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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The tourism industry which account for about 24.0 percent of Tanzania's exports of goods and services, continued to be the leading sector in terms of generating foreign earnings, however, the number of international tourist arrivals to Tanzania has declined toward the end of this year due to endemic disease covid 19. Tanzanian government through its institutions like TTB, TANAPA, KINAPA and NCAA in collaboration with other tourism stakeholders together is conducting studies and research on the parts which need quick improvements to lift up the performance of Tourism sector especially on hospitality industry.

Tanzania's tourism industry plays a critical role in the country's economy, prosperity and growth. Tourism and Hospitality educators play a vital role in ensuring that we have skilled workers to build the industry. The role of training institutions in producing a competent workforce is imperative in the tourism and hospitality industries. Employers in the tourism and hospitality industry may identify gaps between what students learn in their post-secondary education and what they are expected to know to be job-ready. This situation is alarming in light of the large and growing number of students graduating from colleges in and outside the country, but also for many developing countries that have great potential to grow and diversify their tourism and hospitality industries.

The existing skills gap between what is being taught in college and what employers expect from graduates has been a subject for discussion. The skills-job mismatch needs to be addressed at all levels, nationally and internationally, in order to ensure quality graduates are prepared to offer quality service to enable our destinations and businesses to compete. The challenges are many: for example, minimally qualified and less-motivated students who join training colleges often lead to a less committed workforce, ill-equipped training colleges end up producing partially trained candidates; and industry absorption for practical training to ongoing students is also questionable. These concerns need a proper analysis and potential solutions need to be explored for the tourism and hospitality industry to prosper. Now is the time for practitioners, policy makers and researchers in the industry to share their experiences and discuss sustainable solutions to these challenges.

To facilitate this conversation, the National College of Tourism in collaboration with the Center for Behavioral Studies (CBS) at the Department of Economics, University of Dar es Salaam, organized and invited stakeholders at the International Conference on Linking Industry with Academia in the Tourism and Hospitality Sector in Developing Countries. The conference brought together industry experts, practitioners, academics, researchers, educators, policy makers who presented research papers, shared experiences and exchanged ideas. The conference had a composition of an average of 142 participants of which 17 were international delegates, 46 came from the industry and 79 were from academia. A total number of 57 papers from ten (10) different sub themes were presented during the conference in which seventeen (17) papers were international; twenty-four (24) papers were from academia, while sixteen papers (16) were from the industry.

The conference aimed to propose strategic and practical recommendations for the problems challenging the industry and the society in general, thus giving a competitive advantage to destinations within developing countries.

Dr Florian G. Mtey (Ph D)

For: CEO OF NATIONAL COLLEGE OF TOURISM AND CHAIRPERSON OF LIATH – DC CONFERENCE

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Sub Theme: Professionalism and Behavior Change

ASSESSMENT OF HOSPITALITY EXCELLENCE PILLARS ON FRONT OFFICE PROFESSIONALISM IN HOTELS IN TANZANIA

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Abstract

Front office department is regarded as a mirror or nerve centre of any establishment in hospitality industry (Tewari, 2009). The level of authentic and genuine hospitality, which guests treasure the most, has little to do with the number of stars or diamonds hanging on a plaque behind the front desk (Dough, 2018). To remain competitive, hotels require hospitality excellence models on front office professionalism. Enhancing excellence in business such as hotels is vital in today's competitive environment. This study assess Hospitality Excellence Pillars (HEP) on salient features of front office professionalism in the areas of reservation, reception, registration, room assignment and settlement of bills to guests. The study was descriptive in nature where qualitative research methods were used. Data were collected by using structured questionnaires that where distributed to 50 front office staff working in five hotels within Arusha city. Ten staff at each hotel was chosen purposely by simple random method. The study results regarding hospitality excellence if fully practice able to the study area, 71.7% said yes it is fully practiced and regarded as part of professionalism. Most respondent 66.7% strongly agreed there is potential of increasing professionalism in front office at the study area through hospitality excellence. This prove that there is a need of practicing hospitality excellence pillars as Hospitality industry is dynamic and the competition continues to rise plus guests are demanding more and better services (Benzakour, 2019). Moreover 65% agreed that there is a need of empowering front office professionals to ensure understanding of hospitality excellence pillars in their occupations to enhance "wow factor" status in hospitality industry. Hospitality organizations such as hotels are becoming competitive and the guests keep requiring delivery of quality, flawless and satisfactory service. The hospitality excellence is one of a prominent part in the delivery of such quality service which in turn plays a role in the front office professionalism.

Keywords: Hospitality Excellence, Front Office, Hotel, Arusha, Tanzania

INTRODUCTION

Background Information

The professionalism of the workplace is critical for the development of hospitality industry (Lee, 2014). Professionalism is one of the necessities for service operations in order to be sustainable at the current competitive markets (Guliyev, 2019). Front office department regarded as a mirror or nerve centre of any establishment in hospitality industry (Tewari, 2009). The department has been key major revenue – producing department in a hotel (Tewari, 2009). The efficiency and professionalism of a front office staff represent a total hotel standard (Nahidul, 2018). The front desk is the logical contact point of information for guests and other hotel employees (Nahidul, 2018). This department performs various functions like reservation, reception, registration, room assignment and settlement of bills of resident guests (Tewari, 2009). It also provides information in respect of all service of a hotel, city information where hotel located and also check movements of luggage of guests (Nahidul, 2018). The front office should be attractive and well designed to make good impression to the guests (Nahidul, 2018). Because front desk staff playing critical role to ensure first impression and is the most frequently mentioned on the online guest reviews worldwide (Doug, 2018).

The level of authentic and genuine hospitality, which guests treasure the most, has little to do with the number of stars or diamonds hanging on a plaque behind the front desk (Dough, 2018). To remain competitive, hotels require hospitality excellence models on front office professionalism. Enhancing excellence in business such as hotels is vital in today's competitive environment. The paper studied impact of Hospitality Excellence Pillars (HEP) on salient features of front office professionalism in the areas of reservation, reception, registration, room assignment and settlement of bills to guests. This study focuses on the two research questions. To assess the applicability of hospitality excellence pillars to the study area and to assess need of hospitality excellence pillars in front office professionalism.

Understanding Front Office Department of Hotel

Front office is the major department in the hotel which is located at the front part of hotel and is responsible for sell of hotels rooms through the systematic method of reservation followed by registration and assigning room to the guest (Tewari, 2009).

Front office department is known as; First contact of the hotel and also called Nerve centred or Show case window.

It is revenue centre and able to collect more than 50% of hotels total revenue which come from the selling of rooms (Tewari, 2009). Front office department dealing with the following; To reserve registered and allocate room to the guest; Act as a continuous source of information to the guest during the stay period of the guest in the hotel; provide settlement of guest accounts; Providing guest service, preparation of guest history card, luggage handling and airport pickups; Develops and maintains up to date record based on guest Information, guest services; Ensure guest information and welcoming the guest & handling the guest complaints (Nahidul, 2018).

The front office department in hotel is mainly composed of various sections (Nahidul, 2018). such as Advance reservation office- where advance booking is handled; Reception desk- where the check in process and guest stay is handled; Front office cashier's desk- where check out process is handled; Lobby- first and last area of contact of a guest with the hotel. Location of uniformed staff and Switchboard- is where incoming and outgoing calls are handled.

In larger hotels more sections may be found (Tewari, 2009) such as: Guest relation's desk- where more personal services are provided to guests; Business center- where a wide range of facilities are provided; Night auditor's office- (supportive) where completion of a guest and hotels accounts take place.

Front Office Department Professionalism

Staff normally found in a front office department in hotel includes (Tewari, 2009): Reservation clerks; Front desk clerks; Front office cashiers; Switchboard/ telephone operators; Porters/ bellboys, and Concierge.

The number of employees in each section will depend on various factors including size of the hotel, volume of work, number of work facilities, type of hotel, etc (Tewari, 2009).

The functions related to the front office personnel are those which fulfil specific stages of the hotel guest cycle (Tewari, 2009). Guest cycle composed of four phases namely pre arrival, arrival, occupancy and departure.

Pre-arrival this is the stage when the customer is planning to avail an accommodation in the hotel. In this first stage, the customer or the prospective guest enquires about the availability of the desired type of accommodation and its amenities via telephonic call or an e-mail. The customer also tries to find out more information about the hotel by visiting its website. At the hotel end, the front office accounting system captures the guest's information such as name, age, contact numbers, probable duration of stay for room reservation and so on (Tewari, 2009):

Arrival is the time where front office reception staff receives the guest in the reception. The porters bring in the guest luggage. For the guest with confirmed reservation, the front office clerk hands over a Guest Registration Card (GRC) to the guest and requests the guest to fill in personal information regarding the stay in the hotel. The clerk then registers the guest in the database thereby creating a guest record and a guest account along with it. Later, the clerk hands over a welcome kit and keys of the accommodation. After the procedure of registration, the guest can start occupying the accommodation (Tewari, 2009).

During occupancy, a front office accounting system is responsible for tracking guest charges against his/her purchases from the hotel restaurants, room service, bar, or any outgoing telephone calls made via the hotel's communication systems. The front office staffs are responsible to manage and issue the right keys of the accommodations to the right guests. On guests' request, the staffs also make arrangement for transportation, babysitting, or local touring while the guest is staying in the hotel (Tewari, 2009).

Finally, guest departure (Departure phase), the front office accounting system ensures payment for goods and services provided. If a guest's bill is not completely paid, the balance is transferred from guest to non-guest records. When this occurs, collection becomes the responsibility of the back office accounting division (Tewari, 2009).

At the time of guest departure, the front office staffs thank the guest for giving an opportunity to serve and arrange for handling luggage. In addition, if the guest requires airport or other drop service, the front office bell desk fulfils it (Tewari, 2009).

In each phases number of employees participate fully to ensure that function of front office is conducted efficiently.

The structure of the front office department changes according to the size of the hotel business, physical size of the hotel, and the hotel management policies. The following is a few prominent ranks in the front office department and their respective responsibilities:

Reservation clerk (Tewari, 2009): Handles guest correspondence concerning reservations; Creates and maintains reservation records, amendments and cancellations for advance reservation; Produces letters of confirmation of reservations; Tracks future room availability throughout a reservation line; Develops forecasts of room sales and occupancy loads and Posts reservation to reservation information charts.

Front desk clerk/ room clerk (Tewari, 2009) ; Identifies guest's room, rate, and length of stay requirements; Performs the registration procedure for reservation or walk in guests; Assign guest room and rate updates room rack continuously; Execute government formalities regarding foreigners; Completes pre-registration formalities for VIPs, invalids, Old people, groups, etc; Coordinates with housekeeping for clearance of rooms to sell; Secure the guest's method of payments; Receives messages of guests and forward them correctly and promptly; responsible for handling guest mail, information-(internal or external), and key services; Prepare room reports and statistic and Construct guest history file

Cashier/front office cashier (Tewari, 2009); Handles all cash transactions at the front desk; Is responsible for guest account settlement; Accountable for final settlement of all guest accounts upon departure; Posts all vouchers received at front desk during the day shift; responsible for maintaining accurate and timely folio balances; Monitors guest credit limits; Controls safety deposit boxes and Handles foreign exchange transactions.

Telephone operator (Tewari, 2009); Receiving of all incoming calls and connecting/dispatching to the required extensions or departments; Making/sending of outgoing calls whether for guest or for staff(authorized) either local, long distance or overseas; make correct charges for the calls made; To fill/complete all calls made in the telephone control sheet; handle with maximum care all telephone records and equipments; To give required information to hotel guests and to staff; make wake up calls; update the information rack and ensure maximum communication within the hotel,

Bellboy/porter (Tewari, 2009); Carry guest luggage at the time of guest arrival; Carry guest luggage into the guest room and explain all controls in the room to the guest; Issue postage against cash to guests; Deliver guest luggage; Carry luggage at the time of guest departure; Check guest rooms to validate the discrepancy report at the time of guest departure; Page guests in the lobby area if required; Report scanty luggage guest to bell captain; Perform any errands as required by guests and management; Responsible for distributing of daily newspaper to all guest rooms; Reporting and dealing with undesirable elements in the lobby and Assist in making wake up calls.

Night auditor (Tewari, 2009); Reconcile revenue statements from various outlets; Verify and validate front office cashier's vouchers/forms; Check guest folios; Verify front office cashiers report; Prepare a statements of bill over a specified amount; Prepare daily transcript/tabular ledger; Audit night receptionist's room report and account for bills with credit amount.

Therefore, the major functions performed by the front office can be summarized as (Tewari, 2009): to sell guest rooms, provide information on internal operations and external events and locations, coordinate all guest services; to chart and report room status; maintain guest accounts, and construct a guest history file at final stage.

Hospitality

According to the Oxford Dictionary, hospitality means "the reception and entertainment of guests, visitors or strangers with kindness and good will". Also defined as the friendly reception and treatment of guests or strangers (Tewari, 2009); the quality of receiving and treating guests and strangers in a warm, friendly way. The word hospitality is derived from hospice (nursing home), a medieval "house of rest" for travellers and pilgrims (Tewari, 2009).

Hospitality excellence and its pillars

Hospitality is a challenging industry; the competition continues to rise plus guests are demanding more and better services (Benzakour, 2019). "Excellence is not an act, but a habit…" (Grange, 2019). This concept implies not only on following the standard but going the extra mile, which means doing something more than the execution of instructions from beginning to the last stage (Grange, 2019). Without a systematic feedback analysis there might not be improvements as this is the only way to better understand guests' expectations; and to adapt the business development strategy accordingly (Grange, 2019).

What is an excellence pillars? Firstly, it is the basic work requirements that should be followed. Failing to meet these requirements makes it impossible to create a first positive impression effect. Five Pillars of Hospitality Excellence which can be practiced by front desk team at hotel are as follows (Doug, 2018).

Properly Welcome Guests (Doug, 2018). Understand that with all of the stress of travel these days; chances are we are seeing the worst side of even the nicest personalities. Yet when we make it our job to bring out the best in others, it brings out the best in ourselves. Be sure to properly welcome them upon arrival with a phrase such as "Good afternoon, welcome to the brand X hotel. How may I assist you today?" Deliver this with eye contact and a genuine smile, it is contagious. Tailor your "welcome script" to the guest story playing out in front of you.

Telephone Hospitality Excellence (Doug, 2018). Convey hospitality and enthusiasm in your tone of voice by "stepping into character" like an actor on a stage. Speak slowly and articulate, which means to pause between words and not run them all together as if one syllable. Always provide your name when you answer to show confidence. For answering questions or assisting, ask for and use the caller's name. Supervise transferred calls and introduce both parties. End calls by offering additional assistance, thanking the caller and restating the hotel name.

Know Your Product (Doug, 2018); voluntarily mention Key Details. Be in the "guest experience business" and not the "room rental business." Be prepared to thoroughly answer frequently asked questions. Voluntarily offer "local insider's tips" such as where the locals eat, actual "rush hour" travel times and "off the beaten path" attractions.

Welcome and Resolve Guest Complaints (Doug, 2018). Understand that no matter where a problem occurs in the hotel, chances are it will be reported to the front desk. Since the worst complaint is the one that is never mentioned, we should welcome them. (Otherwise the un-reported complaint will surely end up posted online.) First, let guests vent their frustration and validate their emotional distress. Next, show empathy and apologize. And finally, after resolving the issue follow-up to ensure their satisfaction.

Fond Farewell at Departure (Doug, 2018). While reception is a first impression, the front desk departure conversation is a chance for a lasting “last” impression. Solicit feedback with sincerity. Encourage online reviews when feedback is positive. For regular guests, (Benzakour, 2019)offer returns reservations to secure more direct bookings. Offer assistance with transportation or driving shortcuts during rush hour. Conclude the conversation with eye contact, a smile and a fond farewell. These five Pillars of Hospitality Excellence, not only will create more positive memories for the guests but will have a lot more enjoyment in doing so (Doug, 2018).

Research Methods

The study approach is descriptive in nature targeting to verify the research theories using qualitative research methods to explore pertinent earlier researches aiming to add source of information to the subject.

This research combined both primary and secondary research methods and attempted to bring light to relationship and behaviour of human in context of hospitality sector. The study tried to gather and analyse the data through documented data and questionnaires. The collected data was targeted to 50 front office staff from 5 hotels where 10 staffs chosen from each hotel located within Arusha city purposely by simple random method. Since the study aimed at assessing the hospitality excellence pillars in front office professionalism in hotels; researchers selected sample size of 50 front office staff to gain insights that can be useful for the study and to represent entire population of front office staff of Arusha City.

The researchers employed some databases to gather the pertinent information by selecting the right books, journals, and e-books that researchers could find in electronic libraries. Meanwhile, the researcher browsed the Internet for any credible and reliable information that could contribute to the completion of literature study.

Results

Demographic characteristics comprised of 35% females and 65% male. With regard to work, the result implied that approximately 30% of all respondents where working in front desk section, 20% uniformed section, 45% lobby section and 5% reservation section. This indicates that front office has various sections of professionalism as indicated by results. With regard to how long have been working in hotel 66.7% of most front office staff have experience of less than ten years. Moreover, pertaining to understanding the concept of hospitality excellence 41% said Very familiar with the concepts, while 24% said somewhat familiar and the rest 35% said unfamiliar with the concept. Regarding hospitality excellence if fully practice able to the study area, 71.7% said yes is practiced and regarded as part of professionalism. Most respondent 66.7% strongly agreed there is potential of increasing professionalism in front office at the study area through hospitality excellence. In addition to that results showed that 75% of front office staff agreed that hospitality excellence pillars enhance efficiency in hotel services. This prove that there is a need of practicing hospitality excellence pillars as hospitality industry is dynamic and the competition continues to rise plus guests are demanding more and better services (Benzakour, 2019). Moreover 65% agreed that there is a need of empowering front office professionals to ensure understanding of hospitality excellence pillars in their occupations to enhance "wow factor" status in hospitality industry.

Conclusion and Recommendation

Hospitality organizations such as hotels are becoming competitive and the guests keep requiring delivery of quality, flawless and satisfactory service. The hospitality excellence is one of a prominent part in the delivery of such quality service which in turn plays a role in the front office professionalism to enhance first impression factor.

The researchers suggest to those who are interested in studying Hospitality excellence standards and front office professionalism in hotels to conduct two customer surveys, the first before the application of a standard operation procedures and the second one after the application of standard operation procedures in front office. Therefore, they can precisely determine the role of standard operation procedures in hotel service quality and guest satisfaction. Meanwhile such studies should be conducted by recognizing the role of other hotel departments as the performance of front office department directly connects to other hotel department as well.

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ASSESSING THE APPLICATION OF CUSTOMER CENTRIC MARKETING STRATEGY IN HOTEL SITUATED IN MWANZA - TANZANIA

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Abstract

The overall objective of this study was to assess the application of customer centric marketing strategies in hotels sector in Tanzania using a case study of hotels in Mwanza City. The study used questionnaires, interviews, observations, and documentary review as data collection tools. This study covered 80 respondents (hotels staff). The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics for questionnaires and interviews were analyzed using content analysis. This study aimed at assessing the application of Customer Centric Marketing strategy in hotels. The findings of the study shows that customer centric approach is not much applied in most of hotels in the study area as data shows that below 50% of the variables examined in the study shows that many hotels don't conduct research to meet customer needs; they don't carry survey towards the development of hotel products and services that suite the need of customers; most of hotels don't have specific market segment and target to serve; no clear mechanism for collection of feedback from customers for continuous service improvements; provision of customer service training to staff is not given a priority, and customization services for customers is till minimal. The findings indicate that, there is a strong positive correlation of 0.760 between the application of customer centric approach and hotel performance. More specifically, findings indicate that an effective practice of customer centric strategies eventually lead to guest repeat visits, enable hotel to delivers superior service to customers, increase number of sales, encourage word -of -mouth marketing, increase customer satisfaction and loyalty, revenue increase; enhance customer retention rate. The study identified that among of the challenges hindering the application of customer centric approach in most of the hotels includes; lack of awareness on Customer Centered Marketing (CCM) among hotel stuff and managers, little knowledge of the product and services offered, lack of problem solving skills, outdated technology used, and ineffective communication skills of hotel staff. In the light of the findings, this study recommend that hotel owners and managers need to be aware of customer centric marketing approach concept and they should practice it effectively so be able to meet the need of their customers and organization objectives. Also, the curriculum developers and educators of hospitality and tourism course need to incorporate modules in customer service in their curriculum

Key works: Tourism marketing, Customer Centered Marketing (CMM) and hotel

INTRODUCTION

In the face of growing competition, scarce resources, and more demanding customers, business leaders are striving to increase profitability by becoming more customer-centric Bonacch (2013). The ultimate aim of customer centric marketing is for companies to gain insight into the general characteristics of their individual clients, more specifically, customer centric marketing allows the company to understand the motivations, habits, attitudes and values that shape consumers' opinions about the brands the company is offering (Maney *et al*., 2002; Lietz, 2003). Kotler and Armstrong, (1994) argued that today's successful companies are strongly customer focused and heavily committed to marketing. Muriithi (2015) indicated that consumer centric marketing practices was more practiced in 4 and 5 star hotels as compared to 2 and 3 star hotels. Bartholome, (2013) identified that customer relations management strategies can shorten the distance between customers and the organization, contributing to organizational success through customer loyalty, superior service, better information gathering, and organizational learning the hotel industry will retain and maintain the customers.

Alkistis *et al*., (2018) in their study indicated that customer oriented strategy is applied to a great extent from four and five-star hotels and it has got significant and positive relationships between the customer oriented strategy and business performance of four and five-star hotels. Kim & OK W, (2010) affirmed that customer orientation in service employees enhances customer satisfaction and affective commitment and retention in the food-service industry. Niininen, Buhalis and March (2007), ascertained that customer centric marketing will be expected as the norm in the travel industry by customers of the future, yet it is only the innovators who gain real tangible benefits from this development.

These days the hotel sector is experiencing a rise in globalization, competition, and higher level of customer turnover which is connected to customer service. There has been complains and dissatisfactions among many customers and hotel guest that most of hotels in the study area that services provided are substandard and poor. Tajeddin, (2011) in his study ascertained that empirical studies examined not only verify aspects of prior research but also provide a new insight by exploring customer orientation, learning orientation, and new service development simultaneously, revealing how these factors affect the performance of the hotel industry. Nevertheless, the above studies was focus on a comparing on the application of customer centric marketing strategy in hotels sector in Tanzania using a case study of hotels found in Mwanza City

Research Objectives

The overall objective of this study was to assessment the application of customer centric marketing strategy in hotels sector in Tanzania using a case study of Hotels found in Mwanza City. Specifically, this study intended to examine customer-centric marketing strategies practiced by hotels in the study area, to determine the relationship between customer centric marketing approach and performance of hotels used in the study areas, and to determine challenges hindering the application of customer centric approach in hotels

Literature Reviews

The concept of customer centricity is not new. More than 50 years ago Drucker (1954) wrote in his book that "it is the customer who determines what a business is, what it produces, and whether it will prosper." Levitt (1960) proposed that firms should not focus on selling products but rather on fulfilling customer needs

Bowen and Schneider (1985) noted that employees not only deliver and create the service, but are actually a part of the service in the customer's view". Day and Wensley, (1988) argued that the role of marketing is central to the successful implementation of business strategies because the current competitive business environment calls for a continuous emphasis on delivering superior quality products and services to customers. Valeria and Minghetti (2003) ascertained that hotel managers need to have a deep knowledge of customers' needs, behavior, and preferences and be aware of the ways in which the services delivered create value for the customers and then stimulate their retention and loyalty

Tajeddini and Trueman, (2008) in their study concluded that the critical role of employees who are in the front line of organizations should not be ignored. This is because they are the first and foremost persons to interact with client. Liljenvall and Dziewiecka, (2010) argued that in order for a company to greatly succeed in this day and time, it must focus on providing an experience to a its customers rather than only supplying a mere service. Wang *et al*., (2013) in their review of two empirical studies using stated-preference choice experiments noted that travellers engage in fairness-related reference point comparisons for price and other product attributes induced by relationship management and CCM.

Deloitte and Touche (2014) found that customer-centric companies are 60 per cent more profitable than those who are not focused on the customer. From a scholarly perspective, the number of articles referencing 'customer-centric' or customer-centricity within its title has grown slightly from 2011 to 2014 but with a slight dip in 2015. It would seem that the scholarly literature surrounding customer-centricity is still in its infancy, certainly compared to other well-trodden themes, such as 'customer satisfaction', 'customer service' and 'customer relationship management'. The relatively low number of scholarly references of customer-centricity could also be down to an absence of an apparent theory to underpin it. There are, however, an abundant number of references to the term 'customer-centricity' available on web pages through consultancy, training and marketing organizations that refer to research reports and discussions via forums/blogs.

Udunuwara, (2015) identified numerous customer relationship management practices experienced by leisure travellers. They were categorized as: pre-encounter, encounter and post-encounter practices. It was also found that while some seek familiarity many leisure travellers do seek variety in the hotel context. Hänninen (2017) revealed that that customers place the largest relative importance on the attribute "key customer focus" and gain the highest utility from industry specific configurations, although there are slight deviations of preferences in terms of different clusters.

Moira and Myers (2018) noted that customer-centricity has been paid attention by both academics and practitioners alike, yet the extent to which there is an understanding and knowledge about how to implement customer-centricity is very limited and has been somewhat challenging. Yet, the importance and relevance of being customer-centric continues to grow and has proven to impact on how successfully a company is likely to perform. Ngacha and Onyango, (2017) revealed an average rating of customer orientation practices across the categories of hotels studied. The rating on customer retention was average for lower rated hotel categories, but high for the higher star rated hotels. Lack of strong bonds and true customer loyalty was noted in hotels of lower grade. Positive and moderately significant relationship between customer orientation practices and customer retention was evident. Deficiencies were noted across the customer orientation practices assessed which included development of customer-oriented culture, management of staff and designing service processes for quality service delivery.

Challenges hindering Hotels to Practice Customer-Centric strategy

Sotoudeh, (2007) conducted a study on customer relationship management in the tourism industry of Iran and revealed that, barriers to customer relationship management in tourism sector includes inadequate supporting budgets, lack of senior management commitment to customer relationship management, poor communication, an absence of complementary customer management skills, inefficiencies in business process, lack of end-user input at service stage, a lack of standardization, inter-departmental conflicts, lack of cultural readiness. Denish, *et al*., (2006) studied challenges that typically deter a firm from becoming customer-centric. The author noted that most of the challenges are mainly related to the organizational culture, structure, processes, and financial metrics of the firm.

Conceptual Framework

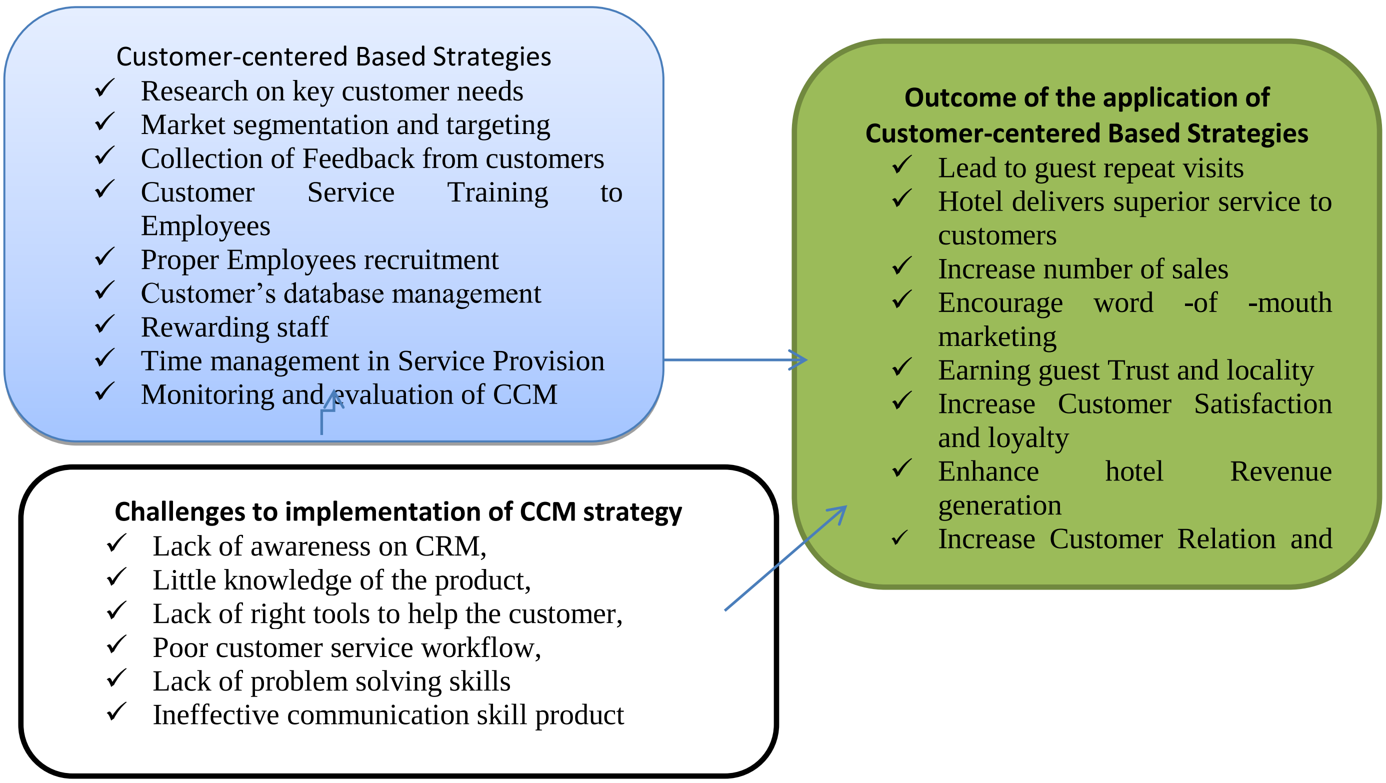

Figure 1.0. *A conceptual framework showing the relationship between Customers Centred Approach and its Outcome. Source, (Researcher, 2020)*

Research Methods

Research Design

This study used mixed designs in which both qualitative and quantitative research approaches were integrated simultaneously in order to capture information related to the study objectives. The study employed descriptive research and case study design of hotels found in Mwanza City. The area is purposively selected since it is among of the most popular and well developed tourism destinations in the Northern tourism circuit in Tanzania with a lot of tourism potential and accommodation sector. The sample size of the study was 80 registered hotels that were selected randomly and purposively. The study used use senior, middle level, frontline managers of hotels in the study areas taking into consideration that such kind of staff are the one who mostly interact with tourists in hotels.

Data Collection Methods and Instruments

Data were collected from the sample population through interviews and questionnaire to key informants (hotel managers) and questionnaires (front-office). The researcher targeted the heads of department, supervisors and staffs that have direct contacts mostly with the customers. The researcher gathered secondary data from articles, conference proceedings, and other relevant electronic sources that covered the study objectives. This study used questionnaire of both closed and open ended questions and interviews to key informants of hotel managers to gather information on the study objective

Sampling Procedure and Techniques

Sampling is necessary when collecting data from large and scattered population as well as for the comparison purposes and it ensures accurate results (Madondo, 2014). The researcher employed purposive sampling to select hotel managers who mostly serve customers in order gather the required information. However, random sampling was employed to select middle and frontline managers from hotel in the study regions, such staff are the one who mostly interact with customers in hotels.

Data analysis

Data collected by questionnaires were coded and analyzed accordingly. The analysis revealed descriptive statistics including frequencies and percentages which are presented in form of tables and figures in this paper. However, thematic based analysis was used to analyze qualitative data from interview and open-ended questions related to research objectives.

Results

Customer - centric Marketing Approaches or techniques used in Hotels

One of the specific objectives that the researcher wanted to examine it was on the customer - centric marketing approaches or techniques used in hotels. Results of the finding are presented in paragraphs below: -

	Customer - centric Marketing Approaches or techniques used in Hotels	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
		F	Percentage (%)	Frequency (F)	%	Frequency (F)	Percentage %
1	Research on key customer needs	24	30.1	08	9.9	48	60
2	Development of products that suite the need of customers	28	35	13	16.4	39	48.8
3	Market segmentation and targeting	29	36.3	7	8.8	44	55
4	Collection of Feedback from customers	25	31.3	10	12.5	45	56.3
5	Customer Service Training to Employees	23	28.8	11	13.8	46	57.5
6	Personalization and customization of services	13	16.3	8	10	59	73.8
7	Proper Employees recruitment	54	67.6	5	6.5	21	26.3
8	Customers database management	15	18	2	2.5	62	77.6
9	Quick responsive to customer complaints	22	28.8	40	50	18	22
10	Rewarding staff	16	20.1	36	45	28	35.1
11	Time management in Service Provision	73	82.0	01	3.5	3	14.5

Table 1: *Different customer - centric marketing approaches or techniques used in hotels*.

The following were response of the study: -

Research on key customer needs – The most basic concept underlying marketing is that of human needs. A human need is a state of felt deprivation. Humans have many complex needs. This study wanted to identify and examine if hotels in the study areas they do conduct research as a key strategy to determine and meet the customer’s needs. Results shows that (48) 60% of respondents disagree the statement, whereas (24) 30.1% agreed on it. This implies that most of the hotels in the study area don't research on customer needs leading to poor production of products and services which doesn't meet the needs, and expectations of the customers.

Development of products that suite the need of customers- Hotels products involves bundling several services that meet and exceeds need and expectations of customers. According to the Finnish marketing expert, Christian Grönroos, a service itself is divided into three different categories; core, support and ancillary service. In the hotel world this would mean that the core service of a hotel is the actual accommodation, a supporting service could be e.g. breakfast at the hotel and as an ancillary service there would be e.g. customer service at the hotel. Basically, the researcher in this study intended to examine if hotels in the study areas they do develop products that suites the needs of the customers. Result shows that(39) 48.8% of respondents disagreed with the statement while (28) 35%agreed that they develop products and services that suite the need of customers and it is among of the customer centred strategy applied by hotels in the study area. Such findings imply that below half of the studied hotels are failing to develop products and services that suite the need of customers. Therefore, in order to meet the needs of customers, hotels in the study area need to develop services which conform to the needs customers and customers need to be involved in the processes of product and service development.

Market Segmentation and Targeting–Bowie and Buttle (2004) stated that there is a broad consensus that segmentation is the starting point for developing effective marketing strategies. Finding in this study indicates that (44) 55% disagreed with the statement whereas (29) 36.3% agree that marketing segmentation and targeting as among of the customer centre strategy is not much practiced in many hotels of the study area. The finding imply that majority of hotels in the study region are still serving the general market (mass market) instead of segmenting and targeting their customers. With regards to the application of market segmentation and targeting as the customer centered strategy hotels managers are required to segment their customers using different variables taking into considering those customers who are the non-frequent users, light users, and heavy users of hotels products and services; neat service seeker and classic service seeker; light spenders, heavy spenders or medium spenders; outdoor recreationists, friends and family, visitors, special event attendees, and nature sightseers just to mention a few.

Collection of Feedback from customers for continuous services improvements – Customer feedback is defined as customer communication concerning a product or a service (Erickson and Eckrich, 2001). It can be described also as an opinion or information passed on to others; conversation between clients and service providers; experience sharing and or having a constructive communication with customers. The aim of this study also was to assess if collection of customer feedback as among of the customer centric strategy is practiced by hotels in the study area. Result indicates that (45) 56.3% disagreed with the statement whereas (25) 31.3% agreed it. With such kind of a finding of 56% disagreeing with the statement, it implies that many hotels in the study area don't bother to search feedback from their customers for the purpose of service improvement and customer satisfaction in their respective hotels. Hoteliers need to ask guests questions from the outset and collect as much relevant information as possible for service improvement.

Customer Service Training– Kamelia Chaichi (2012) contended that training is a viable method to build and maintain a customer focus and to keep the current customer base. It is seen that customer service training is based on the assumption that changing the organization's service culture by empowering employees to better serve the customer through personal enrichment training. Result shows that about (46) 56.3% disagreed with the statement whereas (28) 35% and only (10) 12.5% became neutral to the statement. This means that majority of the respondents 57.5%of the study respondents disagreed with the statement implying that customer service training is not provided to employees who usually save and interact with customers and it is not given an emphasis towards being customer cantered.

Time management in Service Provision - Time management plays a vital role in any field, especially the hotel industry. One of the most valuable tools for the hotel industry is efficient and effective time management (Srikumar and Arun, 2017). The researcher was interested to examine if time management before and during the provision of services is among of the customer centric strategy that is used in hotels in the study area. Results indicate that (73) 80 agreed with the statement whereas (3) 14.5% disagreed the statement. Such findings imply that hotel staffs in the study area are aware of significance of time management towards customer satisfaction; however, the researcher observation and experience shows that effective and timely provision of services and customer request to customers is still a challenge in most of accommodation and food service providers in the region. Time management requires proper organization; prioritization; implementation; action plans; delegation; critical thinking skills; and decision-making skills which are part and parcel of implementing customer centric approach.

Customer's database management–collecting and managing customers information such as name, sex, contact details, nationality, language spoken, business address for business traveller, means of payment; spontaneous data e.g., allergies, special diet; accompanying persons, type of booking, type of room; length of stay, type of room services required, use of food & beverage services and other hotel facilities; guest complaints and opinions on quality standards of hotel services and hotel staff performance and many other information can indicates that respective hotels are sensitive to the need and wants of their customers. Result shows that about (62)77.6% of the study respondents disagreed that customer database management with the use of technologies as among of the customer based centric approach is not used in their respective hotels whereas (15) 18% agreed with it. This implies that many hotels in the study areas are still applying manual (visitor's books) as a tool for customer information management.

Rewarding Hotel staff - Previous findings suggested that employees are likely to exert a substantial role on customer satisfaction (Spinelli and Canavos, 2000; Wu, 2007). Schmit and Allscheid, (1995) reported that it is impossible to sustain a satisfied and retained customer without satisfying employees. This study examined if rewarding systems of staff as among of the customer centric approach that is practiced in hotels in the study area. Results show that (36) 45% become neutral to the statement whereas (28) 35.1% disagreed with the statement. Such finding indicates that rewarding of hotel workers as tool to enhance workers performance and to make them focused when attending customers it is not given a priority by hotel owners and managers in the majority of hotels of the study area.

Quick Responsive to Customer Complaints- Customers become dissatisfied and will always complain when they will continue to experience products or services that perform below expectations, Ramphal (2016) as cited in Matusitz and Breen, 2009). Among of the customer centric marketing approaches that this study wanted to examine it was on weather hotels in the study areas do handle and solve quickly complains form their clients, result however shows that (40) 50% were neutral to the statement whereby (18) 22% disagreed with the statement. Such statistical data means that most of hotels staff is very slow in handling customers complains making most of customers being dissatisfied. Handling customer complaints often represent the last opportunity that respective hotels have to address the dissatisfaction from customers and to be able to retain them.

Proper Employees recruitment- Alexandra-Paraskevi Chytiri *et al*., (2019) noted that hotel industry, as a service industry, is greatly dependent upon its employees. Recruitment and Selection practices constitute an important starting stage for hotels towards generating an efficient and productive workforce. A recent study by Biga, (2015) suggests that employees with a customer orientation need to have tendency or predisposition to meet customer needs in an on-the-job context. Finding in this study indicates that (54) 67.6% agrees with the variable that proper employee's recruitment is significant for hotel staff being customer centered whereas (21) 26.3% disagreed with statement. Such statistical data means that above 50% of the study respondents accepted that there is proper recruitment of labour force for hotel management which in one way or another can make respective hotels in the study area to be customer centered.

Personalization and customization of services – it involves that ability of an organization to know more about its customers and use that insight to talk, engage and interact with their customers more often and more meaningfully in new and innovative ways including through social networking**.** It involves also looking at guests first and find out what are the purposes of the guest visit. About (59) 73.8% of the study respondents disagreed that they do not customize and or personalize their services to their clients whereas (8) 10% were neutral to the statement only (13) 16.3% agreed. The results imply that personalization and customization of services is not practiced as among customer centric marketing strategy in majority of hotels. This study recommends that, personalization and customization of services need to be applied hoteliers throughout the sales and marketing journey from pre-booking adverts, offers and incentives, to the booking system itself. The more hotels in the study areas will personalize emails and other marketing output, the more effective they will be.

In brief, the above findings indicate that most of respondents agree that the above are among of the customer centric strategies that can be applied their hotels however most of such strategies are not as much as practiced accordingly for the benefit of the hotels and customers.

Relationship between Customer Centric Marketing Approach and Performance of Hotels

Table 2: Outcome of an effective Application Customer Care Centric Approach

	Outcome of an effective Application Customer Care Centric Approach	Agree		Neutral		Disagree	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	Lead to guest repeat visits	56	95	3	3.8	1	1.3
2	Hotel delivers superior service to customers	69	96	4	5.0	7	8.7
3	Increase number of sales	67	83.8	3	3.8	10	12.4
4	Encourage word -of -mouth marketing	72	90	56	6.3	3	3.7
5	Earning Customer Trust and locality	78	97.4	1	11.3	1	11.3
6	Enhance hotel Revenue generation	72	90.1	2	2.5	6	7.4
7	Lead to Customer Satisfaction, relation and retention	72	90.1	6	7.4	2	2.5

Outcome of an effective Application Customer - Centric Approach in the hotel sector

Results from the survey shows that an effective application of customer centric approaches can lead to the following benefits to hotel operators in the study area. Finding indicates that (56) 95% agree that customer centric strategy can lead to guest repeat visits (1) 1.3% disagreed with the statement; About (69) 96% agrees that the strategy enables hotel to delivers superior service to customers while only (7) 8.7% disagreed with statement; whereas(63) 83.8% of the study respondents agreed also that application of customer centric approach can eventually increase number of sales in respective hotels where by (3) 3.8% were neutral to the statement, Moreover, results shows that of (72) 90% of the survey population agreed that an effective implementation of customer centric approach it do encourage word -of -mouth marketing which definitely it will lead to more customers and revenues in the hotel sector whereas (3) 3.7% disagree with the statement. Additionally, the study noted that an effective practice of customer centered strategies lead to increase customer satisfaction and loyalty, Furthermore, finding shows that (72) 90.1 agreed that customer centered approach leads to increase of revenue revenues whereas (6) 7.4% of the study population disagree with the statement this goes hand in hand to increase customer, relation and retention rate in which about (72) 91% agrees with the statement while (2) 2.5% disagreed the statement.

