourists speak English either. Some employees would therefore like to learn languages like Spanish, Italian, German or even Chinese.

5.3.3 Jane Banura: an example of a successful entrepreneur with a pro-poor focus

Jane Banura is the owner of two of the formal souvenir shops in Mwanza; the Rafiki Africa inside the New Mwanza Hotel and the Jambo shop near U-turn. Jane was born in Kagera where she finished her secondary education. She began to work as a secretary and slowly built on her career as a business woman. She became interested in the trade of jewellery. She saw how people around her were struggling for an income and decided to work with refugees from Rwanda. She had built up a start capital of 500 dollars of which she bought fabrics, beads, ribbons and other ornaments which she used to make handcrafts. During the

first months of her trade, she sold her products in the streets of Mwanza. In 2002 her business had grown enough to open a small shop registered with the TRA, which she called Jambo, the first handicraft shop in Mwanza. Business in this shop slowly increased, and by 2004 she had earned enough money to hire personnel and open a second shop in the New Mwanza Hotel. She even opened a third shop, also within the New Mwanza Hotel, but after renovations the rent of the third shop became too high (1000 dollars a month) and the New Mwanza Hotel decided to rent the shop to a flight company.

Currently, in 2011, these two shops are still open and she sells her hand-made products as well as ready made souvenirs which she buys from other shops in Mwanza, Arusha, Dar es Salaam, Zanzibar and sometimes Kenya, Rwanda and Malawi. Recently, near the end of the fieldwork, she opened a small stand at Binti Maringo restaurant as well.

When her work with refugees from Rwanda ended, she still felt the need to put her skills to good use and help the less fortunate. She decided to join Kivulini, a women's rights organizations with several different projects in Mwanza. Jane started her own Skill Learning Project within Kivulini, whereby she teaches former child domestic workers all kinds of skills, like making jewellery (bracelets and necklaces) and other handicrafts and also teaches them about entrepreneurship. The target of the project is to support about fifty children under the age of seventeen, but already more than sixty children have joined the project.



The children of Kivulini in their learning environment

The kids in her group don't go to school for several reasons. Some did start with school but didn't manage to stay in (as has been mentioned in chapter 2, about 64 percent of children in Tanzania don't make it into secondary school). Via this project, they get the opportunity to learn some skills that will help them build up a livelihood and income of their own. The profit earned by selling souvenirs is shared

among the children for any purpose they like. In the entrepreneurial lessons, Jane explains to them how they can use the money to build up a start capital and establish a business of their own. However, so far the money earned by selling souvenirs is no more than some pocket money (see also section 5.3).

Jane is planning to open a cultural centre in the Isamilo area in Mwanza. It would be a place where all artists of Mwanza could gather and share knowledge and ideas about how to create new handicrafts, paintings and other souvenirs. Aside from making handcrafted products people could make music and dance. Once a week a market would be organized where everyone would have the chance to show and sell their products to visitors.

Jane is not concerned about the interest of visitors and artists once the cultural centre is there. The largest problem she has encountered is the difficulty of obtaining a proper lot. Already in 2005 she wrote a letter to the city council asking for support for this plot. The area that was appointed to her was too small and was only meant for residential use, far from the road and all the way up in Igombe area. Another issue is the marketing. The marketing of Rafiki Africa and Jambo is not proceeding smoothly. Jane is planning to have a brochure and a website, but is struggling to find someone who can help her with the design and production.

Box 8: Kivulini Projects



Kivulini Women's Rights Organization is a non-governmental organization based in Mwanza, focused on mobilizing communities to prevent domestic violence. Their mission is 'to facilitate the creation of social, economic and legal environments within society that guarantee women and girls' right to live in violence free communities through self-empowerment, advocacy, and an active social movement for change' (Kivulini.org). In order to fulfil this mission the organization runs several projects, a.o. the Child Domestic Workers Project. Child domestic workers form a vulnerable group, that is often confronted with being denied wages, being physically or sexually harassed, and deprived of their property.

5.3.4 Dulla: a relative newcomer on the Mwanza Tourism Scene



Abdala Matongo, or Dulla, was born in Mto wa Mbu in 1988 in Northern Tanzania as the grandson of the village chief. He followed an 18 month education at the Professional Tour Guide School in Arusha where he gained his Professional Tour guiding & Leadership Diploma. He began his career in tourism by selling souvenirs and paintings in the streets of Mto wa Mbu and Arusha. After graduating he got a job at one of the larger tour operators in Arusha. Since competition in Arusha was so overwhelming, he decided to move to Mwanza in 2009. Again, he began with selling souvenirs in the streets, but on Bob Marley Day he was invited by the Tunza Lodge to sell his souvenirs to visitors of the lodge. As the sale went well, he got the opportunity to start his own semi-permanent souvenir shop within the Tunza Lodge, which has been there for approximately

a year now. Dulla sees himself as an ambassador of his country, and with his art he wants to introduce his culture to tourists. He used to teach kids at one of the orphanages of Mwanza how to make art and has plans to start lessons again somewhere in the nearby future. He'd like to start a cultural tourism community just as the one that is operating in Mto wa Mbu.

Aside from selling his self-made art and souvenirs, every now and then he takes a group of people out on a trip to Serengeti. He rents a car and a driver from a tour operator in town and since he is his own agent he can sell safari-trips to tourists somewhat below the prices people would have to pay at a regular tour operator. Whenever Dulla goes on a tour with visitors, one of his friends takes care of the shop. For a while he had a steady partner who ran the shop for him, but after Dulla had set up a deal with the Malaika Beach Resort to open a new shop, his partner took over his business there and disappeared soon after. His deal with the Malaika Beach Resort was lost.

Though he hasn't been living in Mwanza for long, he knows the city by heart and can take tourists for a city tour passing all the points of interest. He has connections everywhere in Mwanza, as well as in Mto wa Mbu, Moshi and Arusha and can arrange all kinds of things from cultural city or village tours, nature walks, workshops in painting, etcetera. His enthusiasm seems endless, but again as tourist numbers in Mwanza are small, his business is only proceeding slowly.

5.3.5 Ally and the Tupendani Art Group: four artists with commercial aspirations

At the beginning of the road to Capri Point, three souvenir shops have settled at the side of the pavement. In the newest one in the middle, Ally Zuma can be found almost all days of the week. Ally was born in Mto wa Mbu but has been living in Mwanza for years, ever since he moved there to live with his mother. He finished secondary school in 2005 and had the ambition to go to college and become a pilot. However, the government decided his grades were too low to get a loan for further education and Ally became unemployed for three years. During these years he learned how to paint from his grandfather, who was an artist himself. In 2008 he opened a souvenir shop in between the Hakuna Matata shop and the Weusi Wakale Waenzi Art Gallery. Here he sells his paintings and some other souvenirs like jewellery and bags, together with three other artists from Mwanza; Joseph, Hassan and Juma. They call themselves the Tupendani Art Group.

The boys have no special hierarchy in the shop, they are all equal, and share the profit equally. Whenever one of the boys has an appointment elsewhere one of the other artists looks after the shop. They either design the souvenirs and have somebody who is specialized make them, or they themselves make them. Every now and then people sell ready-made souvenirs to the shop, so they can sell it for them. All designed souvenirs are bought in Mwanza. Some of the materials are coming from outside of Mwanza. The wood for the carvings comes from two factories close to Arusha; Engaruka and Mora Region. This wood is not available in Mwanza. It is mostly ebony, coming from natural forests. They also use different kinds of wood, some of it bought here in Mwanza. The beads are bought in Mwanza. The materials come from town, from random shops; they do not have permanent sellers. When clients are interested in learning how to paint, Ally shows them. They can also paint something themselves and buy their own painting afterwards, but he does not specifically market for workshops.

When they opened the shop they wrote a letter to the city council and got permission to open a shop. Their families provided the seed capital. They built the shop themselves but since they don't pay taxes, the place is temporary. If the local authorities tell them to leave, they will have to leave. But right now they are fine here. They don't have any contract whatsoever, but Ally is quite sure they won't just tell them to leave. There is a good relationship, trust. There is some cooperation between the shops, but also competition. But competition 'is in any business'. Whenever there is a client who is asking for something that they don't have at the shop, he sends them to one of the other shops.

Every now and then some of the street kids come to the shops, but only when they feel like it. Sometimes they come a few days in a row, but at times they stay away for months. They often come when Ally has bought new materials and can teach them how to make souvenirs and paintings. In Ally's opinion they are not very talented, he often



Ally working on a painting in 'kifu'-style

cannot sell what they made, so he just spends money without getting anything back. He states: 'It's about the learning process. It is just fun for them so they don't take it very serious'.

As is the case for many stakeholders in Mwanza, the guys of the Tupendani Art Group could use some help with marketing. They have a good relationship with the hotels, both employees and owners but there is no other form of marketing then word of mouth. Though business is not going too well, they have aspirations to grow big, get more customers and even advertise the shop internationally. They are trying to write a brochure, but the process is going very slow. They also want to open a website but haven't talked to anyone about that yet. However, if the situation would stay like this, Ally would try to find another job.

5.3.6 Anderson: A Rastafarian with a big heart

Anderson Medard is a Rastafarian who often joins the boys at Capri Point when they are making art. He was born in Arusha where he followed primary education (up to the age of 16). He lost both his parents and was brought up by his grandfather. His younger brother suffered from hydrocephalus (water head disease) and for years Anderson had to look after him until he died in 2006 at the age of nine. His grandfather, who used to be a farmer, is still living in Arusha, where his daughter in law is taking care of him.

In Arusha Anderson worked at two different orphanages: the Samaritan Village Orphanage, which takes care of abandoned children (sometimes from the hospital, sometimes found in the streets) and St Lucia Orphanage, which takes care of orphans with HIV. Together with a friend Anderson has set up a project in 2004, called 'Make Change'. He

works as an intermediary between volunteers and schools or orphanages in Arusha. He came to Mwanza early in 2011 to learn from the experiences in the Forever Angels Orphanage in Mwanza and is planning to include Mwanza in the volunteer program.

Aside from his work at the orphanages Anderson works as an artist. He makes paintings and jewellery, and every now and then he sells these to make some money. He also teaches the kids at the orphanages how to play music, to sing and to make paintings and other art. Despite the energy he puts in his work, his income is not very high but Anderson does not seem to be bothered by this. His priority is making the kids happy, not earning money. He survives without a grand salary because he can depend upon the Rastafarian-movement. He sleeps in a Rastafarian home in Mwanza and eats when food is being offered to him. He does whatever is on his heart, and says he does not make big plans for the future. He



Anderson with some of the orphans in Arusha

says he has a strong faith of heart and when he has a plan, it will be done. He came to Mwanza without any problems by explaining his ideas and views to the Regional Commissioner who provided him with a letter so he could travel for free with the bus from Arusha to Mwanza.

Anderson is very concerned about the street kids in Mwanza. During one of our talks he stated: 'They are not animals, they just need love'. He often advises them about drugs, since the kids are extremely vulnerable to bad influences of others. Some of the nine year olds already use marihuana and smoke cigarettes. He wants to tell them about the negative effects so they will understand the consequences. Anderson is especially worried about the young kids and the girls. 'The street is not good for girls...'. He narrates how all the girls he has been talking too have told him they get raped frequently and cannot go to the police because of their position in society. Moreover, the policemen themselves are often the violators.

Along with two of his Rastafarian friends from Mwanza, Anderson has a dream of starting a Rastafarian Village. He calls it the Rastafari Revolution in which all street kids will join the rastafari movement. They are searching for a piece of land where they can start a community for the street kids, where they can live and learn different things in order for them to make a living. Within this community he wants to start a souvenir shop, through which the kids can learn how to make money. However, they will have the freedom to become whatever they want. Anderson will live in the village as well and wants to attract volunteers to the village to teach the kids all sorts of things, like art, sports and music. Within

the village they will make gardens and plantations for food. They are not going to pay another person to do these kinds of things. The materials needed to make art, they will either find in the nature or buy in the city. Andersons commitment to the street kids of Mwanza and the orphans in Arusha comes from his heart, but for now, the project of the Rastafarian Village has remained only a dream.