Correlation Analysis on the Relationship between the Application of Customer Centric Approach and Hotel Performance

The study wanted to determine if there is the relationship between the application of customer centric approach and of hotel performance in the study area. The researcher used Pearson correlation coefficient because the nature of data obtained was parametric and fall within the limit of interval and ratio scale. Results in (Table 3) below show correlation between the application of customer centric approach and hotel performance. The result observed was: r (80) = 0.760; p<0.01. The findings indicate that, there is a strong positive correlation of 0.760 between the application of customer centric approach and hotel performance. The relationship is significant because *p value* is less than the level of significance of 0.01.

Table 3: Correlation Analysis the application of Customer centric strategy and Hotel performance

		Customer centric strategy	Hotel Performance
	Pearson Correlation	1	.760**
Customer centric strategy	Sig. (1-tailed)		.005
	N	80	80
	Pearson Correlation	.760**	1
Hotel Performance	Sig. (1-tailed)	.005	
	N	80	80

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Challenges Hindering Application Customer Care Centric Approach in hotel sector

The third objective of this study was to explore challenges hindering an effective application of customer care centric approach in hotel sector in Mwanza city. Findings through interview conducted with hotel managers indicates that among of the challenges hindering effective practice of customer centric strategies includes lack of awareness on customer centred to among of hotel staff, little knowledge of the product and services offered, lack of right tools to help the customer, poor customer service workflow, little problem solving skills, ineffective communication skills, poor quality of hotel facilities and amenities, poor customer information, Higher customer expectations of customer can also be seen as a challenge; the existence of poor recruitment procedures also lead to failure of realizing hospitality services as expected by clients. Recruitment process should adhere to professionalism; lack of hospitality innovation include better management tools such as modern bills payment systems; Low salaries associated with poor motivation to workers is said to be the serious challenge facing many accommodation sectors in the study area; retention of qualified workforce is has been mentioned also as problem because most of the accommodation and restaurant have unattractive wages packages so is very difficult to maintain qualified staff and poor investment in technology, most of the hotels are lagging behind in adopting technology in running their business.

Implication of the Results

The findings show that most of the hotel in the study needs to improve their services and facilities offered in their hotels and being customer centred in every aspect of their business operations. Respective hotel managers and owners need to learn and put into practice customer cantered orientations in their hotel operations. The government through Ministry of Natural resources and Tourism via the division of tourism need to work hard to make follow-up if hotels in the study area they comply on the standards as stipulated in hotel classification and grading regulations, Hotel Act the revised 2006 and other agreements prior to the establishment of hotels so as to enhance and customer services in the vibrant and growing tourism sector in the country. The curriculum developers for hospitality and tourism course need to incorporate modules in customer service in their curriculum. However, basing on the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are made

Conclusion and recommendations

Conclusion

The study used observations, interviews, questionnaires and documentary literature review as data collection procedures. This study covered 70 respondents (hotels staff). The data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics from SPSS for questionnaires and others like interviews were analyzed using content analysis. This study was conducted in Mwanza city with the aim to assessing the application of customer centric approach in hotels.

Generally, from the findings of the study, it was concluded that the customer centric approaches/strategies is not as much as practiced in most of hotels and accommodation sectors in the study area as below 50% of the variables examined in the study shows that many hotels don't conduct research so that they can be able to identify key customer needs neither they don't carry survey to be able to develop products and services that suite the need of customers as about 48.8% disagreed with the statement. Additionally, most of hotels don't really have specific market segment and target to serve as about (29) 36.3% agree with statement. They don't have also a very clear mechanism for collection of feedback from customers for continuous service improvements as about 55% disagreed. Moreover, marketing centered strategies such as provision of customer service training is not given a priority in most of the hotels, customization services for customers by hotel staff is till minimal. However, findings indicate that majority of interviewed respondents agreed that an effective practice of customer centric approach eventually lead to guest repeat visits, enable hotel to delivers superior service to customers, increase number of sales, encourage word -of -mouth marketing, increase customer satisfaction and loyalty, proving revenue, increase customer relation and retention rate. The study identified that among of the challenges hindering the application of customer centric in most of the hotels in the study areas includes lack of awareness on CRM, personal incentives are often in conflict, little knowledge of the product and services offered, lack of right tools to help the customer, poor customer service workflow, lack of problem skills, out-dated technology platforms, ineffective communication skills, poor product quality, poor customer information.

Recommendations of the research

From the findings of the study, further research can be carried are in the areas below: -

The findings indicate that there is a strong positive correlation between the application of customer centric approach and hotel performance. Therefore, future researcher need also to check on other variables/factor that leads to hotel performance.

For the academia; this study strongly recommends that the curriculum developers for hospitality and tourism courses need to incorporate modules in customer service in their curriculum. Customer centric modules need to be taught and incorporated in each course of semester until student's graduates from their studies.

Since the study was only conducted in one destination (Mwanza city), the study should be replicated in other cities in order to obtain deeper understanding of the phenomenon. In addition to that, future researchers can conduct similar studies in other parts of the country whereby such studies would provide the basis for comparison and set grounds for establishing the generality of the findings in the context of our country.

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Development: An Empirical Investigation of the Swiss Hotel Industry

BEHAVIOURAL PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' CAREER INTENTIONS IN THE HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TANZANIA

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Abstract:

This study assessed the career intentions of the hospitality and tourism students to identify their predictors, based on the theory of planned behaviour. Descriptive, correlation, and multiple regression analysis techniques were applied on survey data from a conveniently determined sample of 232 students enrolled in certificate and diploma programmes at the National College of Tourism in Tanzania. The results indicate that students' career intentions were, on average, high and so were their attitudes toward a career in the industry, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. Career intentions and attitudes towards the career were significantly higher for the hospitality programme and NTA 6 students. Attitudes (perceived behavioural control) were significantly higher (lower) for students in the travel and tourism programme than those of students in the tour guide operations programme. Students with personal exposure to the industry (also in NTA 6) showed higher subjective norms than those without exposure (NTA 5). Students' career intentions were significantly positively predicted by their attitudes toward a career in the industry, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control, even after controlling for the effects of skill level and programme type. Perceived behavioural control had the strongest predictive power. The study calls for a dynamic review of the curricula, resourcing the training institutions, and availability of well supported and monitored internship opportunities.

Keywords: career intentions, theory of planned behaviour, hospitality and tourism industry.

INTRODUCTION

The contribution of the hospitality and tourism industry in the growth of many country's economies across the globe has been on a rapid increase (UNCTAD, 2013; WTO, 2020). In many developing countries, the industry is regarded as an important means of accelerating social-economic development because of the role it plays in foreign exchange earnings and job creation (Wamboye *et al*., 2020; WTO, 2019; WTTC-Tanzania, 2020). In many African nations, the industry is among the main contributors of gross capital formation, means of transferring technology and managerial expertise, improving citizens' quality of life, and of escaping from economic hardships (Anderson and Sanga, 2018). For example, Tanzania's development agenda recognises tourism as among the group of products in which the country is experiencing growth, both in comparative advantage and in demand (URT, 2016). According to Anderson and Sanga (2018), tourism's contribution is recorded at 18 percent of GDP; export earnings at 30 percent, and total employment at 10.9 percent. In 2020, contributions to GDP, export earnings and total employment were estimated at 18.3 percent, 21.4%, and 12 percent, respectively. In addition, the targets for the same in 2025 have been pegged at 19.5 percent, 21.1 percent, and 11.5 percent, respectively. Moreover, earnings are projected at USD 4.2 billion in 2025 compared to USD 1.9 billion earned in 2014, whereas the number of international tourist arrivals is estimated to be 2.468 million visitors compared to the 1.14 million tourists received in 2014.

Despite the recognition of the position of the industry in Tanzania's development agenda together with the recorded achievements so far, the industry is marred with many challenges/constraints. Among the most widely cited challenges that are relevant to the present study are the inadequate skilled (quality and quantity) personnel at all levels (operational and managerial), poor planning for human resource development and investment, and the mismatch between the content of the hospitality and tourism education curricula on the one hand and the needs of the hospitality and tourism stakeholders on the other (Anderson and Sanga, 2018). While URT (2016) acknowledges the inadequacy of quality of skilled local labour, it further points out the insufficient public investment in tourism training institutions, limiting the potential of such institutions to become internationally accredited. The hospitality and tourism industry is both labour intensive (Baum and Kokkrainkal, 2005) and service quality – dependent. Its growth, therefore, increases the demand for skilled personnel (Anderson and Sanga, 2018). This increased demand of skilled personnel pressurizes the academia to prepare and supply the industry with qualified graduates, who hold skills appropriate and relevant to it, at both operational and managerial levels. Against the identified challenges, several interventions have also been identified, some of which included improving training and skills development (URT, 2016) and increasing coordination of all stakeholders in the industry to ensure that training capacity if fully utilized and the curricula are made relevant to the needs of the industry (Anderson and Sanga, 2018).

In line with the suggested interventions, the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania has created an environment where both private and public institutions contribute to the preparation of the personnel required by the industry. According to Anderson and Sanga (2018), there are more than 116 hospitality and tourism training institutions in the country, at all levels, yielding an average of 1,000 plus graduates into the job market. However, 78.5 percent of these trainings institutions are accredited by the Vocational Educational Training Authority (VETA), most of which are privately owned. The remaining institutions are technical educational institutions accredited by the National Council for Technical Education (NACTE) (13.8 percent) and Universities accredited by the Tanzania Commission for Universities (TCU) (7.7 percent). Both these public and private training institutions at all levels train and contribute graduates to the industry. However, despite all these efforts; (i) the output is lower than the industry's demand; and (ii) the quality is questionable especially the VETA group, on account of the institutions being ill-resourced, together with the absence of a cohesive professional organ at the national level to coordinate their professions hands-on training (Anderson, 2015). Anderson predicts the demand for human resource in 2020 at 720,000 employees to cater for the predicted 2 million international tourists in the same year against the current supply of about 1,000 graduates per year (p.72). Worse still, not all of the graduates join a career in hospitality and tourism industry (Wen *et al.*, 2018), exacerbating the demand gap. The characteristics of the industry, as perceived by the students, also add to the problem. Walmsley's (2004) review of previous researches revealed that students perceived the industry's jobs as jobs that are low paid, low skilled, and are seasonal. Walmsley adds that the industry's jobs are exposed to poor management, marred by negative image and they lack career structure, in addition to the industry being viewed as a refugee sector. Jing and Tribe (2009) also opined that the industry's jobs are repetitive and unstable. Thus, besides the mismatch between the industry's demand for adequate and qualified personnel and the output of such personnel from the training institutions, the aforementioned characteristics raise an additional but important question: i.e. whether those who graduate from these institutions do intend to (behavioural intentions), or actually, join and develop careers in the industry (actual behaviour).

In China, for example, Wen *et al.* (2018) show, from a review of past studies, that 80 to 90% of graduates from the hospitality and tourism programmes joined careers other than the hospitality and tourism industry careers. This trend goes against the understanding that recruiting and retaining well educated and qualified employees can provide companies in this industry with a competitive advantage in the long run (Eurico da Silva and do Valle, 2015; Kusluvan and Kusluvan, 2000). However, the intentions of these graduates to join the industry are practically more valuable than their actual behaviour. It is, therefore, important to establish the extent to which the students enrolled in the hospitality and tourism programmes in Tanzania intend to join and develop careers in the industry (career intentions), upon graduation. In addition, understanding the factors that drive these intentions is important and has practical implications for the industry, academia, and other stakeholders, including the students. This is because the resulting knowledge will help all stakeholders to take appropriate actions to ensure that the few graduates do join, and stay in, careers in the industry.

Globally, studies on career intentions are many (Amani and Mkumbo, 2016; Arnold *et al*., 2006; Gorgievski *et al*., 2018; Huang, 2011; Park *et al*., 2017; Wen *et al.,* 2018; Zellweger *et al*., 2011), but only a few of them are from the hospitality and tourism industry, especially those that deal with behavioural predictors. Even so, these few studies are from the Asian region (Park *et al*., 2017; Wen *et al*., 2018), leaving the African region, Tanzania included, under-researched. Majority of these studies also focussed on undergraduate students leaving the other competence levels (diplomas and vocational training) under-investigated. The few studies and reports available on Tanzania (Anderson and Sanga, 2018; ATE, 2011; URT, 2016) lay down the ground for this study. Taking the stakeholders' theory view – tourism educators, students, tourism service providers and government authorities - Anderson and Sanga (2018) identify the challenges of the industry to include a serious shortage of specialized managerial and operational skills and poor mismatch between hospitality and tourism curricula and the needs of the industry (ATE, 2011). Little, if any, research in Tanzania is directed toward assessing the students' career intentions and their predictors (behavioural or otherwise). One study on behavioural predictors of students' career intentions in Tanzania is the study by Amani and Mkumbo, 2016). However, it focused on career intentions of students in disciplines other than hospitality and tourism and it called for further studies, not only in disciplines other than the four they covered (education, law, engineering and business studies) but also in other cultural groupings. This study is a response to the call.

Training, deploying and developing skilled personnel is one thing, but attracting graduates to join and stay in the industry is something else. The latter, requires managers to have knowledge about these intentions and what determines them. The present study, therefore, extends the existing works by examining the career intentions and their behavioural predictors focusing on technical diploma students in hospitality and tourism programmes, based on the framework of the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). The main objective of this study was to assess the hospitality and tourism students' intentions to join and develop careers in the industry and to identify the behavioural predictors of these intentions. Although only a few studies have investigated the effect of these behavioural predictors (e.g. Amani and Mkumbo, 2016; *Park et al*., 2017; Wen *et al*., 2018), the three predictor variables are considered to be conceptually independent determinants of intentions (Hsu, 2012). Moreover, other scholars like Al-Shammari and Waleed (2018) and Hsu (2012) point out that the contribution of these behavioural predictors vary across cases/behaviours and contexts/situations, implying that there is need to learn more from the experiences in different cases and contexts as well as in different cultural groupings (Amani and Mkumbo, 2016). Further, the study compared the TPB variables based on selected variables – gender, Skill (programme) level, industry exposure, and programme type. Lastly, the study determined whether the behavioural factors uniquely explained the variance in the students' career intentions after controlling for the effects of programme type and skill level.

Theoretical foundation

This study mainly applied the TPB's framework of Ajzen (1991). The theory postulates that an individual's actual behaviour is best predicted by behavioural intentions to perform that behaviour, which in turn is predicted by three factors, namely attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. The basic TPB indicates the predictive relationships among five constructs – actual behaviour, behavioural intentions, attitudes toward the behaviours, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. The present study, however, restricted itself on the behavioural intentions part of the underlying model by determining its behavioural predictors. It is argued that the hospitality and tourism programme students' intentions to join and develop careers in the hospitality and tourism industry are predicted by their attitudes toward a career in the industry, subjective norms and their perceived behaviour control.

Behavioural intentions refer to the individuals' readiness to perform a certain behaviour. The importance of these intentions is that they are the immediate and most important antecedent to the actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2002). Thus, the study considers the students' intentions to join a career in the hospitality and tourism industry because it is an antecedent to their actual decision to join the industry when they graduate.

Attitude towards behaviour is the individuals' positive or negative assessment of other people, objects, events, activities, ideas, or just about everything in their environment (Zimbardo, *et al.,* 1977, cited in Wen *et al*., 2018, p.71). Thus, attitude towards a career in the hospitality and tourism industry in the present study is defined as the students' favourable or unfavourable evaluation of careers in the industry (Park *et al*., 2017).

Subjective norms refer to an individual's perception of the social pressures of relevant/significant others who believe that he or she should or should not perform a given behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). These relevant/significant others are the people, opinions and/or expectations of whom the individual values highly. Kim *et al.* (2016) identify these people to include parents and other family members, friends, other relatives, college/university teachers/dons, etc. It is argued that individuals tend to behave in a manner that meets what is expected of them by these significant/relevant others, and in so doing, their behavioural intentions improve (Kim and Cho, 2008). Subjective norms are a two-dimensional construct (Fishbein and Ajzen, 2010 cited in Moore and Burrus, 2019, p. 140) i.e. injunctive norms and descriptive norms. Injunctive norms refer to the social rules about what ought to be done. This is highly practised in African societies where parents tend to exert pressure on their children to pursue what they (parents) believe is the right thing to do; e.g. becoming a teacher, a doctor, or an engineer. Descriptive norms, on the other hand, represents the results of a comparison of the individual's behaviour with that of the friends they value. For example, drawing from Moore and Burrus (2019) on intentions to engage in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) fields, it can be argued that students in hospitality and tourism management programmes who have friends or people already in the industry, and whose opinion they value, would tend to have higher intentions to join a career in the same industry.

Perceived behavioural control is the individuals' perception of the relative ease or difficulty with which he/she can perform a given behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It is argued that students in hospitality and tourism programmes would evaluate the behaviour (joining a career in the industry) in terms of whether such behaviour is under their control (Han and Lee, 2001) by looking at their skills, ability, knowledge, commitment (internal factors) and time, opportunities and support from others (external factors) (Park *et al*., 2017). The more they feel that they are in control of the decision to join a career in the industry the higher will be their intentions to execute the decision to join in.

The TPB has, for many years, been used to explain the determinants of an individual's behavioural intentions and covered many areas such as sociology, education, health, management and information and communication technology (Akhtar and Das, 2018; Al-Shammari and Waleed, 2018; Amani and Mkumbo, 2016; El-Mosalamy and Metwale, 2018; Malebana, 2014; Suffian *et al*., 2018; Srirejeki *et al.*, 2019; Zaremohzzabieh *et al*., 2019). Specifically, in the hospitality and tourism industry, Hsu (2012) used the theory to explore the relationship between the attitudes towards internship, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control of hospitality vocational college students in Taiwan and their career intentions. Goh and Ritchies (2011) also used the theory to investigate hospitality students' attitudes and perceived constraints towards field trips. In addition, Park *et al*. (2017) and *Wen et al*. (2018) applied the theory to predict hospitality and tourism students' intentions to pursue careers in the industry in Korea and China, respectively.

Hypotheses development

Behavioural predictors

The TPB-based empirical studies on career intentions in the hospitality and tourism industry as well as their predictors are few, biased toward the Asian region, and much fewer in Africa. However, the evidence is varied and covers universities' undergraduate students in hospitality and tourism programmes. Using a sample of 307 undergraduate hospitality and tourism students in Korea, Park *et al.* (2017) found their career intentions in the industry to be positively predicted by attitudes toward the career and perceived behavioural control, but only attitudes were significant. These career intentions were insignificantly negatively predicted by subjective norms. However, the perceived behavioural control in their study was measured using indicators different from those that are normally used in the TPB framework – i.e. they were based on language skills and experience requirements. In another study, Wen *et al.* (2018) used a sample of 525 three- and four-year undergraduate degree students in the hospitality and tourism programmes in China. They reported all three TPB variables to predict positively and significantly the career intentions in the industry

Past researches also show conflicting evidence on the relative importance of the behavioural predictors in influencing career intentions. For example, in a review of 19 empirical studies, Ajzen (1991) established that subjective norms contributed very feebly to the intentions to perform different behaviours. This was supported by a subsequent study by Armitage and Conner (2001). Conversely, attitudes toward a behaviour have been shown to be the most important factor influencing behavioural intentions in Park *et al.* (2017). In another study, however, Wen *et al.* (2018) reported that perceived behavioural control is the most important predictor of career intentions. These conflicting results, therefore, support the suggestion in Ajzen (1991, 2002) that the relationship among the three predictors should be studied empirically for each of specific behaviour.

The only study on career intentions' behavioural predictors in Tanzania is Amani and Mkumbo (2016) who studied a sample of over a thousand undergraduate students in education, law, engineering and business studies professional disciplines from four universities. They reported career intentions of the education students to be significantly higher than those of their colleagues in the other three disciplines. They further reported that all the three behavioural predictors had positive and significant effects on career intentions, with attitudes toward the career having the most predictive power. They recommended further studies to consider not only other fields and cultural groups but also the final part of the model (i.e. the actual behaviour).

From this short review, students' intentions to pursue careers in the hospitality and tourism industry are likely to be predicted by their attitudes toward a career in the industry, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control. The present study, therefore, hypothesizes that:

H_{1a}: Students' attitudes toward careers in the hospitality and tourism industry have a significant positive effect on their career intentions in the industry

H_{1b}: Students' subjective norms have a significant positive effect on their career intentions in the industry

H_{1c}: Students' perceived behavioural control have a significant positive effect on their career intentions in the industry

Other potential predictors

Personal exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry: Students earn exposure to the industry in at least two formal ways – through an opportunity to work in it before joining a training programme and through an opportunity to participate in an internship programme while on the training programme. During such exposures students are brought closer to the working environment, professionals, and customers - an opportunity to gain more knowledge about the industry. This exposure, in turn, improves their perceptions about the industry. Park *et al*. (2017) argue that internship programmes increase the students' likelihood of developing favourable perceptions about the hospitality and tourism industry, making them likely to consider joining the industry as a suitable career option. On the other hand, other scholars argue that exposure to the industry will have a negative or positive influence depending on the students' degree of satisfaction with the internship experience. Chao (2019) provides evidence that satisfaction with internship positively impacts on tourism's students' occupational choice, while Richardson (2009) found in Australia that students with unsatisfactory experience in the industry are discouraged from joining careers in it. Unsatisfactory experience may also fuel dropouts from the study programme (Baum, 2006). In addition, Chan's (2017) study in New Zealand showed that students formed more negative attitudes toward the hospitality and tourism industry as they gain more exposure to it. Elsewhere, the effect of the internship has been shown to vary across students' generations (Richardson, 2010; Goh and Lee, 2018) and gender, with females showing higher career intentions in the industry the more they are exposed to it (Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010). In another study by Hsu (2012), internship attitude was shown to affect positively both the career intentions and the actual behaviour. The present study posits that exposure to the industry is a function of whether the students worked in it before joining the programme of study or had an opportunity of an internship in it, or both. It also posits that exposure will affect either negatively or positively their perceptions about, and attitudes toward, a career in the industry as well as their level of confidence that they can decide to join the industry. Thus, the study hypothesizes that:

H_{2a}. There is a significant difference in career intentions between students with and without exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry

H_{2b}. There is a significant difference in attitudes toward a career between students with and without exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry

H_{2c}. There is a significant difference in subjective norms between students with and without exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry

H_{2d}. There is a significant difference in perceived behavioural control between students with and without exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry

Moreover, from the evidence that internship affects students' perception about the industry differently with exposed females having higher career intentions than exposed males (Chuang and Dellmann-Jenkins, 2010), the present study hypothesizes that:

H_{3a}. There is a significant difference in career intentions between male and female students.

H_{3b}. There is a significant difference in attitudes toward a career between male and female students.

H_{3c}. There is a significant difference in subjective norms between male and female students.

H_{3d}. There is a significant difference in perceived behavioural control between male and female students.

Skill level and programme type: The diploma programme is a combination of two competence levels – NTA5 and NTA6 - with no direct entry to the latter by school leavers. Each level takes a year to complete. NTA 6 students are viewed as students who have interacted more with the programme content. The majority will also have had the opportunity to attend an internship programme. NTA 6 student will be seen as, on average, more knowledgeable about the industry than their NTA 5 colleagues. Thus, the present study hypothesizes that:

H_{4a}. There is a significant difference in career intentions between skill level groups.

H_{4b}. There is a significant difference in attitudes toward a career between skill level groups.

H_{4c}. There is a significant difference in subjective norms between skill level groups.

H_{4d}. There is a significant difference in perceived behavioural control between skill level groups.

There could also be differences across the type of programme of study. For example, the tour guide operation programme offers more travel opportunities and contact with foreign visitors than the others, but perhaps it demands high language skills and subject matter expertise. Some will serve as porters, which is more muscular. Thus, this study hypothesizes that:

H_{5a}. There is a significant difference in career intentions across programmes of study

H_{5b}. There is a significant difference in attitudes toward a career across programmes of study

H_{5c}. There is a significant difference in subjective norms across programmes of study

H_{5d}. There is a significant difference in perceived behavioural control across programmes of study

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The study adopted a quantitative, cross-sectional survey design. 2019. A structured questionnaire was used to collect data in November 2019. Participants were students pursuing hospitality and tourism management programmes at the National College of Tourism (NCT), Tanzania. NCT is a sector-specific agency run by the Government of the United Republic of Tanzania, through the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (MNRT). The College is responsible for offering technical education in the sector leading to the awards of certificates (NTA 4) and diploma (NTA 5 - 6) at three campuses – Bustani and Temeke (both in Dar es Salaam), and Arusha. All three campuses together enrolled 611 students in different programmes in the 2018/19 academic year. The campuses and the share of enrolment in brackets were: Arusha (149) Bustani (216) and Temeke (246). Programmes of study cover the four skill areas of hospitality, travel and tourism, tour guide operations, and events management. Form six leavers and NTA 4 graduates are eligible to join NTA 5 while graduates from NTA 6 are eligible to join degree programmes. There is no direct entry at NTA 6. The college graduated 200 students (2016), 129 (2017) and 209 (2018). Although several other colleges, universities and vocational training institutions have training programmes in hospitality and tourism, NCT was chosen for its role in producing technical personnel much needed in the industry at the supervisory level, the key to any labour-intensive system. It was also chosen because the hospitality students are better prepared for hospitality jobs than students in the other academic backgrounds since they receive more comprehensive knowledge and practical training related to what the industry requires (Airey and Frontistis, 1997). As an agency of the Government, the college was likely to have the national interests in the hospitality and tourism industry at heart. Four hundred (400) questionnaires were distributed proportionately to the three campuses (Arusha 100, Temeke 170, and Bustani 130). Efforts to promote participation were employed. Finally, a total of 232 filled questionnaires were collected (58 percent response rate overall); 18 from Arusha and 164 and 48 from Temeke and Bustani, respectively.

The Instrument

The instrument included a consent form, as a part of ethical requirements to ensure that students read and consented participation based on full knowledge of the study's purpose and how the data so collected would be used and results reported. The main section contained items based on the TPB model originated from Ajzen (1991, 1998), but as used in Wen *et al.* (2018). These items were adapted to suit the study's context. *Student attitudes toward* the hospitality and tourism industry career was measured by four items using semantic differential response format. A sample item was: "I find the idea of having a career in the hospitality and tourism industry…", to which respondents' response ranged from 1 = very uninteresting to 5 = very interesting. Another item was "definitely, a career in the hospitality and tourism industry will be (pleasurable…very unpleasurable) for me. This was negatively worded to serve as an "attention trap" to identify unengaged respondents as well as a means for controlling for common method bias (CMB). *Subjective norms* were measured by two items. One of the items was "Most people who are important to me want me to work in the hospitality and tourism industry after graduation". *Perceived behavioural control* was measured by two items. A sample item was "It is completely up to me to decide whether I will work in the hospitality and tourism industry after graduation." Finally, *career intentions* were measured by three items. A sample item was "I plan to work in the hospitality and tourism industry after graduation". In all the three measurement scales, a Likert-like scale was used with five responses ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

Age – was measured continuously from the year of birth, gender = 1 if male, 0 otherwise, and qualification level = 1 if NTA 4, 2 if NTA 5 and 3 if NTA 6 (later redefined as a skill level dummy with 1 if NTA 6, 0 otherwise). Whether the respondent had worked in the hospitality and tourism industry before joining the programme (Yes/No), and whether the respondent had an opportunity to attend an internship programme in the industry (Yes/No). These two were later redefined as "personal industry exposure" dummy scoring 1 if the respondent had either worked or had an opportunity for internships in the industry, 0 otherwise. Programme of study (hospitality, travel and tourism, tour guide operators, and event management) was dummy coded in three dummy variables – hospitality, travel and tourism, and tour guide operations, with the latter used as a reference category in the *post hoc* comparisons in the analysis of variance (ANOVA). No student in the event management programme participated in the survey. The last item was whether a closest relative was engaged in the hospitality and tourism industry (Yes/No). The instrument was pilot tested on 35 students conveniently sampled from Bustani (11) and Temeke (24). From the results, the instrument was fine-tuned and administered to the rest of the sampled students.

Data screening, processing and analysis

The 232 questionnaires represented a response rate of 58 percent, higher than the minimum of 35 to 50 percent acceptable in business research (Mellahi and Harris, 2016). Using frequency distribution, errors in data entry were identified and corrected. A total of 58 cases were lost due to: (i) missing values in all the TPB variables (12); (ii) lack of engagement in filling the questionnaire (44) identified by the use of an attention trap; and (iii) outliers (2) for having scores larger than the Mahalanobis Distance cut-off of $\chi^2_{(3)} = 16.27$, $\rho < .001$ (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2018). Finally, 174 usable questionnaires were retained for analysis. The fourth item of the attitudes scale was reverse-coded. A scale test for reliability analysis was used to check for internal consistency of each of the four scales. Mean scores were computed for each of the four scales followed by both descriptive and correlation analysis. The following linear multiple regression (1) and hierarchical regression (2) models were run:

$$CI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 AT + \beta_2 SN + \beta_3 PBC + \varepsilon \qquad (1)$$

$$CI = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Hosp + \beta_2 Skill + \beta_3 AT + \beta_4 SN + \beta_5 PBC + \varepsilon \qquad (2)$$

Where, CI = career intentions in the industry, AT = attitudes toward a career in the industry, SN = subjective norms and PBC = perceived behavioural control, Hosp = hospitality programme dummy (=1) and Skill = skill level dummy (1= NTA6).

Other underlying regression assumptions were checked: Normality (Normal P-P plot inspection), multi-collinearity (bivariate correlation in pairs of independent variables and variance inflation factors), Linearity (bivariate correlation between dependent and independent variables), and homoscedasticity [Breusch – Pagan Lagrange Multiplier (LM) and Koenker tests using Ahmad Daryanto plugin tool in SPSS (Daryanto, 2013)].

RESULTS

Sample description

Table 1 summarises the respondents' characteristics. Majority of the respondents were male (72.1%) and from Temeke campus (70.5%). Over half of the respondents were registered in the Travel and Tourism programmes (51.1%) while the tour guide operations programme contributed only 17.2% of the respondents. All NTA 4 respondents were lost in the data cleaning process, leaving three-quarters of the respondents in NTA 5 (75.6%). About half (49.4%) of the respondents had an opportunity to attend internship programmes and 23.7% had an opportunity to work in the hospitality and tourism industry before joining the study programme. The two groups put in perspective had personal exposures to the hospitality and tourism industry either before or during the programme. These were taken as students who had personal knowledge about various aspects of the industry. It is expected that this exposure would bear on their career intentions, attitudes toward the industry, social influence and the feeling of being in control over the career decisions and their implementation. Lastly, respondents with parents or relatives working in the hospitality and tourism industry constituted 45.4% of the sample.

Table 1: Sample description

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender *[N = 172]*		
Male	124	72.1
Female	48	27.9
Campus *[N = 173]*		
Bustani	37	21.4
Temeke	122	70.5
Arusha	14	8.1
Programme *[N = 169]*		
Hospitality	50	29.6

Travel and Tourism	89	51.1
Tour Guide operations	30	17.2
Skill level *[N = 172]*		
NTA 5	130	75.6
NTA 6	42	24.4
Internship *[N = 172]*		
Yes	85	49.4
No	87	50.6
Worked in HTI *[N = 172]*		
Yes	42	23.7
No	132	76.3
HTI Exposure *[N = 174]*		
Yes	92	52.9
No	82	47.1
Relatives in HTI *[N = 174]*		
Yes	79	45.4
No	95	54.6

Reliability, descriptive and correlation statistics

From the scale test for reliability analysis, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients (Table 2) ranged from .74 (SN) to .77 (AT, CI) indicating acceptable internal consistency while that PBC was .62, indicating questionable internal consistency but usable (George and Mallery, 2019; Hair *et al.*, 2019).

All mean scores were higher than the cut-off point of 3.5 based on a 5-point Likert scale (Albdour and Altarawneh, 2014). These mean scores indicate that students had high intentions to join careers in the hospitality and tourism industry. The scores also indicate that the students had high attitudes toward the industry and felt high social pressure from the people, opinion of whom they value highly, to join the industry. They had a high feeling of being in control of the decision to join the industry. Perceived behavioural control had a higher mean score than the rest of the predictor scales.

Against Cohen's (1988) cut-offs, the Pearson Product-Moment correlation analysis results (Table 2), show that there were strong positive correlations between career intentions and Attitudes toward a career in the industry ($r = .49$, $n = 174$, $\rho < .001$), subjective norms ($r = .57$, $n = .174$, $\rho < .001$) and perceived behavioural control ($r = .63$, $n = 174$, $\rho < .001$), indicating satisfaction of the linearity assumption of multiple regression analysis. There were also moderate correlations between pairs of the independent variables ranging from .33 and .46. Against the maximum correlation of .90 (Pallant, 2016), the results indicate the absence of multicollinearity problem in the data. This result was subsequently confirmed by the variance inflation factor (VIF) test from the regression's collinearity diagnostics, which were found to range from 1.25 to 1.38 (Table 3). A VIF of above 5.0 (Rogerson, 2001) would indicate concerns for multicollinearity problems in the data. Therefore, both assumptions – linearity and no multicollinearity – were met. The homoscedasticity assumption test returned Breucsh-Pegan LM $\chi^2_{(3)} = 82.95$, $\rho < .001$ and Koenker $\chi^2_{(3)} = 53.35$, $\rho < .001$, indicating the presence of heteroscedasticity problem in the data. This problem was then, controlled by generating and reporting heteroscedastic robust standard errors (Table 3) (Hayes and Cai, 2007; Daryanto, 2013). In addition, the correlation coefficient was estimated between TPB variables and respondents' age. Age had moderate positive and significant relationship with attitudes toward career in the industry ($r = .35$, $n = 145$, $\rho < .001$), and weak but significant positive correlations with subjective norms ($r = .17$, $n = 145$, $\rho = .04$),

Table 2: Reliability, descriptive and correlation statistics

	Cronbach's α	Mean	S.D.	1		2		3		4
1. Career intentions (CI)	0.77	4.55	0.64							
2. Attitudes (AT)	0.77	4.43	0.73	0.49	**					
3. Subjective Norms (SN)	0.74	4.42	0.72	0.57	**	0.46	**			
4. Perceived Behavioural control (PBC)	0.62	4.48	0.68	0.63	**	0.33	**	0.42	**	
5. Age in years		21.25	2.09	0.13		0.35	**	0.17	*	0.05

**ρ < .05; **ρ < .001*

Multiple regression results

Multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether the TPB variable predicted the students career intentions. The results show that the model (Table 3) as a whole explained 54.7% of the variance in career intentions, $F_{(3,170)} = 68.46$, $\rho < .001$. Career intentions were positively and significantly predicted by attitudes toward careers in the industry (b = 0.180, t = 2.10, ρ = .037), subjective norms (b = 0.254, t = 2.687, ρ = .008) and perceived behavioural control (b = 0.419, t = 3.954, ρ < .001). Perceived behavioural control was the strongest predictor of the variance in career intentions (beta = .445, ρ < .001).

Table 3: Multiple regression results

	b	SE(b)	beta	t		VIF
(Constant)	0.752	0.504		1.493		
Attitude	0.180	0.086	.207	2.100	*	1.38
Subjective norms	0.254	0.095	.289	2.687	**	1.40
Perceived behavioural control	0.419	0.106	.445	3.954	***	1.25

R^2 = .547; F-Stat (3,170) = 68.46, ρ < .001

**ρ < .05; **ρ < .01; ***ρ < .001*

Results based on heteroscedastic consistent standard errors (HC3) (Cai & Hayes, 2007; Daryanto, 2013).

Hierarchical Regression results

Hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the ability of the TPB variables to predict levels of the career intentions, after controlling for the influence of skill level and programme type (Table 4). Skill level and programme type (dichotomized as 1 = hospitality, 0 = other programmes) were entered at Step 1, explaining 4.8% of the variance in the career intentions. After entering the TPB variables at Step 2, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 55.3%, $F_{(5,166)}$ = 40.99, ρ < .001. The three TPB variables explained an additional 50.5% of the variance in career intentions, after controlling for skill level and programme type, ΔR^2= .505, $\Delta F\text{-}Stat_{(3,166)}$ = 62.43, ρ < .001. In the first model, only skill level was statistically significant (Table 4).

Table 4: Hierarchical regression results

	Unstandardized Coefficients			
	Model 1		Model 2	
(Constant)	4.43	***	0.790	**
Skill level	0.274	*	0.079	
Hospitality	0.187		0.085	
Attitude			0.166	**
Subjective norms			0.250	***
Perceived behavioural control			0.419	***
R^2	.048		.553	
F-stat	4.225	*	40.99	***
ΔR^2			.505	
Δ*F-Stat*			62.43	***

* $\rho < .05$; ** $\rho < .01$; *** $\rho < .001$

Comparison of TPB variables across demographics

The independent samples t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA) (with *post-hoc*) techniques were used to compare the mean scores in the TPB variables across respondents' groups based on exposure to the industry, gender, skill level, and programme of study. The results (Table 5) show that there was a significant positive difference only in subjective norms between respondents who had, and those who had no personal exposure to the hospitality and tourism industry (Mean diff. = 0.23, $t_{(172)} = 2.144$, $\rho = .033$). Those who were personally exposed to the industry had significantly higher subjective norms. Male students had higher but insignificant career intentions Male students also had lower but insignificant attitudes toward a career in the industry, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control, than female students. There were also statistically significant differences between skill levels, i.e. NTA 6 vs. NTA 5, in career intentions (Mean diff. = 0.26, $t_{(170)} = 2.29$, $\rho = .023$), attitudes toward the career (Mean diff. = 0.42, $t_{(170)} = 4.33$, $\rho < .001$), subjective norms (Mean diff. = 0.25, $t_{(170)} = 1.98$, $\rho = .049$), but not in perceived behavioural control (Mean diff. = 0.13, $t_{(170)} = 1.04$, $\rho = .30$). Thus, career intentions, attitudes and subjective norms were higher for NTA level 6 than for NTA level 5 students. Lastly, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) shows that across the three programme types, there were statistically significant differences at $\rho < .05$ level in career intentions ($F_{(2, 166)} = 3.605$, $\rho = .029$), in attitudes toward careers in the industry ($F(2, 166) = 8.455$, $\rho < .001$), in perceived behavioural control ($F_{(2, 166)} = 3.867$, $\rho = .023$), but not in subjective norms ($F_{(2, 166)} = 2.642$, $\rho = .074$). *Post-hoc* comparisons based on Hochberg GT_2 and Games-Howell (Field, 2018), with the tour guide operations group as a reference category, indicated significantly higher career intention (Mean diff = 0.38, $\rho = .028$) and attitudes toward the career (Mean diff. = 0.55, $\rho < .001$) for students in the hospitality programme. Means scores for subjective norms (perceived behavioural control) were higher (lower) for the hospitality group, but the differences were insignificant. There were significantly higher (lower) scores of attitudes toward the career, Mean diff. = 0.59, $\rho = .004$ (perceived behavioural control, Mean diff = -0.38, $\rho = .023$), for students in the travel and tourism programme. No significant differences were found in career intentions and subjective norms across programme types.

Table 5: Group comparison analysis

Variable	Mean differences			
	CI#	**ATγ**	**SN#**	**PBC#**
HTI Exposure *[Yes = 1]*	0.16	0.15	0.23 *	0.12
Gender *[Male =1]*	0.13	- 0.22	- 0.06	-0.003
Skill level *[NTA 6 = 1]*	0.26 *	0.42 ***	0.25 *	0.13
Programme‡				
Hospitality	0.38 *	0.55 **	0.35	-0.02
Travel and Tourism	0.29	0.59 ***	0.32	-0.38 *

**ρ < .05; ** < .01; ***ρ < .001*

CI = Career intentions; AT = Attitude towards a behaviour; SN = Subjective norms; PBC = Perceived behavioural control. ‡ANOVA with Post hoc comparison using the tour guide operations programme as a reference group. # = Hochberg's GT_2, γ = Games-Howell.

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to assess the behavioural predictors of the career intentions of hospitality and tourism students in Tanzania. The specific objectives were to (1) determine students' level of career intentions to join a career in the hospitality and tourism industry after graduation; (2) to determine the behavioural predictors of career intentions; and (3) identify the differences of career intentions and predictors using personal exposure to the industry groups, gender, skill level and programme type.

Hospitality and tourism students were found to have high intentions to join careers in the industry, attitudes toward careers in the industry, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. These students, therefore, are of significant potential to the industry. Since many of them were at the beginning of their respective programmes of study, the results call for the institution to encourage them and nurture their intentions, attitude as well as their level of self-confidence so that they maintain these intentions and attributes up to the time of graduation.

All three behavioural predictors significantly positively predicted the students' career intentions in the hospitality and tourism industry, confirming hypotheses H_{1a} - H_{1c}. The findings are consistent with the theory of planned behaviour, which posits that individuals' behavioural intentions are determined by their attitudes toward the behaviour, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. The three predictors together explained over half of the variance in the career intentions, even after controlling for the effects of other variables (programme type and skill level). This proportion of variance explained is higher than the average of 41 percent reported in other sectors such as the Godin and Kok's (1996) meta-analytic study which covered a range of health-related behaviours. The findings on individual predictors are consistent with some of the previous studies (e.g. Wen *et al*., 2018), but inconsistent with the results reported in Park *et al.* (2017) that subjective norms and perceived behavioural control did not have a significant effect on students' career intentions in the hospitality and tourism industry. Besides, perceived behavioural control was the most influential predictor, similar to the findings by Wen *et al*. (2018), while attitudes toward the career was the weakest contributor contrary to the findings by Amani and Mkumbo (2016) and Park *et al*. (2017). Moreover, the findings are inconsistent with Ajzen's (1991) and Armitage and Conner's (2001) extensive studies, which highlighted subjective norms as the weakest predictor. Unlike in Park *et al*. (2017), attitude in this study was the weakest predictor, contradicting the findings in Amani and Mkumbo (2016) and Wen *et al*. (2018). These contradictions viewed together lend support to the observations and suggestions that the contributions of the three variables vary across cases and contexts (Al-Shammari and Waleed, 2018) and that the relationship among the TPB variables should be empirically tested for each specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; 2002).

Only subjective norms differed between the exposure groups, confirming hypothesis H_{2c}, but not $H_{2a,\ b,\ \&\ d}$. The gender differences were insignificant in all four variables (H_{3a} – H_{3d} not supported). Career intentions, attitudes toward a career, and subjective norms differed significantly between skill levels, confirming hypotheses H_{4a}, H_{4b}, and H_{4c}, but not H_{4d}. They were all higher in NTA 6 than in NTA 5 students.

The career intentions, attitudes toward careers in the industry and perceived behavioural control differed significantly across programmes of study, confirming hypotheses H_{5a}, H_{5b}, and H_{5d}. Career intentions were significantly higher for students in the hospitality programme (relative to colleagues in the tour guide operations programme). Both these results and those of significant differences in the means scores of all TPB variable across skill-level, call for the need to re-examine the curricula content (and the associated learner support services) across the programmes. The review will help to ensure that both the curricula and learner support services enable the student to make informed career decisions irrespective of their level, or programme, of study. Consistent with the aforementioned interpretation, the attitudes of both hospitality and travel and tourism students toward a career in the industry were significantly higher than those of their colleagues in the tour guide operations group. In addition, the attitudes of the students in NTA 6 were also significantly higher than those of their colleagues in NTA Level 5.

On the other hand, subjective norms were significantly higher for NTA 6 as well as for those personally exposed to the industry. These two results suggest that skill level and personal exposure to the industry could be working together because the students in NTA 6 are highly likely to have engaged in internships. The skill level variable included students who had an opportunity to work in the industry before joining the programme. Therefore, skill-level and personal exposure results may signal the importance of having in place well-designed and well-supervised internship programmes. Such importance arises from the assumption that student's interaction with colleagues, people who matter in the industry, as well and the industry's environment and set up, will increase the pressure on them to see working in the industry as a good career option. This will, in turn, elevate their intentions to join the industry after graduation. Finally, the differences in the perceived behavioural control across programmes of study may indicate differences in the curricula's ability to impart knowledge and skills so that the students feel confident enough and able to see opportunities in the industry instead of seeing inabilities and barriers.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study extended the empirical knowledge on behavioural predictors of career intention literature in several ways. Firstly, it tested and added evidence from a frontier tourism market (Tanzania). Secondly, it engaged students in technical level programmes, rarely studied before, as opposed to the dominancy of university-level students (see for example Amani and Mkumbo, 2016 in Tanzania). The study, therefore, concludes that the TPB model applies in predicting career intentions of non-university level hospitality and tourism students, and in the Tanzanian context. Thirdly, the study extends the study by Anderson and Sanga's (2018) by offering support to the stakeholders' view in bridging the gap between academia and the hospitality and tourism industry. Both the academia and the industry should work together to ensure that the content of the curricula is relevant, up-to-date, and capable of fuelling student's positive intentions of joining the industry. These desires will be satisfied if the curricula are capable of building the right attitudes and providing skills, knowledge, emotions, and abilities. The satisfaction of the desires also requires the curricula to be capable of illuminating on the opportunities available in the industry. Personal exposure to the industry is also important but its value will be enhanced by cooperation between the stakeholders – instructors and on-the-field supervisors. These two players should work together to offer sufficient value-adding support to the students so that they see opportunities and responsibility from the eyes of their superiors and professionals in the industry. The resulting pressure will increase the students' intentions to join the industry. Student support services ought to be right and supportive of the acquisitions of these attributes by the students.

Technical education colleges should monitor closely their students' internship engagements in the industry to identify and mitigate the challenges they face. Then the colleges and the industry should work together to bridge any observed gaps by carefully considering the benefits and the challenges of the students' engagement experiences in the hospitality and tourism industry. The two parties should align these experiences with the curricula to better influence the professional lives of the current and future students so that they become potentially valuable players in the hospitality and tourism industry when they graduate and join it.

The two Ministries – Ministry of Education Science and Technology and Ministry of Natural Resources should work together to equip the training institutions with appropriate teaching and learning environment (physical, human and financial resources). They should also create a supportive environment for the private sector institutions to increase their investments, and subsequently, improve on their contribution to the training efforts. The regulators, - VETA, NACTE and TCU should also ensure that the curricula are appropriate, and the training institutions under their respective jurisdictions meet the minimum programme accreditation criteria. They should also play a supportive role to ensure that the curricula are frequently updated to meet the changing dynamics in the industry. Parents and other social groups have the responsibility of shaping their children's attitude towards the hospitality and tourism industry.

These contributions notwithstanding, the study's findings are limited in terms of their support to the theory of planned behaviour as well as generalizability. This study used the TPB to examine the behavioural predictors of hospitality and tourism students' career intentions focusing on its behavioural predictors. The consequences of behavioural intentions on the actual behaviour as well as that of perceived behavioural control and its interaction with behavioural intentions in predicting the actual behaviour were beyond the scope of this study. This makes it difficult to reflect the results on the entire or the revised TPB model. Furthermore, the analysis included students who were studying various aspects of hospitality and tourism programmes at diploma level from one college, excluding those who were studying at the same level in other colleges. It also excluded those who are studying similar programmes at university or vocational training levels. In these regards, therefore, any generalization of the results presented in this paper to students in hospitality and tourism students in Tanzania should be made with caution. Future research should consider a sample drawn from across levels and from other institutions, and consider the excluded parts of the TPB model. This approach will help coming up with a more generalized understanding of how these behavioural predictors affect the career choices of Tanzania's hospitality and tourism students. A longitudinal study assessing career intentions at the beginning and the end of the programme could help to capture the influence of the programmes' content, including internships and/or field trips, on the career intentions. Among the benefits of doing this extension will be to capture not only the impact of the curriculum but also the effect of behavioural intentions and perceived behavioural control (and the mediation thereof) on the actual behaviour.

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Sub Theme: Consumer Behavior, Quality of Service and Innovation

ASSESSING PRODUCTS PREFERENCE OF THE MILLENNIALS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TANZANIA

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Abstract

The paper assessed the millennials as a new market segment with a specific focus on Tanzania as a tourism destination. Millennials are persons who were born between the years 1980 and 2000. The study adopted a qualitative design approach with document analysis being the data collection method. Data was analyzed thematically. The major finding was that millennials prefer authentic and memorable experiences, they are highly knowledgeable, have strong digital skills, they are social media creatures and are permanently connected online, they are particular and question everything, they prefer leisure and recreational activities, they prefer hotel facilities with health oriented facilities like fitness centres and they practice volunteer tourism. In conclusion millennials are different, they think and act differently, and their travel choices and preferences are different from the generations before them. The paper recommends tourism stakeholders including hotels to adapt their service delivery systems to the preference of millennials to achieve best business performance. The implications for tourism stakeholders are that there is need for adoption of proactive marketing strategies as well as taking full advantage of the opportunities presented by millennials in the tourism industry in Tanzania.

Keywords: Millennials, Tourism industry, Generation, Marketing

INTRODUCTION

An overview of the Millennials

For decades' tourist destinations have focused on the baby boomers as an essential market for the tourism industry worldwide (Hamed, 2017). However, the focus has been shifted to a new generation of travellers known as "millennials". Millennials are persons born between the years 1980 and 2000 (Howe & Strauss, 2002; Hamed, 2017). The term 'millennials' was coined by Neil Howe and William Strauss in their book *Millennials Rising* (2002) who defined this generation as individuals born between 1980 and 1999. This generation forms the core customers for the tourism industry within the next fifty years as they are more interested in travelling abroad than their older counterparts and are expected to surpass them in their overall travel spending globally by the year 2020 (Barton, Haywood, Jhunjhunwala & Bhatia, 2013). This is an important market segment worth giving due attention as the millennials are already changing the face of the tourism industry. Millennials are forming perceptions and developing travel habits and preferences such that any destination that does not try to understand and provide for their unique needs will be left out (Barton et al., 2013; Machado, 2014).

In fact, Sahivaara (2015) pointed out that the hospitality industry is already facing constant changes mainly because of this segment and encourages tourism industry operators to reconsider their old service habits with regards to these new consumers who are highly affected by globalisation, individualism and personalisation (Machado, 2014; Mhlanga, 2018). Thus if the tourism industry wants to prepare for the future by designing future proof products and services it has to take this generation into account. Millennials think differently, act differently and most definitely travel differently (Deloitte, 2018) than any other generation before them. An understanding of the key differences in the way this millennials generation approaches travel is imperative in order to engage them with success in the tourism industry. Therefore this study assesses millennials as a tourism market segment in the tourism industry in Tanzania with the view to better equip operators with valuable information that can help in strategic marketing management for better business performance

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Statement of the Problem

The baby boomers and the traditionalists have been the key market segments for tourism destinations for several decades, providing the much needed clientele for the different tourism industry operators. However, the changing times have brought a new market segment called the millennials. Therefore, there is a need to have an in-depth understanding of this new market segment through assessing this new generation of customers for the good of the tourism industry. Without an in-depth understanding of the millennials a mismatch is likely to happen between what the tourism product suppliers offer and expect versus the needs and expectations of millennials as customers.

Study Objectives

The overall objective of this study was twofold; firstly, was to assess the choices and preferences of the millennials as a market segment in the tourism industry in Tanzania. Secondly was identifying the implications of millennials for Tanzania as a tourism destination.

Significance of the study

This study provides a profile of a new generation of customers called the millennials for the tourism industry. The profile attempts to unravel the unique characteristics of millennials as a market segment and their implications for operators in the tourism industry in Tanzania. The study helps to add knowledge on millennials for the benefit of industry practitioners, academics, students, the private and public sector for the growth and development of the tourism industry in Tanzania.

Literature Review

Who are the millennials? Every generation is unique in terms of its values, beliefs, attitudes and overall behaviour. A generation can be described as a group of persons identifiable by their year of birth, age, location and significant events that create their personality (Guha, 2010; Kim *et al.*, 2015). Major technological changes, wars, economic cycles and natural disasters are some of the events that play a key role in shaping the characteristics, that is, personalities, values and expectations of a certain generation (Hauw and Vos, 2010). Kaifi, Nafe &, Khanfar (2012) posited that three generations have dominated the market place, namely the Baby boomers, Generation X, and the Millennials. Baby boomers are persons born immediately after the World War 2, which is from 1945 to 1969. The generation X consists of persons born between 1970 and 1979 and the millennials are persons born between 1980 and 2000. Millennials are a generation reaching adulthood in the 21st century and are also known as Generation Y or the "Net" Generation (Tanner, 2010; Valentine & Powers, 2013; Gardiner *et al.*, 2015).

Moreover, Kaifi *et al* (2012) indicate that millennials are called by such a name because of being born close to the new millennium and being raised in a period of rapid changes in technological developments, more conveniently termed the digital age. Millennials display similar characteristics in general though there maybe some small variation from one individual to another. Millennials behaviour has been influenced by their families, technology and the uncertain economic and political times during their growing up (Tanner, 2010; Benardi, 2018). Millennials are considered to be sociable, optimistic, talented, well educated, collaborative, open minded, outgoing, influential, achievement orientated, they have high demand for latest technology, they are confident and feel needed and think they are indispensable, they like social media and have an intense appetite for information (Raines, 2002).

Millennials behaviour has been shaped more by technological advances to the extent that the internet has greatly shaped their world view; millennials are permanently connected online 24/7 with high school mates and friends made throughout the world (Tanner, 2010; Benardi, 2018; Robinson, 2019). In terms of communication, millennials now prefer cellphones to landlines and texting to talking (Holland, 2019). Millennials are better at multi - tasking, are quick to get bored and have very short attention spans (Deloitte, 2018; Holland, 2019). Millennials generation's behaviours, attitudes, values, beliefs and preferences are rubbing on to older generations such that the older baby boomer generation are adopting and exhibiting the traits of millennials, thus making it an important tourism market segment worth paying due consideration and attention.

Robison (2019) contend that millennials are not only relevant for their present impact on tourism per se but this segment is the tourist of the future. The millennial traveller already makes up over one third of the world's hotel guest, with predictions that they will reach over 50% by 2020 (Tanner, 2019). Furthermore, millennials are depicted as natural travellers with over 60% of them considering travel as a part of life making 4-5 trips per year and are expected to keep looking for tourism experiences as they grow older (Barton et al., 2013). Moreover, this market segment will gradually move upward through the population pyramid replacing the older generation, that is, the baby boomers and the generation X.

Millennials generational traits

According to Howe and Strauss (2003), there are several traits of the Millennial Generation considered not being shared by the other preceding three generations (Table 1 below)

Table 1: Millennial generational trait by Howe and Strauss (2003)

Special	Sense of entitlement; here to solve world's problems
Sheltered	Parents advocated for and spared them from unpleasant experiences
Confident	Motivated, goal oriented, optimistic
Team oriented	Tight-knit, group oriented rather than individualists. Egalitarian not hierarchical
Pressured	Tightly scheduled as children; struggle with own time management. Pressure to succeed.
Conventional	Respectful, civic minded, fear non-conforming. Support social rules; connected to parents.

Millennials in the tourism industry

The Boston Consulting Group (2012) and the Deloitte (2018) reports on millennials identified key trends that are worth noting for the tourism industry, which among them include;

Millennials are twice as likely to share travel photos on social media,

80% of millennials log on to social media on a daily basis,

57% of millennials update social media networks at least once a day when travelling,

9 out of 10 millennials own a personal electronic mobile device,

48% of millennials say word of mouth is more influential than TV adverts,

75% of millennials use travel apps in comparison to 47% of non millennials,

4 out of 5 of millennials' daily activities involve the use of technology,

40% of millennials would feel like 'part of me was missing' if they could not constantly check their Smartphone,

Millennials are very important to both the present and future of the tourism industry,

Millennials are influenced by peer power mainly via social media networks,

Social media networks are the holy grail of marketing for millennials,

Millennials have high expectations of service and they know what they want,

Millennials are impacting both leisure and business travel,

Millennials are basically digital natives

Research Methodology

The study adopted a qualitative design approach. Document analysis was the data collection method for the study. This data collection method involved searching, identifying, examining and analyzing academic, institutional and trade literature for purposes of profiling millennials as a new market segment for the tourism industry in Tanzania. The search for relevant scientific journal articles and other relevant documents was conducted on Google Scholar focusing on the field of tourism and hospitality industry management. The keywords which were used during search were 'millennials in the tourism industry in Tanzania', 'profiling the needs and wants of millennials in the tourism industry', 'millennials as employees and as tourists in Tanzania'. These keywords were used as they were considered relevant and commonly used in literature. This methodology was used following Veiga, Santos, Aguas and Santos (2017)'s study which adopted the same research design. Data was analyzed thematically following dominant themes. **Findings and Discussion**

Profile of millennials as a market segment / guests / customers in the tourism industry

The presentation below outlines the profile of millennials as guests, customers or clients in the tourism industry. These traits have far reaching implications for the tourism industry now and beyond and among them include;

Millennials are the now generation

Millennials are known as the 'now generation' (Lee, 2013) and demand immediate gratification and flexible service when travelling and during a hotel stay. They are obsessed with speed. Millennials are impatient and not loyal generally (Appel-Meulenbroek, Vosters, Kemperman, & Arentze, 2019). Millennials demand instant gratification, satisfaction, efficiency and convenience (Mhlanga, 2018). As a generation that has grown up with technology they expect to access information instantly thus their expectation is that hotels will provide comprehensive material on their websites. Failure to provide for this need by operators results in millennials getting such information on Google and other sites such as TripAdvisor from which the operators lack content control (Ibid). Millennials expect and demand speed, efficiency and convenience (Lenoir, 2013; Roth and Fishbin, 2014; Mhlanga, 2018). As an example they would prefer a fast food restaurant that allows them flexibility to move in and out quickly with desired product being fast, good food than table service (Lee, 2013). With the advent of twitter or other apps millennials can ask from hotel employees or "local experts" through their phones about best restaurants than spend time making a conversation with an individual.

Millennials need real time information

Millennials are digital savvies (Gardiner et al ,2013) known by their "always connected" obsession (Lee,2013).Technology is used during all the stages of the trip including the planning stage, checking out the best travel and hotel prices, bookings ,searching for reviews and interactive maps during their trip and finally documenting their travel experience through sharing opinions, photos and videos on social media (Gotardi *et al*., 2015;Gardiner *et al* ., 2013; Piriz,2015; Fung,2015; Kim *et al.* ,2015). With the advent of social media, millennials expect real time reporting and communication so that they feel well involved in the thick of things. Most millennials are persistent online auto- biographers who document their life experiences through social media focusing on unique content and authenticity (National Chamber Foundation, 2012; Travel Rave, 2013). Social media sites such as Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp and Instagram are an integral part and parcel of their lives. They have an overarching tendency to share their lives online via social media hence the need to upload evidence all the time (Lee, 2013).

Millennials are social creatures

Millennials are considered sociable online and offline (Mhlanga, 2018). In as much as they place less importance on face-to-face contact than prior generations, they have a strong desire to be actively social through telecommunication (Hamed, 2017). They are masters of social media (Mhlanga, 2018). The use of social media to bond with others also feeds into the "fear of missing out" where millennials feel the need to share their current location, activities and opinions with others and this becomes their method of interaction (Lee, 2013; Hamed, 2017; Mhlanga, 2018; Robinson, 2019). Social media enables them to validate the fun they are having by their peers' approval through a "like" on their Facebook status which gives them a much broader reach than previous generations who would have to make a phone call to a friend about a great hotel stay. Millennials are also considered sociable off line because they are influenced by their friends when it comes to travel and also enjoy travelling with others in organised groups even if they do not know them previously (Powers, 2013; Roth & Fishbin,2014; Sight, 2015).

Millennials are digital natives

Millennials grew up surrounded by technology and cannot relate to a time where internet and cell phones did not exist (Robinson, 2019). They are described as digital natives (Holland, 2019). Millennials grew up in the fastest and most complex era of technology (Byrne, 2007; Brusilow, 2008), as such they are called by so many names such as wizards of the web, techno-wizards, and media savvy and technologically savvy. This generation is unique in that they were raised with technology such as email, laptops, internet from the day they were born (Zemke *et al*., 2013). Mhlanga (2018:2) argues that millennials "are online customers, masters of social media and demand a hotel experience tailored to their needs" hence hotel referrals are made via online interactions. Their mobile devices are essential and an integral part of their travel experience. These tiny smart devices perform an array of activities from discovery, booking, mobile check ins, mobile check out, geo-locations, special discounts checks, payments and travel reviews (Machado,2014). As such brand websites content combined with mobile optimised web pages and apps are mandatory to enable the millennials to view the product on their mobile devices (Lee,2013). Millennials spend their lives online and rarely does a minute passes by without them checking on their mobile devices.

Millennials depend on peer review

Millennials are peer affirmation seekers who rely on online surveys (Deloitte, 2018; Robinson, 2019; Holland, 2019). Lee (2013) asserts that millennials grew up bombarded by advertising and are too sophisticated to be tricked by marketers hence they turn to their peers for "expert" opinion. As such they are more likely to research social media and review sites like Trip Advisor before booking a trip to certain destination or choosing a certain service (Kumar and Lim, 2008; Valentine and Powers, 2013, Shi, 2014, Fung 2015).

Millennials as business travellers

Millennials are predicted to spend more on business travel over the next five to ten years taking an average of four to five trips per year (Lee, 2013). Of particular note to the industry is that millennials tend to extend those business trips into personal vacations thus presenting hotels with an opportunity to earn more from their business (Chua, Chiu and Bool, 2019). On the other hand, millennials are social creatures who value group work and feedback, hence they prefer to work in the hotel lobby as compared to the older generation who expected room desks so that they can work from their rooms (Hamed, 2017).

Millennials require personalised, unique and meaningful experiences

Millennials are on the constant look out for authentic, personalised and meaningful travel experiences which provide a platform for learning new things (Mhlanga, 2018; Robinson, 2019). Millennials are very much enthusiastic and seeks the best hotel service possible (Hein, 2015). They are considered "curious learners" who are interested only in destinations that provide an opportunity for them to learn something new and integrate them into the local culture (Forest, 2014).They seek experiences that are interactive and help them understand the customs and traditions of the place and its local community (Holland, 2019; Machado, 2014; Amster, 2013).They also have a sense of adventure which manifest itself in their interest for exotic cultures, ethnic cuisines and novel activities in remote or off-the-beaten track places (Forest, 2014; Machado, 2014). Millennials prefer hotels that have a homely environment, with Wi-Fi connectivity, and they like to be involved and be part of the experience including a digital experience (Robinson, 2019; Mhlanga & Tichaawa, 2016 Hein, 2015).

Millennials travellers are activists

Millennials believe that the journeys they undertake are a way to promote social responsibility as such they do not want to just view new sites and local communities but rather they hope to contribute to the community and the world at large (Veiga, Santos, Aguas, Santos. (2017). Millennials practise volunteer tourism (Blumenfeld, 2019). They believe that their travel spending supports a cause to make the world a better place (Supanti & Butcher, 2019). During their travel, they are willing to engage in sustainable practices and care about environmental issues thus they prefer spaces that are eco- friendly and environmentally friendly too (Shi, 2014; Crown Verity, 2015; Supanti and Butcher, 2019).

Millennials are smart spenders

Millennials are considered smart spenders because they are value-conscious when it comes to spending which is driven by access to more information and services (Travel Rave, 2013; Roth & Fishbin, 2014; Mhlanga, 2018). Millennials are sensitive to price and want more for less. Millennials know what they want given their all-time exposure to information. They look for essentials in a hotel being a clean bed, hot water and free WI-FI (Lee, 2013; Hamed, 2017).They search for the "cool factor" and individualistic aspect in their travels and want a story to share when they go home or better share a photo on social media sites such as Facebook and Instagram (Crown Verity, 2015). To them if the property has no element of uniqueness then why stay there.

Millennials are last minute decision makers

Millennials are considered last minute decision makers and the trend is reinforced by their constant access to the internet via tablets and mobile phones (Robinson, 2019). They even book a tourist service once they have seen the deal on it (Forrest, 2014; Fung 2015; Kim et al., 2015). This implies that operators do need to reconfigure their booking systems to allow for last minute booking to serve millennials well.

Millennials are a diverse generation

According to Hobbs (2017), Watkins & Neil (2015) the millennial generation has been exposed to far more cultures, people, travel opportunities, information and goods compared to previous generations. This exposure has not only made them the most tolerant of diversity, but also the most likely to seek it especially in the workplace. Besides globalisation this generation is diverse in nature hence its openness to all cultures and tolerance to other races (Zemke et al., 2013). They have not been affected by stereotypes and prejudices as previous generations. Instead this cohort is very inclusive of others who are different from themselves (Bannon et al., 2011; Watkins & Neal, 2015). As a whole, millennials have a more global perspective than generations before them because of their access to technology throughout their entire lives and their ability to use it (Watkins & Neal, 2015). Millennials have developed world views without cultural boundaries that previous generations were unable to accomplish (Watkins & Neal, 2015). In short, this generation values diversity much more than previous generations (Bannon et al., 2011; Watkins & Neal, 2015).

Millennials implications to the tourism industry in Tanzania

Given that the millennials already make up more than one third of the world's total number of guests and are predicted to grow and reach over 50% in the next few years it is imperative for tourism operators to know what this segment is looking for when they travel so as to tailor make the brands to suit the needs of this tech-savvy generation. Tourism industry operators can adapt their offering based on the already discussed characteristics and adopt the following:

Quick or fast service

Millennials prefer fast to friendliness therefore tourism operators ought to make it easy for them to book on line and ensure that the web pages can be easily navigated using a mobile phone. For example, hotels can consider a check in kiosk in the hotel lobby rather than make them wait in line for a clerk at a desk. Provide them with offers that can be redeemed within the same day.

Ensure there is a platform for online bookings

Tourism operators need to have well-functioning online booking platforms. For example hoteliers need to use booking engines such Hotel booking .com, AirBnB to show their availability. It is mandatory to provide brand websites content combined with mobile-optimized webpages and apps given that many millennials will be viewing that material on various devices. Mobile websites and apps should be designed to provide the same quality of content, along with ease of navigation and booking based on its change in interaction.

Provide mobile websites

As the millennials are avid mobile users who are connected all the time it is imperative to have mobile friendly websites, enable mobile bookings and payments, convenient mobile charging stations and always provide free ,consistent and reliable access to fast internet.

Be sensitive to their budget

Given that millennials have less spending power in comparison with the older generation and cost plays an important role in their travel choices (Mhlanga, 2018), tourism operators need to appeal to their instinct for bargaining through price incentives, offer them basic instead of luxury accommodation, and extend free upgrades and amenities such as Wi-Fi and loyalty programs. Secondly millennials will only get involved in travel experiences that matter to them hence the need to sell travel services separately such as flight, hotel stay, tours or even use pay as you go systems where customers pay for extra services separately instead of selling as a package. Loyalty programs also work well with this group.

Connect with a cause

Be known for something which brings a change to the society for example have an inclination to the green theme or make your property eco-friendly and create a buzz about it. Given their preference for volunteer tourism activities and initiatives operators need to incorporate responsible tourism and corporate social responsibility. Operators need to measure their performance based on the sustainability triple bottom line of economy, society and environment.

Be unique but authentic

Accommodation providers need to deliver authentic local cultural experiences such as provision of information on local dining establishments, accommodation designed to highlight local unique features or organising events in partnership with local community and activity centres as these will enable the millennials to immerse them into the local culture. To provide a "cool factor" a hotel can consider provision of special amenities in their rooms on complimentary basis such as a local beer, local potato crisps or distinctive local artwork in each room.

Connect them with each other

As a generation that craves human interaction, tourism operators need to create gathering spaces, events or opportunities where they can mix and mingle with other guests. This can range from weekly themed nights, live music events, wine/beer/gin tasting as long as millennials are involved in the local culture, they will feel emotionally connected to the local community. A hotelier can also make them connect with others on social media by encouraging them to share their experiences of the hotel with others online. Social media sharing is the millennials' version of word-of-mouth advertising. Operators can also provide group promotions and services to allow for easier group or small event planning and booking via websites and social media.

Monitor your reputation on line

Given that millennials if unhappy with the experience or service provided by a hotel they are most likely to complain online. It is therefore imperative to monitor such sites like Trip Advisor and Yelp so as to acknowledge and encourage positive reviews while mitigating the damage from negative reviews. Operators need to take internet marketing seriously, even if it means employing digital tourism marketers so as to remain relevant and competitive. Millennials spend their time online and to capture their interest and attention, operators have to spend much time online.

When marketing to the millennials take note of the following

Be visible on social media platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram etc.

When talking to them keep the message informal and speak to them as a friend.

Interact with them; they do not like being talked to but they prefer to be engaged which can be done by asking them to highlight what they like about your property or that they would like to change.

When marketing to millennials inspire them than sell to them. Ensure that you sell the overall experience to them and how it will change their lives. Give them the spiritual satisfaction of travelling than pressing emphasis on the actual product. Emphasise on how the service can help create memories worth sharing with friends.

Keep the message consistent across the various devices that they use to access information despite the need to optimise the experience for different devices ensure the underlying message about your property remains consistent whether delivered via smartphone, tablet or on site at your property.

Make them loyal by finding out what rewards millennials appreciate and make these easy to earn, flexible and quick to redeem.

Encourage repeat business and long-time loyalty by providing consistent and quality experiences according to their terms not that of the hotel..

Conclusion

In conclusion millennials are different, they think and act differently, and their travel choices and preferences are different from the generations before them. The generation of millennials is here to stay; it is growing and has immense travel potential. In terms of their profile millennials are; the now generation, need real time information, are social digital natives, they depend on peer review, they are smart spenders, they need unique but authentic experiences, they are a diverse generation and they are last minute decision makers. Therefore, it is imperative that tourism operators acquaint themselves with these characteristics of this millennial generation so that they can adapt their products and services to the changing nature of the new generation. The maketiers have to be proactive and smart in utilizing all suitable social media platforms to reach this generation. Millennial profile implications to the tourism industry in Tanzania include; tourism operators to ensure fast service, create online booking platforms, be sensitive to their budgets, connect with a cause, and monitor your reputation online. Failure to create new or modify current concepts may result in a decrease in patronage as this generation does not fear to try new products and utilize new ways of bookings. For example, International brands such as Starwood and Marriott have introduced new brands in the form of MOXY hotels which have low price range, without sacrificing design and have all the necessary amenities such as free Wi-Fi, social lobby, self-check in, smart kiosk, and smart technology.

Recommendations

The paper recommends tourism industry operators including hotels to adapt their service delivery systems to the needs and wants of millennials to achieve superior business performance. The implications for tourism industry operators presented herein requires that there should be need for adoption of proactive and adaptive marketing management strategies as well as taking full advantage of the opportunities presented by millennials in the tourism industry in Tanzania. However, there is need for future research on how best the tourism industry may properly carter for this diverse generation..

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CONSUMER BEHAVIOR AMONG DOMESTIC TOURISTS: A CASE STUDY OF TRAVEL AGENCIES IN NAIROBI, KENYA.

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Abstract

*The Consumer behaviors is a combination of acts, attitudes and decisions made concerning the buying and consuming of the tourism products and services offered to tourists in destinations and post-buying reactions. Consumer behavior plays a key role in marketing activities and promoting tourism products and services in tourist destinations. The purpose of the study is to establish factors affecting consumer behavior among domestic tourists in travel agents in Nairobi, Kenya. Specifically, to determine the extent to which price, product and safety affects consumer behavior among domestic tourists in travelling agents. The research adopted descriptive design. The target population was 306 (Kenya Association of Travel Agencies, 2019) employees wereinvolved in travelling agencies with a sample size of 75 employees selected using Fisher, Laing &Stoeckel (1983) formula. The study used both systematic techniques and stratification methods from each stratum in sampling employees. Convenient method was used to select 35 travel agencies out of 114 (Kenya Association of Travel Agencies, 2019). The study used both primary and secondary data to collect data by use of questionnaire survey. Analyzing of qualitative data, the format in the thematic content analysis was used, while, quantitative data, descriptive and inferential statistics through the use of statistical packages for social sciences (SPSS), Chi-square (χ^2) and ANOVA tests were performed. Employees were asked to respond to a set of statements on the Likert scale of 5=strongly agreed to 1= strongly disagree and have enough knowledge about travel agencies. It's evident that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that product, price and safety influence a tourist in decision-making to consume a product. The result concluded that tourist behaviors is strongly influenced by price followed by product and safety as indicated by a Pearson correlation coefficient of .653**,.611** and .633**respectively. These relationships were found to be statistically significant as the significant value was less than 0.05 thresholds. Further research to be carried onindividual tourist's safety in destination areas, especially this era of security challenges facing Kenya and the horn of East Africa from Al-Shabaab. The study will benefit travel agents and tourism stakeholders since the sector continues to be one of the largest industries in the world.*

Keywords: Consumer Behavior; Price; Product; Safety; Tourists.

INTRODUCTION

Tourism is recognized as one of the key sectors of development in all countries and a major source of income jobs and wealth creation (Mossberg, 2007). Tourism included activities where people travel to and stay in locations outside their usual surrounding for a period of not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes (WTO, 2012). Choices made by tourists are changeable due to the economic conditions in their countries of origin and perception of status associated with destination (Williams & Hall, 2000). Tourism industry players have adopted the use of marketing strategies as a remedy to inter country competition for foreign customers whereby advertisement targeting Domestic tourist is the order of the day (Baum, 2006).The Tourism Act of 2011 in Kenya, prescribes the marketing and promotion of niche tourism services and products, when appropriately implemented will boost Domestic tourism performance. Marketing communication channels that are commonly used in the tourism industry are advertising, personal selling, sales promotion, direct marketing, public relations and trade shows (Kotler, 2009). Consumer behavior plays a key role for all marketing activities which have the main use of promoting and selling tourism products by involving certain decisions, activities, ideas or experiences that satisfy the consumer needs and wants (Solomon, 2006).The tourism consumer buying behaviors is the combination of acts, attitudes and decisions concerned with choosing, buying and consuming any of the tourism products, services and its post consuming reactions (Christopher, 2004).

The consumer knows and identifies a certain brand by the image that exists in his or her mind. In the United Kingdom, Gilbert (2002), uncovered that it is important to uncover the characteristics of tourism as a product since they have an implication for the nature of consumer behavior. Mihai (2010), analyzed consumer buying behavior in Africa and determined that the consumption of tourism products depends on discretionary time and income. Consumers are influenced in their decision making processes by many internal and external motivators and determinants when they choose products. They may be affected in different ways, according to the type of product or service that they are purchasing (Horner, 2007).

Statement of the Problem

The research studies of destination choice have analyzed personal values to determine the reason why consumers choose a particular destination. Several studies have been conducted on consumer buying behavior. Despite such studies, no comprehensive study has been done in Kenya concerning the consumer behavior among Domestic tourist in the travel agency industry. According to Muller (2001), stated that he has developed profiles for various section in an international tourism market in order to demonstrate the usefulness of profiling visitor segments in such a way that the importance of various tourism destination criteria could be attributed to specific value orientations.

Cohen, Prayag and Moital (2014), investigated Consumer behavior in tourism in the UK and established that social media has developed into one of the most important influences on tourism consumer buying behavior. Although Kenya has a marketing strategy to market tourism worldwide, it needs to profile the tourists who visits the country so that particular destination for a product to tourist. Palani and Sohrabi (2013), conducted a study on consumer attitudes and behavior when selecting a holiday destination on Finnish tourists on Kurdistan. The study established that the main reason behind the travels of tourists is to experience a change of climate and to have time to relax with family, friends and relatives.

LocalyBindu (2013), looked at the attitudes and buying behavior of air travelers in contributing to a sustainable environment in Dubai. Jones and Manyara (2007), looked at tourism in Kenya faces many challenges such as unsystematic tourism planning, lack of tourism awareness, insecurity, bad publicity from other countries and narrow range of tourism products. Not many Kenyans travel for the purposes of consuming the traditional tourism products and services paid for such as accommodation, tour buses or visit tourist attractions. From the studies above majority of them have been conducted globally and regionally it is evident that there are few known studies linking consumer behavior among Domestic tourists in Kenya. This study seeks to fill the gap by establishing the factors influencing consumer behavior among Domestic tourists in Kenya.

Objectives of the Study

To establish Consumer Behavior Among Domestic tourists, a Study of Travel Agencies in Nairobi, Kenya. The Specific Objectives of the study is to determine the extent to which price, product and safety affects consumer behavior among Domestic tourists, travelling agents in Nairobi, Kenya.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theoretical review - The Pavlovian Learning Model

The well-known Pavlovian theory of 1927, learning has its origin in the experiments of the Russian psychologist, Pavlov, who conducted his experiments by ringing a bell each time before feeding a dog. Pavlov soon discovered that he could induce the dog to salivate by ringing the bell regardless of whether or not food was offered to the dog. From this experiment, Pavlov could conclude that learning occurred due to a process of association and that a large component of human behavior was conditioned in this way. Experimental psychologists, focusing on rats and other animals and eventually human beings, continued Pavlov's mode of research. The objective of laboratory experiments was to explore phenomena such as learning, forgetting and the ability to discriminate. The result of the research led to a stimulus-response model of human behavior, based on four central concepts, namely drive, cue, response and reinforcement. Before briefly discussing these concepts, it should be mentioned that O'Shaughnessy (2002), explains that according to Pavlovian theory, also called classical conditioning, there has to be a connection between some stimulus and a true reflex.

A visitor to be accustomed to a product in a destination, the above theory has to be applied, for instance, when marketing a product, there must be a continues reinforcement and act on the responses of the visitor's needs and wants for further improvement of the product.

Consumer behaviour and decision-making in tourism destination

Several studies have been conducted on consumer buying behavior, internationally, Palani and Sohrabi (2013), conducted a study on consumer attitudes and behavior when selecting a holiday destination on Finnish tourists on Kurdistan. The study established that the main reason behind the travels of tourists is to experience a change of climate and to have time to relax with family, friends and relatives. Other elements that attract the tourist and modify their travel are uniqueness, authenticity, sustainability, as well as wellness. In Africa, a similar scenario was found in South Africa where holiday taking was not universal among the adult population (Bresler,2011). However, unlike Australia where Domestic tourism dominated most of the tourism activities. Bindu(2013), looked at the attitudes and buying behavior of air travelers in contributing to a sustainable environment in in Kenya. Although, tourism in Kenya faces many challenges such as unsystematic tourism planning, lack of tourism awareness, insecurity, bad publicity from other countries and narrow range of tourism products (Jones &Manyara, 2007). Not many Kenyans travel for the purposes of consuming the traditional tourism products and services paid for such as accommodation, tour busses or visit tourist attractions.

A consumer's attitude, decisions, activities, ideas or experiences in purchasing, evaluating and searching of products/ services that satisfy the needs of a tourist is described as the consumer behavior (Schiffman et al., 2012). According to Kotler et al. (2006), consumer purchasing processes influenced by social, cultural, personal, and psychological factors, despite, such factors cannot be controlled by marketers, they should be considered, in identifying the products/ services the tourist needs as an individual. Tourists with a high level of satisfaction may recommend a certain destination to friends, visit again and leave positive feedback about the experience. However, dissatisfied tourists, apart from being displeased with the choice will not recommend a destination or a product to others but may also criticise it (Chen and Chen, 2010).

In reference to Rothfield (2006), a touristic a rational decision maker who tries to balance between utility, cost and benefits before choosing a destination.

Factors Influencing Consumer Behaviour

Price

Price pertains to the amount of money that is charged for acquiring and using a product/service while, Markgraf (2015), argues that the price charged should match the product/service. Price determines the competitiveness of a destination compared with other destinations and includes transportation cost to and from a destination, accommodation, food, attractions and other service costs. The pricing mix is composed of the actual price that the firm charges, including volume discounts and discounted price for multiple bundles of products as well as pricing strategies such as sale of packages plans combination of meals, room and relational facilities, non-peak period season sales, group business and longer stays (Devashish, 2011).Price is a crucial aspect of the tourism mix and when prices of tour destinations change there is a negative influence on demand for tour products and services leading to lower demand. Price and quality interact to produce the perceived value for money and this concept is usually subjectively measured by tourists (Nyagaka, 2009).

Median (2007), reckons that when setting prices, the psychology of prices is very important in determining a person’s price value relationship. Immermans(2016), identifies the income of the tourists and pricing of the product as the most dominant determinants of demand in tourism. Oyewole (2016), agrees that a rise in income would usually translate into changed spending by a consumer. Other schools of thought have recognized the existence of limitations in the use of individual consumer characteristics to explain variation in buyer behavior. However, Domestic tourism among wealthy Kenyans take advantage of price discounts during low seasons to stay at the beach resorts whereas those who cannot afford overnight trips opt to visit parks as excursionist or day trippers. According to Nyagaka (2009),the growth of tourism around the world, managers of tourist destinations are obliged to continuously fine tune their promotional mix and advertising strategies. The aim of the promotion and marketing is to ensure maximum effectiveness of promotional so that to reinforce and enhance the tourism firms in Domestic tourist destination.

The major trends in tourism worldwide have been examined and it is noted that marketing communications tools can be useful in the introduction of new products as well as creation of awareness regarding the many tourist sites that would be attractive and add a diversification angle to the traditional safari and beach products that are well known in Kenya (Karoki, 2011). The use of tour operators and travel agents are the two well-known intermediaries in the tourism industry that help distribute information about tourist destination. Rodriguez (2013) pointed that distribution of tourism products and services is more associated with where information about the products and services distributed such as in trade shows, web pages, resellers, direct mail tourist destination to the tourists and it involves travel by clients to access the products because of the nature of tourism services.

This element of marketing mix is like a vehicle for the other elements of marketing (product, price and promotion). The channel accomplishes all the tasks necessary to influence sale and to deliver products to the consumer (Kotler, 2009). The concept of marketing is not limited to physical distribution of, thus it is considered when moving a service from the supplier to the consumer in certain sectors this may be direct or indirect (Weeden, 2011).

According to Fratu (2011), “Age is an effective discriminator of consumer behavior. For example, young people have very different tastes as regards to products or services, as compared to old people.”

Young people are also likely to spend more compared to older people. Preferences have also been shown to change with age and people at different age groups, who would prefer to participate in certain activities (Palani and Sohrabi, 2013). Younger people are likely to be more interested in adventure and wildlife tourism compared to their older counterparts. However, the study by Gregoire (2003), suggests that studies done on the two approaches mostly focus on the chronological order of age thus ignoring other variables such as cognitive age, which also have an impact on consumer behavior.

Lusch, (2004), define consumer behavior as the actions a person takes towards purchasing, and using products and services, including the decision-making process that precedes and determines the actions. For a tourism marketer to influence a consumers' action, is to understand the underlying process of decision making of the tourist. The process of decision making is not standard in nature and varies across different ages, regions, cultures, etc. of a prospective tourist .

Product

According to Goi (2009), a product is what a travellingcompany offers whether tangible like a mobile phone or service like accommodationto satisfy a market. The product should be positioned for better quality and price, also product range, design, warranties or a brands name. Kotler (2009), categorizes four types of products; formal products that are physical items and are bought by the consumers for their own benefit, core products are associated with using formal products and is actually what the customer is buying from the suppliers. Augmented products refer to the totality of benefits that the consumer receives from the formal product for example time saved or quick access to information and the system products that refer to the expansion of the augmented product. According to Florence (2015) players in the tourism and hospitality industry should portray good images of tourist destinations, develop tourism products and services of value, and offer unforgettable experiences. While, psychological factors provide a base through which destination marketers can use to segment and target the Domestic tourism market with the right product offerings using the right target market strategies (Florence, 2015).

Jackie (2001), argued that product decisions not only influence the marketing mix, but also have an impact on an organization's long-term growth strategy, human resources, and investment policies.

Safety

In the post-9/11 New York Bomb by terrorized, environment safety and security have resurfaced as major topics of interest in human life. While some cross-cultural differences exist in customer perceptions of airline service (Kim and Prideaux, 2003). Gilbert and Wong (2003), show that assurance, including safety concerns, is the most crucial service quality dimension among international travelers. Safety is one of the people's intrinsic motivations, to understand tourists' perceptions towards crime is critical for marketing a destination. George (2003), for example, examined tourist perceptions of safety while visiting Cape Town, a representative of destinations with an unsafe image. Observing food safety issues, Reynolds and Balinbin, (2003),showed that educating consumers about Mad Cow disease positively, influences customers perceptions about beef as a safe choice.