5.4 The Mwanza Tourist Association (MTA)

To boost the tourism industry, a Mwanza Tourism Task Force was initiated by SNV in 2008. Recently it has been formally established as the Mwanza Tourism Association (MTA). The MTA has thirty-six public and private sector members which all have to pay yearly contributions to the MTA. Corporate members pay an annual membership fee of 100,000 TSh. (US\$ 66). Individuals pay a fee of 50,000 TSh. (US\$ 33). The services of the MTA are focused on advocacy and outreach, primarily to government agencies and donors, and aimed primarily at soliciting funds for program implementation. The objectives of the MTA include:

- To promote the diversity of tourism activities in Mwanza and make Mwanza a tourist destination and new gateway into the Serengeti
- To develop sustainable tourism to help Mwanza achieve its socio-economic objectives
- To establish and maintain effective alliances with different sectors of the tourism industry
- To address the negative effects of tourism development
- To use tourism to promote relations with neighbouring countries, as the “Crossroads to East Africa”
- To promote, celebrate and preserve Mwanza’s cultural heritage
- To deliver benefits, through tourism, to local communities in the Lake Zone district (MTA 2010)

The priority initiatives defined by MTA include:

- 1) Strengthen the administration, alliances and operations of MTA
- 2) Develop a Mwanza Tourism Strategic Plan
- 3) Advocate for an International Airport and air routes to/from Mwanza, targeting enhanced tourism to and from Serengeti
- 4) Promote the East African trans-border tourism circuit with Mwanza as the Lake zone centre and facilitate a meeting of EA Lake zone tour operators
- 5) Develop and sell Mwanza tourism attractions including city tours, restoration of Robert Koch House, development of Kageye historical site and training tour guides
- 6) Support education and training institutions in Mwanza, to strengthen the hospitality and service sector and enhance the attractiveness of Mwanza
- 7) Develop a pro-poor tourism strategy for Mwanza
- 8) Increase tourism-related income for Mwanza
- 9) Conduct a baseline study of Mwanza’s tourism industry
- 10) Promote the Bujora Festival, and sports and conference tourism for Mwanza

- 11) Solicit grants for equipment that is too expensive to obtain by individual companies such as cruise boats, as well as technical expertise to enhance the use of Lake Victoria for leisure tourism.
 - 12) Support the development of camping sites in Mwanza
 - 13) Equip and promote the Mwanza Tourist Information Centre, and develop promotional materials and information that can be distributed at the Centre
 - 14) Analyze Mwanza's domestic tourism industry and its relevance to the economy of Mwanza
 - 15) Market Mwanza tourism at fairs other than Karibu fair including other East Africa fairs, Indaba, WTM and FITUR, while developing a unique tourism brand for Mwanza.
- (MTA 2010)

Though formally the association has been established and even gained official status on 24 February 2011, no concrete steps have been taken yet to achieve the main objective of developing Mwanza into a sustainably managed tourist destination and an additional gateway into Serengeti National Park. The cause of this is mainly a lack of manpower to manage and help build up the capacity of the association. The few people that did decide to join the board try to form a committee had some troubles starting up. From the start there were several disagreements about how to work within the MTA and how to use the office that was assigned by the city council. Members accused each other of sabotaging the progress of the MTA, which led to the resignation of some of these members. Attempts have been made to set up a second MTA, with members that did agree with each other, but also this attempt was in vain. None of the MTA-members has yet paid their contribution. For all these reasons, the organization can be regarded as currently dormant, which is a pity because the stakeholders in Mwanza are in desperate need of an association that links them all together. More on this topic will be shared in chapter 6.

5.5 Other stakeholders

Except for tour operators, souvenir shops and the MTA, there are still some other stakeholders of Mwanza Tourism, such as tourists, both international and domestic, the local community, the local authorities, regional authorities and national authorities.

5.5.1 International Tourists

During the fieldwork observations it became clear that the largest group of tourists in Mwanza are the volunteers working in several local non-governmental organizations (NGOs) such as orphanages. A closely related group of foreigners are students on an internship, especially at Bugando Hospital. Both of these groups would probably participate in tourist activities in their leisure time, if they would know of any. As was already evident from chapter 4, section 4.3.2., the limited number of tourists that do visit Mwanza, don't know where to go, as a consequence of the lack of marketing and exploitation. As was mentioned in chapter 1, pioneers in tourism pave the road for larger flows of tourists. These pioneers often come in the form of backpackers, but volunteers and interns are quite similar groups, as they are about the same age and share the aim of getting to know the local community. These groups in Mwanza could fulfil the pioneer role and therefore should be targeted as a focus group in the early stages of tourism.

5.5.2 Domestic Tourists

One of the findings of the research was that domestic tourism does exist. However the demands of domestic tourists are different from the demands of international tourists. According to the tour operators, domestic tourists are not interested in going on safaris, even with the low prices offered for park fees (1,500 shillings pp a day for Tanzanians as opposed to 50 dollars a day for international visitors). They do visit for example the island of Ukerewe or the lodges within Serengeti National Park, without taking a safari. Because of the special prices mentioned above and compared to the huge amount of foreign earnings, the amount of money spent by domestic tourists is negligible in comparison to the money spent by international tourists. It would be interesting though to see whether the contribution made by domestic tourism is enough to cover the problems mentioned in chapter 1, section 1.2.6, such as seasonality and drops in international arrivals because of terrorism or diseases.

5.5.3 The local community

Regarding the local community, there are two aspects worth mentioning. First, and most importantly, local inhabitants have no idea of the consequences of tourism. A lot of members of the local community link tourists with money and a source of income. But the downsides of tourism, such as economic leakages, damage to the local culture, conflicts, damage to the environment, etcetera (see chapter 1, section 1.4) are not considered. This became clear during the meetings with the local community of Nyegezi. Individual members were asked whether they were interested to join a CBT program, and from the beginning they were all very interested, solely for the fact that it would generate income. None of them brought up any concerns on the consequences of tourists entering their community.

Another aspect found was the difficulty for members of the local community to imagine what tourists are interested in. This too became evident during the design of the village tour. The local authorities had set up a pilot tour to show the researchers what the points of interest were in their village. Though the stories told at each point of interest, could be considered interesting, the views of these sites themselves were not. For example, a large stone that during some period in time was used as a holy place for sacrifices couldn't be recognized as such and looked like any other stone in Mwanza. The fact that what they considered to be random everyday life situations, like a woman cooking above a fire, or a man handling a ugali-machine⁶, could be very interesting for tourists, was very surprising to them.

5.5.4 Hotels

In 2009 Mr Steve Cote, from the NHTV Breda University in the Netherlands and intern at SNV made an inventory of all the hotels built in Mwanza City. Apparently, during the last century Mwanza has experienced an enormous expansion of the hotel industry (Cote 2009). This can be mainly attributed to the advice of President Kikwete, who promised in 2007 that tourism and local business would be stimulated by the Government of Tanzania and stressed the need for quality accommodations in Mwanza (Daily News 2007). Many businessmen thought hotels would be a safe investment, hence the increase in hotels. The lowest price range hotels have been built the most, which was attributed to a focus on domestic small business

⁶ Ugali is a maize or cassava flour cooked with water to a porridge consistency. It is one of the main Tanzanian dishes. With this machine, the maize or cassava was crushed to flour.

travellers (Cote 2009). Yet it has become clear that there is an overcrowding of low priced accommodations in all areas. A direct consequence of this abundance of hotels is that the occupancy rate is rather low with an average of forty percent of all rooms being booked. Many of the owners, which often have another business as their main income source, appear to have a short-sighted view on how to run a hotel and often expect an immediate cash return, similar to their respective businesses. Yet a hotel is a different sort of investment and it appears difficult for the owners to be persuaded into looking towards the future rather than direct returns on investment.

From the research it became apparent that proper hotel staff training is needed. In January 2009 the Ministry of Natural Resources & Tourism, in cooperation with the ministries of the other East African member states, has published a document for guidelines and classifications of hotels in East Africa. There appeared no concern among hotel owners and managers about this document and many stuck to the idea that "if no one is forcing us, then why should we do it".

5.5.5 Local, regional and national authorities

National authorities

National Authorities have not specifically considered Mwanza in any tourism plans. However, the national government does promote investment possibilities in new accommodation facilities and hotels, lodges and guest houses in major cities and towns, which includes Mwanza. The consequence of this measure is that everywhere in Mwanza new hotels and lodges pop up like daisies. It is just like Richter (1992) mentioned: countries are creating accommodation for foreigners who are not coming, while citizens who need accommodation immediately are left by themselves.

The government also tries to stimulate the development of tourism by improving knowledge and know-how; attracting investment capital; enhancing and expanding the tourism product; improving service standards; improving access and infrastructures; improving security; creating greater market awareness and; strengthening institutions and economic linkages (Tourism Master Plan 2002). The stakeholders in Mwanza could easily tap into these plans, and claim their share of government attention.

Regional authorities

The local government of Mwanza Region recognizes the fact that tourism is one of the least developed sectors in the region. However, they do see potential in Lake Victoria, the wildlife areas such as Saa Nane Island and Rubondo Island and the local culture of the Sukuma Tribe. The regional government is confident that the tourism sector could become a significant foreign exchange earner and employment sector.

Local authorities

The city council of Mwanza also encourages the Mwanza Tourism Industry to grow. It says it provides excellent investment opportunities in construction and management of hotels, lodges and restaurants, infrastructure ventures, aviation projects, training institutions, tour operations, travel agencies and marketing organization (MCC 2010).

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter addressed the second empirical question of this study, which was formulated as follows:

What kind of tourism stakeholders are present in Mwanza, what are their characteristics and what are their main ideas and perceptions about attractions and tourist-routes?

The most evident stakeholders in Mwanza are the tour operators, souvenir shops and hotels which all share the opinion that 'business is bad' in the city's tourism industry. However, they all have assigned themselves a rather passive role in the boosting of the tourism industry. Many stakeholders seem to think it is the responsibility of the local and national authorities to promote Mwanza as a tourist destination. Especially the lack of an international airport is seen as an important obstacle for Mwanza to reach this goal. Both stakeholders working in tourism as well as the local community seem to think that an international airport will lead to a bigger inflow of tourists, which in turn will lead to enormous income increases.

Domestic tourists mostly enter Mwanza for business purposes, while international tourists normally don't come near Mwanza because of the general view that there is nothing to do in Mwanza. As domestic tourists' expenditure is rather low and the money of international tourists does not reach Mwanza, currently stakeholders of tourism cannot rely on the revenue of tourism alone. Tour operators rely on other services they can offer, like the arranging of flight tickets for businessmen or the selling of bus tickets. The majority of souvenir shop stakeholders depend on the support of their families to sustain them.

But despite the current low income generating abilities of the tourism industry in Mwanza, stakeholders of this industry keep their hopes up that the situation will change in the nearby future. Since these stakeholders are so committed to their jobs, opportunities arise to help them strengthen their position within the tourism industry. More on these opportunities will be addressed in chapter 6

Chapter 6 Obstacles and Opportunities

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 and 5 explained what the current Mwanza tourism industry looks like and who its stakeholders are. The remaining questions of this study will be answered in the present chapter:

What are the main obstacles for Mwanza in attracting more tourists and the obstacles for entrepreneurs to improve their tourist businesses?

What possible new attractions and tourist-routes could be developed?

In chapter 5 some of the obstacles found have already been mentioned. Below, these and other obstacles that were found during observations within the tourism industry will be considered and solutions to tackle some of these obstacles will be presented. Next, opportunities will be presented consisting of suggestions for the upgrading of existing attractions and suggestions for new attractions and new routes that would include Mwanza in the tourism industry of both Tanzania and East Africa.

6.2 Obstacles

6.2.1 Obstacles in attracting more tourists

The prime reason for low revenue in the Mwanza Tourism Industry is the low amount of tourists that visit Mwanza throughout the year. Therefore it is interesting to investigate what obstacles obstruct the region in attracting tourists. Both in earlier studies conducted by SNV and in this study (see chapter 4), it was concluded that the Mwanza Tourism Industry has a limited variety of attractions and activities. Currently, the majority of attractions in Mwanza fall in the category of scenery that can be looked at. To attract more tourists, a wide variety of attractions and activities for all kinds of tourists is needed. Opportunities found in Mwanza Region for new attractions will be dealt with in section 6.3. In this section other obstacles found in the Mwanza Tourism Industry will be presented. With each obstacle mentioned in this section, a solution is offered that might deal with (part of) the problem.

Infrastructure

Many stakeholders of tourism in Mwanza claim that the direct cause of tourists staying away from Mwanza is the fact that Mwanza International Airport does not have the capacity to receive intercontinental flights. The fact that the top ten tourist destinations in the world⁷ according to numbers of the UNWTO as well as the most popular cities in Africa⁸ all have an international airport receiving intercontinental flights, seems to substantiate this claim. But as authorities have been promising the reconstruction of the airport for years (personal communication with the owner of the Tilapia Hotel), it might not be worthwhile to wait for

⁷ Paris, London, New York, Antalya, Singapore, Kuala Lumpur, Hong Kong, Dubai, Bangkok and Istanbul.

⁸ Cape Town, Johannesburg, Sharm el Sheikh, Marrakech and Hurgada.

this to actually happen. Moreover, the authorities might only be persuaded to build an international airport of full capacity when the numbers show that it is actually needed.

The flight to Mwanza from either Dar es Salaam, Arusha or Nairobi is approximately two hours and a one-way ticket costs on average some 100 euros. In order to attract more tourists to Mwanza, special offers could be introduced (temporarily) by tour operators or flight companies, so that the threshold of taking an additional flight would become considerably lower. The money generated by the larger influx of tourists might compensate for the costs of such a stunt offer.

There is still another option regarding infrastructure that would benefit the poor as well as the rest of the local community, while making it easier for tourists to visit Mwanza. In chapter 2 the railway was mentioned connecting Dar es Salaam with Mwanza. This railway has been closed since 2010 when it went bankrupt after privatisation. However, travelling via train is a relatively cheap way of transportation and it is often chosen by backpackers, the pioneers of tourism (see section 1.2.4). Investing in the restoration and reopening of the railway might be a good solution too.

As the Serengeti lies directly in between Mwanza and Arusha, busses and cars have to go all the way around it on a 742 kilometre long road. This trip takes travellers past Singida, a city which lies 444 kilometres south-east of Mwanza, and then north-east again for 321 kilometres up to Arusha. The road connecting Mwanza and Singida is entirely paved. The second part of the trip however, from Singida to Arusha consists of dirt roads. Currently the trip by bus from Mwanza to Arusha or vice versa takes about a whole day since the busses cannot speed up on the rough dirt roads. Busses that leave at 06:00 am from Mwanza are scheduled to arrive around 06:00 pm in Arusha. A tarmac road between Singida and Arusha would decrease the duration of this trip significantly and another flow of tourists might be encouraged to make the trip. If extra safety measures were taken, it might even be possible to introduce night busses.

Currently, it is rather difficult to find information on bus tickets, train tickets or even flights on the internet. Travellers have to rely on the advice of other travellers when they have to make a choice between several ways of transportation. The provision of information has to be improved. Information should be easily accessible for example over the internet and it has to be up-to-date.