The aging population is a major demographic shift in today's world, many hospitality researchers have turned their attention to this growing market segment. The economic and socio-demographic factors suggest that the demand for full-service restaurants is changing due to elderly people. In terms of advertising, hospitality and tourism marketers need to understand how behavioral scripting in Television advertisements influences older consumers' perceptions of hospitality products and services (Peterson and Sautter, 2003).

Tourism Travel Agencies

The travel agency industry has been quite varied, and has changed considerably over the years. It's very interesting to see how travel agencies have evolved over the years - with the very first modern travel agency appearing in the 19th century. Thomas Cook was the first to create a travel agency as well as to establish a package tour holiday, this was a huge development and milestone for travel and Cook. From the 19th century, Thomas Cook agencies have been popular and more and more agencies have been popping up all across the globe. According to the KATA,(2019), there are over 167 Travel Agencies registered in Kenya. KATA is the largest and only membership organization for travel agents in Kenya and is a member of the Universal Federation of Travel Agents' Association (UFTAA) which represents 84 countries. KATA hosts the Secretariat of the Association of Eastern and Southern African Travel Agents (AESATA).Bunson Travel Service AgencyCompany was established in 1948 as the first ever travel agency in Kenya and East Africa. In 1950 the first Travel Agency was licensed by the International Air Transport Association (IATA) in East Africa.

Products/services offered by travel agencies to tourists

The travel agencies offer various services/products to tourists, namely; air travel,car rental services, hotel and lodge bookings, tailor made local and international safaris, tourists transfers, organizing meetings, conferences and seminar facilities, visa handling services for some countries, travel medical insurance and Hajj ad Umrah Packages, shopping tours, educational trips and sports tours, specialization in standard and luxury holidays, weddings, honeymoon holidays and safaris and ecological tours. Examples of travel agencies in Kenya; Speed bird Travel and Safaris Limited, Bunson Travel Service, African Dew Tours & Travel and Africa Tropical Safaris, (Appendix 1),

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Study Design

The researcher used descriptive research design. Descriptive research design is qualitative, whose main purpose is to describe the status of affairs as it exists in the variable (Mugenda&Mugenda, 2000). The design was preferred as to allow clear definition of the variables thereby making it possible to obtain the complete and accurate information from the study.

Target Population

According to Jha (2010), a research population is generally a large collection of individuals or objects that is the main focus of study. In Nairobi County, there are 114 travel agencies registered (KATO, 2019).According to KATO (2019) there are a total of 306 employees as the target population and were distributed accordingly (Table 1).Nairobi has the largest travel agencies registered in Kenya than any other Counties (KATO, 2019)….

Table 1: List of Travel Agencies Selected, Nairobi County.

Travel agencies	**TP**	**SS**	**Travel agencies**	**TP**	**SS**
Acacia Safaris (K) Ltd	7	2	Premier Safaris (K) Limited	10	3
Africa Tropical Safaris	9	3	Raydoll Tours and Travel Ltd	11	4
Afrique Explorer Limited	8	2	Rickshaw Travels (K) Ltd	10	3
Archers Tours and Travels Ltd	10	3	Scott Travel Group Ltd	7	2
Bright Travel Agency	8	2	Somak Flights ltd	14	5
Bushtrek Safaris Ltd	12	4	Southern Travel Services Ltd	12	4
Crown Tours and Car Hire Ltd	12	4	Star Travel and Tours Ltd	5	1
Empire Afrika International Ltd	9	3	The Ticket Company Ltd	7	2
Fly Air Ltd	9	3	Timeless Tours and Travels Ltd	8	2
Georgetown Travel and Tours Ltd	5	1	Tour Africa Safaris Ltd	12	4
Grand Edition Tours and Travel	8	2	Travel Affairs Ltd	9	3

Imperial Air Travel Ltd	6	1	Travelmart limited	8	2
Kambo Travel Agency Ltd	11	4	Travelwise Kenya Ltd	6	1
Klass Travel and Tours Ltd	7	2	Vanessa Air Travel and Tours Ltd	7	2
Magical Holidays Limited	7	2	Wild Trek Safaris Ltd	6	1
Maniago Travel and Cruises Ltd	6	1	Yuanda Africa Tours and Travel Ltd	7	2
Msafiri Africa Travel and Safaris Ltd	8	2	Zakale Expeditions Ltd	7	2
Phoenix Safaris (K) Ltd	5	1			
TOTAL				306	75

Source: research Data (2019) Note: TP=Target Population; SS=Sample Size

Sample Size and Procedure

The sample size was determined based on a formula advanced by Fisher, Laing &Stoeckel (1983). Out of the target population of 306 employees (KATO,2019) involved in travelling agency, sample size of 75 employees were selected as shown below. The study used both systematic techniques and stratification methods from each stratum in sampling employees. Convenient method was used to select 35 travel agencies out of 114 (KATO, 2019) in Nairobi (Table I).

The formula (Fisher, Laing & Stoeckel,1983).

n=N/(1+N(E^2)

Where:

n = the desired sample size

N=Population

e= the standard normal deviation at the required confidence level

Hence: n=306/ (1+306(0.21^2) = 75

The sample size was distributed proportionally (Table 1).

Data Collection Methods

The researcher used questionnaires to collect primary data. Questionnaire consists of a number of questions typed and printed in adequate order or form. The questions were open and closed ended. The open ended questions provided relevant explanation by the respondents and total freedom for the respondents, while, closed ended questions provides a list of all possible alternatives for the respondents to choose the best from and also, required the respondents to give “Yes” or “No” for answers. The researcher personally administered the questionnaires for the primary data collection.

Data Analysis Methods

It involved assessing and evaluating the questionnaires and other sources of both primary and secondary data. The data was analyzed using qualitative and quantitative techniques. Qualitative method involved content analysis and evaluation of text material. Quantitative method involved the use of statistical measures such as frequencies and percentages and presented by the use of diagrams such as tables and figures. SPSS was used to analyze the information collected.

DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Response Rate

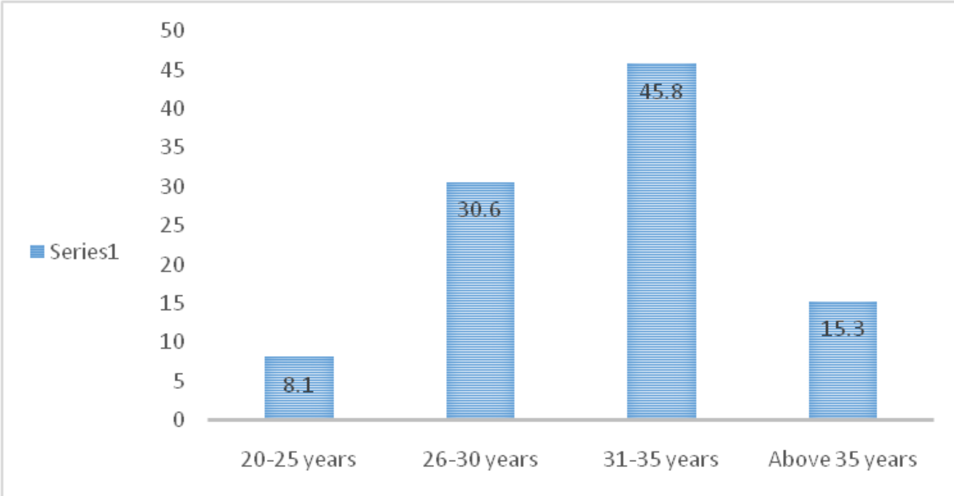
The study targeted a sample size of 75 participants out of which 48 were well filled and consequently used for data analysis, which yielded a response rate of 64%. According toCooper and Schindler (2003), argues that a response rate exceeding 30% thatis enough data to be used in generalizing the characteristics of a study population.

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Gender and age of the Participants

The study established that there were more male participants (54.0%) than female participants (48%). The variation in gender was insignificant ($\chi2=3.4105$, df = 2, p = 0.0105).The study sought to determine the age categories of the participants, majority (45.8%) were aged between 31 and 35 years followed by those aged between 26 and 30 years respectively. 8.1% were aged between 20 and 25 years and this differed insignificantly between age brackets ($\chi2=7.676$, df = 1, p = 0.005). The findings imply that majority of participants are relatively young in age.

Figure I: Age of the Participants

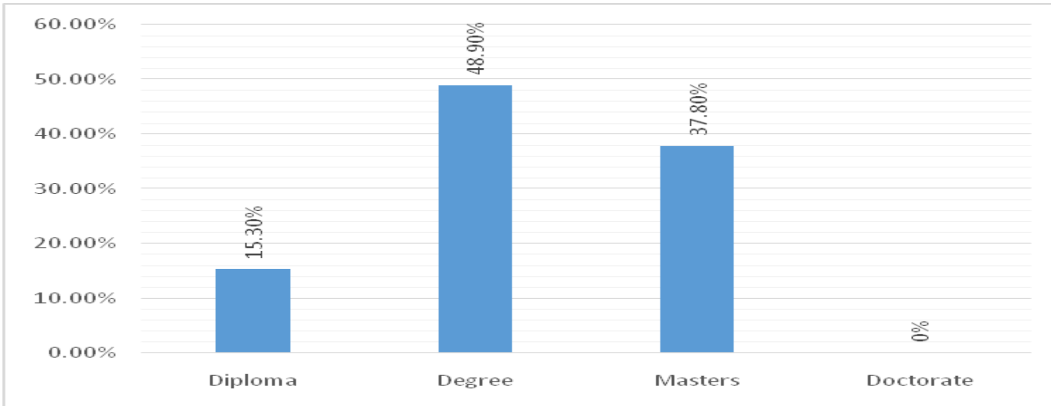


Source: Research data (2019)

Education Level of the Participants

From the study findings, it was established that majority of the participants attained degree level of education (48.9%) as shown in Table 2. This was followed by those who had attained masters' level of education (37.8%) and diploma at 15.3% respectively and that this significantly differed with the participants interviewed ($\chi 2$=8.063, df = 1, p = 0.003). The findings implying that the majority of the participants were well educated to understand and answer the research questions appropriately. According to Murphy and Myors (2004), the level of education determines the participants' ability to understand and answer survey questions

Figure 2: Education Levels of the Participants

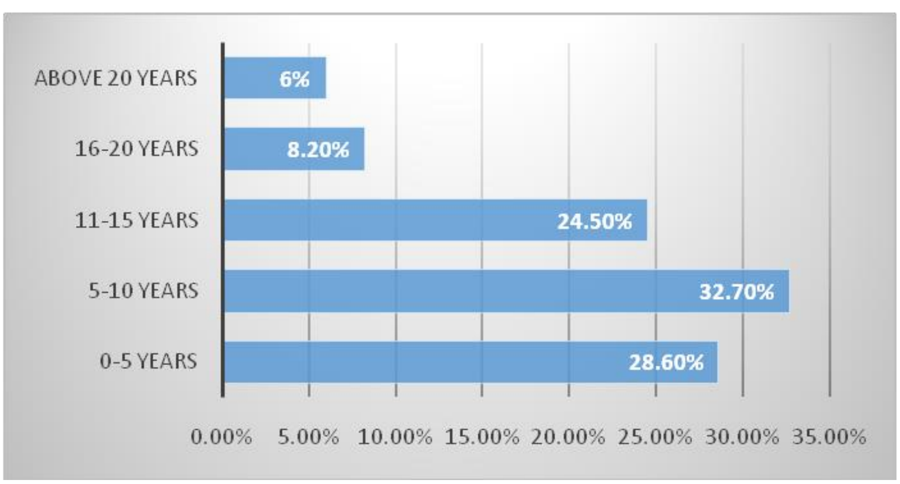


Source: Research data (2019)

Working Experience in the Tourism Industry

The participants were asked to indicate their working experience in the tourism sector as shown in Table 5. The study established that majority (32.7%) of the participants had worked for between 5 to 10 years followed by those who had worked for between 0 and 5 years (28.6%). Those who had worked for over 20 years were the least (6%) and thisdiffered significantly with the participants interviewed ($\chi 2=5.073$, df = 1, p = 0.003). This implies that majority of the participants had sufficient experience in the tourism industry to effectively and sufficiently provide the information sought by the study.

Figure 3: Working Experience in the Tourism Industry



Source: Research data (2019)

Descriptive Analysis

Descriptive analysis summarizes data regarding product, price, and safety and consumer behavior in tourism destination.

Effects of product in tourism destinationThis section provides an analysis of extend to the effects of product in tourism destination among Domestic tourists. The participants were asked to respond to a set of statements on a five point Likert scale, as shown in Table 2It revealed that the most effect of product in tourism destination were those Tourists who choose their products based on packaging design, with a mean score for response of 4.23. and Std. Deviation of 0.439. The least effect of product in tourism destination were made by those tourists who consider appropriate price product range in their decisions, mean score of 3.15 and Std. Deviation of 1.068.

Table 2: Effects of product in tourism destination

	Statements on Interest rates	N	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
1.	Tourist chooses their products based on packaging design.	48	1	5	4.23	0.439
2.	Tourist considers appropriate price product range in their decisions.	48	1	5	3.15	1.068
3.	Tourist make decisions based on the branding of the product	48	1	5	3.85	0.689
4.	Tourist make decisions based on the branding of the product	48	1	5	3.85	1.345

Source: Research data (2019)

Effect of pricing in tourism destination

This section provides the results on extend to which effects of pricing in tourism destination affects consumer behavior among Domestic tourists. From the findings in Table 3, The statement was made by Tourists who have the willingness to pay more for bed and breakfast in choosing a product, had a mean score of 4.69 and standard deviation of 0.480. the least effect of pricing in tourism destination were made by Tourist who consider price product range, in choosing a product, mean score of 3.77 and standard deviation of 0.832.

Table 3: Effect of pricing in tourism destination

	Effect of pricing	**N**	**Min**	**Max**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**
1.	Tourist consider the overall pricing in making decisions	48	1	5	4.38	0.506
2.	Tourist consider price discounts in choosing a product	48	2	5	4.62	0.576
3.	Tourist consider price product range, in choosing a product	48	1	5	3.77	0.832
4.	Tourists have the willingness to pay more for bed and breakfast.	48	2	5	4.69	0.480

Source: Research data (2019)

Effect of safety in tourism destination

This section provides the results on the effect of safety in tourism destination, consumer behavior among Domestic tourists (Table 4). The statement shows, Tourists considered perceived crime, was critical for destination choice. Mean score of 4.31 and standard deviation of 0.751. The least effect safety in tourism destination were those tourists who consider culture and geographic location in destination choice with mean score of 3.23 and standard deviation of 1.481.

Table 4: Effect of safety in tourism destination

	Effect of safety	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Tourist consider Political stability in choosing a destination	48	1	5	3.77	1.301
2.	Tourist consider assurance of safety concerns	48	1	5	3.92	0.954
3.	Tourist consider perceived crime critical for destination choice.	48	1	5	4.31	0.751
4.	Tourist consider food safety issues in destination choice	48	1	5	3.62	0.870
5.	Tourist consider Culture and geographic location in destination choice	48	1	5	3.23	1.481

Source: Research data (2019)

Consumer Behaviour among Domestic Tourists

This section seeks to establish the consumer behavior among Domestic tourists (Table 5). The result show that most Consumer Behavior among Domestic Tourists were made by those tourists that travel stimuli influences tourist decision, mean score of 4.31 with standard deviation of 0.751. The least were made by the type of loan that determines the size of loan to be given, mean score of 3.15 and standard deviation of 1.345.

Table 5: Consumer Behaviour Among Domestic Tourists

	Consumer Behavior	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Deviation
1.	Impulse purchase is influenced by low price	48	1	5	3.77	1.301
2.	Income is a key determinant.	48	1	5	3.92	0.954
3.	Travel stimuli influences tourist decisions	48	1	5	4.31	0.751
4.	Product condition affect tourist choice.	48	1	5	3.62	0.870
5.	Political stability influence tourist decisions	48	1	5	3.23	1.481
6.	The type of loan determines the size of loan to be given.	48	1	5	3.15	1.345

Source: Research data (2019)

Inferential Statistics

Correlation Analysis

The researcher conducted a Correlation analysis to investigate the existence and nature of relationship between Product, Pricing safety and consumer behavior among Domestic tourists (Table 6).The correlation results indicate that there is a positive relationship between Tourist Behavior and Product as indicated by a Pearson correlation coefficient of .653**, This relationship was found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Moreover, a Pearson correlation coefficient of $.611^{**}$ and $.633^{**}$indicate a strong and positive relationship between Tourist Behavior and both Pricing and safety respectively, this relationship was found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05. Moreover, the relationship between on Tourist Behavior is indicated by a Pearson correlation coefficient of $.651^{**}$. This relationship was found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05.

Table 6: A Summary of the Findings

		Tourist Behaviour	Product	Pricing	Safety
Tourist Behaviour	Pearson Correlation	1	.653**	.611**	.633**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.000	0.001	0.000
	N	48	48	48	48
Product	Pearson Correlation	.653**	1	.422**	.452**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	-	0.000	0.003
	N	48	48	48	48
Pricing	Pearson Correlation	.611**	.422**	1	.543**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	0.001	-	0.000
	N	48	48	48	48
Safety	Pearson Correlation	633**	.452**	.543**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	0.003	.000	-
	N	48	48	48	48

Source: Research Data (2019)

Regression Analysis

To establish the individual effect of independent on the dependent variable the study conducted a regression analysis. The results are summarized in tables 4.10, 4.12 and 4.13. The coefficient Table 7, shows the constants and coefficients of the regression equation.

Table 7: Coefficients

Coefficients						
Model		**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**	**T**	**Sig.**
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	0.176	.167	-	-1.515	.009
	Product (X1)	.348	.077	.251	6.482	.000
	Pricing (X2)	.414	.059	.178	5.116	.000
	Safety (X3)	.305	.063	.202	3.227	.003

Source: Research data (2019)

From Table 7, the study established the following regression equation.

Y= 0.176 + 0.348X1 + 0.414X2 + 0.305X3 +.12948

Holding other factors constant then Tourist Behavior would be 0.176. A unit change in Product results to a 0.348 unit change in Tourist Behavior, holding other factors constant. A unit change in Pricing leads to a 0.414 change in Tourist Behavior, a unit change in safety results in a 0.305unit change in Tourist Behavior. Table 3 also indicates that the all the predictors are statistically significant at $\alpha=0.05$ since p values are less than 0.05(Product (p=0.00), Pricing (p=0.00), safety (p=0.03)

Model Summary

The model summary Table 8, indicates an R2 of 0.677. This implies that 67.7% of the variations in the dependent variable Y are explained by the variations in the independent variables X1, X2,and X3. This means that they can be used to predict Tourist Behavior, and therefore a multiple regression model is an efficient predictor. The model summary is presented in the table below.

Table 8: Model Summary

Model Summary				
Model	**R**	**R Square**	**Adjusted R Square**	**Std. Error of the Estimate**
1	.823[a]	.677	.901	.12948
a. Predictors: (Constant), Product, Pricing and safety				

Source: Research data (2019)

ANOVA

The study further tested the significance of the model by use of Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) technique. The finding from the ANOVA statics in Table 9, showed a significance level of 0.2% which means that the information was perfect for making a conclusion on the populace parameters as the estimation of significance level (p-value) was under 5%. The ANOVA Table 9 reports an F test value of 83.333 which is significant at p value 0.002<0.05. This is an indication that Product, Pricing, and Safety have a significant effect on Tourist Behavior. The significance value was less than 0.05 indicating that the model was significant.

Table 9: ANOVA

ANOVA[a]						
Model		**Sum of Squares**	**Df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
1	Regression	8.8496	3	2.9298	83.333	.002[b]
	Residual	15.9300	45	.0354		
	Total	24.7796	48			
a. Dependent Variable: Tourist Behavior						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Product, Pricing, and safety						

Source: Research data (2019).

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

The findings indicate that the study had a good response rate at 64% which is considered a good response which indicates the respondents had enough knowledge to understand and respond to the questions. descriptive analysis was used to summarize data regarding product, price and safety and Consumer Behavior in tourism destination. Its evident that majority of the respondents strongly agreed that product, price and safety influence a tourist decision to consume a product/service. The researcher conducted a Correlation analysis to investigate the existence and nature of relationship between Product, Pricing, Safety and Consumer Behavior among Domestic tourists. The correlation results indicate that there is a positive relationship between Tourist Behavior and Product, Price and Safety as indicated by a Pearson Correlation coefficient of .653**,.611** and .633**This relationship were found to be statistically significant as the significant value was 0.000 which is less than 0.05threshold.

The study established the following regression equation

Y= 0.176 + 0.348X1 + 0.414X2 + 0.305X3 +.10948

Holding other factors constant then firm Tourist Behavior would be 0.176. A unit change in Product results to a 0.348 unit change in Tourist Behavior, holding other factors constant. A unit change in Pricing leads to a 0.414 change in Tourist Behavior, a unit change in safety results in a 0.305unit change in Tourist Behavior. Table 3 also indicates that the all the predictors are statistically significant at $\alpha=0.05$ since p values are less than 0.05(Product (p=0.00), Pricing (p=0.00), safety (p=0.03). The ANOVA Table 6 reports an F test value of 83.333 which is significant at p value 0.002<0.05. This is an indication that Product, Pricing, and Safety have a significant effect on Tourist Behavior. The significance value was less than 0.05 indicating that the model was significant.

Price is a crucial aspect of the tourism mix and when prices of tour destinations change there is a negative influence on demand for tour products and services leading to lower demand. To stay competitive, the tourism product must be perceived as of a quality similar or better to that of other competitors and its price must be perceived as attractive. Thus, the information on tourist’s perception of prices and quality and on the role price plays in tourist purchasing behavior is of the utmost importance. Price and quality interact to produce the perceived value for money and this concept is usually subjectively measured by tourists. This study concurs with the basic theory of consumer behavior theory which suggests that consumers make product choice decisions based on the images they form of different brands. The consumer knows and identifies a certain brand by the image that exists in his or her mind. It has been uncovered that it is important to uncover the characteristics of tourism as a product as they have an implication for the nature of consumer behavior. Overseas consumer buying behaviors is influenced by motivation, holiday preference criteria and destination choice.

Um and Crompton (2010), focus on the role of attitudes indecision making further elaborating that interaction between constraints and image are integral for destination choice. They explain that awareness of the tourism product will cause that product to be chosen over other products and thereby influence choice sets. Emotional and cognitive factors were considered to have an impact on actual choices. Most consumer behavior models of tourism have emphasized upon the assumption of sequential rational decision making wherein the consumer decisions are assumed to follow an order of action from attitude to intention to behavior.

Safety concerns, is another crucial service quality dimension among local and international travelers, since safety is one of people's intrinsic motivations, understanding tourists' perceptions of crime is critical for destination marketing. This study agrees with George (2003), who examined tourist perceptions on safety while visiting Cape Town, a representative of destinations with an unsafe image. Looking at food safety issues and found out that educating consumers about Mad Cow disease positively influences their perceptions of beef as a safe choice.

Conclusion

Analysis of the essence of consumer behavior showed that a tourist's decision-making process is a complex, multi-faceted course influenced by different internal and external factors. Factors affecting consumer behavior help identify what products and services on which situations are consumed by individuals. The study concludes that the tourist behaviors is strongly influenced by price, product and safety by .653**, .611**. And .633** respectively. These relationships were found to be statistically significant as the significant value were 0.000 which is less than 0.05 threshold for both price, product and safety.

Recommendations

Price

Consumers respond differently to various marketing promotions, but monetary appeals might not be the most effective way of reaching this target population. The study recommends that firms in the tourism industry should set pricing mixes composed of the actual price that the firm charges, including volume discounts and discounted price for multiple bundles of products as well as pricing strategies such as sale of packages, plans combination of meals, room and relational facilities, non-peak period season sales, group business and longer stays to inform tourist more.

Product

The study recommends in terms of advertising, hospitality and tourism marketers need to understand how behavioral packaging influences older consumers' perceptions of hospitality products and services as well as pricing strategies such as sale of packages plans combination of meals, room and relational facilities, non-peak period season sales, group business and longer stays to inform tourist more .further more players in the tourism and hospitality industry should portray good images of tourist destinations, develop tourism products and services of value, and offer unforgettable experiences.

Suggestion for Further Study

The study could not exhaust all the factors affecting consumer behavior among domestic tourists, as such a further research to be done on personal security since this is an era of terrorism i.e. Al-Shaabab among other.

Safety

Environmental safety features are the most rated factors of destination preferences destination amenities and environmental features, destination attractions and tourists' personal traits and destination tourism infrastructure. Therefore, tourism companies and governmental institutions need to pay more attention on destination choices which are mainly affected by external factors. More so the researcher recommends firms to embark on educating consumers about destinations safety positively since it influences their perceptions of a destination as a safe choice.

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PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF LOCAL PEOPLE TOWARDS DOMESTIC TOURISM IN DODOMA CITY, TANZANIA

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Abstract

Local people perceptions and attitudes are critical in determining domestic tourism development in Tanzania and cannot be underestimated. This study was conducted in Dodoma city, the capital city of Tanzania. The purpose of this study was to assess local people's perceptions and attitudes towards domestic tourism in the city. Specific objectives of the study were to determine the level of local people involvement in domestic tourism in Dodoma city, to identify the factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people participation in domestic tourism and to identify the significance of local people participation in domestic tourism. Semi structured questionnaires were used to collect primary data. The target sample consisted of 100 residents selected purposively, living in the 10 residential streets of Dodoma city. Data were edited, coded, summarized and tabulated into the matrix form and interpretations were made before writing the final report. The study concluded that local people participation in domestic tourism is largely influenced by social economic factors, followed by local people perceptions, attitudes and tourism marketing incentives. The study found that the biggest impediment to domestic tourism was costs. Respondents (75%) revealed that domestic tourism was very expensive therefore unaffordable. Also minimal awareness on how they could involve themselves in domestic tourism activities was the other hindrance. The respondents proposed that the government should restructure and refine the marketing strategies on promoting domestic tourism. This resonates with the key recommendation of this study which calls for the entitled bodies including the Tanzania Tourist Board (TTB) to come up with initiatives including tourist packages affordable to local people in order to stir up their participation in domestic tourism in Tanzania.

Key words: Local People, Perceptions, Attitudes, Domestic Tourism, Dodoma city

INTRODUCTION

The importance of understanding local people`s attitudes and perceptions towards domestic tourism is substantial when it comes to the successful development of tourism as well as local support of tourism development and the satisfaction of host communities (Xie, Bao, Kerstetter, 2014). Many authors agree that tourism has an effect on the economy, social-culture, and environment of host communities (Sharpley, 2014). Tourism tends to be beneficial to the communities whose government is in the stage of tourism development because it can increase their quality of life in different ways, such as improving facilities and employment opportunities (Sheng, Tsui, 2010). It also enhances the economy, creates more natural and cultural attractions, and helps in protecting these attractions (Liang, Bao, 2015). Besides this, tourism leads to an increase in restaurants and accommodation services and creates more festivals and outdoor recreation opportunities (Liang and Bao, 2015). Despite such benefits to the community, negative impacts can occur when tourists interact with local people. For instance, tourism increases the cost of living and contributes to an increase in crime, the use of illegal drugs and trafficking, leading to a big change in the culture of local residents as well as environmental damage (Tosun, 2002)

Different stakeholders perceive tourism from different perspectives which affects their understandings of tourism. Some see tourism as an economic opportunity while some others see it as an ecological burden which may create conflict between these groups (McAreavey and McDonagh, 2011). Tourism development in rural areas includes some stakeholders who make plans and policies interactively. As it is the case most of the time, for rural tourism development to be sustainable the support of local community is indispensable (Verbole, 2000). Local people may perceive tourism in a positive manner as it provides them with job opportunities, creates a flow of investments and sources of income, helps infrastructure and services develop, and is a way of improving welfare (Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2012). There are, of course, some cases that local people see tourism as a drawback as it may give environmental and socio-cultural damage (Abdollahzadeh and Sharifzadeh, 2012).

Participation of local people in decision making process and in investment process are of a great importance. As sustainability of tourism is highly related to the involvement of local people to the decision making, their assistance must be assured in the planning and management of tourism areas (Zamani, Farahani and Musa, 2008). If local people make investments in a developing tourism area, they will obtain greater benefit and therefore have a positive attitude towards tourism, but this may not be the case every time as land values could be very prohibitive for small-scale entrepreneurs (Lepp, 2007). Aziz (1995) assumes that if local people cannot generate economic benefit out of tourism which affects their social and sometimes religious life, it would be more problematic for them to accept tourism and easily allow tourists to enjoy their time in their land. Furthermore, residents may develop a negative attitude towards tourism as the cost of living would show an increase in line with tourism.

The promotion of domestic tourism among local people is of great significance in encouraging them to visit the tourist attractions within their own country as well as enhancing the formation and maintenance of a national identity through the viewing of national heritage sites and promotion of cultural understanding, cohesion of goodwill within the country. Also it helps in establishing a united sense of national pride in the country's unique endowment of natural resources, thereby bridging conflicts among tribes and other neighbors. In addition, income from domestic tourists is needed to increase the revenue base of conservation agencies. (Moayad, Fernando and Rafael,2019)

In China, measures to stimulate domestic tourism were started with "targeted promotion campaigns" an immediate response was to increase the promotional budgets of the national tourism administration and launch special campaigns to target the domestic tourism. The campaigns were intended to encourage local people to take their holidays at home by creating travel packages that bundle popular destinations within a region or province, China CCTV and other state media provided a relatively inexpensive channel for promoting multiple domestic tourism events, combining public and private resources to improve the potential for reaching multiple audiences. (UWTO report, 2009)

Furthermore, China developed a website to promote domestic tourism and to define any temporary financial benefits of traveling domestically. Moreover, China has started to reduce or eliminate specific taxes on travel-related activities, temporary financial incentives, such as lowering or eliminating airport taxes on domestic flights, accommodation taxes for Chinese travelers, tiered entrance fees at parks and cultural sites, and lowering toll road charges. Egypt (2007), Australia, (2007) and China, (2009) have introduced tax reductions and suspensions of fees in tourism and related areas including take-off and landing fees for airline operators, encouraging greater flexibility in spreading out vacation time and promoting year-round travel and reduce the seasonal fluctuations and encouraging greater flexibility in travel timing policies, (UWTO,2010).

In Australia campaign was to encourage workers to use their leave for holidays within the country. In Portugal, a coordinated domestic packaging effort was launched alongside a comprehensive advertising campaign and the development of a dedicated website where private partners could offer special packages and discounts for domestic travelers. Thailand also took similar initiatives by allocating funds that could cover travelling costs for up to 2,000 youths picked from each of the country's provinces to travel throughout the country. (UWTO report, 2009)

One of the global challenges facing domestic tourism is the way it is promoted and marketed, there is a need for going beyond marketing mere components and products of tourism or rather selling the sites and begin focusing on offering the best experiences to tourists. Also there is a need for developing a good marketing strategy that should talk directly to its target niches (Alma.2016).

Also, Bakare, (2011) and Mungai, (2011) revealed that domestic tourism in Africa has challenges ranging from the lack of tourism awareness to insufficient use of media like radio or TV for promotional purposes. Nevertheless, Rogerson and Lisa, (2005) highlighted that in Africa, domestic tourism initiatives have been slower in terms of growth. Countries like South Africa, Nigeria and Kenya are also seeking to improve domestic tourism. Furthermore, the Economic Outlook, (2012) reported that the other reasons as to why African youths, in particular, are not engaging themselves in domestic tourism include unemployment and an increase in illiteracy rate. Similarly, Barrar, (2010) of Latin America also Stone and Nyaupane (2017) of Botswana, pointed out that the domestic tourists are low in number due to the negative attitudes and perceptions of local people towards domestic tourism travels in their areas in general.

In Tanzania studies have been conducted on domestic tourism in relation to promotion of domestic tourism (Jafari, 2019), (Mkwizu, (2018), Mariki *et al*., (2011); Anderson, (2015); Jani, (2016); Sing'ambi and Lwoga, (2017), and Ladislaus, (2017). Regional wise, the East African Countries established the EA Community Tourism Development Strategy, (2018) and Tanzania Tourist Board established Domestic Tourism Marketing Strategy, (2018) for the purpose of emphasizing the promotion of domestic tourism. However, the development of such strategies minimally contributed to an increase in domestic tourists in the country. This shows that still there is a need for conducting further research on assessment of perceptions and attitudes of local people towards domestic tourism in Tanzania.

In order to know the domestic tourism in Tanzania has picked up or not, it is vital now to assess first the perceptions and attitudes of local people towards domestic tourism in Tanzania , therefore, the study is determining the level of local people involvement in domestic tourism in Dodoma city, identifying the factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people participation in domestic tourism and to identifying the significances of local people participation in domestic tourism. The results of this study will help the government and tourism stakeholders to apply the most important factors that influence local people`s attitudes and perceptions towards participation in domestic tourism activities. Furthermore, it will help to establish measures according to local people' characteristics.

Table 1: Local people involvement in Domestic tourism
Annual Trends of Domestic Visitors from tourist attraction sites 2014-2017

S/N	Site	2014	2015	2016	2017
1	Arusha park	38,337	31,089	33,463	33,885
2	Gombe park	970	895	958	968
3	Katavi	2,826	2,445	3,066	1,910
4	Kilimanjaro	3,302	3,328	3,508	2,731
5	Kitulo	577	592	311	432
6	Lake Manyara	65,543	62,287	57,855	56,082
7	Mahale	141	171	166	151
8	Mikumi	30,700	35,311	38,003	34,413
9	Mkomazi	1,227	1,905	1,482	1,700
10	Ruaha	8,606	7,403	12,958	12,161
11	Rubondo	662	501	739	421
12	Saadani	15,685	19,854	18,722	18,603
13	Saanane	10,685	13,132	11,102	10,088
14	Serengeti	217,756	204,998	174,047	152,216
15	Tarangire	55,096	58,585	78,573	77,101
16	Udzungwa	6,159	6,310	5,557	5,268
17	Selous Game reserve	-	-	270	6,142
18	Museum centres	-	-		66,100
18	Antiquity sites	-	65,256	59,467	59,396
19	Ngorongoro Conservation	278,221	278,922	265,845	249,428
TOTAL		**736,493**	**792,984**	**766,092**	**735,739**

Source: MNRT (2019)

In 2014 and 2015 the number of domestic tourists was 736,493 and 792,984 respectively this is to say there was an increase of 56,491 domestic tourists which is equivalent to 56.5%. However, in 2016 domestic tourists were 766,092 and735,739 in 2017 a decrease of 30,353 (30.4%). From these data, the results of study imply that participation of local people in domestic tourism in Tanzania has been fluctuating from time to time. It requires vibrant initiatives to promote domestic tourism. In this regard, the study now assesses local people's perceptions and attitudes towards domestic tourism in Dodoma city.

Literature Review

Theoretical Framework

This section presents the theoretical anchorage of the study. It specifically discusses the Social Exchange Theory that guides this study. This theory developed in an attempt to understand and examine the host perceptions toward tourism and is the most widely used by scholars (Nunkoo and Ramkissoon, 2010; Accinelli et al, 2008; Harrill, 2004).

The Social Exchange Theory is based on the idea that each human behavior or social interaction is made because people want to exchange goods or activities with others (Homans, 1961). As stated by Ap (1992), this is "a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation". People's satisfaction with an exchange interaction is obtained by the evaluation of the outcomes, which can be both economic and social, and the interaction itself. From a tourism perspective, the Social Exchange Theory means that local people examine costs and benefits as a result of tourism and, if their assessment is positive, also their attitude towards this type of industry will be positive.

According to Monterrubio, (2008), most of the domestic tourism impacts studies have been evaluated with the measurement of local people' attitudes and perceptions towards domestic tourism and how they perceive the impacts within the local community. More researchers in recent years have applied the Social Exchange Theory (SET) to study attitudinal and behavioural aspects of communities, especially in areas of tourism stakeholders and decision making. (Nunkoo, Smith, Ramkissoon, 2013). The SET represents a common explanatory basis and comparability based on an assumption that "domestic tourism development comes with economic benefits in exchange for social and environmental impacts.

The theoretical construct of SET well connects with local attitudes and perception of domestic tourism impacts because it describes the connection between advantages of all inhabitants and their perception of economic growth. (Harril, 2004)

Under the SET predisposition, local people are more generally positive towards tourism if they perceive more benefits and vice versa in an undesirable condition although different observations were revealed in some studies. These benefits may extend beyond economic revenue but also socio-cultural and environmental factors. More importantly, their positive attitude might even contribute to the support of tourism industry as an exchange when the costs do not exceed the benefits. Such local support might be in form of active or passive way that reacts to domestic tourism development including planning and marketing. (Kwon, Vogt, 2010), (Andriotis, Vaughan, 2003)

Therefore, local people perceiving more positive (benefits) than negative (costs) effects arising from tourism are likely to support the exchange (King et al., 1993) and are likely to be inclined to be involved in the exchange. In general, this type of local people displays positive attitudes and perceptions toward the tourism industry and, therefore, they encourage the future domestic tourism development (Gursoy *et al.,* 2002; Ap, 1992). On the basis of this theory we can describe local people' support of tourism development as a function of personal benefits, positive and negative impacts of tourism, and experience within the tourism industry (Ogorelc, 2009).

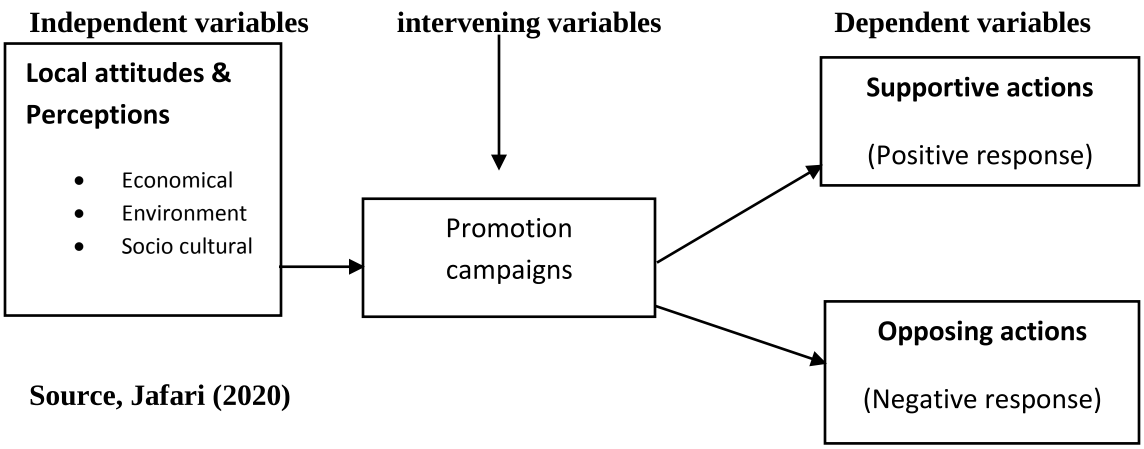
To understand local people`s' attitudes and perceptions towards domestic tourism, decision makers such as tourism planners and destination managers need to understand how supportive actions may be driven by local attitude and perceptions or vice versa. Proper counter-measures to negative attitudes and perceptions that develop through tourism exchange need to be implemented. The heterogeneity of local people and their attitudinal dynamism of would determine the success of any tourism destination marketing (Zamani and Musa,2008) and (Gursoy, Chi, Dyer, 2009).

According to the study of Mike, Chung, Anita, (2018) the concept of local people' attitudes and perceptions has been explored extensively in the literature over the last several decades. The awareness, image and approval of the residents are repeatedly mentioned to be of great importance throughout the tourism development process. From a psychological perspective,

attitude is "a learned tendency to evaluate objects, people, or issues in a particular way" which can include a person's directional (positive, negative or mixed valuation of other persons, problems, things or events. However, attitude can sometimes be vague and mixed. Also Hockenbury, (2011) commented that, attitude incorporated three components, ranging from a cognitive evaluation for opinion or belief segment, to an emotional or feeling segment, and finally an intention to behave in certain ways.

Conceptual frame work

Based on this research framework, this study is accomplishing the following objectives: to determine the level of local people involvement in domestic tourism in Dodoma city, to identify the factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people participation in domestic tourism and to identify the significances of local people participation in domestic tourism. This conceptualization is important to propose an action-led reaction from an attitudinal and perceptional change as depicted in this below conceptual frame work.



Source, Jafari (2020)

Local people generally perceive tourism activities positively within their area, especially because of the economic benefits, including job opportunities, which are, by far, the most important. Socio-cultural aspects are generally perceived positively too, mainly because of public facilities created by local authorities. The environmental component is often perceived by the local people in negative terms, because of some the costs brought on by tourism development like pollution, crowding, destruction of natural habitats, diseases, noise, etc.

Therefore, the conceptual framework for this study, it is evident that support for domestic tourism development is effective if local people attitudes and perceptions towards domestic tourism are positive, and the costs and the benefits local people derive together with the state of the local people's economy. These attitudes and perceptions are influenced by the concern that local people are not involved in any tourism development hence they tend to feel marginalized.

Again, the conceptual frame work shows clearly that if no benefits are realized, local people's attitudes and perceptions change negatively thus annoying human-wildlife conflicts, poaching, vandalism, hunting, ignoring tourism activities in their societies, hostility, resentment, mistrust and relegation of other local people. On the other hand, realization of the benefits enhances pride in the tourist attractions by local people, and consequently winning their willingness to support conservation of natural resources and preservation cultural attractions hence growth of tourism in Tanzania.

Methodology

According to TTB, (2018) Tanzania has gone through, from being the best tourist destination in Africa in 2017, the country has become a perfect case study for the current research study, which seeks to determine the local people' perceptions and attitudes towards domestic tourism. Dodoma, which is the capital city and the center towards which the development of Tanzania is directed, was the focus of the current study. The location of the city is relatively strategic geographically as it is the most central region in the country. Being geographically merited it is primarily expected that the inhabitants would be travelling regularly to different tourist attractions present in other parts of the country. Yet the previous trends of the natives' participation in domestic tourism, including Dodoma inhabitants, have not been shooting up progressively, therefore this study ventured into exploring the level of participation by Dodoma inhabitants in domestic tourism while assessing their perceptions and attitudes around the issue considering the advantage they have accessing tourist attractions present in the country.