Reputation

Among international tourists Mwanza Region and Mwanza City are often unknown or have a bad reputation, either as being boring or as a dangerous and filthy city. The latter idea has been caused mainly by the influence of the documentary *Darwin's Nightmare*. When surfing on the internet for activities in Mwanza only some entries of Saa Nane Island and the Bujora Museum can be found and on travellers forums statements pop up like '*There isn't too much to do in Mwanza...*' (Lonely Planet Thorn Tree travel forum 2010)⁹. The Lonely Planet of Tanzania itself (2008) hardly has any recommendations on activities either, besides going to see the Bismarck Rock and stroll over the Central Market. In chapter 2 (box 1) it was made clear how much influence the Lonely Planet has on especially backpack travellers. By working on the reputation of Mwanza in the Lonely Planet, a large group of travellers will be reached at once, which will most definitely result in an increasing amount of tourists coming to Mwanza Region and Mwanza City.

⁹ <http://www.lonelyplanet.com/thorntree/thread.jspa?threadID=1886937>

To create a more pleasant image of Mwanza as a tourist destination, large scale marketing campaigns are needed, starting with the main tourism markets of Tanzania, West-Europe and North America (see chapter 2, section 2.2.8). Documentaries and commercials could shed light on the positive sides of Mwanza and the beautiful scenery around the lake. It should be stressed that with joint effort, through pro-poor tourism, change could be achieved in the lives of the poorest inhabitants of Mwanza Region, who are shown in the documentary 'Darwin's Nightmare'.

6.2.2 Obstacles for entrepreneurs

Education and training

Through the case studies presented in chapter 5, as well as the other interviews and observations, it became clear that more than a few stakeholders have ambitious ideas which often include projects that bring benefits for the community. However, most stakeholders lack the professional expertise and business skills to actually come up with a concrete business plan. For most of them it therefore stays with daydreaming.

Aside from not being able to come up with business plans to fulfil their future prospects, some of the stakeholders in Mwanza lack the basic skills that are needed to run a tourism enterprise. For these reasons, education and training form crucial elements in the process of Mwanza becoming a pro-poor tourist destination. Without education and training, locals will be overshadowed by foreigners from for example Kenya, who do have the necessary skills to work in a tourism enterprise. The main subjects that need attention are hospitality, language and business skills like management, accounting and marketing. These subjects could be taught to students who want to become tourism entrepreneurs in the form of education. Training sessions could be provided for those who are already working in tourism and need an update of their skills.

In regards to marketing some stakeholders, like the tour operators, have made a good start. Twelve out of the fourteen tour operators have a website, and all have brochures and business cards. However, the problem with this marketing is that tourists that never enter Mwanza can hardly learn about these websites or brochures. Via standard search machines like Google, the websites cannot be found (Fortes Tour Operator being the exception) and brochures are handed out only in Mwanza City. In this way, people only get to know the tour operators either by word of mouth or by other tour operators sending tourists through. Mwanza tour operators do not yet have a wide network and word of mouth is limited with just a few tourists every year. Aside from the tour operators and Saa Nane Island which also has a website, stakeholders do close to nothing about marketing. The majority does not own a website, nor do they have brochures or business cards. The only brochure that was found, which was literally one single copy, was of the Mwanza Culture shop. This brochure was written in Swahili.

Ashley, Boyd and Goodwin (2000) noted that since tourism is a privilege that up to date is mostly enjoyed by westerners, poor people might have difficulties imagining what it is that a tourist wants and expects. Also understanding about the requirements of tourists needs to be broadened. Moreover, stakeholders need to be educated about the consequences of tourism. Especially newcomers to the tourism industry, such as local communities involved in upcoming CBT projects, need to know that tourism brings more than just some extra money. As was mentioned in chapter 5, section 5.5.3, the local community's perception of tourism is rather unilateral. Therefore education is needed on

the social, economical and environmental consequences of smaller or larger flows of tourists.

Networks

Just as Ashley (2006) noted regarding tourism enterprises elsewhere in Tanzania, the tourism industry in Mwanza suffers a lack of collaboration, which is needed to solve common problems or advocate common interests. There is no network connecting the different stakeholders. Even though there are relatively many stakeholders of tourism in Mwanza, they hardly know of one another. The stakeholders active within souvenir shops for example know that there are other souvenir shops to be found within Mwanza (Figure 6a), but most of them can only name those shops that are in close proximity of their own store. However, they do talk about wanting to cooperate and some even have plans in which the other shops play an important role.

One of the employees of the Saa Nane Museum said: *'Some tourists came in and asked me what they could do in Mwanza besides visiting the museum, but I had no idea where to send them'*. And another stakeholder recounted how some tourists came to the reception of a hotel asking for boat rides on the lake, but neither this hotel employees did know where to send them. Clearly, this results in missed opportunities and missing out on revenue. An indirect effect is that tourists leave the city without having been able to do anything and will most likely not recommend others to visit the city. This does not do any good for the reputation of Mwanza as a tourist destination.

The different stakeholders could benefit to a great extent if they would build up an internal network and would know of each others offerings, services and price range. Currently, only actors that are located in close proximity of one another share this kind of network (Figure 6a), which obviously is a very small network. A few have connections outside of Mwanza. In this setting, tourists that pass through Mwanza can easily end up not knowing where to go or what to do. If the network would be extended to a level where all stakeholders would know of one another and their businesses (figure 6b), tourists would always be captured by a wide safety net of people who could send them in any direction and to all possible places of interest. If eventually the tourism industry would start to grow, stakeholders could again benefit from this newly build social capital. They could share

Figure 6a Current state of the tourism network

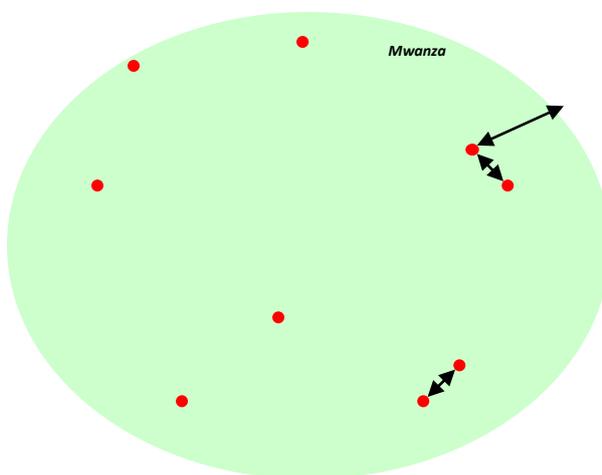
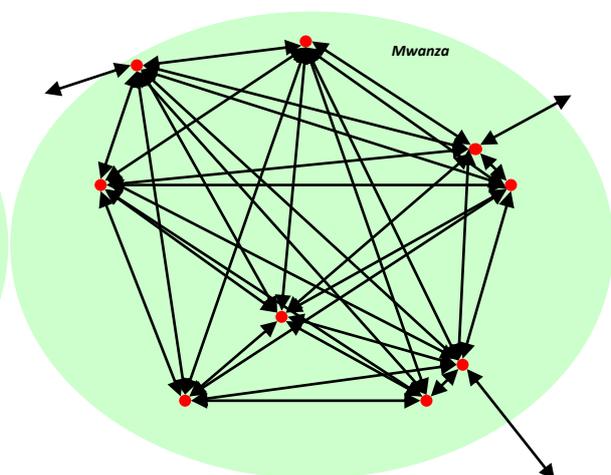


Figure 6b: Preferable state of the tourism network



knowledge and experiences, and strengthen each other in all kinds of legal matters. Some stakeholders for example have trouble in getting appointed a new plot in the city. Working together in a labour union could accelerate these processes.

SNV and the MTA have tried to set up a meeting for all tour operators in an attempt to create a network between them. Tour operators were definitely interested in coming to the meeting, but even though they confirmed they would come, only a couple of them showed up at the meeting. After questioning why they had not come, most of them argued that running a small tour operator business with only a couple of employees, implies that you always have to be at the office. On the day of the meeting, it simply turned out to be impossible for the representatives to leave their work. A simple improvement of this process would therefore be to schedule meetings outside of working hours, so stakeholders would actually have the opportunity to show up.

A first step into creating a viable network for the stakeholders of Mwanza is to unify them in a trade union or through the MTA. Another step would be to create networks with tour operators outside of Mwanza, such as those in Arusha and Dar es Salaam, but also outside of Tanzania in Europe and North America. These networks could result in new approaches and ideas for the Mwanza tourism industry and could also generate the necessary increase in tourist numbers visiting Mwanza Region

Government inaction and bureaucracy

Ashley (2006) mentioned how initiatives by individuals, businesses and communities to stimulate local linkages are often stifled by government inaction and bureaucracy. The initiative of Jane Banura (chapter 5, section 5.3.3) forms a good example. Jane has been trying to obtain a plot where she could open a cultural centre, which would be a great starting point to create the needed networks. However, the local authorities at the Mwanza City Council have not yet appointed her with an adequate piece of land. Other stakeholders, like the artists of the souvenir shops at Capri Point also mentioned having difficulties obtaining a plot. Ashley noted that stakeholders in Tanzania can face cumbersome formalisation processes with numerous fees, taxes, regulations and bylaws at the local level. Pressure could be exerted on the government by the MTA, NGOs and by local trade unions to simplify their legislation and procedures.

Anyone who wants to start a new business in Tanzania has to register with the Tanzania Revenue Authority (TRA). With this registration it becomes easier for enterprises to get financial support, enter legal agreements with tour operators, establish legitimacy in the eyes of tourists and be marketed officially by the government. However, the small enterprises that make up a large part of the current Mwanza tourism industry cannot register at all as the recognised categories of tourist business do not accommodate the small and simple ones. Therefore, the government should ensure that licensing and regulations do not exclude small entrepreneurs. Ashley has given multiple options to do this:

- *Set grading systems to include basic categories that meet minimum standards, such as for home-stay accommodation and local guides*
- *Enable micro businesses to register without immediately being liable for fees and bureaucracy*
- *Coordinate between village, district, provincial and national governments, so that MSEs are not subject to multiple taxes and fees*

(Ashley 2006, 19)

These options are all applicable to Mwanza, and stakeholders such as the MTA as well as NGO's could lobby for the realisation of these conditions.

The Government of Tanzania prioritises attracting foreign direct investment (FDI), given the shortage of domestic finance for investing in the sector. They have made significant efforts to encourage these foreign investments. This strategy definitely has its advantages as forest investment can inject much needed finance into the local economy, bring technological upgrades and introduce new approaches. However, because of the massive tax breaks and sweeteners (100 percent foreign ownership; VAT and import duty exemptions; and repatriation of 100 percent of profits, dividends, and capital after tax and other obligations, source: Tanzania Investment Act 1997) implemented by the government, the companies involved pay very little tax and will probably repatriate (a large part of) the profits. Therefore also domestic investors have to be targeted, both large and small.

6.3 Opportunities

In chapter one a category of attractions was mentioned, described by Michael (2007), called multipliers (see chapter 1, section 1.5.3). New attractions in Mwanza that would bring benefits to the poor would ideally fall in this category of multipliers. In this chapter, some ideas for new multipliers in the Mwanza Tourism Industry will be presented. The multipliers will have to meet at least one of the following UNWTO mechanisms, already presented in chapter 1:

1. Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises;
2. Supply of goods and/or services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor;
3. Direct sales of goods and/or services to visitors by the poor (informal economy);
4. Establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor – e.g. micro, small and medium sized enterprises (MSME's), or CBT (formal economy);
5. Tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor;
6. Voluntary giving and support by tourism enterprises and tourists;
7. Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality.

In the first part of this chapter (section 6.3.1) it will be investigated whether existing attractions can be altered in such a way that they meet one or more of these mechanisms. In the following sections, opportunities for new attractions and new routes will be presented.

6.3.1 Upgrading of existing attractions

The points of interest in Mwanza, such as the Bukoba Ferry Monument, the Jiwe Kuu, the Bismarck Rock, the Hanging Tree, the temples, churches and mosques and the European cemetery are difficult to upgrade to a pro-poor level, as they are simply attractions to look at. However, these points of interest could all be part of an interesting city tour, guided by locals and perhaps by poor members of the community. Viewpoints like the Jiwe Kuu, could be exploited to a slightly greater extent, by introducing small stalls where locals, preferable those living in the direct surroundings of the Jiwe Kuu could sell snacks, soda's and maybe small souvenirs. However, the development range of these attractions remains marginal.

More opportunities can be found for the empty buildings in town, such as the Robert Koch House and Ghandi Hall. These buildings could function as museums or visitor centers.

The only Gandhi museum in the world is located in Delhi, India. It might be possible to use Gandhi Hall as a museum or visitors centre with information about Gandhi's time in Africa. As has been mentioned in chapter 2, section 2.2.2, people of Indian origin make up a significant minority in the urban areas all through Tanzania, as well as in other parts of Africa. A Gandhi museum could make an interesting attraction for domestic, regional as well as international tourism. As the middleclass in India is coming up and increasingly often take holidays overseas, they might form an important niche market. Therefore, investment in Indian Cultural heritage could very well be promising.

The Robert Koch House might have a wider range of opportunities, as it is not built as a memorial for anyone (some claim Robert Koch does not have anything to do with the house (personal communication with one of the stakeholders)). The Robert Koch House could be assigned a more pro-poor function. Its location on a hill towering over Mwanza City and its interesting architecture give the house a unique element which makes it perfect for tourism purposes. It could either be used as a guesthouse or restaurant where visitors can get a snack or beverage while enjoying the view, or it could be used as a museum/visitors centre where the history of Mwanza and/or Lake Victoria are explained. Whatever purpose is chosen for the house, it can easily attain a pro-poor standard by either employing the poor, or selling products supplied by the poor.

Both Kageye Historical Site and the Saa Nane Museum are in need of some physical changes in the form of restorations, completion of stories and information and protection/conservation of properties. The stuffed animals of the Saa Nane Museum need to be conserved in a better way, and it might be interesting to include some information about all of them. The graves and other remains at Kageye Historical Site have to be made recognisable as such, by either putting up small fences around them, or at least make sure the path goes around them, so visitors will not walk over and on top of the graves without even recognising them. To make sure tourists and other visitors learn the full story of what happened at this particular site centuries ago, tour guides (preferable from the village) have to be trained so they attain an adequate level of English. Another option is to install billboards at various places on the site, so that visitors can read the history of the site themselves. This would release pressure on the English skills of the personnel, but it would also remove the need of tour guides which means less job-opportunities. Training of stakeholders is not only important for the Kageye Historical Site and the Saa Nane Museum. Many more stakeholders could use training in various subjects and skills. More on this topic will be shared in section 6.2.2.

The population of Kayenze, the village closest to Kageye Historical Site that has remained for the larger part without electrical power, could benefit greatly from the exploitation of the site and the profits it would bring with it once tourists would be interested to visit. Community members looking for a job could be asked to help with the renovations and once completely developed, guides could be trained as well as other personnel that is needed to run a certain enterprise. However, initial investment is needed. As soon as the mentioned attractions would have been developed to a higher level, they could start asking for (higher) entrance fees.

Currently the various markets in Mwanza hold the biggest potential as pro-poor attractions and multipliers. The markets give room to many members of society to sell their product. By making sure tourist routes like city tours pass through markets, foreign exchange is injected into the local economy, just like Michael (2007) describes in his explanation of multipliers. An initial input would be the training of tour guides. There are already some tour

guides around who could provide for this training, so local labour could be used. Tourists coming into Mwanza would visit the market in a city tour with one of these tour guides, which provides an (increase in) income for the first couple of people: the tour guides and eventually tour operators who offered the tour in some sort of package. Assuming that tourists will buy at least some products from these markets, an increase in the income of the market vendors will occur. The multiplier effect continues, for all those who receive an increase in income purchase consumer goods and services in turn, increasing the demand to create domestic output and so creating more income for others. An advantage of markets over other attractions is that a big flow of tourists will make sure foreign exchange is spread over a larger number of beneficiaries directly and more or less equally, as opposed to the income generated by a hotel or resort.

The same goes for festivals. If more tourists would be attracted to the Bulabo Festival (or other, new festivals) all kinds of vendors at the festival would receive an increase in income. This would attract new vendors to also come to the festival with their products, whereby they would start to earn a new income, unrelated to what they did before.

6.3.2 New attractions: Opportunities for the local community

Community Based Tourism

A strategy that has both proven to be a success and a failure at different destinations in the world, but can still be considered a valuable option, is CBT (see chapter 1). All around Mwanza small villages can be found where the inhabitants still live and work in a somewhat traditional style. The communities of these villages could enter community based projects in which they could show tourists around in their village, teaching them about their way of living and their culture.

When starting a new CBT project, it is important to keep the points of critique of Blackstock (2005) in mind (see chapter 1). One of her critiques was that many communities are co-opted into supporting tourism through an illusion of power sharing but they are not empowered to reject tourism as a development option (Blackstock 2005, 41). Consequently it should be an option for the local community to reject tourism as a development strategy.

The programs and tours of the Tanzania Cultural Tourism Program could be used as examples and maybe the villages in Mwanza Region could even become part of this national program.

Box 9: The design of the Nyegezi Village Tour

During the internship with SNV a Community Based Tourism Project was designed in Nyegezi district. The idea was to design a village tour that would benefit the local community and at the same time would satisfy the need for CBT in this region with the intention to attract more tourists to Mwanza.

The Nyegezi Village Tour would give the local people of Nyegezi a chance to earn some extra income by showing tourists around in their present natural and cultural environment. It would directly contribute to poverty reduction through tour fees, which would be divided between the tour guide, the locals directly involved in the tour and a newly set up Village Fund (VF). A certain percentage of the tour fees would go into this VF and it would be up to the local community to use this fund for any projects they would consider



One of the traditional compounds in Nyegezi

necessary. As soon as the tourism industry in Mwanza would start to grow, it might be worthwhile to create new jobs for local people as tour guides or story tellers, and markets for local products (food and handicrafts) might be developed or expanded. If the village tour would turn out to be a success in the long run, the formula could be copied by other districts and villages in the Mwanza region.

The designed village tour consists of a visitation of several individuals and small businesses within the Nyegezi area such as a traditional healer, some craftsmen, a farm, fisheries, a local restaurant and traditional compounds but the compilation of these attractions could differ per visiting group.

The Mwanza Night Market

In addition to the existing markets in Mwanza, a possible new tourist attraction could be a night market. Night markets are attractions frequently visited by tourists, because of their atmosphere and the opportunity to have a late-night stroll while looking for souvenirs and have a drink or some food after a day of other activities. In East Asia many tourist destinations have included the attraction of the night *bazaar* (the Persian word for market). The most well known markets being in Taiwan and Thailand, but also in Stone Town, Zanzibar, the night market is quite a success.



The Night Market in Stone Town , Zanzibar

A night market forms a perfect opportunity for local suppliers to sell fruits and fresh juices, grilled tilapia and other fish, mishkaki (grilled meat skewers), chipsi mayai (omelette with chips), chapati (pancake shaped bread), samosa (triangular pastry with meat or vegetables), etcetera. Artists could sell their paintings and handicrafts or make music to entertain the visitors, and salesmen could sell all kinds of products like kitenges, kangas and jewellery. Except for salesmen and artists, jobs might arise for guards, as night activities often attract petty crime.

Lake activities

Without a doubt the largest attraction of Mwanza is Lake Victoria. Mwanza City could benefit to a great extent if the lake was exploited more for tourism purposes. Revenue could

be generated without increasing the damage done to the eco-system of Lake Victoria and its fish-population. In his upcoming article, '*How can tourism flows be diverted from traditional tourism routes?*' (2011), Jes Halim Nauckhoff has made some suggestions on what kind of lake activities are possible on Lake Victoria nearby Mwanza. He investigated whether lake activities could be developed with and in fishing communities. Creating affordable tours on Lake Victoria may encourage more tourist spending to be captured locally. If these new services are owned and operated by members of low-income communities, the potential for tourist expenditure to improve local livelihoods rises significantly. A pilot programme initiated by the local capacity builders together with local communities has proven that by bringing stakeholders together, ventures can occur without the need for significant capital investment. Thus, the advantage of lake tourism is that it requires relatively little investment because of the natural capital available, but with good management the returns may be great for both the business and the community.

Backward linkages through inclusive business

In the ideal pro-poor tourism industry, tourism supply chains extend far into the local economy, involving many workers and entrepreneurs from different sectors (Ashley 2006). Currently, the supply chains in the Mwanza tourism industry allow little opportunity for benefits from tourism to disperse into the local economy. As mentioned in chapter 5.3 the supply chains of materials and products sold in souvenir shops often lead to other African countries. Great benefits for the local community could be achieved if these supply chains were shortened and would make more use of local suppliers and artists/handcrafters. Aside from souvenir shops, many other enterprises could practice the idea of inclusive business by including local suppliers such as the producers of vegetables or poultry as much as possible. When the demand of supplies is larger than one local supplier can offer, instead of shifting to a larger supplier elsewhere, the enterprise could contract a number of local suppliers. Though this procedure might generate some extra paperwork, the revenue stays within the region, benefiting the small suppliers as well as the rest of the community through the multiplier effect. It could be seen as a role for either the Mwanza Tourist Association or local NGO's to help link suppliers and buyers.

In respect to souvenirs, tourists are often more interested in buying products that are unique to their destination (Ashley 2006). Therefore, it might be worthwhile to explore what materials found in Mwanza could be used to develop a Mwanza-specific souvenir. Such a souvenir would provide tourists with a nice remembrance of their time in Mwanza. It would be an advertisement for the city and it would generate income for both the seller of the souvenir and the supplier of the materials.

6.3.3 New attractions: Opportunities for the poorest of the poor

Street children taking over

One of the problems of Mwanza City is the increasing numbers of street children (Lugalla & Mbwambo 1999). Street children form one of, if not the poorest group of inhabitants of Mwanza. They could form an important target group of pro-poor tourism.

An interesting example of former street children working in tourism can be found in one of the lodges near Arusha National Park: the Kiboko Lodge founded by former retail director Noud and Truus van Hout from The Netherlands. The Kiboko Lodge is, except for the manager, fully run by former street children (www.kibokolodge.nl). They are all trained for

at least four years at the Watoto Foundation¹⁰ vocational training school in Usa River in the Arusha region. Several boys have worked for at least two years at other high standard lodges. All the profits from the lodge are spent on the vocational training school and the drop-in centre in Arusha town. The idea is that one day the NGO will be independent of donors from abroad. Income will be derived from the vocational training, farming, agriculture and the lodge.

Another example of street children's opportunities in tourism can be found in Cambodia. Mith Samlanh ("Friends" in English) is a local organization working with Cambodian street children, their families and the community to develop creative projects that effectively support the children to become independent and productive members of the community (www.mithsamlanh.org). They have opened restaurants, shops, beauty salons and barbers in Phnom Penh, staffed almost entirely by former street children. Entrepreneurs in Mwanza could follow these examples and start new enterprises or use existing ones and have them run by former street children of Mwanza City.

The world's first Albino Museum on Ukerewe Island

Another minority group that can be found all over Mwanza Region are the albinos. Already mentioned in chapter 4, albinos make up a large population on Ukerewe Island, where many of them were abandoned as babies. The abandonment and killing of albinos is caused by widespread superstition and ignorance. This ignorance could be fought by the creation of information centres where people can learn about the real causes of albinism. And an information centre could be easily presented in the form of a museum, for which Ukerewe Island makes up a perfect location, with its large albino population as well as its reputation as a domestic tourist destination. Within this museum, the genetic causes of albinism could be presented in simple layman's terms with the help of graphics and anatomic models. The



tragic history of albinos in Tanzania could be narrated through documentaries, text boards, as well as personal stories. In other rooms photo galleries could shed light on positive life stories of Tanzanian albino inhabitants or highly successful albinos worldwide, such as the internationally recognized afro-pop singer-songwriter from Mali, Salif Keita. Salif Keita is dubbed 'the Golden Voice of Africa' and has made several tours in the United States of America.

Albino Baby, source: www.mtholyoke.edu¹¹

¹⁰ Watoto Foundation is a vocational training centre. Children who suffer from addiction to drugs, glue and alcohol are given the opportunity to build a new life. The Foundation offers them the chance for an education, which will equip them with the necessary skills to find a job (<http://www.watotofoundation.nl/en>).

¹¹ Source of picture:

http://www.mtholyoke.edu/~marik22b/classweb/worldpolitics/images/Mother_percent20and_percent20albino_percent

The construction of a new museum in the relatively isolated location of Ukerewe Island could definitely be considered a multiplier attraction. As in the example given by Michael (2007, p. 39) such a project will cost many millions of Tanzanian Shillings (or dollars). Therefore the funds should be raised through the global financial market, so that costs of the construction can be covered. The building phase will utilise local labour and equipment, which increases current domestic production and income. Much of the money invested in the construction of this new museum is now effectively transferred to the local suppliers and workers. As Ukerewe Island is a particular underdeveloped region when it comes to infrastructure, the new infrastructure provided by the construction of such a museum would greatly benefit the local community of for example Nansio, the capital of Ukerewe Island.

When the museum opens, new jobs would be at hand: a board of directors, museum guides, desk staff, a crew for a museum cafeteria, guards, cleaning personnel, etcetera. Many if not all of these functions could be filled by albinos themselves. Just as the construction materials, goods needed for the cafeteria could be bought from local suppliers as well.

While special packages for Tanzanian and East African residents could stimulate domestic tourism, international tourists could provide the needed revenue to keep the museum running. Just as the Sukuma Museum/Bujora Cultural Centre, an Albino Museum could be the destination of school trips whereby awareness is created amongst more and more young people in the highly affected Northern regions of Tanzania.

With this multiplier at least three of the UNWTO mechanisms would be met, namely the first: Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises; the second: Supply of goods and/or services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor; and the seventh: Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality. If in due time the whole museum would be run by albinos, the fourth mechanism would be met: Establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor. And by adding a Museum Fund for the benefit of albinos nationwide to which visitors can make a donation, the sixth mechanism could be included: Voluntary giving and support by tourism enterprises and tourists.

Blooming Bukumbi

There is still another group in Mwanza that can be considered the poorest of the poor. This group consists of the lepers. Many lepers live on the streets of Mwanza, begging for food and money. Some of these lepers have been given the chance to live in the village of Bukumbi (see chapter 5, box 9) and make some money by making souvenirs. However, some of the lepers experienced they made more money by begging in the streets and therefore they returned to the city, where they run the risk of getting arrested or beaten up. The training centre of Bukumbi could use some extra attention from souvenir sellers in town. By buying the souvenirs from Bukumbi instead of all the way from Arusha, Dar es Salaam or further, souvenir shops could save transportation costs while a group of poor members of Mwanza would reap the benefits as well.

6.3.4 New Routes

Regarding new tourist routes, four different categories need to be considered. Routes within Mwanza City, routes within Mwanza Region, routes within Tanzania and routes within East Africa. For each category of routes, at least one suggestion for a new route is presented in this section.

New routes in Mwanza City

Within Mwanza City a number of new routes could be developed such as a cultural route, a historical route, an eco-route and a night-route. In a cultural route, tourists could be introduced to the interesting culture of the Sukuma tribe or the daily life of the inhabitants of Mwanza and the aid they receive from traditional healers or witch doctors. Several attractions could be included in this tour such as the Sukuma Museum/Bujora Cultural Centre, the various markets found in Mwanza, the churches, mosques and temples and community based projects.