A stratified random sampling technique was used in the study. Creswell (2014) explain stratified sampling as a probability sampling technique. The target population consisted of 100 purposively selected residents living in the 10 residential streets of Dodoma city. The main reason behind using the above-mentioned technique was that the researchers wanted to ensure that the research was able to represent not only the overall Dodoma populace but also the key subgroups of the population.

To obtain relevant and rich data for this research, a qualitative method was employed. It is a suitable method to understand the local people perceptions and attitudes since it looks "in depth at single communities" (Horn *et al*., 2000, p. 2). A semi-structured interview was employed to obtain a richer data on local people perceptions and attitudes towards domestic tourism participation. From these data, the researchers could determine the extent on which locals perceive either positively or negatively towards participation in domestic tourism.

The interview questions comprised of three sections. Section one comprised of three questions addressed to determine the level of local people involvement in domestic tourism in Dodoma city. These questions were asked to achieve the first objective of this research. Sections two comprised two questions and were asked to achieve the second objective of the research. Section three consisted of two questions to identify the significance of local people participation in domestic tourism in Tanzania and these questions were asked to achieve the third objective of this research. During the interview, the researchers communicated in Swahili language given that some of respondents could not communicate fluently in English language. Interviews were then transcribed and translated into English.

Following Patton (2002), the data was analyzed according to the following sequence. First, a brief note was written at the margin when reading the responses to form themes. Next, relevant responses were sustained and written on a paper in which questions that were asked during the interview had been written in advance. Then, similar responses given by the respondents were color-coded. Finally, the responses that have been organized according to the same themes were transferred into a matrix form.

Ethical Considerations

The respondents were treated politely and with respect in order to avoid misunderstanding between the enumerators and respondents and they were informed of the purpose of the study. Each respondent was politely requested to fill the questionnaire and assured of confidentiality with regard to any information they provided.

Figure 2 Location of Dodoma city (urban area)
Source: en.wikipedia.org, 2019

Results and Discussion

Local people are known as the most important stakeholders in the tourism industry as they are the ones who will be most affected by the decisions with regards to tourism planning and development of their areas. Hence, understanding local people attitudes and perception are vital for the sustainability of domestic tourism development (Eshliki&Kaboudi, 2012). This study aims to assess perceptions and attitudes of local people towards domestic tourism in Dodoma city

The level of local people involvement in domestic tourism

The respondents revealed that local people are always participating in domestic tourism. Their participation is in the macro/micro, native, small scale, national, local and ethnic conceptualization though without their knowledge much of the time. This conceptualization let decision makers to reconsider local people's values and contribution both as hosts and tourists in search of sustainable domestic tourism development in the country. This was supported by Korstanje, (2015) who said that, the value of domestic tourism rests in the reality of the indigenous people's ways of life and other stakeholders acknowledging the value of such in the preservation of tourism resources. Therefore, the implication of this concept is for the government of Tanzania as a tourism policy makers and destination developers to carry out a critical national survey on the status of domestic tourism.

Other respondents argued that the numbers of domestic tourists are still low because of unfortunate marketing activities being done to attract tourists to the destinations. The government and stakeholders should promote local people to participate by creating awareness about the importance of domestic tourism activities. They pointed out that tourism marketing creates awareness, stimulates natives to travel and visit the tourist attractions.

Factors influencing the attitudes and perceptions of local people participation in domestic tourism

The number of studies that have focused on local perceptions and attitudes towards tourism social impacts has increased (Hsu, 2006; Long, 2012). These previous studies found that the quality of life of local people at a tourist destination has always been associated with impacts of tourism. Relating to the perceived impacts, some groups of local people were badly affected while others have not affected at all. Generally, most of the studies on perceived tourism impacts found that benefits are more obvious than the costs, and this finding was associated with the positive perceptions towards tourism.

From the respondents of study agreed that the domestic tourism has allowed them to run other businesses such as selling the handmade-handicraft products, local food, Tanzanian clothes, beads and traditional festivals. This was supported by Sharon E, and Nor, (2015) that, domestic tourism has social benefits, such as employment opportunities, diversification of activities and entertainment, and opportunity to meet new people.

Other respondents revealed that domestic tourism has social costs associated with tourism activities, such as sex harassment, terrorism, drug abuse, crime, culture diversification and environmental destruction, animal habitat destruction, and traffic congestion. These findings provide evidence for earlier studies that the changes in tourism have resulted in both positive and negative social impacts (Zhou, Lu &Yoo, 2013).

In this research, respondents were also asked about the future of the domestic tourism in Dodoma city. Based on their general responses to these questions, the respondents had different perceptions and attitudes towards their support for additional domestic tourism development or support for restrictions on domestic tourism development. From the findings, the 65% respondents showed great support for additional domestic tourism development in Dodoma city, while the 35% respondents have both support for additional domestic tourism development as well as support for restrictions on domestic tourism development. However, 40% of respondents indicated that they appreciated the effort shown by the Government to promote domestic tourism in Tanzanian one the less; there is a need for a collaborative and participatory approach to domestic tourism marketing. Therefore, it is understandable that low and no participation of local people in domestic tourism were resulted in negative perceptions towards domestic tourism.

The significance of local people participation in domestic tourism

The respondents of 90% revealed that, domestic tourism has a lot of merits to them, they said it is a tool to eliminate local poverty, generate employments and foster economic growth, upgrade infrastructure and networking, preserve national identity, conserve environment and improve common understanding of each groups. This was reinforced by Sharpley, 2014), who said domestic tourism has an effect on the economy, social-culture, and environment of host communities. Conversely, Sheng, (2010) remarked that domestic tourism tends to be beneficial to the communities whose government is in the stage of tourism development because it can increase their quality of life in different ways, such as improved facilities and employment opportunities. Furthermore, Mkwizu (2018) concluded that, domestic tourism has big role of significances on the aspects of national economic growth which is directly facilitates social facilities within the community destinations.

Conclusion

Despite, the benefits of domestic tourism revealed from many respondents, it is concluded that local people have negative attitudes and perceptions towards domestic tourism since the travel costs and tourist services are unaffordable to them. This was supported by the other respondents who singled out that, the lack of proper and clearly promotion campaign strategies on how to involve local people in domestic tourism participation in Dodoma city is a major obstacle. On the other hand, local people generally perceive domestic tourism activities positively within their area, especially when there are economic benefits, including job opportunities, which are, by far, the most important. Also socio-cultural aspects are generally perceived positively too, mainly because of public facilities created by local tourism authorities.

Recommendation

It is therefore recommended that provision of tangible benefits and alternative livelihoods for local people at the grassroots level should be considered as a central philosophy of Dodoma tourism strategic planning. Tanzania as whole should not only aim at changing attitudes and perceptions of local people towards domestic tourism but also their behavior in relation to the benefits accrued to them from tourism participation.

With the aims of addressing the issues concerned, and of changing the attitudes of local people, as well as of proposing a way in which local people participating in domestic tourism can be achieved, the current study identified the tourism authority, the TTB, as being the key driver involved, with the mandate to facilitate positive change in such regard. The authority could formulate a tourism policy that promotes effective local people involvement in domestic tourism. The topmost concern to emerge from the results of the study is that the Tanzanian residents are being neglected, while their role as important tourism stakeholders remains undefined. Local communities are important in developing tourism, because their environments are playgrounds in which tourism performs, and where tourism is developed, so as to enhance their sense of socioeconomic well-being. Hence, a comprehensive tourism policy that promotes local people involvement and that stipulates the roles of the locals could be seen as a solution for redressing the omission of the local people participation in domestic tourism activities in Tanzania. Finally, the findings of the study suggest that the Dodoma city council administration should pay more attention to the local people perceptions and attitudes involve local people in tourism planning. Future research should investigate support for sustainable domestic tourism development and the community’s involvement in decision making.

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Sub Theme: Employability and Behavior Change in Tourism and Hospitality

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CO-INNOVATIVE PRACTICES AND INSTITUTES IN HOTELS

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Abstract

Eco-innovative practices in coastal zones are increasingly considered significant by tourism and hospitality organizations throughout the world. Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd. (CHICOP) is an award-winning private nature reserve famous for applying eco-innovative practices in hospitality and tourism operations in Zanzibar. The aim of this study was to assess the effectiveness of CHICOP's eco-innovative practices in hotels and institutes. Specifically, it was intended to find out the relation between CHICOP and hotels as a result of eco-innovation practices; to investigate the application of CHICOP's eco-innovative practices in nearby hotels; and, to assess the ways that can be used by both sides to create relationship and adoption of eco-innovative practices. The study was cross-sectional, whereby in-depth interview and questionnaires were collected from CHICOP and 51 hotels located nearby to Chumbe Island. Interview data was transcribed and analyzed manually, whereas questionnaires was analyzed and computed by using SPSS to measure the frequency and percentage of respondents. In general, the findings show that there is no effective relation between CHICOP and hotels apart from minimum business interactions. The next finding shows that there is no application of eco-innovative practices as results of CHICOP impacts. Lastly, the study finding shows that hoteliers can adopt eco-innovative practices if they can be given knowledge and trainings under the cooperate relationship with CHICOP. In terms of theoretical contribution, the study reflects with one among the adoption categories of Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) theory. Recommendations were given to both sides to create formal relationship for the sake of applying eco-innovative practices of in their operation.

Keywords**: **Eco-innovative practices, Hotels, CHICOP, Adoption, Relationship

INTRODUCTION

This study is about the assessment of the impacts of CHICOP's eco-innovative practices to [1]nearby hotels. Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd. (CHICOP) is an award-winning private nature reserve located at Unguja Island in Zanzibar. It was developed from 1991 for the conservation and sustainable management of uninhabited Chumbe Island. The island involves protection of coral reef sanctuary and forest which reserve rare wildlife such as coconut crabs, duikers and number of birds.

Since Chumbe island is the leading nature reserve in Zanzibar, and which has receive various international awards following its successful application of eco-innovation practices, there is a need to find out if these practices have positively affect the operations of other coastal hotels of Zanzibar specifically those located near to Chumbe island. In that case, this research was aimed to examine the relationship between CHICOP and the nearby hotels; to investigate the application of CHICOP eco-innovative practices in nearby hotels; and to assess the ways that can be used to create relationship and adopt CHICOP's eco-innovative practices. Meanwhile, it starts by providing the general literature of eco-innovative practices, hotel sector, Chumbe Island Coral Park, as well as theoretical review. Later, the paper describes specific objectives that the research intends to find out and the methodology that used to conduct the entire research. The second part describes data presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings as well as discussions of the findings. Lastly the study describe summary of the findings, concluding remarks, limitation and recommendation for further readings.

[1] *Those hotels located in a coastal zone of Urban West region of Zanzibar close to Chumbe Island*

Literature review

The origin of environmental issues in the hospitality and tourism industry is traced back to the late 19th C and early 20thC during the launch of the U.S. national park system to allow public use of natural areas while also protecting them from development pressure (Parsa *et al.*, 2014). Currently, eco-innovative practices have been given consideration in tourism and hospitality industry whereby tourist destinations, hotels, tour operators and travel agents are looking for the ways to modify their services into environmental responsible ways (Mele and Spena, 2015).

For the matter of understanding, eco-innovation according to María et al (2017) refers to the development or modification of services, processes, organizational or marketing methods in order to contribute positively to the natural environment. Likewise García-Pozo, Sánchez-Ollero and Ons-Cappa (2016) define it according to Europe INNOVA project which referred to "the creation of novel and competitively priced goods, processes, systems, services, and procedures designed to satisfy human needs and provide better quality of life for everyone with a whole-life-cycle minimal use of natural resources per unit output and a minimal release of toxic substances. In general, eco-innovative practices involve the practices of saving natural resources such as saving water, saving living organisms, saving energy and reducing solid waste so as to make environmental resources sustainably.

Regarding the hotel sector, eco-innovation practices are introduced not only for reducing ecological impacts, but also for the purpose of cost reduction, increase operational efficiency as well as improve reputation and image of companies (María *et al*, 2017). Today, eco-innovation practices such as applying green-kitchen, solar power generation, reduce, recycle and reuse of waste products, reduce paper usage through application of electronics such as email and electronic check-in are increasingly applied to many hotels so as to minimizes overuses of natural resources and decreases environmental impacts to the whole life-cycle (Wang *et al*, 2019)

Theoretical review

Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) theory was developed by Rogers in 1962. It explains how, over time, an idea or product gains force and spread through a social system. The end result of this diffusion is that people adopt a new idea, behaviour, or product. Yet, this adoption does not happen instantaneously; rather it is a process whereby some people are more suitable to adopt the innovation than others. Rogers established five adopter categories which are innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. For innovators, they are willing to take risks, have the highest social status, have financial liquidity, are social and have closest contact to scientific sources and interaction with other innovators; early adopters are more discreet in adoption choices than innovators; early majority indicate those people who need to see evidence that the innovation works before they adopt it; late majority adopt an innovation after the average participant; and laggards who are the last to adopt an innovation and are typically tend to be focused on traditions (Rogers, 1962). In relation to this study, this theory can be applied due to the fact that, eco-innovation is a new approach in tourism and hospitality sectors, therefore, hotel managers can differ on the interests and levels of adopting it in their operations.

Overview of Chumbe Island Coral Park (CHICOP)

Chumbe Island Coral Park Ltd. (CHICOP) is an award-winning private nature reserve located at Unguja Island in Zanzibar. It was developed from 1991 for the conservation and sustainable management of uninhabited Chumbe Island. The island involves protection of coral reef sanctuary and forest which reserve rare wildlife such as coconut crabs, duikers and number of birds. The park also has a special visitor and education centre purposely for providing education to visitors such as students, communities and other special groups who are interested to get knowledge about the island. In addition, the park has a small eco-lodge, historical monuments such as an old mosques and the tower which are important tourist attractions(CHICOP, 2019).

All operations in this island are based on state-of-the-art eco-technology aiming at zero impact on the environment. In that case they apply eco-innovative practices such as rainwater harvesting system, photovoltaic energy and solar water heating, composting toilets, greywater filtration as well as eco-solid waste management (CHICOP, 2019). In general, CHICOP is Non-commercial Park, although its operations follow commercial principles by allowing eco-tourism activities. Although the fund collected is for managing the park by supporting conservation, research and environmental education programs for local schools and other benefits for local people. In terms of the awards, the island has received about 20 international awards. In 2011, the park became the first Global Ecosphere Retreat (GER) certified Long Run Destination through the Jochen Zeitz Foundation which means the island is applying high standards of balancing conservation and commercial activities. Therefore, due to the success of CHICOP in terms of green practices, the researcher influenced to assess whether these practices provide any impact to the nearby hotels(CHICOP, 2019), and whether CHICOP has any influence on sharing their green technologies to the willing nearby hotels.

Methodology

Data was collected from hotels located at the coast of Urban West region. The researcher considers these hotels as nearby hotels to Chumbe Island since Chumbe is also located in this region. Due to the fact that data collection was conducted during the peak season, only willingness and accessible hotel managers were interviewed and given questionnaire papers. Therefore, convenience sampling was used. However, the choice of hotels were based on the age of hotel establishment (not less than 5 years), age of respondents, experiences of respondents (not less than 3 years) and above all willingness and availability of respondents. Data were collected in 51 hotels whereby 43 were given self-administered questionnaires and the remaining 8 managers choose to be interviewed than filling questionnaire forms. Interviewed data were recorded, transcribed in words, later the results were coded and analysed. Likewise, questionnaires were inserted to SPSS, computed and analyzed to find the frequency and percentage of respondents. Respondents were mostly general managers, operation managers, front office managers and in some extent human resource managers because they are in frontline and matured enough to speak about their hotel operations.

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

Data presentation, analysis and interpretation

This section present, analyse and interpret data by starting with interview data then followed by questionnaires.

General information

In general, the study was intended to examine the relationship of CHICOP and other hotels in enhancing eco-innovative practices; to investigate the application of eco-innovative practices in the hotels; and, to assess the ways that can be used by hotel investors to adopt CHICOP's eco-innovative practices. Initially, the researcher asked the general information about the respondents and their hotels. Information asked was based on age, years of experience and period of hotel's existence.

In terms of the age, the questionnaires require respondents to choose between 25-35, 36 -50 and 51 and above. In general, most of respondents fall under 25-35 and 36-50 years old. This means that respondents are matured enough to analyse the relationship between their hotels and CHICOP. Also, researcher required the respondents to have at least 3 years of experience in their hotels. Questionnaires were categorized into 3 -10 and 11 -20 years. Results show that 79% of respondents have experiences between 3-10 years in their hotels. Therefore, they have enough information of their organization.

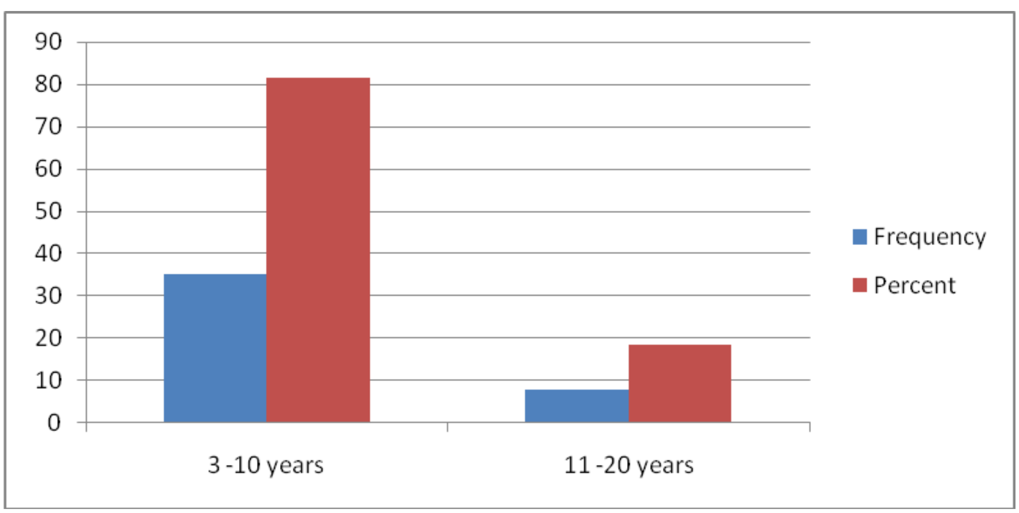

Figure 1: Employee years of experience

In addition, the choice of hotels was based on hotel's years of operations. The study required respondents to choose between 5-10, 10-20, and 20 years and above. According to the results from questionnaires, 55.8%of those hotels exist between 5 -20 years of experiences, whereby 27.9% more than 20 years. This means all hotels are operated more than 5 years, so, it is reasonable to assess their experience to CHICOP.

Table1. Age of hotel establishment

Table 1: Age of hotel establishment

Years	Frequency	Percent
5 - 10	17	39.5
11 - 20	7	16.3
21 and above	12	27.9
Total	36	83.7
Missing System	7	16.3

Understanding CHICOP

(How much do you know CHICOP? Which eco-innovative practices are you aware on CHICOP?)

The second part required respondents to explain their level of understanding about CHICOP. In interview data, most of respondents understand very little about the island. Likewise in questionnaire, a researcher required respondents to choose between; “very much known, somewhat known, and nothing”. About 77% respond in the level of “somewhat” which indicate little knowledge about CHICOP, whereas 18% reply that they know nothing about it. Though, only 5% seemed to know very much about CHICOP

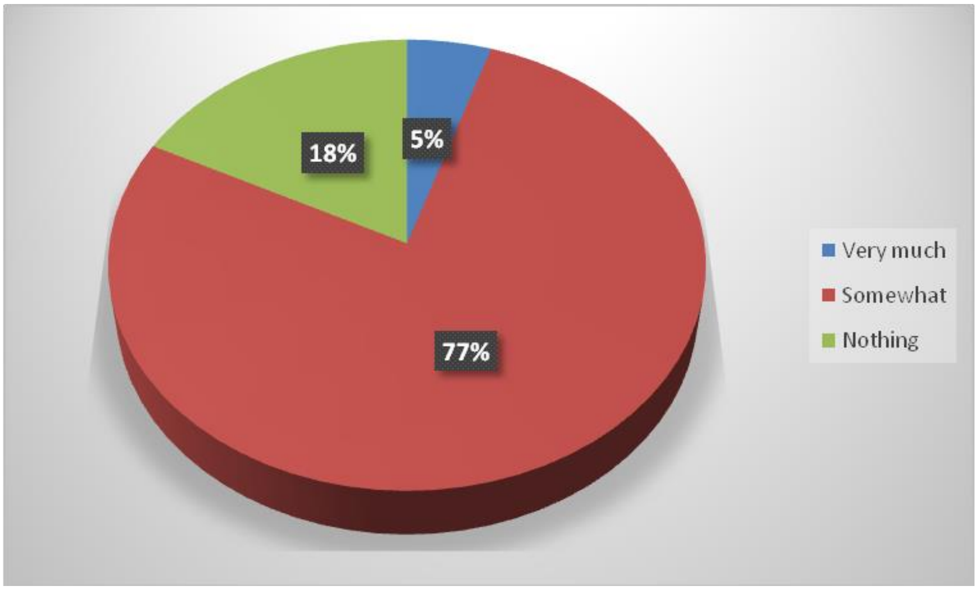

Figure 2: The level of understanding CHICOP

Also, for those who replied to know a little bit about the island, later they were asked to indicate the most famous conservation practices operated by CHICOP. When interviewed, most of respondents replied that they know CHICOP for coral reef protection, whereby fishermen are prohibited to fish there. These findings resemble with the results of questionnaires as seen in the figure below. About 47.7% replied that they know CHICOP mostly for marine, coral and forest conservation practices, whereby 13.6% of respondents know CHICOP for its designed eco-lodges, 9.1% of respondents know CHICOP for its uses of solar power. Yet, 25% know about CHICOP but have no idea about any conservation practices in the island. This is to say that CHICOP is mostly known for its environment rather than its eco-innovative practices.

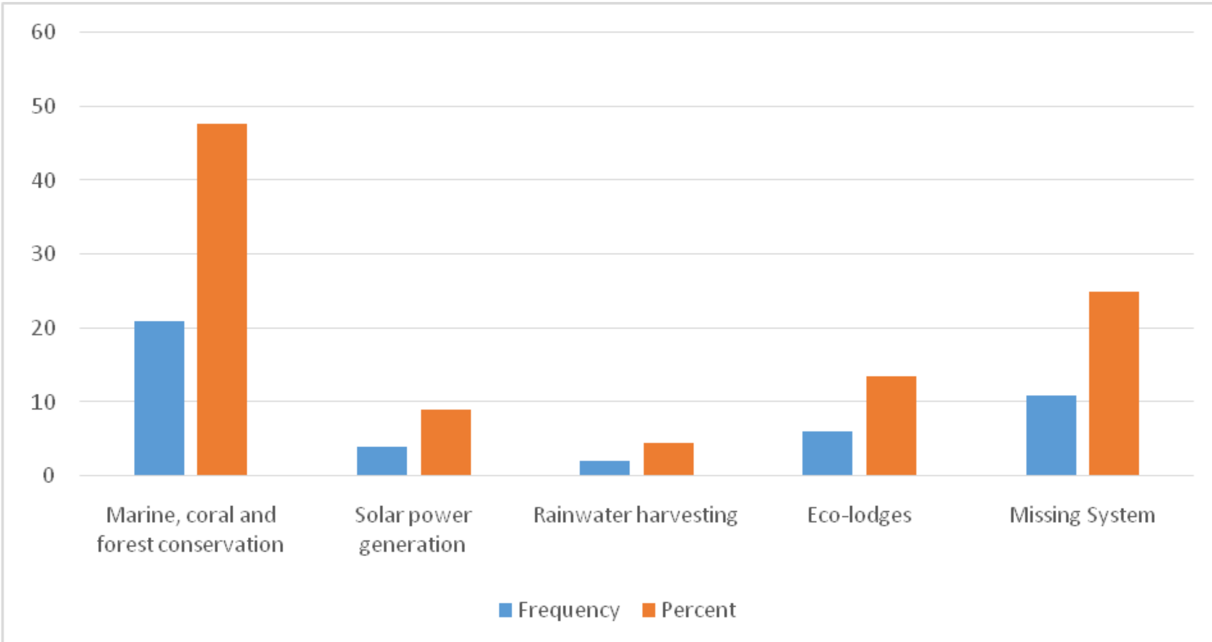

Figure 3: Innovative practices applied by CHICOP

Source: Author, 2019

Relationship with CHICOP

(Does your hotel have any relationship with CHICOP? If Yes, in which areas?)

Based on the interview and questionnaires from CHICOP officers, they have little relationship with nearby hotels, apart from receiving bookings of the guests from those hotels. Meanwhile, they have little relationship with Mbweni ruins in which they use their dock for transfer to the island. On the side of hotels, interviewed managers respond that there is no active relationship with CHICOP apart from sending guests to their booking office when they need to visit the island. Again, questionnaires required respondents to say if they have relationship with CHICOP. About 59.1% of hoteliers replied that there is no relationship between them and CHICOP whereas 38.6% accept that they have relationship, though in a partial business. This has been detailed illustrated in the figure below.

Moreover, open-ended question required respondents who have no relationship with CHICOP to give their reasons. General replies show that the absence of relationship is because of little advertisement of CHICOP, absence of official tourism body which connect them or because the island is not a business par se enough to create relationship with other business partners.

Table 2: Relationship with CHICOP and hotels

Relationship	Frequency	Percent
Yes	17	39.6
No	26	60.4
Total	43	100

Interests and adoption

(Are you interested with eco-innovative practices? Have you adopted any one from CHICOP?)

This question intended to ask those hoteliers who know about CHICOP and have some relationship with them. Therefore, the questions required them to answer if they are interested with eco-innovation practices at CHICOP and whether they have adopted any of those practices. The results show that almost all of interviewed hoteliers are interested with CHICOP eco-innovative practices, though they have not adopted them. Some of them claim that, even though they are interested with eco-innovation practices operated at CHICOP, it is difficult to apply them because they have little or no knowledge on how to develop and practice them. They add that, for hotels-based on Stone Town, they claim that the structure of the old town create difficulties to apply most of eco-innovative practices such as designing eco-lodges, harvesting rainwater as well as managing solid waste ecologically.

The above results resemble with the results from questionnaires where by 84.1% of respondents agree that they are interested with eco-innovative practices of CHICOP. Though, when asked if they have adopted any of those practices 65% says no, whereas only 5 says yes. The remaining 30% replied nothing. Based on these results, it is possible to say that the majority of hotels are interested with eco-innovations, though applying them remain a question

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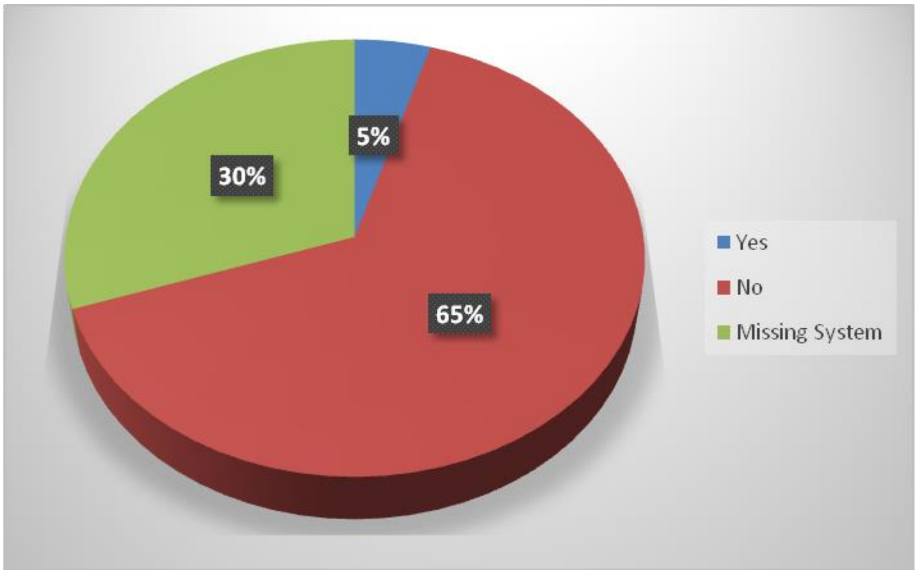

Figure 4: Adoption of eco-innovative practices

Source: Author, 2019

However, the results from open-ended questionnaires shows that some of hotels are interested with eco-innovative practices and in a minimum extent, they apply some of those practices such as eco-solid waste management through reusing of plastic bottles, beach cleaning, and reusable of grey-water for gardening, although they have not adopted them from CHICOP.

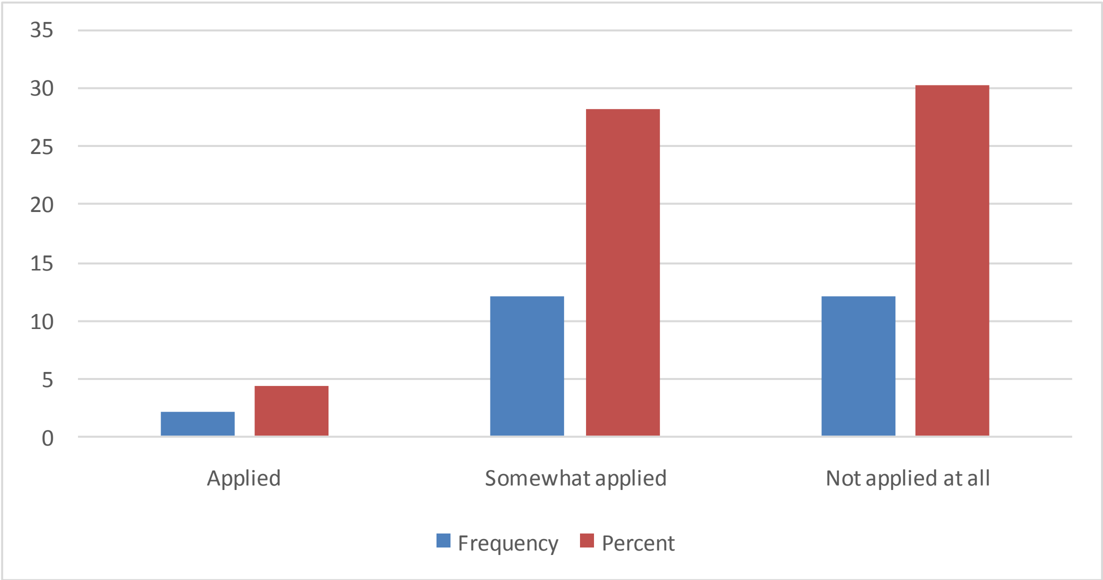

Figure 5: Application of solid waste management

Source: Author 2019

Ways to create relationship and adoption

(Which advice would you like to give CHICOP in terms of creating relationship and adoption of their eco-innovative practices?)

The last part of the study aimed to get advice from respondents in terms of creation of relationship with CHICOP in the future as well as adoption of eco-innovative practices. In general, all interviewed managers seemed to have the desire to build relationship with CHICOP. Despite of the fact that; there is no big demand for most of their guests to visit there. Yet they advise CHICOP management to build relationship with nearby hotels for sharing knowledge of green practices. Therefore, CHICOP experts should help to train willing hoteliers or give them know-how on application of those practices so as to enable adoption.

Moreover, open-ended questionnaires showed that hoteliers are very keen to build relationship with CHICOP, so they advise CHICOP to invite them to the Island so as to observe the practices and see the possibilities of adopting them. Others advice CHICOP to announce their green practices rewards so that hotels will be encouraged to adopt them. Others went further by advising CHICOP to train youths and college students since it will be easier to implant interests of eco-innovative practices to tourism fresher rather than experienced hoteliers who might seem stagnant to change their mind set.

Findings and discussion

This paper focuses on application of eco-innovation practices in hotels as a result of CHICOP's impacts. It assessed the relationship between CHICOP and nearby hotels; the level adoption and application of eco-innovative practices; and the ways in which hotels can build relationship with CHICOP and adopt green practices.

Regarding the relationship between CHICOP and nearby hotels, this research found that there is no strong relationship between CHICOP and nearby hotels that can encourage adoption of eco-innovative practices. Most of hotel managers have little knowledge about the island in terms of eco-innovative practices. This might be because the island is applying strict carrying capacity as a result of high entrance fees and limited number of allowed visitors, hence de-market themselves from being a complete business entity. In that case, it is somewhat difficult to create B2B relationship with nearby hotels. Moreover, hoteliers agree that when the guests asked them about touring the small islands, they advise them to visit Prison islands and Safari blue which seemed to be more accessible and cheap compare to CHICOP. This study can reflect with the study of (Steven and

Kim, 1991) which observed the inter-organizational relations between the U.S. Forest Service, chambers of commerce, and tourism associations adjacent to an Arkansas National Forest. The findings showed that there is a lack of cooperative relations across all organizations, although most of respondents expressed interests in establishing future relations. To insist this Holmlund and Törnroos (1997) describe that relationship and networks for business organizations are mostly complex and multifaceted unless all sides have specific interests that embed them and increase their profits. In relation to this, CHICOP and its nearby hotels are sharing the uses of coastal and marine resources; therefore, this should be taken as embedded entity for them to cooperate each other not only for protecting marine resources, but also for sharing other green practices.

In terms of the application of eco-innovative practices to the hotels adjacent to CHICOP, a general finding shows that almost all hotels are inspired and interested with eco-innovative practices operated by CHICOP. However, except two, all of the remaining hotels have not adopted a single eco-innovative practice from CHICOP. Most of them argue that lack of cooperate relationship and little knowledge about eco-innovative practices are the main setbacks. Yet, some of them admitted to apply some of those practices in a minimum level such as eco-solid waste management, beach cleaning and reusable of grey water but without adopting them from CHICOP. On the other side, some scholars argued that except for hotels associated with marine and beach areas, hotel sector is less concerning with eco-innovation because they consider themselves to cause little environmental impacts (García-Pozo, *et al*, 2016). However, a self-reported survey conducted by Wang et al. (2019) amongst 3–5 star hotels in China find out that hotels are passionate with eco-innovation practices because they consider it as the way to increase their profit margins through cost competitive advantages. This is because eco-innovative practices save resources, reduce downtime, encourage better utilization of by products, and reduce operational and product handling costs(Wang et al., 2019). Therefore, they advise institutional environmental pressure to strengthen the eco-innovation practices in order to attain competitive advantages (Wang, Font and Liu, 2019). On the other side, María *et al* (2017) researched about the strategies that can be used by hoteliers to adopt eco-innovative practices. They observe the relationship between eco-innovative practices and organization culture, by using Competing Values Framework (CVF) which are hierarchy, clan, market, and adhocracy culture. Their findings showed that neither hierarchy culture nor market culture have a significant impact on adopting eco-innovative practices, rather, adhocracy culture found to have a great influence on adoption of eco-innovative practices because its dynamic and flexibility nature encourage learning and adaptation for the success of the organization.

On the side of the ways that can be used to create relationship with CHICOP's eco-innovative practices, findings show that hotels are apt to establish relationship with CHICOP in the future as a way to enhance learning and adoption of eco-innovation. This is described by Blois, Keith J., (1999) as inter-organizational relations that need organizations to build trust and commitment in order to reach their objectives. As added by Holmlund and Törnroos (1997)that organization networks can be built under commitment, trust, atmosphere, attraction, and social bonds. Under this circumstance, CHICOP and hotels should commit themselves to create networks which can help to spread the knowledge of eco-innovations. Also, in terms of adopting eco-innovative practices, findings show that hotels are ready to adopt the practices only if they will be given training on how to apply them. These include visiting the island to observe and get knowledge and practical experiences on how innovative practices are applied and benefiting. This finding reflect with the theory of Diffusion of Innovation (DOI) which describe adoption category of early majority as the people who are willing to adopt new innovative idea, but their main conditions are to be given knowledge and witness the ways innovation works before they adopt them (Rogers, 1962). Moreover, the research done by Babiak and Trendafilova (2011) regarding the adoption of eco-innovative practices reveal that sport organizations need to be trained to become experts. This will help them to build reputation to the societies and fans as well as reducing the cost. The fact that other hotels managers have little idea about the benefits and knowledge of eco-innovative practices, it is advised for CHICOP to play their role of educating and training hoteliers as part of social group.

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Concluding remarks

The study was intended to assess the impacts of CHICOP's eco-innovative practices to nearby hotels. It was guided by three specific objectives which are; to examine the relationship of CHICOP and nearby hotels; to investigate the application of CHICOP eco-innovative practices in nearby hotels; to assess the ways that can be used to create relationship and adopt CHICOP's eco-innovative practices. The study design was cross-sectional where by in-depth interview and questionnaires were collected from 51 hotels and CHICOP. In general, the findings showed that in a larger extent, there is no relationship between CHICOP and nearby hotels. Moreover, findings showed that hotels are interested with eco-innovative practices though they have not adopted them. Lastly, the findings showed that hotels are willing to establish cooperation and relationship with CHICOP in the near future, meanwhile they are keen to adopt eco-innovative practices if they will be trained enough to apply them.

In general, the study has reveals the gap existing among tourism investors which shows that despite being working under the same sector, there is little cooperation based on sustainable utilization and conservation of the shared natural resources. Since CHICOP is seemed to be the leading and expert on eco-innovative practices in urban west zone, it should be advised to wide up its education and training roles by including interested hotel managers as part of social group and business partners. This is important because Zanzibar Island is small, but has increasingly pressured by number of tourist hotels enough to scare the overuses of natural resources such as fresh water, electric power, marine resources and beaches as well as increasing of burden of unmanaged solid wastes. It should also be noticed that environmental risks have no boundary, regardless that certain places like Chumbe island are fully protected, yet, when the risks exceeded, the consequences will spread all over the Zanzibar islands.

Limitation and future research

The main limitation of this study is that the sample was restricted to CHICOP and nearby hotels with no consideration of other tourism institutions such as tour operators, restaurants and other tourism promotion bodies. For this reason, the results may neither be generalizable to all tourism and hospitality investors in urban west region. Therefore, it would be interesting for future study to research on the impacts of CHICOP’s eco-innovative practices to other tourism and hospitality organizations; a well as researching the role of Zanzibar tourism bodies in encouraging eco-innovative practices to business organizations.

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THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS ON TOURISTIC DINING EXPERIENCES

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Abstract

Elements of most dining places, especially those designed to attract tourists are capable of provoking emotional reactions. Each of the emotional reactions has different influences in experiential satisfaction. Despite several studies showing more favouritism of positive emotions on experiential satisfaction, nature, and context of a dining element to a greater extent determines the experiential outcome. This is because, dining experience is considered a sensory enjoyment that performs an experiential part of holiday, and therefore, existence of emotional process and experiential outcome in restaurants is obvious. In this respect, this study aim at investigating how international tourists' perception of dining quality components (Food Quality, Environment Quality, Price Offered, Service Quality and Other Guests) influence their Total Dining Experience through emotions – both Positive Emotional Reaction (PER) and Negative Emotional Reaction (NER) in various dining placesA sample of 371 international tourists was used in the survey. A structural equation modelling analysis for the mediation effect revealed a full mediation of both streams of emotions in the relationship between environment and total dining experience. The two emotional reactions were also found to mediate the relationships between Food Quality, Price Offered and Service Quality with Total Dining Experiences. Contrarily, the relationship between Other Guests and Total Dining Experiences was partially mediated by positive emotional reaction but not mediated by negative emotional reaction. Impliedly, restaurateurs may consider these findings in designing various dining elements potential to elicit certain emotions which eventually affect tourists' dining experiences. For academicians, the model developed and tested by this study can be replicated in other dining related contexts.

Key words: Dining experience, service quality, emotional reaction, culinary tourism, tourist experience, dining elements

INTRODUCTION

Emotions form the heart of consumption experience and consumer transformation (Caru and Cova, 2003). The tourism experience, is unique, emotionally charged and of high personal value (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005). Therefore, emotions play an important role in tourism given that vacations are rich in terms of experiential attributes (Gnoth, 1997). Culinary tourism, among other tourism activities involve sensory appraisal where tourists emphasize on their feelings of pleasure in the process of acquiring dining experiences (Kivela and Crotts, 2006). Likewise, destination restaurant ambience and cuisine, for example, are considered as legitimate sources of pleasure that generate emotions and experiences (Kivela and Crotts, 2006). Several studies attempted to understand the influence of emotion in tourism and hospitality. For example, Sipe (2018) explored guest perceptions of value and emotions in four segments of a hospitality and tourism marketplace. Sthapit examined the role of food consumption emotions on the formation of memories that further influence behavioral intentions and place attachment, with a focus on local food consumption. Similarly, positive and negative emotions have been dealt with both separately and concurrently in several studies including a study by Yan & Halpenny (2019) who focused on the role of positive emotions in fostering place attachment in tourism. Liu (2016) and Nawijn & Biran (2019) on the other hand looked at the role of negative emotions in shaping tourist experience. However, some authors examined the effect of both positive and negative emotions on the relationships between environment quality (Baker and Cameron (1996), Liu and Jang (2009), and Jang and Namkung (2009), food quality (Jang and Namkung, 2009), and service quality (Jang and Namkung, 2009) on the behavioural intentions in the restaurants. While it is recognised that tourist destinations are rich in terms of experiential attributes potential to evoke an emotional response, no study has empirically investigated the role of emotion in enhancing tourists' experiential satisfaction using all the five dining quality components. This study therefore aims at investigating the role of both positive and negative emotions in the relationship between the dining quality components (food quality, service quality, environment quality, price offered and other guests.

Theoretical background

Emotions in touristic dining experiences

The Stimulus-Organism-Response model (S-O-R) by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) provide a theoretical demonstration on the way elements of physical environment affects human behaviour through the internal processes (emotional reactions) within an individual. The S-O-R model has widely been adopted by environmental psychology and marketing researchers to explain individuals' cognitive, affective, and behavioural response to environmental stimuli (Ha and Jang, 2012; Liu and Jang, 2009). The model theorizes that external environment stimuli (S) can stimulate generation of emotional responses in an individual (O) and ultimately stimulate the individual's behaviour to two contrasting behaviours, approach, or avoidance towards an environment. This implies that, human beings can be conditioned by some choreographed events and encounters to produce some specific emotional responses since most bodily actions are determined by external material causes. Furthermore, the model posits that, consumers have three emotional states when responding to environmental stimuli (S): pleasure, arousal, and dominance.

Stimuli (S), according to Mehrabian and Russell (1974), are external to a person entailing several intangible and tangible features of physical environment. These may include some elements in a tourism dining setting which can stimulate emotional state of an individual. Holbrook and Hirschman (1986) refer to them as environmental inputs which constitutes products and services possessing some objectives features likely to unleash tangible benefits and subjective features likely to produce some symbolic benefits. Tangible features may be referred to quality standards commonly associated with attribute-based assessment relying on functional dimension such as size, nutritional content or levels of competency expected to deliver. Distinct from tangible features of products and services, symbolic features exhibit more experiential aspects of an encounter such as cheerfulness, strangeness and sociability of a product or service setting. The dining setting designed to impart experiential benefits to the tourists, their products, services and other components may be embedded with experiential features to stimulate some tourists' internal processes since all products, despite of how mundane they may be, are expected to possess some symbolic meaning although levels differs in their magnitude. These are possible agents for stimulating individual's internal processes and therefore, their assessment of performance will likely influence an individual' state of mind.

An organism (O) in S-O-R model represents internal structures and processes (emotions) within an individual after having encountered with specific stimuli where three independent bipolar emotional states (Pleasure, Arousal and Dominance - PAD) are involved. Pleasure is referred to as extent to which a person feels happy, good, joyous or contended; arousal is achieved when feelings of excitements, stimulation, awake, active or alert are manifested in an individual and Dominance refers to the degree to which an individual feels to be in control, influential or important (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). Studies have even examined the influence of pleasure and arousal in varieties of responses, both utilitarian and hedonic value (Babin et al., 2005; Babin et al., 1994). The organism stage (emotions) moreover, has found to mediate the relationship between stimuli and responses (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Jang and Namkung, 2009; Liu and Jang 2009; Sperdin, Peters and Strobl, 2012). Such process includes perceptual, physiological and cognitive processes (Sperdin, et al. 2012). The dining setting is said to influence emotional state of a tourist in many ways. The PAD scale by Mehrabian and Russell (1974) is considered as simple and ordinary in nature (Baggozi et al., 1999; Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; Liu and Jang, 2009), but limited to identification of specific emotions (i.e. joy, anger) experienced by individual and therefore fails to capture the entire domain of emotional experiences (Liu and Jang, 2009; Richins, 1997). The PAD scale assumption that emotional state exists as bipolar categories has questioned the scale's appropriateness and hence challenged by inability to capture both negative and positive emotions simultaneously since, some consumptions afford coexistence of both emotions (Laros and Steenkamp, 2005; Liu and Jang, 2009).

The psychology literature has well documented the debate on best way to employ bipolar or unipolar scales to measure emotions. While the bipolar measurement items employ a single item (such as, happiness - unhappiness) to inquire consumers' rating on their emotional state on a five-point Likert-scale, a unipolar measurement scale involves multiple (discrete) items. A number of studies attempted to adopt a unipolar approach to emotional responses. For example, Jang and Namkung (2009) employed a unipolar approach to test the role of each emotion where they realized unique influences of each on the three stimuli as well as on the behaviour intentions. Liu and Jang (2009) also employed unipolar approach to examine the mediating role of positive and negative emotions in a relationship between dining atmospherics and behavioural intentions. Similarly, Westbrook (1987) maintained that unipolar conceptualization for consumption experience does not allow for contradiction of pleasant, unpleasant and indifference states.

Contrary to the PAD scales by Mehrabian and Russell (1974), generally, these studies reveal a possibility of customers to feel happiness and unhappiness at the same time while every single emotion can have unique effect on responses. Especially with dining activities, it is possible to encounter multiple feelings since it is most likely that an individual will encounter several experiences in the same dining occasion. For example, the food might appeal to an individual's taste but the interaction with other components of dining may not be considered favourable and hence evoke a different feeling. This therefore suggests for unipolar approach with emotional items categorization that originate from basic human emotions where discrete emotions are developed. The common ones include: Differential Emotion Scale (DES) by Izzard (1977) covering ten primary scale namely interest, joy, anger, sadness, contempt, disgust, shame, fear, surprise and guilt; Psycho-evolutionary (adaptive) theory of emotions by Plutchik (1980) covering eight basic emotions namely joy, anger, fear, acceptance, sadness, disgust, surprise and expectancy; Positive Affect and Negative Affect (PANAS) by Watson et al. (1988) covered 20 scales and Consumption Emotion Set (CES) by Richins (1997) covered 16 scales namely fear, sadness, shame, anger, excitement, worry, romantic love, joy, surprise, optimism, envy, love, discontent, contentment, peacefulness and loneliness.

Hosany and Gilbert (2010) posited varied critiques in all the scales, ideally, contextual differences may influence the appropriateness of individual scales. One of the most advantages of the basic human emotions is the possibility of categorization into positive and negative emotions (Liu and Jang, 2009). Studies have shown importance of using positive and negative emotions categorization. For example, the study by Baker and Cameron (1996) reveals that a warmer background colour (i.e. orange and red) in a restaurant environment is more likely to stimulate negative emotions in consumers than a cooler background colour (i.e. blue and green) would. Similarly, Liu and Jang (2009) in their study found that positive emotions strongly predicted perceived value than negative emotions. Another interesting observation was the study of Jang and Namkung's (2009) where findings revealed that positive emotions had stronger influence to the behavioural responses while negative emotions had weak and insignificant influence on the behavioural responses. The authors further discovered that atmospherics and service function as stimuli that increase positive emotions while product attributes, (i.e. food quality) reduce negative emotions. Results also suggest that positive emotions mediate the relationship between atmospherics/services and future behavioural outcomes while negative emotions do not mediate these relationships. The current study acknowledges the conceptual distinctness and hence the existing categorization of emotion scales, therefore, this study adopted a discrete positive and negative emotional reactions scale.

Response (R) represents outcome of the process, according to M-R model, they are represented by two contrasting responding behaviours, approach, or avoidance to an encounter. The approach behaviour represent positive behaviours such as desire to stay, participate in different activities, to affiliate and to explore the environment while avoidance behaviour refers to the opposite of approach behaviour, such as resisting staying, participating, affiliating and exploring a particular encounter (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). Example of response behaviour include behavioural intention, willingness to recommend (Jang and Namkung, 2009; Liu and Jang, 2009), willingness to revisit (Kim and

Moon, 2009; Jang and Namkung, 2009), positive word of mouth (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982; Liu and Jang, 2009) repeat purchase (Liu and Jang, 2009); willingness to return, enjoyment of shopping (Donovan and Rossiter, 1982); willingness to pay (Bigne´ et al., 2005); and satisfaction (Bigne´ et al., 2005; Sperdin et al., 2012).

Since the main objective in hospitality and tourism offerings is to impart leisure experiences, the degree of arousal or excitement may result into pleasure and satisfaction to an individual (Bigne´ et al., 2005). These, consequently, facilitate achievement of enjoyment and fun consumers derive from consumption of offerings because both objective and subjective measures which have increasingly been used in assessment at stimulus stage (such as sensory cues in a consumption environment) are assumed to elicit both objective (functional) and subjective (hedonic) responses to the consumers (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982). A few studies (Chang et al., 2011; Otto and Ritchie, 1996; Tse and Crotts, 2005) considered tourist experiences as a response to an encounter, since experiential benefits are considered as the end products of most hospitality and tourism consumption, especially if the activities involved are perceived as purely recreational (Otto and Ritchie, 1996). Similarly, the current study operationalized behavioural responses as Total Dining Experiences (TDE) given the diverse experiential benefits comprised in tourism dining.

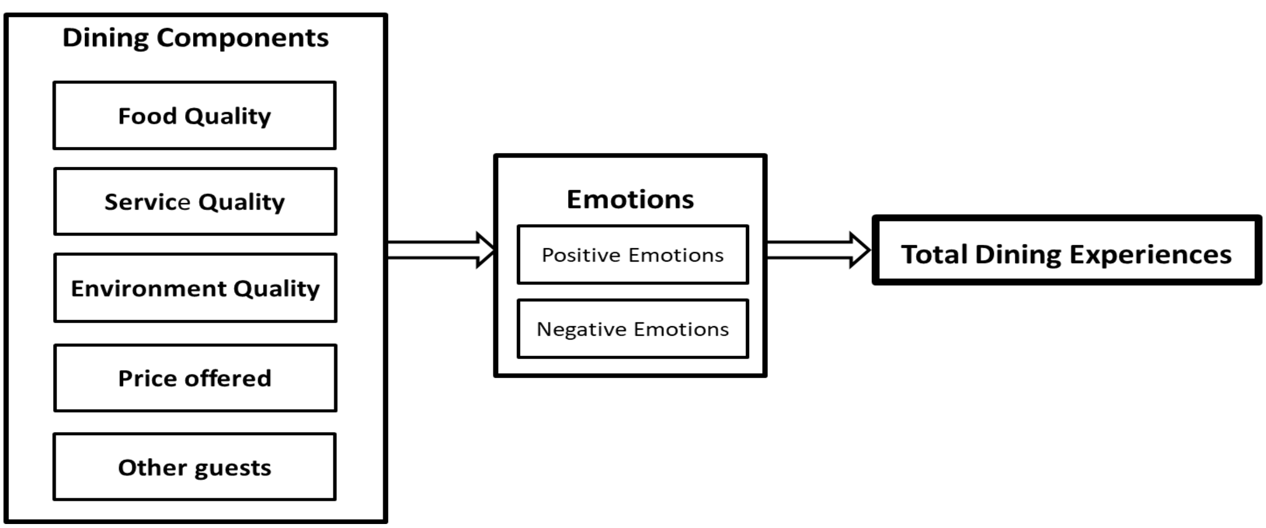

Fig. 1. Conceptual model

Source: Author, based on past empirical studies and theories

Dining quality components, emotions, and total dining experience

Food quality, emotional responses, and total dining experiences

Food quality can stimulate varied emotional reactions resulting to some behavioural responses to an individual (Jang and Namkung, 2009). Hirschman and Holbrook (1982) noted that the seeking of emotional arousal is suggested to be linked to the consumption of food equally as much as to the consumption of other certain products such as novels, plays and sporting events. This is because, emotional involvement is highly associated with hedonic consumption and food consumptions is increasingly considered by scholars (Adongo et al., 2015; Chang et al., 2011; Hall and Sharples, 2003; Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982) as hedonic consumption expected and evidenced to production of experiential benefit.

Scholars have made efforts to identify different means to create memorable experiences with culinary offering, particularly, how one created food or drink in a way that offers peak experiences. For example, in an effort towards quenching tourists' quest for novelty, likely to be stimulated by pleasant feelings and therefore achieving enjoyable peak experiences, a Jiangxi in China prepared some rice cooked in bamboo (Quan and Wang, 2004). Such a unique and traditional way of rice cooking adds some pleasant taste to the rice, but also can stimulate a tourist's feelings about the food.

Therefore, culinary establishments can influence tourists' peak experiences through offering them with unique, exotic, and indigenous culinary offerings in order to stimulate their emotions which are likely to influence touristic experiences in different dining establishments. Therefore, this study postulates the following hypothese

H1a: Positive emotional response mediates the relationship between Food Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

H1b: Negative emotional response mediates the relationship between Food Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

Service quality, emotions ad total dining experiences

Service staff interaction with tourists as a key component of the services cape particularly in culinary establishments is likely to enhance touristic benefits by imparting a feeling of pleasure and enjoyment when on their visit to various tourism establishments. All the same, service staffs are also considered potential in influencing customers' emotions (Bitner, 1992; Sperdin et al., 2012) since their position as sellers of the services creates and represents an image of a consumption establishment (Sperdin et al., 2012). This can be done by use of the service employees' competence (professional knowledge and skills such as ability to communicate, interact and deliver quality service), and appearance (i.e. neatness, attitude, uniform) performances. Sperdin et al. (2012) in their study found that human-ware (service staff responsiveness, empathy, expertise, and ability to take part in service) aspects strongly influence the emotional state of customers. Similarly, Jang and Namkung (2009) in their study found service quality to be a significant predictor of positive emotion reaction but not key determinant of negative emotional reactions. This means that attributes of services of high quality are more likely to be associated with positive emotions than low quality attributes.

However, in ensuring touristic experiential benefits, which calls for a more hedonic evaluation of individuals holistic behavioural response as manifested itself through a combination of cognitive, sensorial and emotional responses after consumption of culinary offerings, an investigation of the mediation role of emotion is inevitable in order to identify actual features of service encounter likely to influence dining experiences when individuals are imparted with either positive or negative emotional reactions. The following hypotheses are therefore posited:

H2a: Positive emotions mediates the relationship between service Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

H2b: Negative emotions mediates the relationship between service Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

Environment quality, emotions, and total dining experience

Physical environment referred by a number of authors as atmospherics comprises various elements in a particular place. With respect of dining occasion, the environment aspects may encompass interior and exterior designs and decorations, colours, lightening, sound, spatial layout, and other environmental signals which communicate about that place. Atmospherics can form significant part of dining experiences since dining environment can create some favourable or unfavourable mood which affects individuals' emotion (Ha and Jang, 2012). Similarly, a poorly kept environment (example dirty, crowd or noisy dining) is likely to result in negative arousal and consequently failure to achieve positive and significant memorable tourism experience (Kim et al., 2014).

Theoretical and empirical review have provided an evidence that, an environment which is creatively designed to stimulate individuals' cognitive, sensory and emotional responses, have potential to enhance tourists' experiential benefits (hedonic and functional) through realization of all the touristic experiences dimensions. In this case, if some positive or negative emotions are imparted to a tourist through proper staging of environmental aspects of a dining, any tourist appraisal favouring that environment excellence is likely to enhance the total dining experience. It is therefore hypothesized

H3a: Positive emotional response mediates the relationship between environment Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

H3b: Negative emotional response mediates the relationship between environment Quality and the Total Dining Experience.

Price offered, emotions and total dining experience

The price offered by culinary establishments as perceived by consumers is considered one of the key components in affecting the satisfaction with a dining. Scholars have identified price perceived by consumers as responsible for their emotional responses. For example, Kincaid et al. (2010) revealed that affect factor partially mediates the relationship between tangibles component and customers' satisfaction in a restaurant. Similarly, Jani and Han (2011) found service encounter strongly influenced an affect component as compared to perceived price. Moreover, the authors revealed perceived price to fully mediate the relationship between service encounter and customers' satisfaction.

Perceived price component has been using both objective and subjective measurements to determine the component's effect in a dining consumption. Some comparative marketing strategies have been used to assist consumers in comparison of price offered between different restaurants in order to have more impact on subjective evaluation of price and hence imparting positive affect to the customers (Jani and Han, 2011). This should be the case since in culinary establishments, tourism dining may be considered hedonic in nature (subjective) and therefore requires subjective evaluative judgment. Emotions forms the key consequence in subjective evaluation, and it plays an important role in tourism since holidays are rich in generating experiential attributes (Gnoth, 1997). Despite an extensive work in perceived price performance in restaurants, the link between evaluation of price performances and experiential consumption through emotional responses is still missing. This study therefore proposes to test the following relationships:

H4a: Positive emotional response mediates the relationship between price offered and the Total Dining Experience.

H4b: Negative emotional response mediates the relationship between price offered and the Total Dining Experience.

Other guests, emotions and total dining experiences

Dining establishment has long been used to reflect the eating and drinking occasion, however, recently other factors in the dining has been revealed to enhance the enjoyment of eating and drinking, such factors include social interaction. Social factor has been regarded by several scholars to be one of important determinants of tourist dining (Choo and Petric, 2014; Crompton, 1981; Gilovich et al., 2014; Gyimóthy, 2000). The more exciting and stimulating the tourism dining seems to be, the more the experiential it becomes. This is because, tourism experiences are unique, emotionally charged and exhibit high personal value (McIntosh and Siggs, 2005).

Similarly, Otto and Ritchie (1996) also posited that tourism destinations are likely to evoke an emotional response due to the rich experiential nature of attributes. However, other dining components may support or hinder success of other guests in a dining place, for example, Bitner (1992) noted that the seating arrangement and the way food is prepared at Benihana restaurant stimulates interactions between visitors and between visitors and staff. Similarly, Verhoef et al. (2009) in their study took holistic perspective of customer experience and underscored importance of other consumers, also referred them as 'uncontrollable factors' in tourism establishment, over and above service or price factors. However, despite the highlighted importance, Murray et al. (2009) emphasized that the interaction with other consumers might possibly enhance or totally reduce the tourist experience. For instance, Gyimóthy (2000) noted that some tourists preferred to be alone, quiet and relaxed at times, just like any other tourist who consider their holiday as an escape from everyday busy life routine, and therefore claim for limited interaction. For such visitors, creation of an interactive environment may evoke some negative feelings towards an entire occasion. Consequently, affectively noticeable incidences are noted to remarkably moderate holiday assessment (Bitner et al., 1990). The mixed feelings likely to emerge in a consumption of tourism offerings necessitate the following hypotheses.

H5a: Positive emotional response mediates the relationship between other guests and the Total Dining Experience.

H5b: Negative emotional response mediates the relationship between other guests and the Total Dining Experience.

Methodology

Measurement items

Some validated multi-item scales were used to empirically test the hypotheses whereby, three main constructs related to the tourists dining experience was compiled in a questionnaire. The first construct was the dining quality components which included Food quality, service quality, environment quality, price offered and other guests. The second construct included emotional reaction which was divided into positive emotional responses and negative emotional responses. Measurement items of both categories of emotional reactions requires a respondent to express how dining occasions made them feel. Using Jang and Namkung (2009) validated scales which based on Izard's (1977) categorization, positive responses were represented by joy, excitement, peacefulness, refreshment and surprise items, while negative responses items included anger, distress, disgust, scary and shame from previous studies. The last construct was the Total dining experience with seven measurement items where respondents expressed if their dining made them feel as if it was once in lifetime experience, adventurous, memorable, part of local culture, exposed them to new ingredients, satisfactory experience.

Each construct was measured using a 5-point Likert scale which inquired on how much one agrees or disagrees with some itemized statements, where by 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Data collection and analysis

A survey using 371 international tourists who had visited Tanzania and had dined at various dining places while in their stay was conducted. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed by a researcher together with two more research assistants. Given the fact that emotional responses elicited by service industry

specific stimuli was considered more significant in diverse dining places including theme and non-theme restaurants, open food markets, food stalls, tented camps, local's homes, and beach sides. The data was collected from four most visited regions by tourists in Tanzania, these include Kilimanjaro, Arusha, Dar es salaam and Zanzibar.

The data were analyzed following Anderson and Gerbing's (1988) two step approach: a measurement model and a subsequent structural model. The multiple-item scales of eight constructs were subjected to a confirmatory factor analysis to determine whether the manifest variables reflected the hypothesized latent variables. The adequacy of the individual items was assessed by composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminate validity. After the validation of the measurements, structural equation model (SEM) was used to test the validity of the proposed model and the hypotheses.

Table 1: Constructs, measures items, reliability, and validity of measurement items for an emotion moderated TDE model

Construct	**Measurement items**	**Label**	**IR**	**CA**	**CR**	**AVE**
Food Quality	The food offered was fresh	FQ1	.733	.939	.937	.5
	The food served was tasty	FQ2	.744			
	The local food was available whenever needed it	FQ3	.749			
	The local food served was healthy	FQ4	.611			
	The food offered was Indigenous using local ingredients	FQ5	.645			
	Dining places offered variety of food items	FQ6	.742			
Service quality	Dining places offered choices of eating tools	S Q1	.778	.841	.903	.7
	Staff were always willing to help to clarify menu items	SQ2	.842			
	Staff served me food exactly as I ordered it	SQ3	.871			
	Staff provided a prompt and quick service	SQ4	.850			
Environment Quality	Restaurants and other eating places had an appealing interior design and décor	EvQ1	.793	.855	.810	.6
	The dining places had Tanzanian designs	EvQ2	.686			
	The dining location, surrounding and scenery was attractive	EvQ3	.816			
Price Offered	Staff did not overcharge the bills	PO1	.653	.785	.755	.5
	Food and drinks were fairly priced	PO2	.734			
	The dining experiences was worth the money	PO3	.746			

	I spent					
Other Guests	Eating in a company of other travelers increases comfort	OG1	.815	.820	.813	.6
	The dining place full of visitors increases dining excitement	OG2	.743			
	Eating in company of locals increases authenticity of dining	OG3	.749			
Positive emotional responses	Refreshed (cool)	PER1	.726	.849	.850	.5
	Excited (thrilled, enthusiastic)	PER2	.706			
	Surprise (amazed)	PER3	.759			
	Peaceful (comfortable, relaxed, at rest)	PER4	.713			
	Joyful (happy, pleased, romantic)	PER5	.741			
Negative emotional responses	Ashamed (embarrassed, humiliated)	NER1	.809	.906	.910	.7
	Disgusted (displeased, annoyed, bad)	NER2	.859			
	Scared (fear, panicky, unsafe, tension)	NER3	.836			
	Distressed (frustrated, disappointed, upset, unhappy)	NER4	.834			
	Angry (irritated)	NER5	.754			
Total dining experience	Exposed to varieties of new types of ingredients	TDE1	.799	.939	.937	.7
	Desire to sample more unique local food flavours	TDE2	.847			
	Feel like I had once in a lifetime dining experience	TDE3	.804			

Feel like I am really in an adventure	TDE4	.874
Offered some wonderful memories about the eating and foods	TDE5	.880
Satisfied my well-being	TDE6	.840
Feel part of the local culture	TDE7	.727

Results

All the eight (8) study factors were subjected to the initial measurement model, the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) by use of a maximum likelihood method of estimation of the study and achieved reasonable goodness of fit according to Hair et.al. (2010), with the following fit indices: The $\chi 2$/df statistics test to sample size of 1.330, falling below the recommended value of 2 indicating an incredibly good model fit. The RMSEA of .030 which show evidence of goodness of fit since the value is below .07. TLI equal or greater than 0.90 indicates a good fit of a model; in this case, TLI was .974 indicating good model fit. CFI recommended fit indices with large sample size requires to be above .90 to achieve a model fit, in the study case the CFI values were .977, proving to achieve a good model fit. was employed to test how well the measured variables represent the construct, whereby, the internal and external consistencies of the items were thoroughly examined to all eight constructs measurement model (Table 1). The results show some acceptable levels of internal consistency in each construct with Cronbach's alpha levels of .7 and above (Hair, et al., 2010), suggesting for good reliability of the items to construct they claim to measure. Construct Reliability (CR) values were calculated, and results show estimates ranging from .755 to .937 exceeding .7 (Hair, et al., 2010), indicating a good internal consistency of multiple indicators for each construct in the measurement model.

Convergent validity of latent factors was also assessed and standardized factor loadings for the individual items were >.5 and they were all significant. Standardized factor loading estimates of higher values of above .5 indicate high convergence (Hair, et al., 2010), indicating that measures that should be related are related. Convergent validity was also assessed by calculating the Average Variance Extracted (AVE), whereby, an AVE value equal or greater than .5 suggest adequate convergence (Hair et al., 2010). Results of the calculated AVE show no issues with convergent validity since all eight constructs scored values of equal and greater than

.5 for AVE (Table 1). Discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the AVE values with the squared correlations between constructs, whereby the squared interconstruct correlations between pairs of constructs were less than the values of AVE. Discriminant validity is trying to establish that measures that should not be related are in reality not related. The results suggest presence of discriminate validity, that, the constructs in the measurement model were eight distinct constructs.

This was followed by the proposed structural model estimation (Table 2) which aimed at testing hypothesized mediation effect of positive and negative emotional response on the relationship between dining quality components and total dining experience. The mediation role was tested base on the Baron and Kenny's logic as well as by checking for indirect effect. Baron and Kenny's (1986) mediation testing procedure involves four steps: (i) confirming that the independent variables are related with the dependent variable; (ii) showing that the independent variable are related with the mediator; (iii) showing that the mediators are related with the dependent variable when independent variables are controlled for; and (iv) checking whether or not the direct effect of independent variables on dependent variable (when mediator variable is controlled) is zero or is no longer significant which demonstrate a complete or partial mediation relationship. To further assess the mediation effect, an examination of whether there are any changes in the magnitude of the estimates and whether the indirect effects are significant was recommend by Baron and Kenny (1986) and Hair et al. (2010). The indirect effects were obtained through bootstrapping the standardized indirect effect for two tailed significance test.

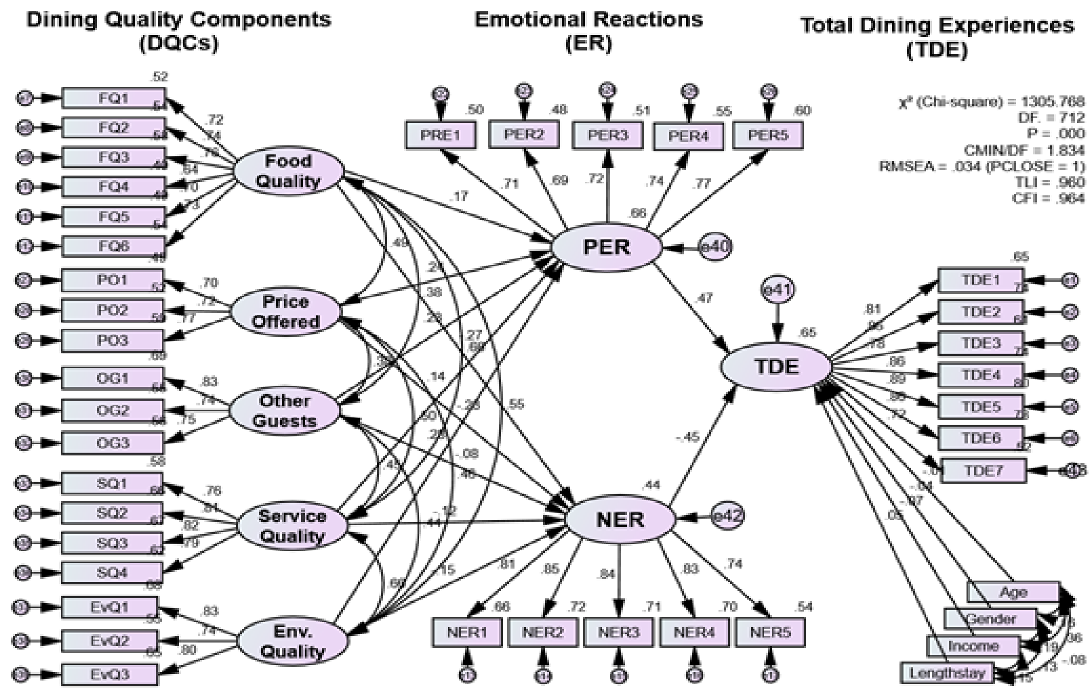

Fig. 2. A structural model showing mediation effect of emotions in total dining experiences

Following both Baron and Kenny (1986) and Hair et. al. (2010), correlations between constructs were tested in the measurement model (CFA) and results indicate some significant relationships between TDE and FQ (.602 p < .001), TDE and SQ (.669 p < .001), TDE and EvQ (.616 p < .001), TDE and PO (.590 p < .001), and TDE and OG (.529 p < .001). Also the relationship between the independent variables (DQCs) and the mediators were established and they were all statistically significant. The relationship between DQCs and PER (FQ =.538, SQ =.623, EvQ =.673, PO =.569, OG =.546) and DQCs and NER (FQ =-.480, SQ =-.546, EvQ =-.524, PO =-.478, OG =-.433) were all statistically significant at p = .001.

Similarly, the relationship between mediators and outcome variable were supported since the relationship between PER (.70) and NER (-.68) with TDE was also statistically significant at p = .001. This satisfies the first three conditions that the direct and unmediated relationships should be significant (Hair et. al., 2010).

Estimation of the mediated model was done whereby the original model (without the direct effect from DQCs to TDE) was estimated, followed by the model with direct effect (revised model) to assess if adding the direct effect would substantially change the model fit. Results show a significant decrease in chi-square ($\Delta\chi^2$ = 116.589, df = 5, p = .00), a considerable improvement of the model fit and significant and non-significant path estimates (see Table 2). Specifically, results show some causal mediation paths with possibility of some mediation effect since they contain paths which are significant and some which were not significant. The significant paths include: (1) DQCs → PER → TDE; and (2) FQ, PO, SQ, EvQ → NER → TDE which suggest for some partial mediation effect. The paths which were not significant after inclusion of the direct effect include, EvQ → TDE which suggest for some full mediation effect. The path from OG → NER → TDE was not significant in the original model which suggest that OG is not mediated by NER. Further analysis to confirm existence of partial or full mediation in the relationships was conducted by assessing the direct and indirect effects leading from DQCs to TDE.

Table2: Testing mediation in the TDE model

Model Element	**Without Direct Effect**	**With Direct Effect**
χ^2 (Chi-square)	1305.768	1189.179
Degrees of freedom	712	707
Probability	.000	.000
CMIN/DF	1.834	1.682
RMSEA	.034	.030
CFI	.964	.970
TLI	.960	.967
FQ → PER	.168	.150
PO → PER	.245	.234
OG → PER	.229	.223
SQ → PER	.136	.119

EvQ → PER	.277	.271
FQ → NER	-.270	-.260
PO → NER	-.226	-.221
OG → NER	-.076 (NS)	-.076 (NS)
SQ → NER	-.121	.120
EvQ → NER	-.157	-.147
PER → TDE	.468	.101
NER → TDE	-.447	-.227
FQ → TDE	Not estimated	.202
PO → TDE	Not estimated	.201
OG → TDE	Not estimated	.105
SQ → TDE	Not estimated	.136
EvQ → TDE	Not estimated	.048 (NS)

Table 3 presents the results of the magnitude of the mediating effects, calculated by breaking down the total effects to the direct and indirect effects of DQCs → TDE in both the original model (no direct effects from DQCs → TDE) and revised model (direct effect added for DQCs → TDE) as suggested in Hair et al. (2010). Substantial and significant indirect effects can be observed, hence supporting the presence of mediating effects of PER and NER on the relationship between DQCs (FQ, PO, OG, SQ, EvQ) and TDE when the model without direct effect was estimated. However, these effects were reduced when the direct path was added in the second model (see Table 3). Despite the decrease of the indirect effect, they are still significant, with exception of EvQ → TDE and therefore account for considerable share of the total effects resulting to a general conclusion that the model is partially mediated by both the PER and NER.

Table 3: Assessing Direct and Indirect Effects in a Mediated Model

Total effect (Standardized)	**Only Indirect Effect**	**Indirect and Direct Effect**
SQ → TDE		
Total effect	.12 (.01)	.18 (.01)
Direct effect	.00	.14 (.01)
Indirect effect	.12 (.01)	.04 (.04)
FQ → TDE		
Total effect	.20 (.010)	.29 (.01)
Direct effect	.00	.20 (.01)
Indirect effect	.20 (.010)	.09 (.01)
PO → TDE		
Total effect	.22 (.01)	.29 (.01)
Direct effect	.00	.20 (.01)
Indirect effect	.22 (.01)	.09 (.01)
OG → TDE		
Total effect	.14 (.01)	.15 (.01)
Direct effect	.00	.11 (.01)
Indirect effect	.14 (.01)	.05 (.01)
EvQ → TDE		
Total effect	.20 (.01)	.12 (.01)

Direct effect	.00	.05 (.30)
Indirect effect	.20 (.01)	.08 (.01)

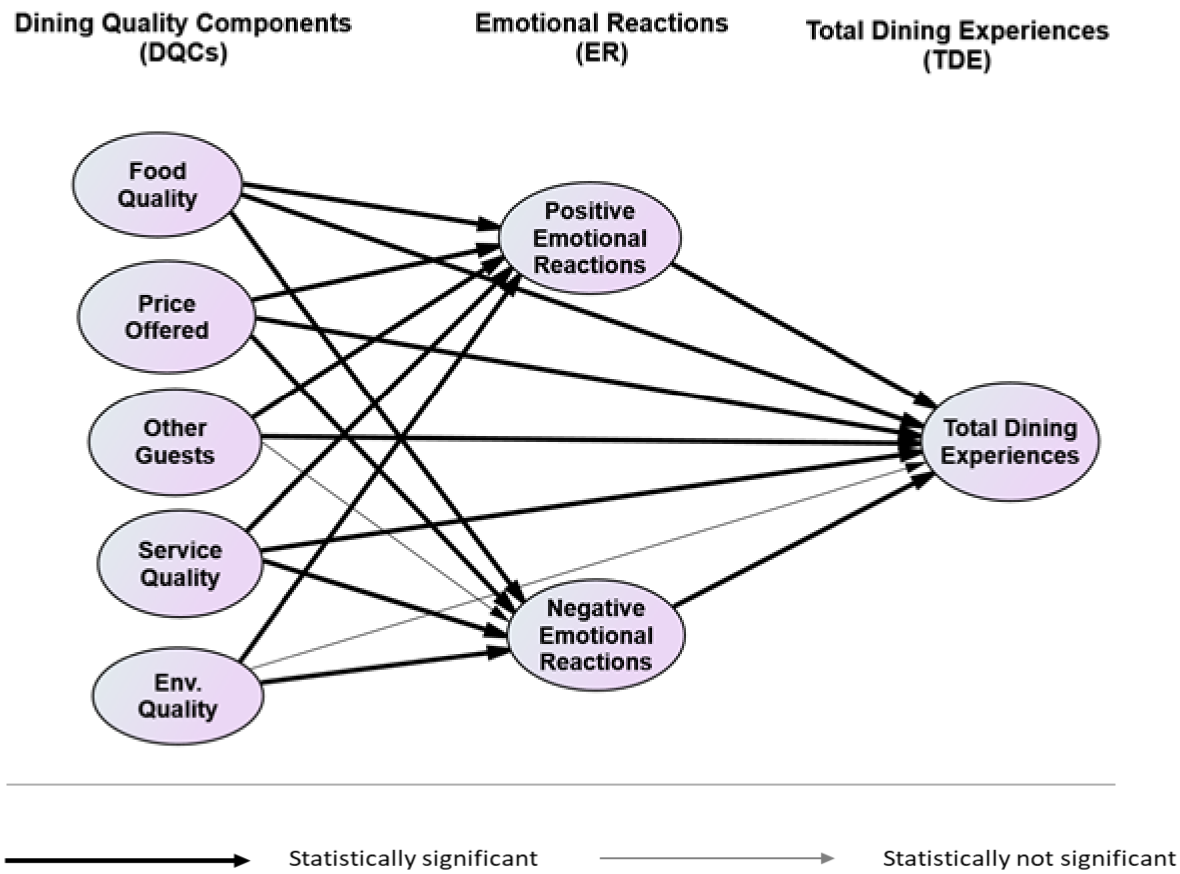

Figure 3: Final structural TDE model indication the significant and non-significant mediation relationships

Generally, results show that FO – TDE, SQ – TDE, OG - TDE and PO – TDE relationships are partially mediated by emotional reactions although the amount score of indirect effects was reduced, it was still significant constituting substantial contribution to the total effect. Furthermore, the relationship EvQ – TDE is fully mediated by emotional reactions since there is substantial value score in the indirect effect and the direct relationship is not statistically significant. Similarly, the mediation effect of NER on OG – TDE relationship was considered as not supported since there was no significant relationship between OG – NER in both models (with and without direct effect). Therefore, this suggests evidence that negative emotional response acts as mediator of the relationships between all dining quality components and total dining experience, except for the relationship between OG and TDE. The relationship between OG – TDE is therefore shown to be mediated by positive emotional reaction only.

Discussion

Three different scenarios are identified in the results. The first scenario suggests that, there is partial mediation of positive emotional reactions in the relationship between all constructs of TDQ (FQ, SQ, EvQ, PO, and OG) and total dining experience. This implies that, when tourists encounter food attributes that facilitate achievement of positive feelings, their total dining experiences will increase with the increase in appreciating the quality of such a dining activity. The second scenario suggests a partial mediation of negative emotional reaction in the relationship between DQCs (FQ, SQ, EvQ and PO) and total dining experience. This implies that when negative emotions are reduced to the tourists while participating in a dining activity, there is a possibility for the total dining experience to increase with the increase of their appraisals of the dining quality.

Consistently, Adongo (2015) and Lofman (1991) suggested that during the dining activities, positive emotional responses relates positively to tourists' total dining experiences while negative emotional responses relates negatively to tourists' total dining experiences. This was the case in the present study where positive emotions was positively (β = .468) and strongly linked to tourists' total dining experiences and the negative emotional responses was inversely (β = -.447) related to the total dining experiences. These findings can also be related to the study by Bigne et al. (2005) who suggested that physiological experience of pleasure (positive emotional experience) may be helpful to assist visitors in remembering the experience that reminds physiological pleasure. Some prerequisite assumptions that tourists who hold positive believe about the dining quality components will infer similar positive feeling towards the dining quality component was met with majority of the relationships.

The third scenario observed implies that both positive and negative emotional responses fully mediated the relationship between environment quality and the total dining experience. This implies that, tourists will always attach some feeling of whether positive or negative emotions when appreciating their dining so long as the dining environment is concerned. Ha and Jang (2010) also posited that the physical environment can play an important role in creating favourable emotions before any actual service is provided, which in turn enhances the relationship between quality and satisfaction. The dining environment in the study included interior décor, location of the dining place and local music.

And the fourth scenario suggests that, there is no mediation in the relationship between OG and TDE by both emotions (positive and negative). This implies that when negative emotional reactions are increased or reduced to tourists while participating in dining activities, there is no possibility of any effect on their total dining experience as a result of increase of perceived benefits of dining in company of other guests. even when tourists are imparted with negative emotions, their appraisal of the dining performance in respect of company of other guests in a dining does not affect the achievement of their total dining experiences. This may be due to the fact that social factor by itself is capable of absorbing the disappointments an individual might have come across in a dining establishment since, the component was measured by, 'dining with locals increases authenticity', 'dining with other travelers increases comfort', 'dining full of visitors increases excitement' item. Despite the importance of interaction and social inclusion in tourism (Murphy, 2001; Otto & Ritchie, 1996; White & White, 2009), it has been emphasized that this might not always be positive. Indeed, interaction with other guests could either enhance positive or negative tourist experience (Murray, 2009). This implies that the social factor can be unpredictable when it comes to tourism dining

Generally, results imply that evaluation of total dining experiences should be enhanced by more positive emotional responses and less negative emotional responses. When more positive emotions are imparted to the tourists while interacting with dining encounters, their appraisal of the performance of their dining will increase the tourist total dining experiences. Similarly, when tourists are imparted with more negative emotions, their appraisal of the performance of their dining will decrease the tourist total dining experiences. For example, if a culinary establishment stage their dining components (authentic food, exotic environment or rich social interactive layout) in a way that they engage tourists fully and consequently exerts emotional reactions to the tourists, this imparts tourists with feeling of pleasantness (positive emotions). In this respect, when tourists therefore appreciate that dining encounter, their total dining experiences will also increase. On the other hand, if tourists encounter unfavorable elements such as 'dirty washrooms, in a way that imparts negative emotional reaction, any tourists' appraisals in that dining occasion will reduce the total dining experiences.

Implication

Theoretical implications

Previous studies have applied the Mehrabian and Russell model to investigate the role of positive and negative emotions in mediating the relationships between perceived quality (food quality, service quality and environment quality) and behavioral responses in different dining encounters (e.g. Jang and Namkung, 2009). However, few have considered emotions as mediator in the relationship between price offered and other guests, and the total dining experience. This study therefore managed to include five stimuli in the mediation model which provides for empirical examination of different effects each emotion has in the relationship between the DQCs and the TDE. As a result, the study provides for an extension of the Mehrabian and Russell model by including diverse aspects of stimuli and emotions in the context of dining experiences.

Moreover, cognitive appraisal of dining quality components has long been treated as a separate theoretical framework from the experiential (hedonic) theoretical framework, whereby, with recent developments, studies have tried to conceptually show the cognitive appraisal (e.g. Quality evaluations) acting as antecedents of emotional and sensorial responses (e.g. tourist experience). This is because, cognitive appraisals evoke emotional state and in turn influence the experiential value of dining. The current study empirically validated the measurement of latent constructs and established the direct and indirect (through positive and negative emotions) relationships between the dining quality components and the total dining experience.

Findings provide insights on the mediation role of positive and negative emotions in the relationships between dining quality components and total dining experiences. Both, the positive and the negative emotional responses were mediators of the relationship between dining quality components and total dining experiences with exception of other guests which was not mediated by negative emotional responses. This proves the distinctiveness of negative and positive emotional responses on behavioural responses and therefore justifies the use of unipolar approach to emotional responses instead of the Mehrabian and Rusell’s (1974) bipolar approach (PAD). Jang and Namkung (2009) also emphasized on the use of unipolar approach to emotional responses since it helps in assessment of the role plaid by each emotion.

Managerial implications

Tourism firms dealing with provision of food and dining activities to tourists should capitalize on enhancing tourists total dining experiences by including destinations cultural/local aspects dining quality attributes such as cooking and serving from clay pots, leaves or coconut shells, service staff dressing on cultural attire, menu or service staff telling story about particular food or drink, display of cultural ornaments and drawings in decorations. This will stimulate tourists' feelings on the dining activities in various dining places. Therefore, successful management of the dining places requires a thorough attention to both positive and negative emotional responses in order to efficiently offer dining experiences. The target should be to enhance positive emotional responses and to reduce negative responses.

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Sub Theme: ICT Aspects

BUSINESS MARKETING: EXPLORING THE ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA USAGE IN TOURISM BUSINESS IN ARUSHA REGION

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is one among the industries that has implemented and is changed by new technology. Tourism businesses are taking chances in adopting social media as a means to communicate with their clients. A study found that Europe continent was leading in using social media where European countries are presented in at least one social media application while Africa as a continent lagged behind. Furthermore, tourism businesses in global south countries such as Tanzania are in the early adoption of social media and little is known on the practices and processes that are being adopted in social media marketing. The absence of this knowledge needs a base research assessing and reporting the social media practices so as to help in creating proper frameworks and models that can be applied for better practices by tourism businesses.