In a historical route the various sites could be included that together form the remains of the colonial times of Mwanza, such as Kageye Historical Site, the German colonial buildings in town, the Gallows Tree, the European cemetery and the old German railway station.

An eco-route could take tourists from a particular niche-market: those interested in natural phenomena and eco-systems on a tour around the interesting history of Lake Victoria. The revenue generated in such a route could for example be put to use in research on how the eco-system of Lake Victoria could be brought back to its old standards. In this eco-route boat rides on Lake Victoria could be included, as well as walks in the beautiful surroundings of the lake and Mwanza City. Also Saa Nane Island and Saa Nane museum could be included in such a route, as visitors might want to learn more about the several animal species that survive in and around the great lake. In chapter 1 of this thesis the so called flag-ship species were mentioned (Leader-Williams 2002), charismatic species that have the potential to attract tourists. Though the particular animal species found in Mwanza region may not be as charismatic as the Big Five in the safari parks, animals like the African Fish Eagle could function as a flag species for bird watchers. The giant Nile perch has been a flag species for sport fishermen for decades and if the original eco-system of Lake Victoria could be restored, the beautiful cichlids that once lived there in abundance might form another group of flagship species. And when all these animals prove not to be charismatic enough, there is still the Lake Victoria crocodile. Newly developed sanctuaries could form attractions along the eco-route where tourists could learn all about the conservation and reintroduction of certain species.

Furthermore, a route combining the beautiful scenery of the city and the lake, as well as the culture and habits of the inhabitants of Mwanza, could be a night tour. This tour would start at one of the viewpoints such as Jiwe Kuu, where tourists could view the beautiful sunset over Lake Victoria, while enjoying a drink or local snack. After darkness has fallen over the entire city, the tourists could stroll down the roads of Bwiru to the shores of the lake. Here they could go for a boat ride by night, watching the fishermen lit hundreds of small lanterns that are placed in the water to attract insects: bate for the fish. And after the boat ride, the group of tourists could be taken to wherever the newly developed Mwanza Night Market would take place. And while listening to Sukuma drumming and having another snack and a desert of fresh fruit, the tourists could stroll around the various market stands and shop for jewellery and wooden statues. This evening route might form a perfect ending for an interesting day in Mwanza City.

All these tours create job opportunities in the form of tour guides as well as employees at the different attractions along the route. Locals including the poor could use these routes to start small businesses that rely on tourist expenditure. If managed right these new tours could stay in hands of the inhabitants of Mwanza and the foreign earnings

would start to circulate through the local economy, motivating more and more people to come up with innovative ideas for new tourist businesses.

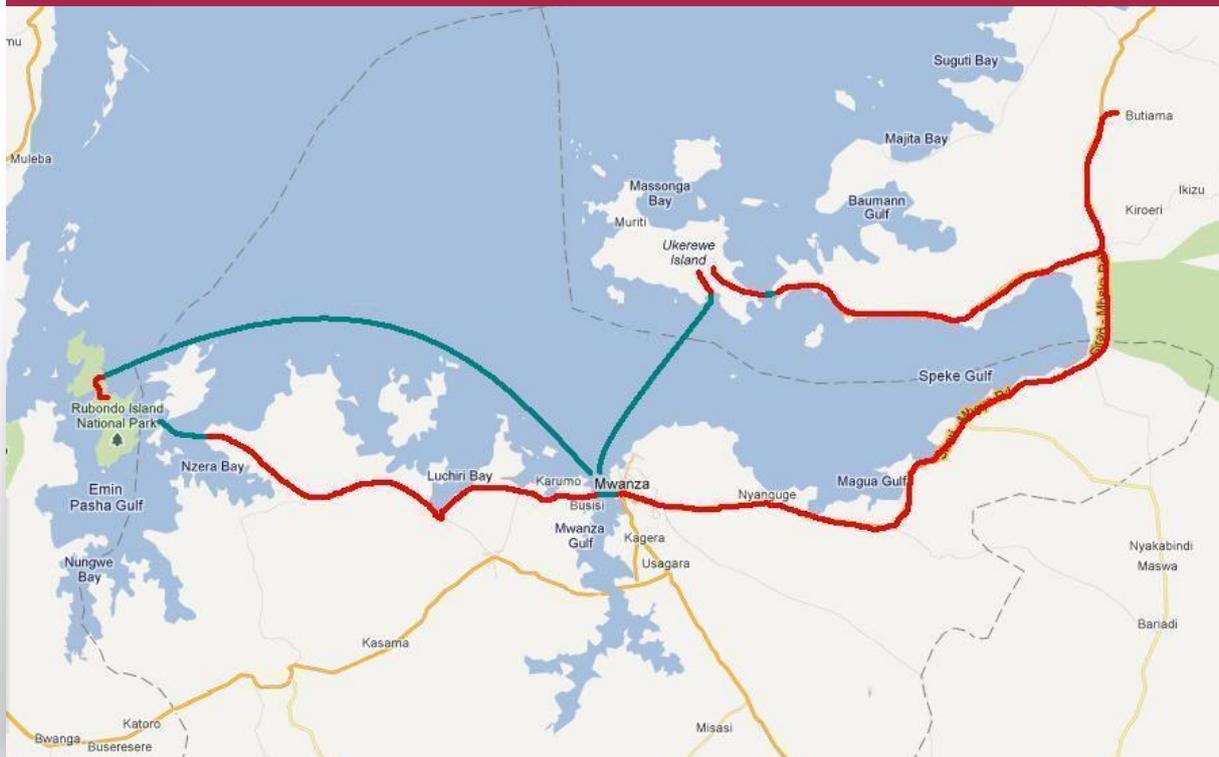
Table 6.1: Possible new routes with the possible attractions to be included

Cultural Route	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sukuma Museum/Bujora Cultural Centre • Sukuma dancing groups • various markets • churches, mosques, temples • CBT
Historical Route	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Kageye Historical Site • German colonial buildings • Gallows Tree • European Cemetery • German Railway Station
Eco-route	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lake Victoria • Natural surroundings of Mwanza • Saa Nane Museum • Saa Nane National Park
Mwanza by Night	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A viewpoint such as the Jiwe Kuu or the Bukoba ferry monument • A boat ride by night on the lake • The Mwanza Night Market

New routes through Mwanza Region

New routes through Mwanza Region could be formed with attractions like Ukerewe Island, Rubondo Island National park and also the Nyerere Museum just outside Mwanza Region. This new route might make an interesting trip for those who want to avoid the large stream of tourists in other parts of Tanzania but do want to get in touch with Tanzanian culture as well as the amazing natural scenery on Rubondo Island. Flying into Mwanza Airport, tourists could first visit Mwanza City, followed by a trip to the Nyerere Museum. From there they could drive past the shores of Lake Victoria and visit the Ukerewe Island, where they might engage in some CBT projects. After the tour on Ukerewe Island the tourists could cross Lake Victoria by ferry, back to Mwanza City. From here they could set course for Rubondo Island National Park. This island can either be reached via a beautiful boat tour over Lake Victoria, during which the tourists could fish and relax. Or it can be reached via land, in for example a private dala-dala, which makes a beautiful trip through all kinds of small settlements and over dusty roads.

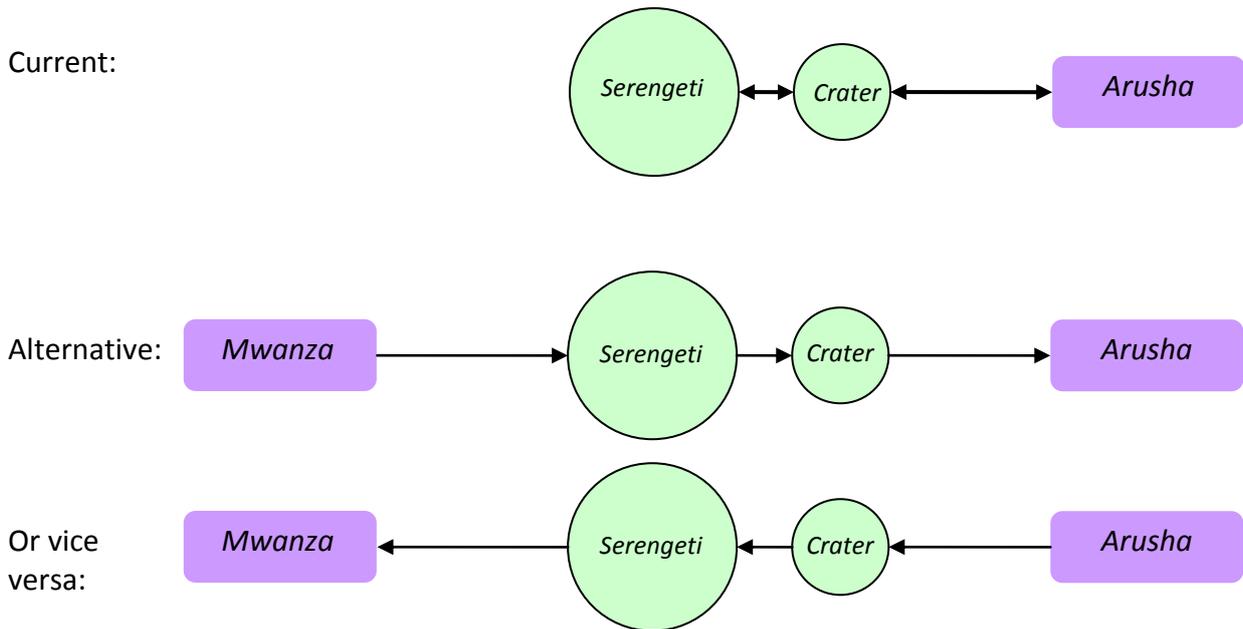
Figure 6c: A possible new route through Mwanza Region



The western gateway to Serengeti

International tourists who come to Tanzania often choose Arusha as the point of entry for their safaris (see chapter 1). Yet, the question rises whether they would all opt for Arusha if they knew there was an alternative. The Northern Route including Mwanza is currently only offered by the tour operators in Mwanza (see chapter 4). If tour operators in Arusha would include Mwanza in their packages, this could mean a large inflow of tourists into Mwanza region.

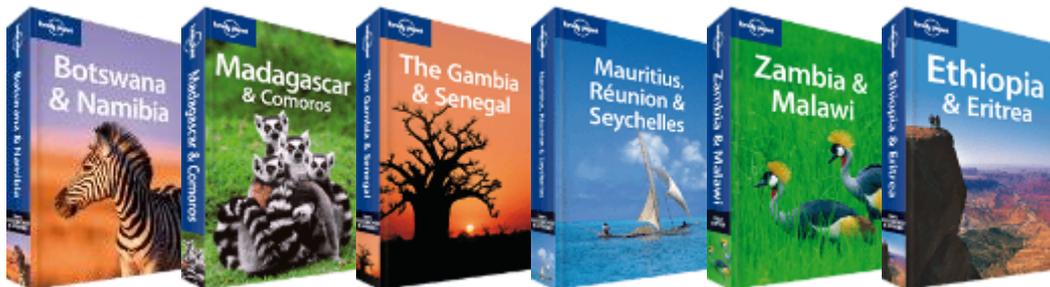
Figure 4d: Mwanza as the western Gateway to Serengeti



Mwanza City as the East African Hub

In the last decade it has become more and more popular to visit a few neighbouring countries successively in one continuous travel period. The Lonely Planet has tapped into this new hype by publishing multi-country guidebooks focussing on two or three countries at once, such as Thailand, Vietnam & Cambodia; India & Nepal; Botswana & Namibia; Ethiopia & Eritrea; Georgia, Armenia & Azerbaijan etcetera.

8



Lonely Planets 'multi-country guides' of Africa, source: www.LonelyPlanet.com

The location of Mwanza in the northern region of Tanzania, bordering a lake with many possibilities for this so-called 'country hopping' makes the city a perfect choice as East African hub. A first possible route could for example connect Tanzania with the lesser known countries Burundi and Rwanda. Tourists could include the main attractions as well as several smaller pro-poor activities in each of these three countries in one single trip: The Big Five in Tanzania, gorillas and volcanic lakes in Rwanda and the endless tea plantations of Burundi, interchanged by community based projects and visits to rural villages. Along with dyed-in-the-wool tourist destination Kenya another tourist-route could be formed: Tanzania, Uganda and Kenya.

6.4 SWOT-analysis and conclusion

In the present chapter, the remaining questions of this study have been addressed, namely: *What are the main obstacles for Mwanza in attracting more tourists and the obstacles for entrepreneurs to improve their tourist businesses?* and *What possible new attractions and tourist-routes could be developed?* An overview of the findings in this chapter is presented in the SWOT-analysis below. In the ‘Strengths’-box the several positive attributes and advantages of Mwanza are presented, while in the ‘Weaknesses’-box the current negative attributes and disadvantages are presented. In the ‘Opportunities’-box the suggestions posed for new attractions and routes are summarized and finally in the ‘Threats’-box the pitfalls are presented that could keep Mwanza from becoming a pro-poor tourist destination.