The study employed a qualitative design, to explore social media marketing as adopted by tourism businesses. The research took a multi-case study approach of nine tourism businesses in Arusha was used. The purpose of the research was to identify similarities and differences in the cases and to assist in creating a stronger understanding of how social media is being used. Key personal responsible for social media activity were purposively sampled and interviewed. Social media posts were also collected from the social platforms (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, LinkedIn and Trip Advisor) and a content analysis was done to further the understanding of social media use.

The study findings revealed that the most used social network was Facebook. Content sharing, engagement, announcements and campaigns were the primary uses of social media by participants. Marketing was the sole use of social media, because of social media being a new concept, the advancement in the use of social media for public relations, recruitment and internal communication were a new phenomenon to the businesses.

The findings recommend that companies should align their social media strategies towards their company objectives. It is also very important for companies to listen and monitor conversations that are taking place on social media. Even though social media is a free platform, tourism businesses should invest their money and time in managing their use. In addition, measuring their return on investment should be a priority.

KEYWORDS: Social media Marketing, Tourism Marketing, Social media adoption.

INTRODUCTION

Social media are playing an increasingly important role as information resource in tourism both for customers (i.e. the tourists), who gather trustworthy information supporting the choice of destinations and services from peers, and for businesses, which can use the same information for improving their marketing strategies Roberta and Campagna (2014).

Tourism has had a fast growth in the last decade UNWTO estimates a 4% rise in tourism every year since the post-crisis year of 2010 (UNWTO, 2016). Tourists as information explorers and broadcasters have used social media as a platform in gathering, analysing and broadcasting destination information.

With the increase in internet usage, many organizations today proactively use social media as a vehicle to reach out to millions of prospective and repeat customers (Seth, 2012). Consequently, the underlying question in this research was what role social media usage plays as a marketing

The uses of social media are in the whole tourism phases from i) Pre-travel phase, seeking destination information and bookings take place ii) the in-travel phase blogging, taking pictures and video content on the destination iii) Post travel Phase people share their experiences and reviews of Hotels and destination attractions also further assistance to information seekers (Roberta and Campagna, 2014; HTW CHUR, 2016).

Tourists have been regarded to trust the word of mouth. According to the International Tourist Research Centres 88% of representatives of tourism business are actively using social media and 70 % of consumer's trust of recommendation given by social networks (Jashi, 2013). Therefore, tourists as consumers have become accustomed to using the Internet not only to obtain information but also for the purpose of the booking and final purchase of tourism products (Popesku, 2014).

According to authors Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka (2015), visitors do not trust advertising that focuses on the advantage sand special features of the destinations, and are turning to a more personal approach that is interactive, creative, intelligent communication that include emotions. The authors highlighted the need of tourists wanting to create the products and will buy the tourism products based on relationships created (Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka, 2015, Mukherjee and Nagabhushanam, 2016).

Even with the challenges that face tourism marketing today, Authors Mukherjee and Nagabhushanam(2016) note that social media has given tourism businesses leverage on promoting their destinations.

Social Media and Social Networking sites

Social media refers the activities of different customers in the society, gathering and sharing online information and knowledge (Jashi, 2013). Social media represents the online content publicly created and available to end users. It is becoming one of the main tools used to spread information among customers. Blogs, social networking sites, content communities, virtual worlds or collaborative projects all represent groups of people that create and share content inside and outside of professional routines (Nikolova,2012)."Social networking Services or Social Networking" are services "online services, platforms, or sites that are focused on facilitating and building of social networks or social relations among people who, for example, share interests, activities, backgrounds, or real-life connections" (Boyd & Ellison, 2008). While social media are considered as the "tools" or "means of communication", allowing one to broadcast, reach and influence people widely, social networking is considered as the use of "social media tools" to interact and communicate directly with people you're already connected to or with whom you wish to be connected with (Zeng, et al., 2014). The definition of Social Networking Sites is adopted from Boyd and Ellison (2008) where the authors define SNS as web-based services that have three main functions; (1) individuals are able to create a profile which can be public or semi-public (2) the system can create a list of individuals to which a user is connected and (3) it is possible to view and pass through these connection lists as well as the lists of others within the system. Seth (2012) gives examples of social media as social networks including Wikipedia (for reference), Face book (for social activity), YouTube (for video sharing), and Trip Advisor (for travel networks). Below is a summary of social media definitions;

Authors	Definitions
Kaplan and Hanlein (2010)	"Social Media is a group of Internet-based applications that build on the ideological and technological foundations of Web 2.0, and that allow the creation and exchange of User Generated Content."
Jashi (2013)	"Social media refers the activities of different customers in the society, gathering and sharing online Information and knowledge."
Popesku (2014)	"Social media or social networking sites generally refer to web applications that allow for the user to post and share content. Common social media applications include Facebook, Twitter, You Tube, Google+, Pinterest, Instagram, Foursquare, Flickr. Some authors have attempted to classify social media into six types: social networking sites, blogs, virtual social worlds, collaborative projects, content communities, and virtual game worlds."
Zeng and Gerritsen (2014)	"Social media includes social networking sites, consumer review sites, content community sites, wikis, Internet forums and location based social media. Social media has emerged as the new way in which people connect socially, by integrating information and communication technology (such as mobile and web-based technologies), social interaction, and the construction of words, pictures, videos and audio. It is actually more than a new way to communicate; it is an entire online environment built on participants' contributions and interactions."
Fotis (2015)	"Social media are defined as web-based applications that have as their primary function the development and exchange of user generated content."
Wikipedia (2018)	"Social media are interactive computer-mediated technologies that facilitate the creation and sharing of information, ideas, career interests and other forms of expression via virtual communities and networks"

Table 3: Social media definitions by different authors.

According to Author Dowthwaite (2011) a table that shows different types of Media and their functions, so that to get a better understanding of the categories of social media and their purposes.

Types of Social Media Tools	Functions
Blogs	Short for weblog, a type of website that is updated frequently; written in a conversational tone and contains regular entries of commentary; descriptions of events or other material
Podcasts	Web-based audio and/or video content made available on the Internet for downloading to a personal audio player
Social Networking Sites (Facebook, MySpace, etc.)	Online communities that allow users to connect, interact, and exchange information with those who share interests and/or activities
Microblogs (Twitter, Plurk, etc.)	Form of blogging that allows users to write brief text updates (usually 140 characters) and to publish them so that their network can view and comment on them
Wikis	Collaborative web page or collection of web pages that allow all users to contribute or modify content
Widgets	Piece of self-contained code (a small application) that can be embedded into a website or program to perform a specific function
Social Bookmarking (Delicious, Digg, etc.)	Sites in which a virtual community exchanges links to content and stores links for future use
RSS Feeds	Short for Real Simple Syndication; a file that contains frequently updated information (such as news headlines or blog posts) that can be subscribed to using programs called feed readers or aggregators
Image/Video Sharing Sites (Flickr, YouTube,instagram etc.)	User-generated sites that allow people to upload pictures or videos and then view and comment on the uploaded content of others
Internet Forums	Also called message boards; online discussion sites in which users can discuss issues, exchange information, and share views
Mobile Websites	Websites geared for mobile devices

Table 4: Types of Social Media Tools and Their Functions adopted from (Dowthwaite, 2011).

The Uses of Social Media

One perspective of looking at social media uses is the individual purposes that the 'social networking sites' are developed to establish individual interactive communication. This can be categorized as in the individual level of using socail media sites such as facebook, the following are examples as better put by author waller (2013).

making friends; posting status updates on one's profiles (telling people what you are doing, feeling, eating, about to do, etc.); posting comments, videos, and/or pictures on other persons' profiles (on people's wall); linking other persons' status; sending messages to people; playing games or quizzes; posting links to events, news, or websites; inviting people (posting web links); creating events and extending invitations; creating groups for people (some of whom share common interest) to join as well as posting links to these events

However Businesses have held on the other perspective as social media is a better medium in communicating. Authors Leornadi et al (2013) show two ways in which organizations use social media that is by communicating with external parties have a multipronged strategy that crosses various platforms For example, they maintain pages on popular public social networking sites like Facebook and MySpace, and they broadcast messages on microblogging sites such as Twitter. The second way organizations have employed social media is for internal communication and social interaction within the enterprise. Unlike external uses of social media that cross many public platforms,most organizations implement an integrated social mediaplatform for internal communications that contains several functions For example,most internal social media platforms mimic in look, feel, and functionality popular social networking sites such as Facebook. But embedded within the platform one can often find blogs and wikis, as well as features through which social tagging and document sharing can happen (Leonardi, et al., 2013).

The last perspective can be that of Governments, Public institutions, Non-Governmental Organizations, Multi-lateral Organizations and the general public this has been highlighted by different authors showing some examples such as Uchaguzi used in Tanzania, Kubatana in Zimbabwe or Ushahidi in Kenya, voters can share information about election related matters, such as misuses or corruption (Jäntti, 2015). Another example is of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) that uses Social Media tocommunicate with its stakeholders in a more proactive and interactive ways than other communication channels such telephone, postal letters, individual emails, radio and TV (David Girling, 2015). Governments to have embarked on using social media as a means of marketing their cultures and tourists attractions some examples are Tanzania with "The Soul of Africa" (Tanzania Tourist Board, 2017), Australia with "Visit Australia" (Tourism Australia, 2017) and Kenya with "Magical Kenya" (Kenya Tourist Board, 2017)and many more countries with different slogans.

Social media marketing strategies for tourism businesses

Authors Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka, (2015) suggest that destinations need creative and powerful social media marketing strategies to reach potential visitors. This need arises because information is a competitive advantage in the global tourism market, but only the destination that can provideinformation faster, with greater emotional appeal and lower cost can enjoy this advantage.The main point of interest of social media marketing is to connect to the target group and to achieve influence to later manipulate them with the desired strategic goals in mind (Lebherz, 2011).Authors Alizadeh and Isa (2014) analysed the strategic use analysis of National tourism organizations social media use and observed the five dimensions of use including identifiability, attitude towardsuser participation, customization, informationavailability and innovativeness. However underutilization of these strategies was still high in many organizations. Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka (2015) explain a solution to the overcrowdeness and oversaturation of information on social media so as to attract the attention of tourist by highlighting the schemes that were found to work better, the schemes were; novelty, chance to win,celebrity involvement, uniqueness, unexpectedness, competition, consonance or interesting graphical design.

Tanzania Social Media statistics

According to the Intenet World stats (2017) Tanzania has a 6.5% penetration and approximately 3,700,000 internet users. By August 2017 a report by statCounter estimated 79.44% of internet users used facebook, 8.99% used pinterest, 5.56% used twitter, 2.87% used youtube and 1.14% used instagram (StatCounter:Global stats, 2017). There isn't data on how many companies in Tanzania are totally engaged in social media and what advantages are gained for such companies. According to Safaribookings website there are over 1,491 tour operators that operate in Tanzania (Safaribookings, 2017).However, in response to the potential benefits which can be offered by social media, numerous tourism businesses and hotels are seen to integrate social media applications into their websites (Mandondo, 2016).

METHODOLOGY

Research Strategy

A qualitative design approach of the study was used according to the nature of the study objectives, the questions identified and it is important to note that the qualitative approach was chosen because of its features. According to Sarantakos (2005), some characteristics of a qualitative study is that it is naturalistic, dynamic, flexible, holistic, inductive and subjective of which were some important characters to the study. The research is a case study, Sarantakos (2005) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. It was important for the researcher to gain more knowledge on the phenomenon and bring up new insights therefore a case study was the best approach. Babbie and Mouton, (2002) define a study of organizations and institution as a type of case study that is typically used in business and management studies, where the focus is on a firm, company, corporation, trade unions, etc. and that there are many foci including studies of best practice, policy implementation and evaluation, human resource practices, management and organizational issues and so on. Therefore, the research is aligned as an organizational case study. The research focused on understanding the context and processes than generalizing the findings so as to provide a concrete qualitative description of the natural setting of tourism businesses that are engaged with social media in Arusha. The research took a multi-case study approach so as to point out some similarities and differences in the cases and assist in creating more description on the social media phenomenon. The researcher increased a case until maturity of data was acquired, meaning that no new data was revealed in the next case. The research employed in-depth interviews, unstructured observation and a document study (social media pages).

Study Area

The study was conducted in Arusha city in the northern tourism circuit of Tanzania. The area is located in the northern part of Tanzania in Arusha region and covers approximately 266.99sq kilometres with a population of 1,890,653 according to the National bureau of statistics estimations (NBS, 2017).The area was ideal to conduct the study because of the concentration of businesses involved in tourism in the area. The study involved tourism business experts that are engaging in tourism and have adopted social media as a marketing means in running their businesses.

Cases

The nine cases were as follows;

CASE	NAME
A	Samless Adventures
B	Sky Safaris
C	Tomodachi Safaris
D	Wild and Me Safaris
E	Mount Meru Hotel
F	Kibo Palace Hotel
G	Ngurudoto Mountain lodge
H	Sopa Lodges
I	Ngorongoro Conservation Authority Area (NCAA)

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Social media tools

In response to the question of which social networking site that was mostly used in their businesses all nine respondents used Facebook complimenting the study that Facebook was the dominant social networking site (Alizadeh, et al., 2014). This can be attributed to the amount of users using Facebook. Cosenza (2017) depicts a chart that Facebook had 1.9 Billion users per month. This amount of reach is tremendous forcing businesses to join Facebook so as to attract prospective clients.

Other social networking sites that were used by the companies were Instagram (7 respondents), mainly Instagram was a picture posting social network this had higher users support, that businesses believed in pictures having influence over their targeted clients. Trip advisor followed having (6 respondents) this was an important social networking site to the businesses because it's solely focused in tourism businesses and clients, the benefits range from attracting clients to grading and recommending clients to their establishments.

Twitter had (6 respondents) also suggesting that the micro blogging site had a huge influence over the business world hence it was important for tourism businesses to use it as a way in accessing targeted clients. YouTube came in with few respondents (2 respondents) this was because many businesses did not prepare video content in advertising their products and services therefore you tube was used with only the bigger firms than the medium and smaller ones. Other Social networking sites particularly LinkedIn was used by few businesses (2 cases) this was because LinkedIn was a recruitment social media and not many businesses regarded it as a means of gaining clients than recruitment therefore did not divulge in using it. However bigger firms were more likely to use LinkedIn. None of the respondent talked about having a personal company social networking site.

Blogs, content communities, virtual worlds or collaborative projects were not so famous to the respondents. The respondents had either adopted social media lately or had been using social media without any goals therefore other aspects of social media were new to the respondents.

Social media usage

In analysing the interview transcripts and social media pages some themes came up in regard to social media use as a marketing tool. Two questions were very important in determining social media practices that is 1) how is social media used? And 2) why is social media used? An excel sheet was formed and the answers taken from the transcripts and records were typed as were answered in the transcripts. Whenever a theme was seen it was highlighted. Some categories were formed and were used in explaining how and why social media was used as a marketing tool.

How social media is used

Evaluating the transcripts, five categories came up on how tourism businesses used social media. Social media in tourism businesses were used in content sharing, Engagement, Announcements and campaigns. The following is an explanation of each category and quotes from the transcript and examples from the company's social media pages on how they used social media.

Content sharing

Content sharing was the primary use that was identified in all the tourism businesses. Tourism businesses shared content such as pictures, videos and status updates that were related to the business. Most of the content that was posted were of the business such as pictures of rooms or pictures of travels by the company. Irrespective of the kind of social media, what is really important in order to engage customers is the content published (Minazzi, 2015). An interesting answer was from the respondent A (Case A).

> *"We use social media to promote our content we post pictures of our guides/drivers in the attractions and try to caption these pictures, we also post pictures related to animals in the parks"*

The tourism businesses felt that sharing these posts was a move towards creating an audience and later sales. The content that was shared, was designed to attract the greater audience therefore, the businesses used their own instincts in determining if the posts had an appeal to the audience. As from the respondent I (Case I) explaining what they posted.

> *"We post mostly when there is an event and animal related posts, we use media to post videos that capture animals and those that we feel have a wider audience and are trending"*

Thus, the businesses shared content in targeting the audience and also what the business felt would trend.

Engagement

Another category was the way tourism business communicated with their clients. Engagement was how the business related to their clients in terms of asking and answering questions, receiving feedback, handling complaints and other customer service practices. Social media was used to engage the audience or prospective clients. Authors Huotari and Nyberg(2012) in evaluating social media prescence of Kemi tourism company state that engagement brings the organization and their audience closer and builds trust. Because of the nature of their business and being in the early stages of adopting social media respondent G(Case G) showed more concern in engaging their clients and collecting feedback as he stated that,

> *"We use social media to get reviews from our clients, we haven't engaged in social media fully but for now it's the comments and reviews that we focus on getting"*

Announcements

Social media was also used to provide information to the audience through different announcements. A post was categorized as an announcement such as events, recruitment or other major changes that the company was going to go through. It was noticed that announcements were done to the minimum by most cases. However, case E explained in using social media for announcements,

> *"Posting pictures, explaining upcoming festivals and events and the nice thing is that the reviews and comments from our guests can be easily seen therefore we find it a good way to market our products"*

In using social media announcements show the life of the tourism business, some of the companies did not highlight it as their use of social media in the interviews, however a social media review found case H announcement post to their clients on an award category that the Hotel had been chosen to participate;

Campaigns

Running campaigns through social media was another way social media was used in promoting a company. Campaigns were activities like organizing a contest, promotions, giveaways and loyalty programmes. It was noted in the study that 1 out of the 9 Cases held a contest weekly in attracting their clients. Because social media is free companies did not invest in things like running a contest or felt that they needed to acquire more followers so as to run a contest. A good example of a social media contest from the respondents was a contest held at the premises of Case F weekly, and was named ‘Happy Hour’ the following as the respondent explained;

> *“Yes we have, a good example is one of our events from Wednesday to Friday called HAPPY HOUR, and this gets the most reaction because it's like a contest. That is among one of our strategies and we also post related content”*

Campaigns are a good way for a company to establish its presence in social media. Different campaigns can last or be held in different occasions. Authors Kiráľová and Pavlíčeka (2015) highlight the most claimed objectives of social media campaigns as social media campaigns can be summing them up as follows:

(1)Creating/increasing awareness of the destination
(2) Reaching global publicity
(3)Encouraging visitors to plan their journey
(4) Strengthening the destination image as a favourite destination
(5) Targeting new/specific market
(6) Increasing number of visitors
(7) Creating buzz around the destination
(8)Increasing the number of email subscribers
(9) Increasing the number of Facebook fan base
(10) Changing the position of destination in the mind of visitors
(11) Bringing back the destination as a favourite one for visitors.

In reviewing the social media pages of the respondents the following post was retrieved to show Case F post of a campaign held by the company.

Social media marketing strategies

Three out of the nine cases agreed on having a strategy in attracting clients to their business. The other six cases had no definite strategy. This aligns with Alizadeh and Isa (2014) on explaining the underutilization of social media strategies in tourism businesses. The respondents that did not have a strategy argued that it was because they had incorporated social media lately in the marketing and also the lack of knowledge in designing such strategies.

> *“We are still in the learning process therefore we have not yet put up strategies particularly for social media, it would be appropriate to learn from experts…”*

The three respondents used a chance to win, celebrity involvement, uniqueness, as their strategies but were yet to effectively utilize them because of the input that they had as few clients were attracted through their social media pages.

Social media is diversified and has so many groups, characters and different personalities. The size of social media necessitates social media marketers to focus their time and resources to a particular niche so as to accrue the benefits. It is crucial for tourism businesses to focus their marketing to the particular groups they intend to convert as their customers. Celine (2013) highlights that the importance of using the lots of techniques in gaining social media traffic but warns on using the techniques to the unintended.

Ananda et al (2016) proposes a great social media marketing strategy framework that if adopted can assist the marketing decision makers in the tourism businesses that want to adopt social media as their marketing means. The N-REL (Networking, Representation, Engagement and Listening-in). The Framework can assist tourism businesses in marketing their services in social media. Marketing in social media begins with the decisions of the target market and the chosen marketing mix to the platform and sites that are suitable for execution.

Arusha tourism businesses should merge their company goals and objectives with appropriate strategies that can be implemented.

Conclusions

The main objective of the study was to assess the role of social media usage as a marketing tool for tourism organizations of Arusha tourism businesses. The best strategies in marketing through social media begin before using the platforms. Consumers want to interact with companies that are genuine and provide the best services at the right prices. In addition, social media is found to have considerable influence on tourists' decisions (Mandondo, 2016) hence Arusha tourism businesses should put up good company objectives that will assist in deploying good social media strategies when using the platforms.

Tourism businesses should listen and monitor what their clients want and when. Different conversations are taking place in social media, tourists are talking to each other and explaining the pros and cons of every destination. Tourism businesses should try and join into these conversations and help tourists see why their destination is important and provide important information of their destination.

There are so many strategies that can be used such as running social media campaigns (Kiráľová, et al., 2015), focusing on a particular niche (Arca, 2012) and listening and monitoring online conversations (Ananda, et al., 2016). However, tourism businesses should be keen in choosing the right strategies that fit their company profile. There isn't one strategy that fits all. Therefore, companies should choose the best strategies and be careful in choosing the proper platforms in executing their strategies so as to accrue social media benefits.

Recommendations

Tourism businesses in Arusha should build social media strategies aligning to their company objectives. The significance is that it will be easier in executing the social media strategies in different platforms since they already have specific aims that they want to achieve.

In addition, social media should be aligned with other marketing channels so as to work best. Running different campaigns and linking them to their social media platforms will increase their base of followers that can be easier in changing them to customers.

Tourism businesses should understand that social media is inexpensive and cheap but they need to invest in attaining knowledge, the time and followers hence it is important in investing in social media. This means that it is cheap but not totally free.

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ROLE OF ICT IN COMMUNITY BASED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN TANZANIA.

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Abstract

The study aimed at identifying the role of information Communication and Technology (ICT) in Community Based Tourism (CBT) in Tanzania. Data were collected using a sample of sixty (60) key respondents such as professionals at supervisory level and employees, administrative leaders and local residents within the selected CBT in Arusha district. Data were collected from the respondents using both qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments. Data were descriptively analyzed and results presented in frequency tables and charts while qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis. It was revealed that CBT performance was 20% prior to introduction and application of ICT in promotion. It is surprising that 70% of the community noted that promotion of ICT within their community was the most significant; however, the local operators argued that with fiber within the community it has increased employment from 20%to 40%. Local operators commented that ICT reduced the cost of marketing from 65% to 40% and hence increasing company revenue. The community argued that ICT though increased employment opportunities from 20% to 40% but had increased expenses and youth were constantly on social media hence reduced productivity. There is a need for more awareness about what ICT can do more towards CBT development by using ICT to earn more revenue and reduces expenses. The study shows that there is a direct contribution of ICT to the development of CEBT through different ICT tools used by the community initiatives for business empowering in Arusha district.

Key wards: CEBT; ICT Tourism

Introduction

Background

The growth of tourism has converted many communities into destination areas, either as major resort or as temporary stop over for travelers (Murphy 1985). Tourism is definitely important not only at local level, but also at National and international levels (Aref, 2011). Since our research was based on the contribution of Information Communication Technology (ICT) to Community Based Tourism to the development of the study area. Where by ICT is the rapidly growing sector that is currently used by everyone and every Nation to get communication or information from different sources in order to be updated and resourcefully and tourism is the vibrant and challenging industry all around the word. Recently annual research indicates that the world GDP in 2014was raised to 9.8% (USD 7.6 trillion) while the sector supports 277 million employments. France and Europe earned 9.7% of GDP which provided 2.9 million jobs (10.9%). In Asia Pacific countries around 40.6 USD billion was collected in 2014. Country like Japan which conducts other activities such as manufacturing motor vehicles collected a total GDP of USD 406 billion from tourism by 2013 which is 6.8%, giving a total of 4.3 million (6.9%) employments. By 2013 India generated USD 128 billion creating 6.7% employment. South Africa generated a total of USD 39 billion to its GDP in 2013 from Tourism (WTTC 2004). The tourism industry is very dynamic and challenging one, where change is the rule, not option (Bennet, 2000). This dynamic of tourism is caused by division of various form and types of tourism where by Community based tourism is among. According to Lopez, Guzman et al. (2011) Sayed that community based tourism has emerged as a possible solution to the negative effects of mass tourism in developing countries, allowing it to become a strategy for community organization at the same time making it possible to attain better living condition. As per, Hall and Lew (2009) Sayed that Community based tourism is generally considered to have appeared during 1970's as a reaction to the negative consequences of international mass tourism. Community based tourism emerged as an alternative to mainstream tourism along with other integrated conservation and development schemes as well as information communication technology to different areas where community based tourism reached. These relatively recent methods of development are based on a participatory approach and ultimately emerged as a result of top down approach to both conservation and development organizations (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009). Thus, it is evident that, at local level, opportunities for the development of new project and activities are being developed, such as the exploitation of natural and cultural resources inherent to the local community for tourism purpose (Borges and Cerezo, 2011). The involvement of community's in tourism is undoubtedly important and growing. Amidst the social changes brought about by globalization, local communities cannot live in isolation; they are a part of tourism (Rest, 2010). In this it's directly clear that through local community to involve in tourism lead to changers of both economic and social as per Herrer& San Martin, (2008) Sayed that community based tourism projects have gained popularity over the last three decade. Information communication technology brings positive change to rural communities through economic diversification, improvement in infrastructure and communication technology.

Through the improvement of Infrastructure it leads to improvement and spread of communication information technology to different area within the country. In National level tourism was spread all over the Tanzania where by many people involved in which Tanzania tourism is estimated to account for about 12% of the country's GDP (Kahyarara and Mchallo, 2008), and is among the fastest growing economic sectors in the country (Mamadi, 2004). Tanzania's rapidly growing tourist industry revolves around the six protected areas within the Northern Circuit. Those Areas are Arusha National Park, Kilimanjaro National Park, Tarangire National Park, Manyara National Park, Serengeti National Park and Ngorongoro Conservation Area, where by all five protected areas are all within a day's effort of each other, and account for over 80% of the tourists visiting sites in Tanzania (Kahyarara and Mchallo, 2008). Information communication technology and community based tourism is a panorama for tourism sector to develop alternative models of making profit based on ethical dealings with rural communities and their natural resources. Proper Community-Based Tourism practice can make a substantial contribution to incomes for local communities and help improve natural resource management and conservation at local and national at large participated for the sake of sustain their life. In Arusha district cultural tourism projects are one of the CBTprograms that many people participate much as ways ofis developed. Where by people can communicate through phones, email, road and flight accessibility is good. As it is stated above, the cultural activities are similar all over the world. In Arusha Cultural tourism Program is so popular and many people found within the area are involved and have more experiences on it like agricultural experiences, dairy farming, coffee processing demonstrations and many other cultural activities that attract tourism to learn about it. The Ee-Eeiyo-Tanzania Cultural tourism is found 25 kilometers Northeast of Arusha near Arusha National Park, Ng'ires cultural tourism, situated about 7 kilometers from Arusha town. Mulala cultural activities located few kilometers from Arusha town, Ilkurot Cultural tourism program is positioned 20 kms west of Arusha, Ilkiding'a cultural programs found at the foot of Mount

Meru, Matunda cultural tourism and Safari Tengeru, which are to be found about 15 kilometers out of Arusha town and Osotwa cultural tourism at Ngaramtoni. These cultural tourismare some ofcommunity based tourism initiatives and organization participating in providing tourism services in Arusha particularly Arusha district where our study based

Statement of the problem

ICT helps CBT in diversification of tourism product and reduces congestion to the mainstream tourism and other productive sectors such as wildlife tourism, agriculture activities and different business. Community or rural people involving in tourism to their areas are bearing both positive and negative effect as per Murphy (1985) Sayed that "one of the pioneers of community participation in tourism activities, argues that local communities living in the tourism destination bear the main impacts of tourism whether it is positive or negative" Lea (1988) found that, in developing countries maximizing quality of tourism benefits community participation is essential. Inskeep (1991) argued that the host communities plays big role in tourism activities in their community and further says that maximum involvement would help to maximize their socioeconomic benefits from tourism. This directly shows that there are benefits that local community found in Arusha district obtaining from tourism conducted to their areas.

In 1980 UNWTO gathered 1619 tourism plans and found that 66.5% of plans were implemented. Hitchcock al (1993) argues that local community participation in the planning and development of tourism is an essential condition of sustainable tourism. Murphy (1985). Liu (2003) points out that the more benefits communities gain from tourism the more they will be interested to preserve destination resources and support tourism activities.

Despite challenges faced by local community in community based tourism and communication information technology in different services that they offer to their areas there are lots of benefits that the information communication technology contribute to tourism activities so as they can move with their daily life.

Objectives of the study

To assessing information Communication technology to the contribution of community based tourism to the development of Arusha District.

Specific objectives.

Identify the role of information communication technology in empowering Community Based Tourism.

To highlight types of information used in community based tourism initiatives and development.

To analyze the contribution of information communication technology in marketing of the destination.

Research questions.

How Information Communication Technology and Community Based Tourism contribute to the development of Arusha district?

Scope of the Study.

The study focused on the assessing the contribution of Information communication technology to community based tourism in the development of Arusha district. This study conducted in Arusha district because there are many tourism activities which are conducted by local entrepreneurs and local community.

Significance of the study.

The study will help to provides measure on the contribution of Information communication technology to community based tourism for the development of Arusha district. The study will also help the local community and its organization, Investors within the area and policy makers in planning for development issues within the district as well as in strategic planning, laws and regulations.

The study provides guidelines for other researchers by revising the concept that will add new knowledge or improve on existing one as far as research as apprehensive.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism

Tourism defined as the study of people away from their usual habitat. Tourism is based upon the economic and social processes and changes that are occurring in the environment of the societies where tourist come from, its development in destinations focuses on the use of natural and cultural resources which generates impacts, Wall and Matheson (2006).

Community Base tourism

Community based tourism is tourism in which local resident often rural, poor and economically marginalized invites tourist to visit their communities with the provision of overnight accommodation. The resident earn incomes as land managers, entrepreneurs, services provider and produce providers and employees.

According to Rest (1997) Said that Community Based Tourism is a kind of tourism takes environment, social and cultural sustainability into account. It's managed by local community and allows visitors to learn about community and local ways of life.

Information Communication Technology.

Is the term describes the equipment hardware and software through which information can be capture, sought, processed, retrieved, stored, manipulated, transmit and distributed.

Is the technology that supports activities involving creating, storing, manipulating communicating information to the management. It covers various aspects such as information processing, storing and transmission through the use of computer for management decision making.

Community-Based Tourism and Information Communication Technology an overview.

ICT is a development tool which when used properly can minimize the negative impacts of tourism while generating income, diversifying the economy, preserving culture, conserving the environment and providing educational opportunities. It is accepted that tourism can have both a positive and negative influence.

These effects are most apparent at the level of the destination. As a result, researchers have emphasized the need to decentralize tourism development in recent years and have integrated it into overall community defined development goals (Murphy, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Simmons 1994 cited in Timothy 2002). The community approach to tourism\ has been heralded as a way of empowering communities and affording those opportunities to break free from the destructive influences of mass tourism (Timothy, 2002). CBT is a more sustainable form of development than conventional mass tourism as it allows host communities to break away from the hegemonic grasp of tour operators and the oligopoly of wealthy elites at national level (Timothy, 2002) CBT is about grassroots empowerment as it seeks to develop the industry in harmony with the needs and aspirations of host communities in a way that is acceptable to them and which sustains their economies (Fitton, 1996). Niche markets and tourism trends such as ecotourism, heritage tourism, sustainable tourism, community based tourism and pro poor tourism approaches, have been developed in response to the need to reduce negative impacts on the environment and to try to extract from the industry for the marginal sectors of society (Cooper, 2004). CBT is managed and owned by the community, for the community, with the purpose of enabling visitors to increase their awareness and learn about the community and local ways of life (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009) As CBT to develop and work properly there must be other external force and projects like the clear provision of network so as people participating will be able to communicate for the better working and provision of services so as they can produces more. The industry holds great potential for social and economic benefits if planning can be redirected from a purely business and development approach to a more open and community oriented approach, which views tourism as a local resource (Murphy, 1985). CBT has four objectives as stated by Lopez Guzman (2011), CBT must have a positive impact on the conservation of natural and cultural resources; CBT must bring about socioeconomic development in the local community; There must be an increase in the number of businesses whose ownership is in the hands of the local community through appropriate planning and tourism management; and quality levels regarding experience of tourists visiting the area must be established.

Empirical literature Review.

CBT has contributed in poverty alleviation and diversity tourism products (Slocum, 20100). CBT and ICT activities provide a new source of communal income through tourism joint ventures as well as sources of employment and limited market for local goods (Akunayet et al 2003). CBT succeed in maintenance of cultural by reinforcing pride in one's identity and ensuring interest in continuation of specific cultural practice as well as providing economic diversification (Melisa, 2004) As the contribution of CBT and ICT project and success there are many project failed to meet its vision and mission. Godwin and Santili (2001) Sayed that, whilst many project have been funded in developing countries, their success has not been widely monitored and therefore the actual benefits to local community remain largely minimal, this is due to lack of operational skills and marketing knowledge. This is contrary to the people found in local areas/village they don't have enough skilled labor to run CBT and ICT projects to them and to their environment.

Mitchell and Mackosy (2008) observe that the low level of patronage and business generated by village life tourism (VLT) was not sustainable for either the business or the associated enterprises. According to Malisa (2004), said that the challenges facing CBT in Tanzania are lack of business, lack of English language training and the logistical difficulties of booking and marketing. This can apply too in ICT whereby many projects failed to run. Lack of formal education is also a challenge for many tour guides and other service providers, speaking very little English when they are first hired is another challenge. They are chosen for their personality or knowledge of the area (SNV1999). Barriers are still existing, this exclude a majority of the villagers not getting visitors frequently on their villages, shops, or markets; this is due to corruption, and lack cooperation between villages which hinder any advancement that individuals attempt to make (Slocum, 2010)

Citizen Participation Theory.

The theory stipulates that local people should take part in planning, execution, utilization and assessment of social amenities or facilities designed to improve their welfare (Kreitlow, 1960) this theory is deeply rooted in the very concept of community development which enjoys that whatever is done to improve the welfare of a people must endeavor to elicit the enthusiasm and participation of such a people. Participatory theory is said to improve implementation process, rather than delaying implementation of completed plans while decision are reviewed through appeal and adjudication (Blackburn, 1988; Susskind and Cruikshank, 1987; Pateman, 1970). This theory is adopted by this study because it show how community participated in tourism activities, also the theory emphasize the major goal of ICT and CBT projects which is ensuring of community participation and benefits through tourism activities. Ken Wilber argues that participatory epistemology is limited in its appropriate to scope observing the subjectivity plural domain. Principles and ethics are regarded as applicable on the context. There are many forms of relevantism which vary in their degree of controversy (Bahamian, 2004)

Study Area

The study was conducted in Arusha district. It is the one of the six districts in the Arusha Region of Tanzania. The district has an area of about 2,966 square kilometers which is about 3.6 of the area of Arusha region of which the total of the Arusha region is 82,424 square kilometers. Arusha District has two parliamentary constituencies which are Arumeru East and Arumeru west. The district is located in the North Eastern part of Arusha region bordering Kilimanjaro to east and Manyara region to the southern part.

In Arusha district there are lots of tourism attractions such as Mount Meru, Arusha National park, cultural tourism programs/initiatives and accommodation facilities. Also Arusha district has good road transport to different place and close to Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA) which is about 25km that make clear accessibility to different destination to be easy.

The district is found at the foot of Mount Meru which is the second highest mount in Tanzania where it's found within Arusha National park that you can see different animals and different attraction like waterfalls, lakes and rivers.

In Arusha district there is hunting blocks governed by local government like Ngarenanyuki ward you can experiences animals hunting with the licenses from local government where once can test a delicious wild animals meet and after get a little bed rest around village found in Arusha, where by many of the village have lodges and special camp sites for tourist, owned by individuals and group of people. This area is chosen to be our study area due to the higher concentration of cultural tourism activities and it’s a main center and entry of Arusha National park and hiking Mt. Meru.

Also Arusha district is the pathway to other destination like Ngorongoro and Serengeti that make the concentration of tourist to be high and information facilities and infrastructure to be in a good condition so as can help tourist to reach their destiny. Through this indigenous/ local community found in Arusha district obtain jobs opportunity and also Government and different companies involve in this activities make sure different infrastructure and facilities found with the area are in a good condition like networking system, transportation system that can lead to the development of local community found within the area by benefiting.

Arusha district has thirty seven (37) wards which are Bangata, Akheri, Bwawani, Ilkidinga, Kikatiti, Kikwe, Kimnyaki, King'ori, Kiranyi, Kisongo, Luguruki, Makiba, Majiya Chai, Maroroni, Mateves, Mbuguni, Mlangarini, Moivo, Moshono, Murieti, Musa, Mwandeti, nduruma, Ngarenanyuki, Oldonyosambu, Nkoaranga, Nkoarisambu, Oljoro, Olkokola, olturuto, Olturumeti, Olili, Sing'isi, Sokoni one, Songoro and Usa-river. According to Kothari (2004) for a good random sample write each of the possible samples on a slip of paper, mix these slips thoroughly in a container and then draw a lottery either blindfolded or by rotating a drum or any other similar devices. Thus simple random sampling technique is taken by a researcher in choosing four wards out of thirty-seven wards. This is because under simple random technique each wards has an equal chance of being chosen to avoid biasness while selecting wards, the list of thirty-seven wards has prepared in a piece of paper randomly and tossed out. Finally, the ward chosen are Ilkiding'a, Use-river, Olturoto and Ngarenanyuki.

Research Design.

Research design is the conceptual structure which research followed (Kothari, 2009). The research design in this study incorporates the way data was collected, measured and analyzed. In this study case study design was engaged. This design is relevant for showing the contribution of information communication technology (ICT) to community based tourism for the development of Arusha district. The research design in this study was incorporate the way in which data was collected, measured and analyzed. Quantitative data will be collecting using questionnaires and qualitative when collecting information concerning of the perception of the local residents, local community in CBT projects, CBT managers and local tour guides towards the contribution of information communication technology (ICT) in Community based tourism to the development of Arusha district.

Target Population

Population can be defined as all items in any field of inquiry constitute (Kothari C, 2004). The targeted population in this study was local community, Tour companies, tourism transportation agency, tourism enterprises, curio and hotels businessmen and cultural tourism projects staffs found in a research area.

Data collection methods

For the fulfillment of this study several methods was used, there are several reasons for using this methods like Focus group discussion, secondary information, random sampling and purposive sampling, direct observation and key information interview in data collection. This is because no single methods are universal enough to be successfully applied in all situations, (Byers, 1996). In this manner, the mentioned methods were applied to achieve the objectives of the research.

Focus group discussion.

This is carefully planned discussion that designed to provide information about how a certain group of people perceive a certain area of interest (Byers, 1996). One group discussion was carried out from each ward selected within Arusha district. This is to communicate with different leaders of the people in the area. A total of 6-15 people were involved in the discussion with different interest and knowledge including group leaders, teachers, tour guides, and tourist available at the time within the community. Group leaders and tour guides are more useful because they are influential people in the community e.g. cultural group leaders such as Oloiboni or Olaigwanani in Maasai culture are very common and famous in the community.

Secondary information.

Information from library, website or internet, journal, magazine and different report was used to obtain secondary data. According to (Byers, 1996) It state that before undertaking information gathering from primary sources, researchers should find and make use of any information that has already gathered so as to get the secondary information about the areas, To abide this, the Publications relevant to the research topic and to the study area were accessed from different literature relevant with the study.

Random sampling.

The simple randomly sampling is probability sampling which was used by the researcher in selecting respondents from the curio/cultural shops, lodges found within the area, local community involving in tourism activities and cultural tourism projects staffs.

Purposive sampling.

Purposive sampling refers to as judgment, selective or subjective sampling. It is a non-probability sampling method that is characterized by a deliberate effort to gain representative samples by including groups or typical areas in a sample. It was applied in selecting hotel owners/managers, restaurant owners/managers, community based tourism enterprises, tour operators and local community that involve directly to provision of tourism product.

Direct Observation.

Direct observation was directly observed and recorded of the information on socio-economic activities that were conducted within the study area without asking question to any respondent. The individual was walking in the village while observing and recording the socio-economic he/she were observing and related information in regard to the study.

Sample size.

According to Kothari (2009) Sample size refers to the number of items selected from the population to constitute a sample. Also Gay and Diel (1992) suggest that for descriptive and case study research sample should be 10% of population. But if population is small then 20% may be required, as the kind of the population the researcher dealing with its appropriate to use Gray and Dielh (1992) theory. Whereby the population used is 300, in which 20% of the sample size was 60 respondents (Table 3.1). Out of four (4) wards selected Ilkiding'a, Use-river, Olturoto and Ngarenanyuki four (4) community based tourism enterprises was chosen, these are Ifungilo cultural tourism, Ilkidinga Cultural tourism, Ng'iresi cultural tourism and Mulala cultural tourism. From the four CBT enterprises five managers (5) will be taken out of 15, Ten (10) local tour guides out of 40, Ten (10) waiters out of 30, Five (5) wards leaders out of 35 wards leaders and 30 local community out of 180 were taken as a sample size.

Table 3.1: Sample Frame and Sample Size

S/N	RESPONDENTS	TAGET POPULATION	SAMPLE SIZE
1	MANAGERS	15	5
2	LOCAL TOUR GUIDES	40	10
3	WAITERS	30	10
4	WARDS LEADERS	35	5
5	LOCAL COMMUNITY	180	30
	TOTAL	300	60

Source: Researcher computation, (2019)

Data analysis, interpretation and presentation.

Data analysis means to organize, provide structure and elicit meaning. According to Rwegoshora (2006), data analysis involves the ordering of data into constituent parts to obtain answers to the research questions. Quantitative data from the structured questionnaires was entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 10 for analysis. This enabled the analysis for descriptive statistics including mean, frequencies and percentages. Findings are presented and summarized in tables and figures. Content analysis used for the qualitative data collected from Key Informant Interviews, observation and open ended questionnaires. The qualitative data used to triangulate findings from the quantitative data.

Validity and reliability of the research instruments.