Table 6.2: SWOT-analysis	
<div style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #FFD700; font-size: 2em; opacity: 0.5; margin-bottom: 10px;">S</div> <p style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #000080;">Strengths</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The presence of an international airport • Location nearby large attractions such as Lake Victoria and Serengeti National Park • No severe hassle from vendors 	<div style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #00FF00; font-size: 2em; opacity: 0.5; margin-bottom: 10px;">W</div> <p style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #000080;">Weaknesses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The state of attractions and routes • The state of the infrastructure • The poor reputation of Lake Victoria as a failed ecological experiment • The absence of embedded networks • The level of education and limited training • Government inaction and bureaucracy • Inefficient supply chains
<div style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #FFA500; font-size: 2em; opacity: 0.5; margin-bottom: 10px;">O</div> <p style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #000080;">Opportunities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Potential lake activities • Potential attractive cultural activities • Ecotourism opportunities • Potential East African routes • The Indian niche market 	<div style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #00FFFF; font-size: 2em; opacity: 0.5; margin-bottom: 10px;">T</div> <p style="text-align: center; font-weight: bold; color: #000080;">Threats</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Severe competition from entrepreneurs in Arusha • Leakages • The presence of the Bilharzia parasite in Lake Victoria

By using the strengths of Mwanza, the opportunities could be exploited and the suggestions made in this chapter realised. Solutions should be sought for the weaknesses Mwanza has and a strong focus should be held on the threats that the Mwanza Tourism faces. This SWOT-analysis offers guidelines for the development of an intervention-oriented roadmap, consisting of the steps that should be taken by the stakeholders in Mwanza, in order to turn Mwanza into a pro-poor tourist destination. The lay-out of the intervention-oriented roadmap will be presented in chapter 7.

Chapter 7 Summary and conclusion

7.1 Introduction

The contemporary main industries in Mwanza, fishing and mining, are confined in nature and won't last forever. The question has risen whether tourism could be used as a development tool in Mwanza. This study has focused on the research question:

Which steps have to be taken to create a pro-poor tourism industry in Mwanza City and Mwanza Region?

In the previous chapters the current status of the Mwanza tourism industry has been presented along with suggestions for improvement and renewal, whereby the sub-questions of this study have been answered. In section 7.2 the answers to these questions are summarized in short. In the same section the answers to the main research question are provided, based on the answers on the sub-questions. Subsequently, this chapter provides a reflection of the research process and the limitations. Finally, modest recommendations are given for further research.

7.2 The Mwanza tourism industry in retrospect and prospect

7.2.1 Diamonds in the rough

The first research question of this study was:

What are the existing attractions and tourist-routes in Mwanza and what are their characteristics?

Within and around Mwanza City a number of attractions and points of interest can be found, such as cultural heritage sites, monuments, colonial buildings, museums, national parks, natural scenery. Also all kinds of activities that make up the daily life of the inhabitants of Mwanza have been found which could form interesting attractions for tourists, such as markets, fishing harbors, compounds and so on. Most of these attractions and sites lack interaction with the community, do not create employment opportunities for many, are quite underdeveloped and unexploited and don't generate money for any stakeholders. Currently none of them can be labeled pro-poor. However, all of them hold significant potential to attract tourists when developed.

7.2.2 Indifference versus enthusiasm

The second research question of this study was:

What kind of tourism stakeholders are present in Mwanza, what are their characteristics and what are their main ideas about attractions and tourist-routes?

Stakeholders of Mwanza tourism consist of owners and employees of tour operators, souvenir shops, hotels and attractions, the Mwanza Tourist Association, international and

domestic tourists and the local community. Owners and employees of tourism enterprises all share the opinion that 'business is bad' in the city's tourism industry. However, many of them have appointed themselves a rather passive role in boosting the tourism industry. The majority of stakeholders seem to think it is the responsibility of the local and national authorities to promote Mwanza as a tourist destination.

Despite the low income generating abilities of the current tourism industry in Mwanza, stakeholders of this industry keep their hopes up that the situation will change in the nearby future. Since these stakeholders are so committed to their jobs, opportunities arise to help them strengthen their position within the tourism industry. There is a group of stakeholders with ambitious ideas for new attractions, routes and activities. This enthusiasm should definitely be put to good use.

7.2.3 Chaos and malfunctioning

The third research question of this study was:

What are the main obstacles for Mwanza in attracting more tourists and the obstacles for entrepreneurs to improve their tourist businesses?

The main obstacles found for Mwanza in attracting more tourists were the obvious shortage of attractions, the poor infrastructure and the bad reputation the city suffers from. The main obstacles found for entrepreneurs to improve their tourist businesses were the lack of education and training, the absence of embedded networks between stakeholders and government inaction and bureaucracy.

7.2.4 Opportunities for the Mwanza tourism industry

The fourth research question of this study was:

What possible new attractions and tourist-routes could be developed?

There are two potential groups of attractions that could be easily developed in Mwanza, which are lake activities and CBT. Both of these attractions offer opportunities to include the poor and make sure they reap at least some of the benefits of such activities. Other more specific suggestions that were made are a lodge run by street children, an Albino Museum, a night market and enterprises through which the lepers of Bukumbi could earn some money by selling their souvenirs.

With respect to new tourist routes, several routes in and around Mwanza City have been suggested. Within Mwanza City, opportunities could be explored to develop historical routes, cultural routes, eco-routes and night-routes. Within Mwanza Region a route was suggested connecting Mwanza City, Butiama Village, Ukerewe Island and Rubondo National Park. On a slightly larger scale, Mwanza could become part of the Northern Circuit, in which Mwanza could function as the western gateway to Serengeti National Park. And on an even larger scale, Mwanza might become the hub for a country hopping route between some or all of the countries Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda, Kenya and of course Tanzania.

7.2.5 An intervention-oriented roadmap

Though a basis for tourism is already present in Mwanza, there are still steps to be taken before Mwanza could call itself a pro-poor tourist destination. Attractions and routes are poorly developed, hotels lack in differentiation, employees lack in proper training and knowledge and owners as well as employees have a short sighted view on future

perspectives of their businesses. Mwanza has many natural attractions including Lake Victoria, Rubondo Island National park, Saa Nane Island and the beautiful rock scenery surrounding the city. The city also has historical and cultural resources like Bujora Cultural Centre/ Sukuma Museum and Kageye Historical Site. Aside from these more obvious attractions, many opportunities are hidden throughout the city such as old buildings and every-day life attractions like markets and ports. Though there are quite a few attractions, they are all poorly developed, marketed and exploited.

If the Tourism Area Life Cycle (Butler 2006, see chapter 1) model is projected on Mwanza, currently Mwanza can be considered to be at the verge of the development stage. However, the theoretical path that Butler has sketched has not been followed neatly. Mwanza has been in the exploration stage for a while: visitors have been coming to the area in small numbers, restricted by lack of access, facilities and local knowledge. The following stage would be the involvement stage. In theory, this stage is entered as the numbers of visitors increase and assume some regularity and the local residents begin to provide facilities for these visitors. However, instead of waiting for tourist numbers to grow, stakeholders in Mwanza have already moved into the involvement stage, based on what they saw in other parts of Tanzania. Therefore, during the development stage, stakeholders in Mwanza will have to put extra effort in attracting tourists.

Butler mentions that as the stage of development progresses, local involvement and control of development will decline rapidly (p. 6). Eventually, Mwanza should enter the stage of stabilisation, preferably a pro-poor stability. Therefore, the development stage that Mwanza is about to enter is crucial with respect to management: good management has to prevent local involvement and control of development from declining. Steps that should be taken to achieve the status of pro-poor tourism destination are presented hereunder in an intervention-oriented roadmap.

Step 1: Networks

1. Bring the stakeholders of Mwanza tourism together in a union, so that they can unite their strengths and voices in order to solve common problems or advocate common interests;
2. Create networks with tour operators outside of Mwanza, such as those in Arusha and Dar es Salaam, but also in tourist generating areas such as Europe and North America. The connections can be used to market Mwanza and to encourage a first flow of tourists to try out the new Northern Circuit.

Step 2: Education and training

1. Provide adequate education for students who want to become tourism entrepreneurs;
2. Provide training for those stakeholders who are already working in tourism and need an update of their skills;
3. Introduce training programs in several subjects such as hospitality, tour guiding, entrepreneurship and languages.

Step 3: Supply chains

1. Encourage operating tourism enterprises to revise their supply chains, so that local suppliers become included more often. If one supplier does not have the

capacity to provide supplies for an enterprise, the enterprise should contract a number of small local suppliers, which together can meet the demand;

2. Tourists want to buy products that are unique to their destination. Explore what materials found in Mwanza could be used to develop a Mwanza-specific souvenir and develop a 'Made in Mwanza' brand;
3. As networks in Mwanza are rather weak, local producers with goods to sell and hotels or resorts with substantial demand might not know of each other. Therefore, help to link suppliers and buyers.

Step 4: Attractions & Routes

1. Renovate existing attractions, increase their accessibility, renovate the buildings as well as the items on display, improve their allure, adjust their entrance fees to best value, and make sure they are marketed optimally, both within the city and outside the city;
2. Explore the opportunities for currently unexploited buildings, sites and scenery to be turned into tourist attractions. For example the old colonial buildings, the Robert Koch House and the Ghandi Hall could be put to use as museums or visitor centres;
3. Develop lake activities that will benefit local fishing communities by offering the fishermen the chance to rent out their boat to tourists, or give a tour through their village, take tourists on a fishing trip, or any other activity related to Lake Victoria;
4. Develop cultural activities and festivals;
5. Develop historical tours, cultural tours and other city-tours;
6. Explore opportunities to link ecotourism to actual improvements of the ecology of Lake Victoria. The money generated by ecotourism could be used for research on solutions of the ecological problems the lake faces;
7. Market Mwanza as the East African hub for travellers who want to include Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda, Uganda and/or Kenya in one trip.

Step 5: Government

1. Lobby for simplification of procedures such as attaining lots or permissions;
2. Ensure licensing and regulations do not exclude small entrepreneurs;
3. Involve the poor in decision-making. The poor should have first say in whether tourism activities will be developed in their communities;
4. Target investors, foreign and domestic, large and small;
5. Develop regulations that ensure local involvement and control of development.

Step 6: Infrastructure

1. Lobby for the expansion of Mwanza International Airport so that it can handle flights from other continents;
2. Renovate the railway connecting Dar es Salaam and Mwanza;
3. Turn the dirt-road connecting Mwanza and Arusha into tarmac roads;
4. Make sure that all the attractions in Mwanza are presentable and easily accessible;

5. Ensure tourists have the needed information to find their way to Mwanza Region, Mwanza City and the specific attractions.

Step 7: Reputation

1. Improve the reputation of Mwanza by making documentaries and commercials about the positive aspects of the city and the region;
2. Market Mwanza as an interesting tourist destination: the pro-poor heart of Tanzania, the Western gateway to Serengeti and the hub of East Africa. Advertise in tourist-generating areas such as Europe and North America.

Within the draft version of the MTA, some objectives and goals have already been mentioned (appendix 1) that were established in order to develop Mwanza into a sustainably managed tourist destination. These objectives are very well considered and if achieved would indicate great differences and growth for the Mwanza Tourism Industry and the region as a whole. However, it has never come to the implementation of these plans and theories. These objectives are very useful though and hopefully the MTA will actually start making plans to achieve them. It now calls for genuine co-operation and partnership between the various stakeholders to further develop the Mwanza tourism industry. Therefore a quotation of Ashley is very much in place that she wrote as the final comments of her 2006 (p. 51) article on how to boost pro-poor tourism industries. The most important thing stakeholders have to keep in mind while planning, lobbying, discussing and inventing is: *'Implementation matters'!*

7.3 Reflection on the research process

From the first week of the fieldwork it proved to be difficult to get a full picture of the Mwanza tourism industry. There were two main reasons for this. Firstly, a large part of tourism in Tanzania is formed by the informal sector. Souvenir sellers and tour guides often roam the streets and are not connected to either a tour operator or another tourism enterprise. And secondly, because of the 'every-man-for-himself' atmosphere the stakeholders that can be approached are often reluctant or very careful at the least to give much information. They fear you will steal their ideas and clearly do not have much experience with the benefits of cooperating. These two obstacles are at the same time the most important characteristics of the Mwanza tourism industry and with these limitations in mind, we were able to sketch a pretty complete image of the tourism industry.

On the day of our arrival in Dar es Salaam, the head office of SNV-Tanzania informed us that it was decided by the board of directors that from June 2011, when our fieldwork would be completed, SNV would no longer be working in the tourism sector. This decision was made due to the economic measures and significant cuts in the development budget made by the new Dutch government installed in 2010. This announcement was quite a setback as we knew our results and recommendations, however modest, would not be incorporated in any SNV policy. But as we had read a significant amount of literature on what tourism could mean for the local population, and as we already had seen a glimpse of the cities potential, we decided to follow through with our research plans. Despite the fact that SNV will not be able to act on our recommendations, both my co-students and me really hope some of the stakeholders we have shared our results with, will be able to use them to

the advantage of the local community in Mwanza. It would be a pity not to do so, as Mwanza definitely has a lot of potential as a tourism destination. And because the large tour operators haven't discovered it yet, with the right management all options are open to create a leading pro-poor tourism destination with maximum benefits for the poor and the local community.

7.4 Limitations

Several limitations apply to this study. Due to limited time and financial constraints, this study has been conducted in a time-span of three months and for the larger part in Mwanza City. A prolonged time-span would have meant that a larger variety of stakeholders could have been approached and also a larger part of the region could have been included in this study.

Some remarks could be made regarding the methodology applied during this study. The research combined quantitative and qualitative research methods, which is an approved strategy to consolidate strengths of each method and thereby increases the reliability of the outcomes. However, the data gathered during the fieldwork referred to a rather small group of stakeholders. As a result, it is difficult to generalise the findings of the study. Moreover, the results are too specific to Mwanza City and Mwanza Region to draw conclusions on the potential of pro-poor tourism in other Tanzanian regions or other African countries.

7.5 Recommendations for further Research

- Since the tourism industry in Mwanza is still in its infancy, the possible negative impact of tourism is hardly known by the local community. This might explain the overall positive attitude towards the prospect of a growing tourism industry. People tend to see tourism as a source of income only and do not anticipate on any negative impacts this kind of industry might have. Therefore, an important topic that still has to be investigated is the downside of a growing tourism industry in Mwanza specifically. As mentioned in chapter 1, the spill over effects from tourism are not all positive. Social impacts that result from tourism can significantly disrupt local community values and lifestyles. And for example the development of fishing tourism on the lake could be seen as a competitor for the few remaining resources that Lake Victoria has left, rather than an opportunity for growth. It is very important that while pursuing the growth of the tourism industry, these risks and effects are kept in mind.
- With respect to lake activities, opportunities should be explored that could make use of Lake Victoria whereby the bilharzia does not form a threat. There are other destinations in the world with activities on water that is far more polluted than the water in Lake Victoria, for example the Ganges in India, where in Varanasi every minute a boat with tourists takes off.

Epilogue

We arrived in Mwanza about six hours later than planned, in the middle of the night after a twenty hour long bus ride from Dar es Salaam. Initially we had our doubts about which mode of transport we should choose to get from Dar es Salaam to Mwanza but after some discussions, Frederieke, Jes, Kleo and me had decided the bus would provide us with the ultimate authentic experience. And what an experience it was... The first part of the journey went extraordinarily well; it had only taken us about half an hour to find our bus between about a hundred busses at the hectic bus station of Dar es Salaam. We had seen our backpacks disappear in the cargo space and we had shoved ourselves in the last two rows of the bus with our valuables in smaller bags tugged safely underneath our seats and a small stash of food to keep us from getting hungry during the trip. The bus company had promised us a direct trip from Dar es Salaam to Mwanza, but around 4 pm we found ourselves in the middle of a public square in an unknown village, our luggage beside us and our bus leaving in the direction of an unknown destination, probably near the border of Rwanda. From the gestures and the few English words of our former bus driver we had understood that another bus would come and pick us up to take us the last hundreds of kilometres up to Mwanza. As we had neither bus tickets for this new bus nor an idea of what it would look like or how it was called, we were slightly worried about the continuation of our trip. But in Tanzania this kind of problem tends to solve itself as long as you have patience, so we sat down on our backpacks and waited for the next bus. Though this next bus did manage to reach us, it never managed to reach Mwanza. As it got later and later our new bus driver apparently decided it was not worth his effort to use his breaks before driving over any of the absurd speed bumps and we lost count of the amount of times we went airborne above our seats. Our spines ached from the knocks they had to collect and from the increasingly angry tone of our fellow passengers we understood that this wasn't normal, even for Tanzanian standards. The first breakdown happened right after nightfall and in the pitch dark we waited for two hours until the driver had come back with new gasoline. We hit the road again, but after three quarters of an hour the gasoline proved not to be the problem. We never learned what exactly the problem was, but the bus would not take us any further. There we were, in the middle of the night, with no idea how much further Mwanza was and no way of communicating with anyone who could pick us up. After what seemed like hours of somewhat heated discussions on how to proceed, a woman proposed to call her brother, who might be able to drive us the remaining part of our trip to Mwanza. As we had few other choices and the idea of staying in the bus for the rest of the night was not that appealing, we agreed. And surely, her brother turned up not much later and drove us for a couple of ten thousands of Tanzanian shillings all the way to Ilemela, Mwanza. As it was too late to go to our rental house, we decided to go to the Tunza Lodge and around 3 a.m. we dropped our luggage on the floor of the Tunza Lodge and crashed in the wicker chairs of the Tunza restaurant. Though as early as the next day, we thought it to be another fun travelling story, at that moment we were cranky and extremely tired.

But Mwanza proved to be worth the trip. Early the next morning I left the hut I had shared with Kleo to see if we could get some breakfast. And through the trees in the Tunza Lodge garden I finally saw the first glimpse of what would be the most distinctive element of our stay in Mwanza: Lake Victoria. What a sight to wake up to! The seemingly endless lake

lay calm in front of me, reflecting the early sunbeams, while kingfishers were already jumping of the rocks in the lake and kites flew around looking for an early meal. In the next weeks, boat rides on the lake proved to be never boring and I cannot recount how many times I enjoyed the sunset behind the rock scenery that surrounds the lake. But I did not only fall in love with the lake; Mwanza City itself had so many different faces, you would not be able to see it all in a year's time. Some of the highlights for me were the Soko Kuu, the chaotic central market, where the salesmen had stacked up their merchandise as high as the roof, from food to jewellery and wooden instruments, the somewhat calmer Kirumba Market where market vendors displayed their vegetables and fruits in neat heaps, the Jiwe Kuu, an amazing rockery which offers stunning views over the lake, the Nyegezi neighbourhood where the inhabitants of Mwanza still live in clay houses and cook above a fire, Capri Point where small houses are built between the large boulders that are so characteristic to Mwanza, the countless small local restaurants where you can eat chipsi mayai with mishkaki, the people who are always in for a conversation and the large smiles that appear on their faces when you greet them in proper Kiswahili, the nights at Villa Park, the largest discotheque in town where we have had so much fun, especially when Tanzania's number one singer, 20%, gave a concert. And the music does not stop there, as when you walk through the streets of Mwanza, colourful mini-radio-vans pass by every now and then playing the latest Bongo Flava song. I cherish the memories of all these great moments, places and people.

One of the main problems of the tourism industry in Mwanza is that the activities are not labelled yet as being tourist attractions. You really have to go and look for them. But right now precisely that is what makes Mwanza so attractive yet unpretentious. When you are wandering around the lively streets of Mwanza or the narrow alleys of the main market, there are no touts or annoyingly sticky street vendors that try to sell you souvenirs, trips to the Serengeti or other national parks, yet you can find these souvenirs, visit those same parks, go on a city or village tour or make a relaxing boat trip on Lake Victoria. You might have to look beyond the pages of your Lonely Planet and actually put on those adventure shoes, because Mwanza definitely isn't an open book. But as the story goes among visitors of this city: once you've been there, you're bound to return!



20% - Tamaa Mbaya

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Objectives and Priority initiatives of the MTA

MTA objectives include:

- To promote the diversity of tourism activities in Mwanza and make Mwanza a tourist destination and new gateway into the Serengeti
- To develop sustainable tourism to help Mwanza achieve its socio-economic objectives
- To establish and maintain effective alliances with different sectors of the tourism industry
- To address the negative effects of tourism development
- To use tourism to promote relations with neighboring countries, as the “Crossroads to East Africa”
- To promote, celebrate and preserve Mwanza’s cultural heritage
- To deliver benefits, through tourism, to local communities in the Lake Zone district

Priority initiatives define by MTA include:

- 16) Strengthen the administration, alliances and operations of MTA
- 17) Develop a Mwanza Tourism Strategic Plan
- 18) Advocate for an International Airport and air routes to/from Mwanza, targeting enhanced tourism to and from Serengeti
- 19) Promote the East African trans-border tourism circuit with Mwanza as the Lake zone centre and facilitate a meeting of EA Lake zone tour operators
- 20) Develop and sell Mwanza tourism attractions including city tours, restoration of Robert Koch House, development of Kageye historical site and training tour guides
- 21) Support education and training institutions in Mwanza, to strengthen the hospitality and service sector and enhance the attractiveness of Mwanza
- 22) Develop a pro-poor tourism strategy for Mwanza
- 23) Increase tourism-related income for Mwanza
- 24) Conduct a baseline study of Mwanza’s tourism industry
- 25) Promote the Bujora Festival, and sports and conference tourism for Mwanza
- 26) Solicit grants for equipment that is too expensive to obtain by individual companies such as cruise boats, as well as technical expertise to enhance the use of Lake Victoria for leisure tourism.
- 27) Support the development of camping sites in Mwanza
- 28) Equip and promote the Mwanza Tourist Information Centre, and develop promotional materials and information that can be distributed at the Centre
- 29) Analyze Mwanza’s domestic tourism industry and its relevance to the economy of Mwanza
- 30) Market Mwanza tourism at fairs other than Karibu fair including other East Africa fairs, Indaba, WTM and FITUR, while developing a unique tourism brand for Mwanza.

Source: MTA Assessment and Draft Action Plan, November 2010

Appendix 2: International Tourist Arrivals by (Sub)region

	International Tourist Arrivals (million)							Market share (%)	Change (%)		Average annual growth (%)
	1990	1995	2000	2005	2008	2009	2010*	2010*	09/08	10*/09	'00-'10*
World	435	528	675	798	917	882	940	100	-3.8	6.6	3.4
Advanced economies¹	296	334	417	453	495	474	498	53.0	-4.3	5.1	1.8
Emerging economies¹	139	193	257	345	421	408	442	47.0	-3.2	8.3	5.6
By UNWTO regions:											
Europe	261.5	304.1	385.6	439.4	485.2	461.5	476.6	50.7	-4.9	3.3	2.1
Northern Europe	28.6	35.8	43.7	57.3	60.8	57.7	58.1	6.2	-5.1	0.8	2.9
Western Europe	108.6	112.2	139.7	141.7	153.2	148.6	153.7	16.3	-3.0	3.4	1.0
Central/Eastern Europe	33.9	58.1	69.3	8.5	100.0	90.2	95.1	10.1	-9.9	5.4	3.2
Southern/Mediter. Eu.	90.3	98.0	133.0	153.0	171.2	165.1	169.7	18.1	-3.6	2.8	2.5
Asia and the Pacific	55.8	82.0	110.1	153.6	184.1	180.9	203.8	21.7	-1.7	12.7	6.3
North-East Asia	26.4	41.3	58.3	85.9	100.9	98.0	111.6	11.9	-2.9	13.8	6.7
South-East Asia	21.2	28.4	36.1	48.5	61.8	62.1	69.6	7.4	0.5	12.1	6.8
Oceania	5.2	8.1	9.6	11.0	11.1	10.9	11.6	1.2	-1.7	6.1	1.9
South Asia	3.2	4.2	6.1	8.1	10.3	9.9	11.1	1.2	-3.6	11.9	6.2
Americas	92.8	109.0	128.2	133.3	147.8	140.6	149.8	15.9	-4.9	6.4	1.6
North America	71.7	80.7	91.5	89.9	97.7	92.2	98.2	10.5	-5.7	6.6	0.7
Caribbean	11.4	14.0	17.1	18.8	20.1	19.5	20.1	2.1	-2.8	3.0	1.6
Central America	1.9	2.6	4.3	6.3	8.2	7.6	7.9	0.8	-7.4	3.8	6.2
South America	7.7	11.7	15.3	18.3	21.8	21.3	23.5	2.5	-2.3	9.7	4.4
Africa	14.8	18.9	26.5	35.4	44.4	46.0	49.4	5.2	3.7	7.3	6.4
North Africa	8.4	7.3	10.2	13.9	17.1	17.6	18.7	2.0	2.5	6.2	6.2
Subsaharan Africa	6.4	11.6	16.2	21.5	27.2	28.4	30.7	3.3	4.4	8.0	6.6
Middle East	9.6	13.7	24.1	36.3	55.2	52.9	60.3	6.4	-4.3	14.1	9.6

Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ©

(Data as collected by UNWTO, June 2011)

¹ Based on the classification by the International Monetary Fund (IMF), see Statistical Appendix at www.imf.org/external/pubs/ft/weo/2011/01.

Appendix 3: International Tourist Arrivals and Receipts in Africa

Major destinations	Series	International Tourist Arrivals					International Tourism Receipts				
		(1000)			Change (%)		Share (%)	(US\$ million)			Share (%)
		2008	2009	2010*	09/08	10*/09	2010*	2008	2009	2010*	2010*
Africa		44,380	46,021	49,376	3.7	7.3	100	30,316	28,780	31,677	100
Algeria	VF	1,772	1,912	..	7.9	324	267
Angola	TF	294	366	425	24.3	16.2	0.9	285	534
Botswana	TF	1,500	1,553	..	3.5	553	452
Cape Verde	THS	285	287	336	0.7	17.1	0.7	350	292	289	0.9
Ethiopia	TF	330	377	329
Gambia	TF	147	142	91	-3.5	-35.7	0.2	81	63
Ghana	TF	698	803	..	15.0	919	968
Kenya	TF	1,141	1,392	..	22.0	752	690	756	2.4
Lesotho	TF	285	320	..	12.3	24	40
Madagascar	TF	375	163	196	-56.6	20.5	0.4	351	308
Malawi	TF	742	755	..	1.7	43	43
Mauritius	TF	930	871	935	-6.4	7.3	1.9	1,449	1,117	1,282	4.0
Morocco	TF	7,879	8,341	9,288	5.9	11.4	18.8	7,168	6,557	6,720	21.2
Mozambique	TF	1,815	2,224	..	22.5	190	196	197	0.6
Namibia	TF	931	980	..	5.3	378	398	438	1.4
Nigeria	TF	1,313	1,414	..	7.7	573	608
Reunion	TF	396	422	421	6.4	-0.3	0.9	448	425
Rwanda	VF	731	699	..	-4.4	186	174	202	0.6
Senegal	TF	543	463
Seychelles	TF	159	158	175	-0.9	10.8	0.4	258	209
South Africa	TF	9,592	7,012	8,074	n/a	15.1	16.4	7,925	7,543	9,070	28.7
Sudan	TF	441	420	..	-4.6	331	299
Swaziland	TF	754	909	..	20.4	26	40
Tanzania	TF	750	714	794	-4.8	11.1	1.6	1,289	1,160	1,303	4.1
Tunisia	TF	7,050	6,901	6,902	-2.1	0.0	14.0	2,953	2,773	2,654	8.4
Uganda	TF	844	817	..	-3.2	498	667	730	2.3
Zambia	TF	812	710	..	-12.6	148	98
Zimbabwe	VF	1,956	2,017	2,239	3.2	11.0	4.5	294	523	634	2.0

Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ©

(Data as collected by UNWTO, June 2011)

Appendix 4: Overview of the 7 mechanisms through which the poor can benefit directly or indirectly from tourism. Source: www.unwto.org

1

Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises

This mechanism involves undertaking measures to increase the level of the poor working in tourism enterprises. Indeed, the relationship between tourism enterprises and the employment of local people is symbiotic, in that both sides stand to benefit considerably. This addresses poverty directly by enabling the poor to develop their own skills; by allowing for the possibility of a large number of people to benefit directly; and raising the standards of service. It is important that the provision of education and training is strengthened so that the poor may respond to such opportunities, and any social or cultural barriers are removed.

2

Supply of goods and services to tourism enterprises by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor

One of the fundamental conditions to achieving poverty reduction is in ensuring that goods and services in the tourism supply chain, as much as possible, come from local sources at all stages. The objective would be to maximise the proportion of tourism spending that is retained in local communities and to involve the poor in the supply process. Such a measure would help support traditional forms of rural activities and skills, enhance the quality and identity of the local tourism product and help establish stable sources of business.

3

Direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor (informal economy)

One of the main ways in which poor people seek to earn income from tourists is through selling produce and services, such as fruits, handicrafts or guided tours, directly to them. Where visitors engage with this informal economy, it can be a successful direct route to providing income to the poor, and it can provide visitors with a colourful and rewarding experience. Information provision to tourists on available local products is important, as well as training to local people to ensure their products meet the quality requirements of visitors.

4

Establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor - e.g. micro, small and medium sized enterprises (MSMEs), or community based enterprises (formal economy)

This involves the establishment and management of more formal tourism enterprises by the poor, either individually or at a community level. These may include accommodation establishments, catering, transport, retail outlets, guiding and entertainment. Advantages of enterprise formation at the local level are that it places power and control in the hands of the local people, it can guarantee investments for the longer term and it enables enterprises to establish a scale of operation needed to attract customers.

5

Tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting the poor

This mechanism relates to the revenues that are earned by national or local government from tourism which can be used to reduce poverty. It has the advantage that all of the poor can benefit from tourism without being directly engaged in the sector. The extent to which state revenue earned from tourism is put towards poverty alleviation will depend on national priorities and programs. Taxes or levies raised locally, for example through levies on bednights or entrance fees for protected areas, can often be used fully or partly for community benefits. Transparency in the application of local taxes is essential, as well as consultation with the private sector to avoid deterring the industry and travellers by imposing too high taxation levels.

6

Voluntary giving/support by tourism enterprises and tourists

Voluntary support in money or in kind, given by visitors or tourism enterprises to the poor can act as influential drivers for local poverty reduction. Various studies have pointed to a willingness amongst tourists to give something back to the area they are visiting. Many tourism enterprises are also committed to provide sponsorship to development initiative in the areas where they operate. Local NGOs or trusts may help develop mechanisms for the collection and dispersal of donations. Beneficiary schemes clearly showing tangible local impact and community involvement have a high chance of attracting sponsorship and visitor support.

7

Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support to other sectors

Tourism development, particularly in a new, remote or rural location, can include investment in new infrastructure, such as roads, water and energy supply, sanitation and communications. With careful planning, such infrastructure can also bring positive benefits to the poor, by providing them with basic services and opening up new and faster routes to access markets. The main challenge is to make sure

Appendix 5: Map of the sixteen Tanzania National Parks



Source: http://www.tanzaniaparks.com/tanzania_map.html

List of National Parks in order of size (big to small)

1. Serengeti National park (14.763 sq km)
2. Ruaha National Park (10.300 sq km)
3. Katavi National Park (4.471 sq km)
4. Mkomazi National Park (3.245 sq km)
5. Mikumi National Park (3.230 sq km)
6. Tarangire National Park (2.850 sq km)
7. Udzungwa Mountains (1.990 sq km)
8. Mount Kilimanjaro (1.668 sq km)
9. Mahale Mountains (1.613 sq km)
10. Saadani National Park (1.100 sq km)
11. Arusha National Park (552 sq km)
12. Rubondo National Park (457 sq km)
13. Kitulo National Park (412,9 sq km)
14. Lake Manyara (330 sq km)
15. Gombe Stream (52 sq km)
16. Saa Nane National Park (0,5 sq km)

Appendix 6: Mwanza City Goals established by the City Council

G.1 Improving standard of living and eradicating poverty:

- I. Increase of investments in Mwanza City for 20 percent by 2025.
- II. Reduced level of unemployment from 50 percent to 30 percent by 2025.
- III. Improved urban development through the preparation of "Sustainable urban Development Plans (SUDP)".
- IV. Upgrading the City Roads to be passable through out the year.
- V. Increase population within 6 km of health facility from 86 percent to 98 percent by 2026.
- VI. Incidence of 10 top common diseases reduced from 80 percent of cases to 50 percent by year 2026.
- VII. Improve condition of squatter settlements by providing services and facilities from 20 percent to 50 percent by year 2025.
- VIII. Increased agricultural productivity from 52 percent to 65 percent by 2026.
- IX. Level of illiteracy reduced from 70 percent to 50 percent for females and from 40 percent to 20 percent for males through provision of basic education to all eligible residents.
- X. Number of pupils going to secondary schools increased from 21 percent to 30 percent by 2026.
- XI. Train City staffs.

G.2 Involving the community in planning and implementation of Council's activities

- I. Raise community awareness.
- II. Increase community participation in planning and implementation of City programmes.
- III. Increase community involvement in financing the council's activities.
- IV. Train City staffs on different aspects of community participation.

G.3 Addressing gender balance in provision of services & development

- I. To reduce maternal mortality rate from 368/100,000 to 270/100,000 by year 2006.
- II. To reduce the infant mortality rate from 26/1000 to 18/1000 by year 2006.

G.4 Addressing environmental conservation

- I. Reduce environmental pollution from 60 percent to 30 percent by 2026.
- II. Increase urban forest conservation areas from 2000ha to 4,000ha by 2006.
- III. Improve and develop existing recreational facilities.
- IV. Reduce illegal fishing from 20 percent to 30 percent by 2006.
- V. Train City staffs on various aspects of environment management.

G.5 Efficient and effective use of Councils resources in service delivery.

- I. Increase revenue collection from 90 percent to 95 percent by 2006 from property tax, business licence etc.
- II. Improve budgeting expenditure control from 75 percent to 100 percent.
- III. Recruit and retain qualified staff on various aspects of revenue collection.

G.6 Increasing transparency and accountability of the council to the electorate:

- I. Increase reporting to stakeholders.
- II. Improved democratic and transparent elections are held to elect community representatives for vacant post in Council bodies from 20 percent to 60 percent.
- III. Improved responses to issues raised in village and Ward meetings reports from 1 year to at most 3 months.
- IV. Increased management capacity through Leadership and Management training.

Appendix 7: List of Potential Investment Areas as made up by the City Council 2010

SECTOR	PLACE	SERVICES	COMMENTS
Tourism	Igogo & Bugarika Caves	Access Road	Formerly used as hiding places by thieves, but now they are under control
	Saanane Island for Hotel and Zoological investment	Boat Transport	It is under the Ministry of Natural resources and Tourism
	Gabalema, Makobe and Juma Islands for hotels, zoological investment and reliable water transport	Boat Transport	Very few people live there. The Islands have not yet been developed.
	Lake shore beaches: Ndalwa & Igalagala-Sangabuye Ward; Igombe Beach, Kayenze Beach, etc for hotel and beach sports	Road and water transport	These are among the few sand beaches along Lake Victoria and have not yet been developed.
	Bwiru Sand Pit for tree planting, zoological activities and gardening	Road, Water and Electricity	The pit is no longer used for sand excavation.
	Jiwe kuu at Kitangiri-for tourism and Sukma tradition's expeditions.	Access road	Presence of Sukuma historic signs
Recreation	Hotel plots: Kabuhoro, Luchelele	Access roads Not developed	Good for big hotels (>1 Acre)
	Sports grounds: Golf (Nyamhongolo & Luchelele), Football (Buswelu), etc	Access Road	Plots available but not yet developed
	Open spaces: Various at the City	Access roads	Planned but not yet developed
Industrial	Big Industries-Mkolani Industrial Estate (289.8 Ha) issued to NDC	Access road	Good for heavy industries
	Medium size Industries: Mahina/Butimba, Nyamhongolo, Igoma, Igombe/Mhonze.	Access road	Good for medium size industries: Fish processing, food processing, etc.
	Service Industries: Buswelu, Butimba, Igoma, Nyakato and Nyamhongolo	Access road	Good for small and large scale industries.
Agriculture	Horticulture: Buswelu, Sangabuye and Buhongwa	Access road	There is a big demand for horticultural products.
Transport and Transportation	Water Transport: Connecting to different destinations along the Lake shore		Land is available. Jetty construction to many sites is must.

Appendix 8

Souvenir shop questionnaire	
Name of shop	
Address	
Appearance of shop	<input type="radio"/> Concrete building <input type="radio"/> Self-made hut
Registered	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
Form of Hierarchy	<input type="radio"/> Boss – employees <input type="radio"/> Artists
Number of employees/artists	<input type="radio"/> 1 <input type="radio"/> 2 <input type="radio"/> 3 <input type="radio"/> 4 <input type="radio"/> 5 <input type="radio"/> 6
Origin of employees	<input type="radio"/> Mwanza <input type="radio"/> Arusha <input type="radio"/> Dar es Salaam <input type="radio"/> Zanzibar <input type="radio"/> Other:
Employees/artist speaking English or another foreign language	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
Description of souvenirs	<input type="radio"/> Handicrafts <input type="radio"/> Jewellery and accessories <input type="radio"/> Clothing, shoes and bags <input type="radio"/> Paintings <input type="radio"/> All the above <input type="radio"/> Other:
Price range of majority of products	<input type="radio"/> Up to 20.000 TSh <input type="radio"/> 20.000 to 100.000 TSh <input type="radio"/> 100.000 TSh or more

Appendix 9

Tour Operator questionnaire	
Name of Tour Operator	
Address + website	
Form of tours offered	<input type="radio"/> Package <input type="radio"/> Tailor made <input type="radio"/> Both
City tours offered	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
Village Tours offered	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
How many customers per month go on	<input type="radio"/> A city tour <input type="radio"/> A village tour..... <input type="radio"/> A safari
Special packages for East African citizens	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
Number of cars	
Capacity (how many tourists can have a tour at once)	
Way of advertisement	<input type="radio"/> Website <input type="radio"/> Brochure <input type="radio"/> Flyers <input type="radio"/> Hotels <input type="radio"/> Links with other tour operators
Community development project/fund?	<input type="radio"/>

Appendix 10

Attraction questionnaire	
Name of Attraction	
Address + website	
Category	<input type="radio"/> Cultural heritage <input type="radio"/> Natural heritage <input type="radio"/> Daily life
Description	
State of development	<input type="radio"/> Fully developed, ready for tourists <input type="radio"/> Hardly developed
Entrance fee	<input type="radio"/>
Number of employees	<input type="radio"/> None <input type="radio"/> Number:.....
Duration of activity	<input type="radio"/>
Special packages for East African citizens	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No

Appendix 11 (2 pages) Souvenir shop questionnaire 2

Dear shop-owner (or customer),

Netherlands Development Organization SNV is carrying out a research in order to investigate how tourism in Mwanza can be improved. For this purpose we need some data from the customers who buy (or don't buy) at the souvenir shops.

For the purpose of this research we would like to ask you to fill in the following table for each customer who enters the shop (even if they don't buy anything).

Please note any explanatory comments in the column 'comments', for example:

- ❖ If the customer was requesting something that wasn't available
- ❖ If you send the customer to another shop
- ❖ why the customer didn't buy anything
- ❖ if the customer thought the souvenir was too expensive
- ❖ or anything that might be of any importance for the research.

Thanks in advance,

Anjelle Rademakers
(Intern SNV)

Mpendwa menye ya duka (au mteja),

Shirika la Maendeleo la Uholanzi (SNV) linafanya utafiti katika sekta ya Utalii Mwanza ili kujua ni jinsi gani sekta ya utalii inweza koboreshwa. Kwa maana hiyo tunahitaji taarifa kutoka kwa wateja wanao nunua au ambao hawanunui katika maduka yanauza vitu vya asili.

Tunaomba mtujazie jedwali lifuatalo kwa kila mteja anayeingia katika duka lenu (hata kama hawanunui kitu chochote).

Tafadhali tunaomba mjue kwamba, maelezo yoyote ambayo yatatoa maoni kwenye kipengele cha 'maoni' kwa mfano:

- ❖ Kama mteja alikua anauliza kitu ambacho hamkuanacho.
- ❖ Kama umemuelekeza mteja kwenye duka lingine
- ❖ Kwa nini mteja hajanunua bidhaa yoyote.
- ❖ Kama mteja amedhani bidhaa iliyo dukani kwako ni aghali sana (bei kubwa).
- ❖ Au chochote ambacho unadhani kitasaidia katika utafiti huu.

Asante sana,

Anjelle Rademakers
(Intern SNV)



Date <i>Tarehe</i>	Number of customers <i>Namba ya wateja</i>	Domestic/ Resident/ Tourist <i>Wandani/ Wakazi/ Watarii</i>	Origin of customers <i>Asili ya wateja</i>	What did they buy? <i>Nini walinunua?</i>	How much did they spend? <i>Walitunia kisi gani?</i>	Comments? <i>Maoni?</i>
<i>Example</i> 01-04-2011	<i>Example</i> 2	<i>Example</i> <input type="radio"/> Wandani <input checked="" type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii	<i>Example</i> Holland	<i>Example</i> Flipflops and earrings	<i>Example</i> 20.000	<i>Example</i> They also asked for a scarf, but we didn't have any, so we send them to another shop
		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				
		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				
		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				
		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				
		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				
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		<input type="radio"/> Wandani <input type="radio"/> Wakazi <input type="radio"/> Watarii				