Reliability refers to the extent to which data collection technique or techniques would yield consistent findings or results. In other words, similar observations would be made or conclusions reached by other researcher or where there is transparency in how sense was made from the raw data ensure reliability (Saunders 2007). To ensure reliability researcher selected respondents by use appropriate methods and avoid bias, also researcher ensured that data collection method is relevant to the topic under investigation.

Validity is concerned with whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about. To ensure validity triangulation of methods was used in sampling and effective data collection. Triangulation was used to cross-check information collected through interview, questionnaire, and observation. Triangulation assisted to show validity and open up new perception about the topic under investigation. The researcher also looked for copyright of published documents relating to the data collected to validate the information collected in the field.

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS.

Benefits of ICT to the contribution of CBT towards the development of Arusha DC.

Benefits Obtain from the contribution of Information Communication technology in community Based Tourism around Arusha district.

During the collection of data on the contribution of ICT in CBT to Arusha district. One of the important questions asked to the responder was;

Qn.2 (a) is there any benefit obtained from the types of tourism conducting within your areas?

Qn. 5 (b) Please explain according to your opinion how Information communication technology boost community based tourism towards your development.

Different responders answer the asked questions as shown in table 4.4 according to how they benefited and how ICT contribute CBT to affect their daily life positively.

Table 4.1; Showing Benefits of ICT to the contribution of CBT towards the development of Arusha DC.

S/N	Benefits ICT to CBT.	Managers		Local tour guides.		WAITERS		Wards leaders Local community		LOCAL COMMUNITY	
		Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per
1	Source of Employment	1.32	33	1.44	36	2.24	56	1.08	27	2	50
2	Education support	0.56	14	0.72	19	0.88	22	0.8	20	0.8	20
3	Income generation	0.52	13	0.72	18	-	-	0.8	20	-	-
4	Foreign exchange	0.8	20	-	-	0.88	22	-	-	-	-
5	Marketing	0.28	7	0.72	18	-	-	0.52	13	0.8	20
6	Infrastructure and facilities	0.52	13	0.36	9	-	-	0.8	20	0.4	10
	Total	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100

Source; Field survey, 2019

According to the findings obtained from the respondent its show that ICT and CBT projects has greater contribution to the development of the destination as discussed by the researcher

Source of employment, this is the direct benefits obtained by people found within the destination where by people engage as tour guides, hotels servants and managers and sometimes indirect by selling their products to tourist both outside and those visiting their area as well as findings tourist online. CBT provides both permanent and causal employment to the local communities. This employment range from cleaners, waiters, drivers and guides (Sebele, 2010)

According to Godwin and Santali (2009) Sayed that CBT projects provide collective benefits to the community example, through contribution to community for the development of community assets such as school, clinics and grinding mills. This is direct show that project found within the destination promote Education by providing sponsorship to the children directly from what obtained or through the tourist who visiting the projects as mentioned by the responder.

CBT and ICT project is the source of Income to the government whereby in order to run any profitable project you must pay tax to the government and local people also obtain income through employment and selling of local stuff as well as exported. Is the source of foreign currency where by visitors from outside mostly use their currency as a mode of payments during purchases that can boost the economy of the destination.

Creating market to the local goods, where by local community will get chance to sell their cultural products to the tourist who visiting the areas. Akunayet. Al (2003) Said that CBT projects activities provide a new sources of communal income through tourism joint venture, as well as a source of employment and market for local goods.

Infrastructure and facilities found within the destination are well maintained by both government and tourism enterprises conducting their activities in order to make the accessibility of the destination to be easy and simple for the activities and enjoyment of clients.

Challenges facing Information Communication Technology to the contribution of Community Based Tourism for the development of Arusha DC.

Although there are benefits obtained from ICT in Arusha district, challengers are inevitable in their daily provision of tourism products. As per question asked during interview to the responder "What are the challenges facing different tourism initiatives and local community in providing the service to the area by the use of Information technology"

Some of the challenger's mentions were Poor infrastructure and facilities that used in ICT, lack of clear networking marketing of the destination and products found within the destination, Community Involvement in decision making especially to things related to managerial is poor, and security to both ICT facilities installed, visitors and resident is not reliable, poor management of issue related to CBT and ICT as shown in the table below

4.2; Table below shows challengers mentioned by respondent in frequency.

S/N	CHALLAGE FACING ICT& CBT	MANAGERS		LOCAL TOUR GUIDES		WAITERS		WARD LEARDES		LOCAL COMMUNITY	
		Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per
1	Poor Infrastructure	1	25	1.32	33	-	-	1.32	33	2	50
2	Poor Marketing	0.68	17	0.56	14	0.8	20	-	-	-	-
3	Community Involvement	-	-	1.32	33	1.2	30	1.32	33	2	50
4	Poor Security	1.32	33	-	-	2	50	0.8	20	-	-
5	Poor Management of CBT and ICT	1	25	1.04	20	-	-	0.56	14	-	-
	Total	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100

Source; Field survey, 2019

Measures to be taken to overcome challenges.

From the challenges mentioned by the interview they asked to propose for the mitigation/measures that will be taken into action and will help to increase the production and contribute of ICT and CBT to the development of the destination. In which they had mentioned different measures like Improvement of Infrastructure, setting clear strategies for marketing and marketing networking, Ensure community involvement in CBT and ICT project, Government support within the area, Ensure security to project facilities and people, Enhancement management in working capacity. As presented in the table below.

4.3; Table below shows Measures/ Mitigation to be taken mentioned by respondent in frequency.

S/N	MEASURES/MITTIGATION	MANAGERS		LOCAL TOUR GUIDE		WAITERS		WARD LEADERS		LOCAL COMMUNITY	
		fr	per	fr	Per	fr	per	fr	per	fr	per
1	Improvement of Infrastructure/facilities	1.16	29	0.72	18	1.2	29	1.7	44	1.3	33
2	Setting clear marketing	1.44	36	1.44	36	0.9	21	-	-	-	-
3	Community involvement	-	-	0.72	18	-	-	0.9	22	1.3	33
4	Government support	0.56	14	0.4	10	0.9	21	0.9	22	0.7	17
5	Security	0.56	14	0.72	18	0.6	15	-	-	0.7	17
6	Enhance Management	0.28	7	-	-	0.6	14	0.5	12	-	-
	Total	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100

Source; Field survey, 2019

Negative effect of Community Based tourism and Information Communication Technology to the destination.

In any activity or services conducted by different people from outside and within the area there must be Negative and Positive effect to the environment and people found. During collection of data participant was asked to mention negative effect obtained from ICT and CBT within their area. Some of the negative effect mentioned are destruction of culture within the destination, introduction of diseases, population increase, destruction of natural resource, introduction of alien species/invasive species to the area, conflict or miss understanding among the local community, investors and visitors to the area.

Due to the interaction and visiting of different people from different place with different culture and social behavior the nature of the destination must be harmed or destroyed by introducing different culture. A good example are region where tourism concentration is higher like Arusha city people are living different with their culture some adopted new culture so as to copy with clients. Good examples are tour guides like to dress like Americans. As shown below

Table 4.4; Show Negative effect of ICTand CBT to the destination.

S/N	Negative Effect of ICT and CBT	Managers		Local tour guides		Waiters		Ward leaders		Local community	
		Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per	Fr	Per
1	Culture Destruction	0.92	23	0.88	22	0.8	20	1.24	31	1	25
2	Introduction of disease	0.6	15	1.32	33	1.2	30	0.96	25	1.32	33
3	Population Increase	-	-	0.88	22	1.2	30	0.52	13	0.36	9
4	Destruction of Natural Resources	1.2	30	0.44	11	-	-	0.76	19	-	-
5	Introduction of Alien species	0.92	23	0.48	12	-	-	-	-	-	-
6	Conflicts	0.36	9	-	-	0.8	20	0.52	13	1.32	33
	Total	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100	4	100

Source; Field survey, 2019

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Conclusion

Information communication technology and Community based tourism are most valuable project within the community, as results shows it is directly ICT and CBT contribute to the development of local community as well as generating income up to the National level. Also it's a source of marketing of others product and tourism activities and its product in general.

Findings concluded that through ICT and CBT local community obtain employment, provision of education opportunity to local community, maintenance of infrastructure and facilities within their areas, marketing of the area to international level, Income generation to both Government and individuals people, foreign exchange that can add the value of money,

peace and security within the area, good networking's for communication are some of the benefits that CBT and ICT contributing to the studied area up to the National level.

Recommendation

Although ICT and CBT contribute to the development of the people found in Arusha district and others different areas carrying out the same activities, there are lots of challenges that needed to be solved in order to increase the number of clients and influence local community and other from outside. Some of the effort need to carried out by the management are

Marketing campaign should be high and help CBT managers to attend local and international trade fairs in different part of the world so as they can learn how others doing marketing.

Creating strong policy and implementing, thus will reduce bureaucracy in getting visa and other customer care services.

Making good environment for CBT projects to run their daily activities so as to make them competitive and profitable.

Accessibility to the CBT projects should be improved to make sure the roads are passable all year around.

Also the study recommends that governing boards should do regular inspection in CBT projects and related activities to know how they operate, also to advice the owner and help them to build capacity of running the projects.

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Sub Theme: Skills Development and Employment

COMPETENCE BASED TEACHING AND LEARNING APPROACHES FOR TRAINING INSTITUTIONS TOWARDS INDUSTRIAL PERFORMANCE IN TANZANIA.

A Case of Training Institutions in Dar es Salaam

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Abstract

The study aimed at examining the contribution of competence based learning and teaching towards industrial performance in Dar es Salaam. The Behaviorist and Cognitive theories were used to enunciate the implications of competence based education in tourism industry. The study was conducted in the hospitality and tourism training institutions in Dar es Salaam. Also, the study involved both qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the results where twenty two respondents were selected randomly and purposively from the four training institutions. The results showed that; curriculum based education was defined in the whole process of teaching and learning in the hospitality and tourism training institutions. It was recommended that the government and other stakeholders be responsible to rescue the environment of teaching and learning by encouraging the attainment of teaching and learning materials/equipment.

Keywords: Competence based teaching and learning, industrial performance

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background

Human development faces nowadays the challenges of knowledge society and required a broadened educational approach sustained by the extension of the learning contexts. The Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC) was initiated from teacher education courses in the US in the 1970s (Schilling & Koetting, 2010). This CBC undertaking came about out of the necessity to have a curriculum that emanates directly from the challenges, issues and features of a transformed society.

During the 1960s, CBC was branded as performance-based teacher education, which was recognized by its exhaustive scrutiny of behavioral aspects of professional activities (Mulder & Biemans, 2003). The need for enhanced efficacy and better production in the industry also resulted to crafting of best strategies to accomplish a task (Goodman, Henderson&Stenzel,2006; Kouwenhoven, 2003).

In Africa, competence-based curriculum was adopted for the first time in South Africa in 1998, following the acute shortage of professionals like engineers, technicians and artisans. South Africa adopted the competence based curriculum in a bid to change attitudes of all South Africans and equip them with employable skills to cope with challenging issues in the 21st century (Wolf, 2001).

Therefore, without teaching and learning which facilitate accumulation of skills for their students it is difficult for South Africa to cope with challenging issues in the 21st century.

According to (Woods, 2008; World Bank, 2011), state that the competency-based curriculum discourages mere acquisition of knowledge and lays more emphasizes on skill development. There is a change from content-based to competency-based curriculum. Therefore, this led for change of the teaching-learning approaches from rote memorization to approaches that support development of competencies and skills that can be applied in solving life problems for sustainable development.

In Kenya, had response to the challenge of providing valuable education for sustainable development, is witching from objectives-based curriculum to competency-based curriculum (CBC). The social pillar in the vision 2030 underscores education and training as the means into Kenya becoming stable economically for sustainable development. In view of this, Prof. Douglas Odhiambo's task force in 2012 came up with the competency-based curriculum which emphasized more on practical subjects neglected earlier on (Republic of Kenya, 2012). This new competence-based curriculum is aimed at producing self-reliant and creative citizens in an attempt to alleviate unemployment soaring rates in Kenya

Mulder (2004) asserts that competence-based education became primarily associated with behaviorism, mastery learning and modular teaching. Largely, the competence-based curriculum school of thought emanated from discontentment with programs in the post-secondary education. The challenge was that many colleges and universities offered programs that had no clear aims in regards to what the learners were being trained to do or be.

However, in recent years there have been complaints from employers and other stakeholders about the ability of our graduates to perform their duties according to their levels of education and the grades they possess. The main causes of complaints from employer due to the implementation of traditional mode of teaching and learning which emphasize more in knowledge based instead of practical oriented

Employers in particular argue that many graduates have good examination grades but they lack the competences required in the world of work. Kazin (n.d.) noted that when employers are thinking about who they will hire, they talk about what competencies they need, not what degree the candidate has. More importantly, Barman and Konwar (2011) noted that the distinctive characteristics of knowledge-based economy is its dependence on human capital inputs, on knowhow and skill, competence and expertise

Also, in Tanzania reviewed its education curricula at different levels of education in 2004. The purpose of the review was to improve the quality of education by enabling learners to develop the required skills and competences needed in the world of work. Furthermore, studies conducted to assess the implementation of competence-based teaching and learning in Tanzania have confirmed that there is very minimal use of this teaching approach (Komba and Mwandanji, 2015; Makunja, 2015; Kafyulilo et al, 2012; Mosha, 2012). The studies revealed the weaknesses in the implementation of competence-based teaching and learning in Tanzania. Even if Tanzania try to implement competence based teaching and learning it necessary to conduct training to teachers in order to enable them to implement competence based teaching and learning approaches which led to enhance student to acquire skills related interest and enhance towards industrial performance.

According to Pellerey (2001). Holds that competency is not only the mastery of knowledge and methods, or the ability to manage them, but also the ability to integrate different kinds of knowledge, and to use them synergic ally. To be competent in an area implies the ability to mobilize one's own knowledge and to transform it into concrete doing. The main purpose of competence based teaching and learning to enable students to perform a certain task, due to these enable students to master interest tasks in lower level of their studies which led towards industrial performance.

Moreover, Mosha (2012), posits that a competency based curriculum is one that aims at developing in learners the capacity to perform, to learn and learn how to learn and to know. The competency based curriculum is considered appropriate for addressing the changing societal needs, technological, socio-economic demands of the country for sustainable development. It is aimed at addressing issues of unemployment among the youths and graduates by emphasizing on acquisition of skills, knowledge, behaviors and attitudes significant in carrying out various errands.

Problem Statement

The education system which Tanzania adopted from the colonialists was based on knowledge acquisition. Many reforms have taken place in the education since independence but from 1995, when the Education and Training Policy was developed, most of the reforms focused on improving access, equity, quality and capacity building.

The changing educational demands globally, Tanzania reviewed its education curricula at different levels of education in 2004. The purpose of the review was to improve the quality of education by enabling learners to develop the required skills and competences needed in the world of work. The review resulted into the paradigm shift from the traditional content (knowledge)-based curriculum to competence-based curriculum. This new approach to teaching and learning was formally introduced in the education system in 2005.

The shift from knowledge-based teaching and learning to competence-based teaching and learning was followed by the development of competence based curriculum for learning and assessments in secondary education (Kafyulilo et al., 2012). So the aim of this research is to assess to what extent competency based teaching and learning approaches enhance career choice for secondary students in Council in Dar es Salaam

Research objectives

The study has intended to discuss the gap of this essence by posing out the objectives including; i)Determining *the contributions of competence based in teaching and learning approaches for training institutions towards industrial performance*.
ii) To identify applicability of competence based curriculum in teaching and learning approaches to students and academic staff or tutors.
iii) To show the approaches considered by training institutions in implementing Competence based education in training institutions.
iv) To assess the implications of competence based education in the training institutions towards industrial performance.

Research questions

The study executed some questions like; i) what is applicability of competence based curriculum to students and academic staff or tutors?
ii) What are approaches considered in implementing competence based curriculum/education in training institutions?
iii) What are the implications of competence based education in training institutions towards industrial performance?

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study was guided by the two theories namely; Cognitive-information learning theory and Behaviorist learning theory.

Cognitive theory

The theory suggests that, competence based curriculum/education is the overview of learners on processing information. Learners have to adopt naturally and conditioned by stimulus, thought and emotion where they tie closely with brain in developing mental adoption (Neisser Ulric 1967).

However, the theory focuses to avoid stalemate in learning and enhance self-driven learning results to learners where also necessitates needed skills over a given level of education.

Behavioral theory

The theory suggests that, competence based education (learning and teaching) is an overview of observable process in which learners impressed to tie in as a way of adopting new knowledge in terms of skills and encapsulate the outcomes of competence based learning and teaching (Hockenbury, p.7-8 and B.F Skinner 1972). However, the theory emphasizes the external environment which could condition learning and teaching process also learners should be conditioned on a given behavior and interplay on simulation-facts to insist knowledge acquisition.

Empirical review

Competence-based curriculum is a functional approach to education as it emphasizes life skills and evaluates mastery on skills, necessary for and individual to function proficiently in a given society (Savage, 1993). To some scholars, such as Harris, Guthrie, Hobart and Lundberg (1995), competence based curriculum is perceived as a solution to the implementation of education and training for the complex contemporary world.

Hong’s (2012) noted the whole idea of competence- based teaching and learning suggests the need for teachers to focus on teaching their learners the importance of valuing their learning process and reflecting on it so they can develop their skills in learning to learn and develop the key competencies.

There is a common saying that “practice makes perfect”. This means that competences are developed when learners engage in practical activities. In a competence-based teaching and learning it is required that students be engaged in various practical experiences (in and outside the classroom) that give them opportunities to apply their knowledge and skills to solve problems. This is accomplished through involving students in hands-on activities which enable them to gain experiences that have a far reaching impact as far as the students’ comprehension of the taught content is concerned (Wangeleja, 2010).

Therefore, competence based education is crucial in the development of learners’ talents and interest in a particular field of study. Apart from teaching, teachers have the role to guide their learners to make informed performance in the Tourism industry.

Significance of the Study

The helpfulness of this study is to provide information to education stakeholders on Contribution of Competency Based Teaching and Learning Approaches for training institutions towards industrial performance. The findings are to help researchers and policy makers in all levels to understand the influence of competency based teaching and learning approaches. The finding of the research is intended to provide the education authorities with the necessary needs to enhance the students to understand the importance of competency based teaching and learning. It also guided other researchers and other people interested in finding out the problems and solutions hindering facilitation of competency based teaching and learning.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Description of the study area

Dar es Salaam is the largest city and economic capital of Tanzania. Located in a quiet bay off the Indian Ocean coast, the city has developed into an economic importance to become a prosperous centre of the entire East African region. Its bustling harbour is the main port in Tanzania.

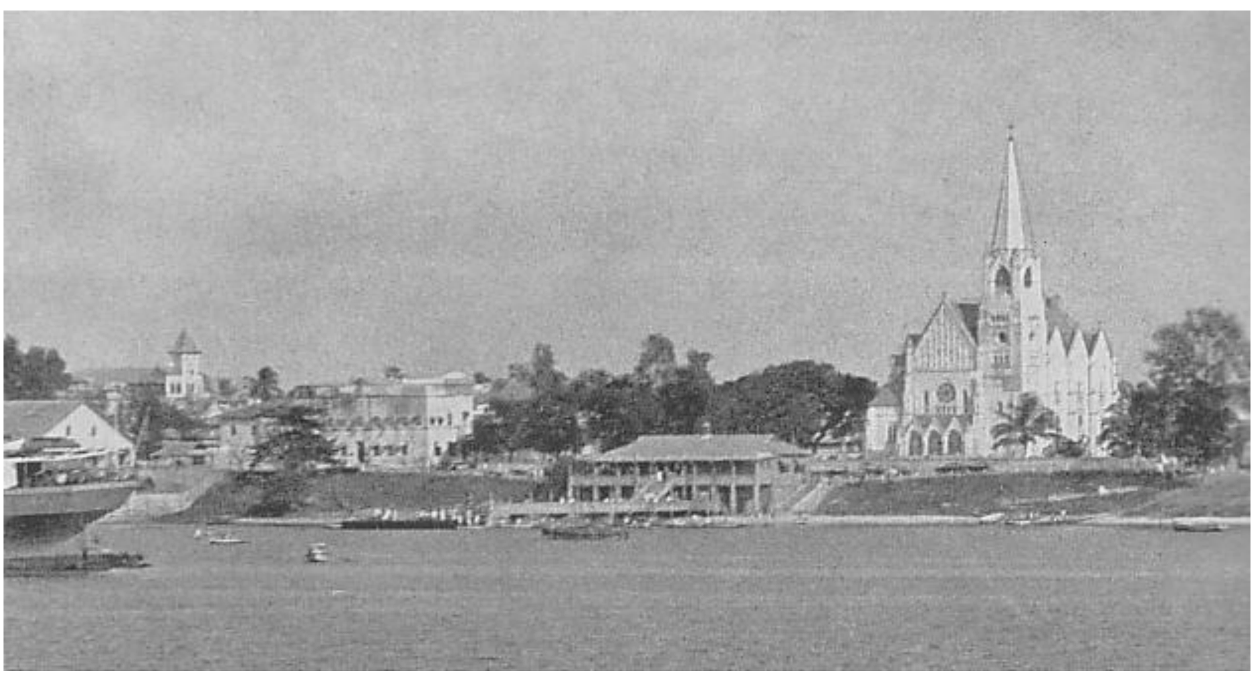
Its industrial area produces products for export and use throughout the country. Government offices all have their base in Dar es Salaam, and diplomatic missions and non-governmental organizations in the country all have a presence in the bustling urban city.

Restaurants, shops, office buildings, and government buildings are all common features of Tanzania's urban centre. The National Museum, the Village Museum, and many colorful markets are well worth a visit. Numerous historical landmarks, including St. Joseph's Cathedral, the White Father's Mission House, the Botanical Gardens, and the old State House make for an interesting walking tour around the waterfront and city centre.

Seven kilometers north of the city, is Bongoyo Island Marine Reserve which offers good snorkeling and diving sites for those who want to explore the water. The reserve boasts of its beautiful beaches, secluded islands and many varieties of marine species. Although the variety and population of coral and fish species are not as numerous as other sites on Zanzibar, Pemba, and Mafia Island, the Bongoyo Island Marine Reserve is well worth a visit and is a great way to spend a day out and see the coast.

The City of Dar es Salaam has been chosen to be the centre of the study due to its accessibility to the researchers and a big number of training institutions. The study examined by both primary and secondary data where it was analyzed through qualitative and quantitative methods.

The photo shows the City of Dar es Salaam



The photo shows the cultural attractions found in Dar es Salaam

Population of the study area

The photo shows kariakoo market

The City of Dar es Salaam has a population of 4.36 Million as of the official 2012 census; it is the most populated among the 30 regions of Tanzania, accounting for 10 percent of the total Tanzania Mainland population.

Climate

The City located between latitudes 6.36 degrees and 7.0 degrees to the south of equator and longitudes 39.0 and 33.33 to the east of Greenwich. The City experiences equatorial climate which is generally hot and humid throughout the year with an average temperature of 29`C. May and August the temperature is cool reaching to around 25`C. However, October to March are the hottest seasons during which temperature can raise up to 35`C, short rain season from October to December and a long rain season between March and May are the only two rain seasons that can be experienced in Dar es Salaam.

Sample size

The study was conducted in Dar es Salaam in the four training institutions, whereby 23 respondents were selected through simple random and purposive sampling from the department of tourism and hospitality.

Research Tools Questionnaire- the method was used to administer the individuals in order to collect the required qualitative and quantitative data from the purposive participants.

Focus group discussion**-** the method used for 5 to 6 participants to form groups of tutors and students in which information was collected through qualitative method.

Interview –the method was used to collect information from the key informants of the training institutions in the department of hospitality and tourism.

Data management and analysis

The SPSS was used to collect the data from the study where respondents' perception was analyzed based on the criteria set aside by researchers. The average scale for each criterion calculated based on participants' responses in which scale used to produce a numerical measure based on the fact that each criterion is given the same weight in analysis.

Findings

The majority of the participants agreed that, the competence based curriculum/ education is implemented and implied in the training institutions from the department of hospitality and tourism. The participants in magnitude expounded on the essence of available strategies in enhancing implementation of curriculum based curriculum. Despite of poor facilitation tools but the approach is the paramount to discourage a mere memorization to student centered -learning and teaching.

Applicability of CBE in teaching and learning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	good	10	43.5	43.5	43.5
	very good	12	52.2	52.2	95.7
	excellent	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	23	100.0	100.0	

About 94% of respondents agreed that, the application of curriculum based education in teaching and learning is achieved to their hospitality and tourism training institutions, the few believe that there is a need to affiliate the approach with the implementers or tutors and students. Also enough facilitation towards the new approach must be emphasized where learners and tutors should be well informed on its application process to bring intended results.

Implication of CBE in teaching and learning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	good	11	47.8	47.8	47.8
	very good	12	52.2	52.2	100.0
	Total	23	100.0	100.0	

More than 83% of respondents conceded that, there is implication of curriculum based education in the hospitality and tourism industry where all trainees trained by practicing are capable to impact the sector in a positive way.

Implementation of CBE in teaching and learning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	good	11	47.8	47.8	47.8
	very good	11	47.8	47.8	95.7
	excellent	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	23	100.0	100.0	

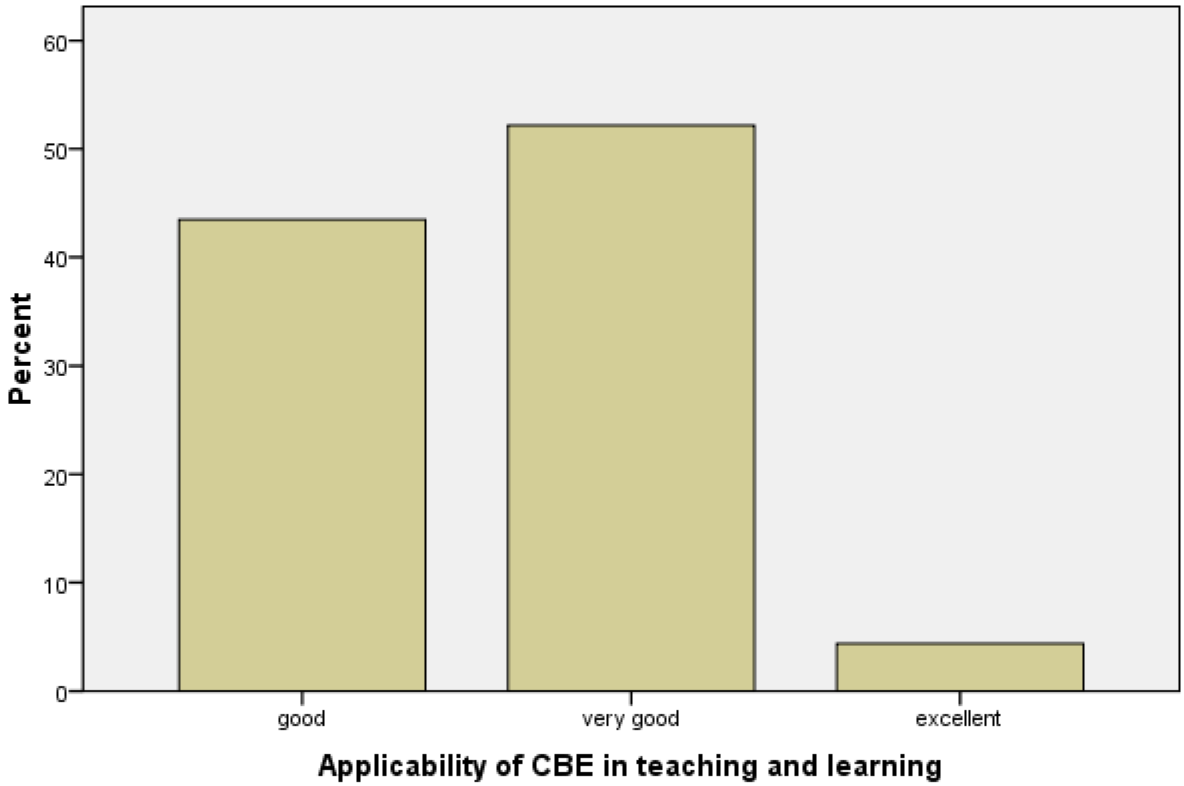
Through the representation of the respondents most of them fascinated with this model of teaching and learning where more than 73% agreed that, the model or approach curriculum based education is implemented to their hospitality and tourism training institutions. The rest suggest on absence of the actual implementation of curriculum based education, this occurs due to the available poor facilities, low motivation and altitude towards implementation of the model to the side of tutors and students.

contribution of CBE in learning and teaching

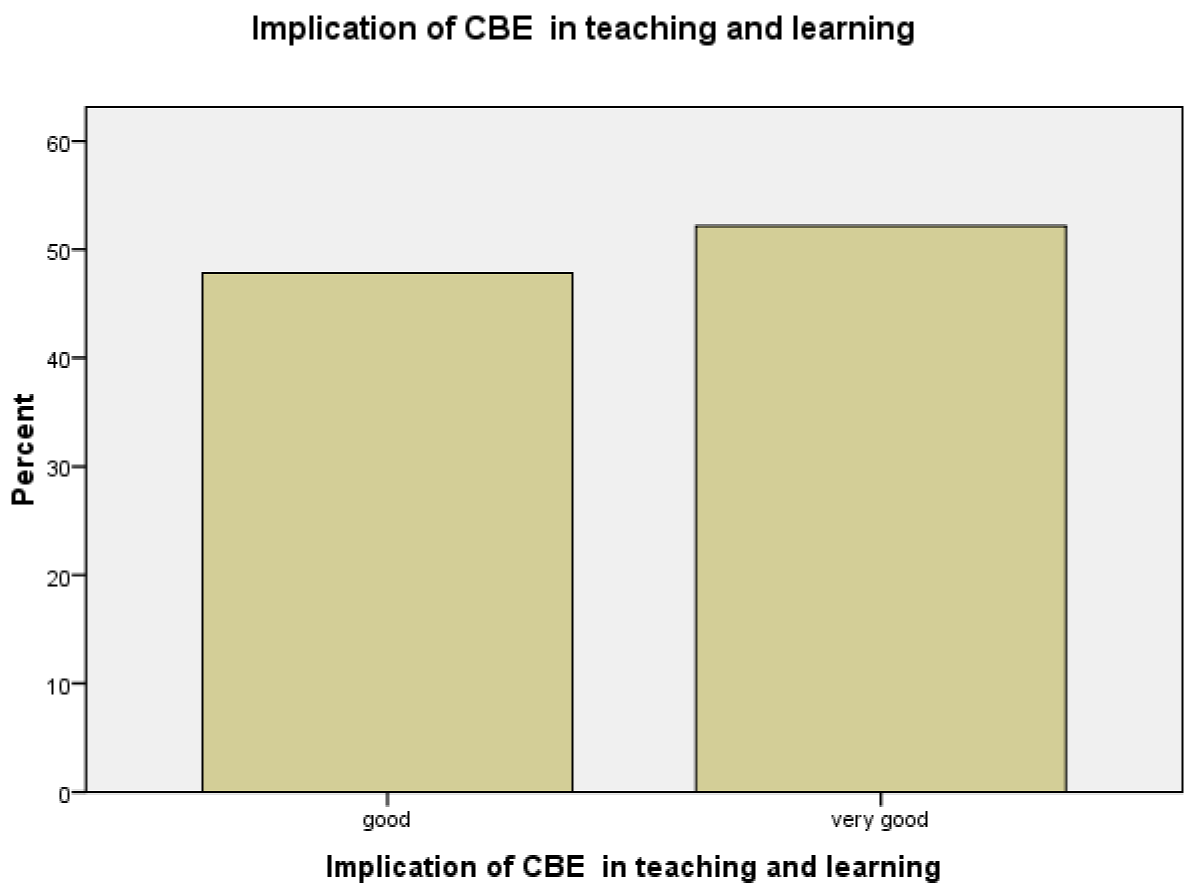
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	good	10	43.5	43.5	43.5
	very good	12	52.2	52.2	95.7
	excellent	1	4.3	4.3	100.0
	Total	23	100.0	100.0	

The respondents from the field agreed that, there is much contribution of curriculum based education in the hospitality and tourism industry or sector.

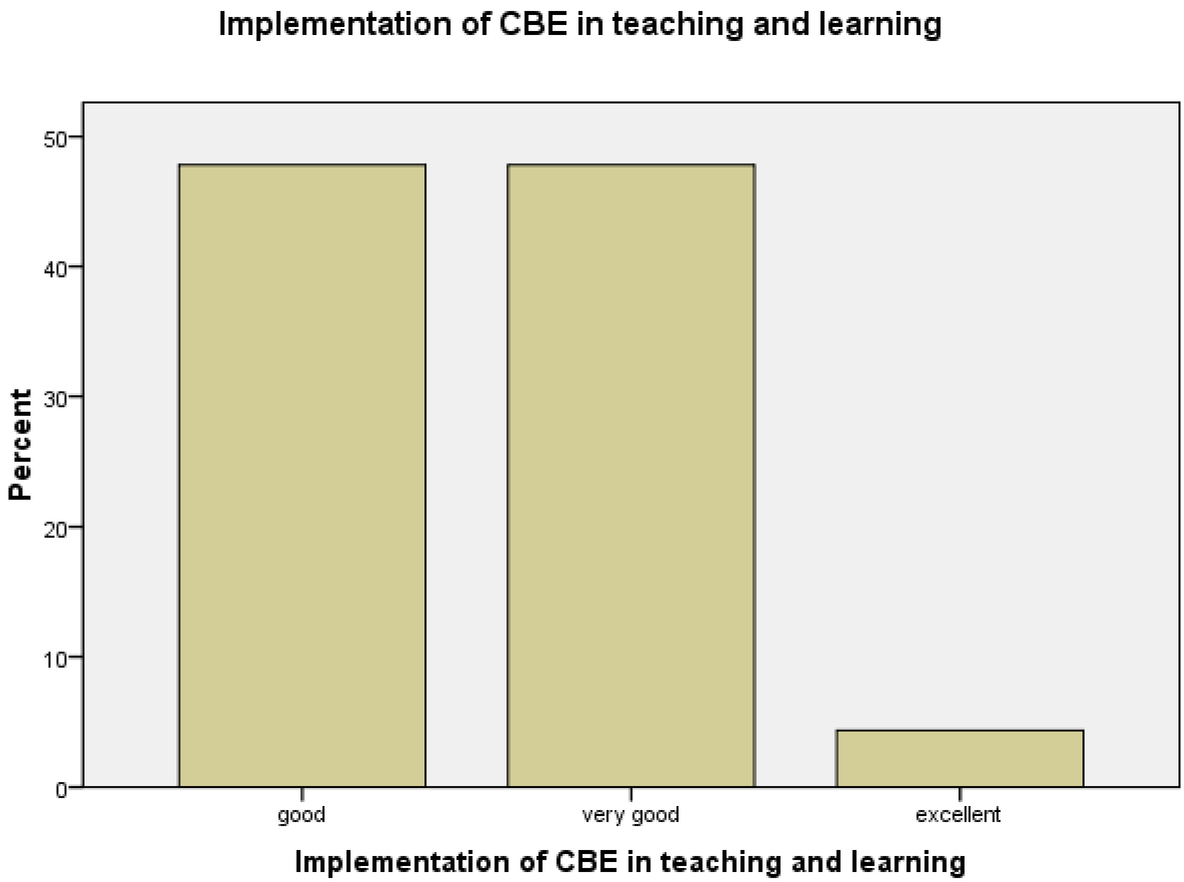
Applicability of CBE in teaching and learning



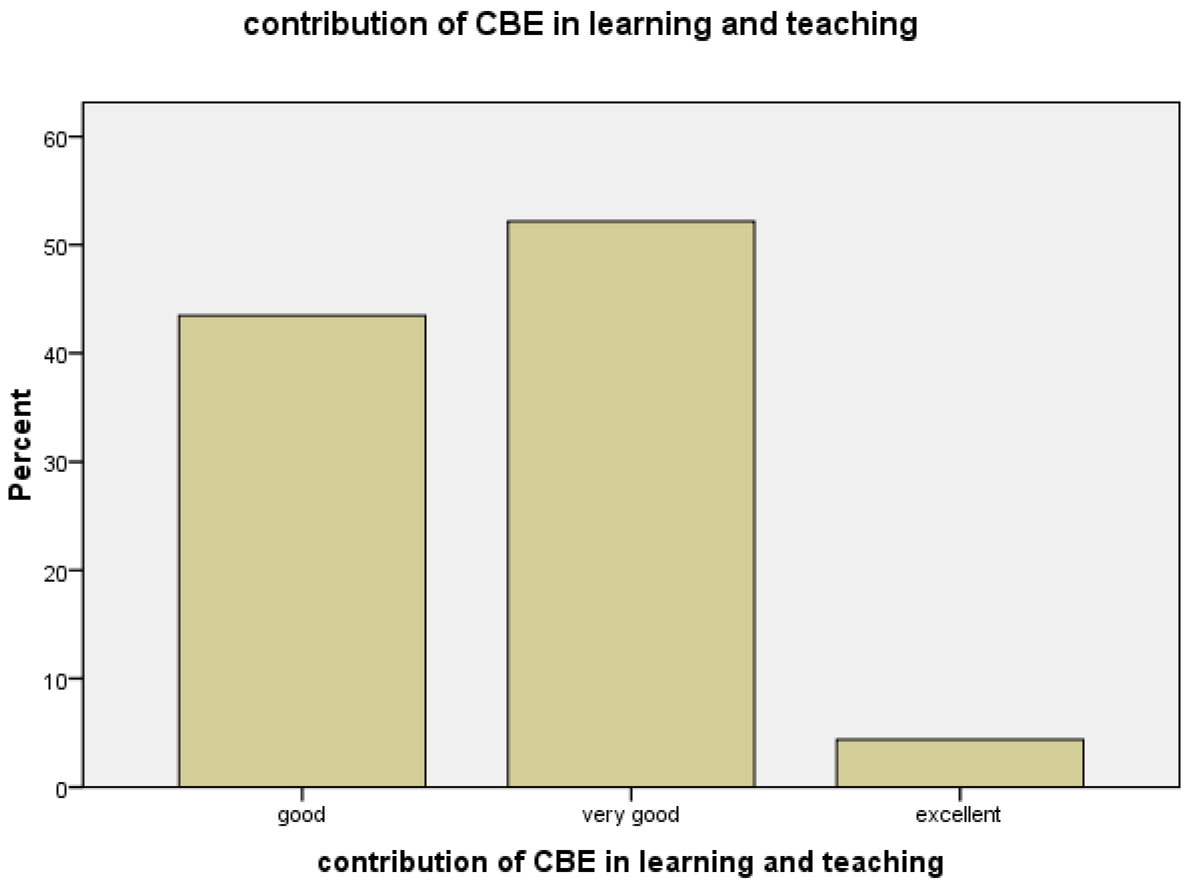
The graph indicates the response of the respondents where they agreed that, there is an indicator of applicability of curriculum based education in the hospitality and tourism industry



Most of the respondents as the graph indicates, they said the; curriculum based education is defined in the whole process of teaching and learning in the hospitality and tourism training institutions.



The graph shows that, the majority of respondents concede on the implementation of curriculum based education in the hospitality and tourism training institutions.



The graph hinted about majority in number which agreed that, curriculum based education has some contributions in the hospitality and tourism training institutions.

Recommendation

There should be enough facilities in which the government and other stakeholders are responsible to rescue the environment of teaching and learning by encouraging the attainment of teaching and learning materials/equipment.

The tutors should be well informed about this model through engaging them in induction and, encouragement is an apex for tutors in implementing competence based curriculum/education

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ENHANCING SKILLS DEVELOPMENT ON HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM INDUSTRY THROUGH THE DUAL APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING SYSTEM (DATS)

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AND TRAINING AUTHORITY (VETA)

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to share knowledge and understanding on the role of Dual Apprenticeship Training system (DATS) in the Hospitality and Tourism Industry from vocational training perspective. Despite the relevance of the labour market needs of this training system to date VETA is still struggling to involve more stakeholder's participation in order to effectively implement the five (5) year DATS roll out plan which covers a duration of five years (2018/19-2022/23)

This may be explained by the fact that it a new training modality and stakeholders are not used to such kind of training system therefore; the aim of this paper was to explore the status on implementation of DATS in Tourism and Hospitality Industry through VET centres in Tanzania. Specifically, this paper expected to achieve the following objectives: identify the challenges and success factors associated with implementation of associated DATS in Tourism and Hospitality Industry; examine the contribution of DATS on skills development role and youth employment. The findings were used to DATS on skills development role and youth employment. The findings were used to propose strategies for effective implementation of DATS in Tourism and Hospitality, through a desk review of existing literature which also captured the review and evaluation of DATS, the following findings were indicated. Evidence shows that DATS has made serious contributions such as building stronger co-operation between the VETA and the industry; increase in graduate employability (90% of graduates got employed); graduates job promotion and access to further training. It also facilitates easy transition to work place.

Based on that, the findings will give a knowledge contribution to the identification of the challenges and success. The Government together with the Ministry of Education together to develop a national framework which will guide programs like DATS.VETA to develop marketing strategies for DATS.

Key words: Skills, Dual Apprenticeship Training, Hospitality Industry, VETA

INTRODUCTION

The world of work is changing rapidly, providing new opportunities and challenges. Tanzania faces major labour market challenges and the labour force is characterized by a dominant proportion of unskilled or low skilled workers, a majority of whom are youth. Many countries around the world including Tanzania are now trying to bridge the gap between education and work by upgrading Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) institutions at various levels and encouraging them to form closer relations with industries, and embracing apprenticeships. The Tanzania economy is growing rapidly, and adequate investment in human capital is urgently needed in order to develop competent workforce.

Tanzania therefore has to place skills development and creation of quality employment a matter of priority in order to satisfy the needs of the labour market and thereby attaining the intended national goals. It is generally accepted that attaining a faster economic growth requires accelerated development of human resources. Tanzania therefore needs to increase access to high quality and relevant skills development opportunities, including workplace learning and experience, to enable effective participation in the economy and society. It is an undeniable fact that attaining middle-income status will require a different skill composition among its working population. Achievement of this largely depends on the provision of quality vocational education and training (VET). The VET system is expected to play a significant role of providing knowledge and skills required through different modes of delivery including dual apprenticeship training for socio-economic development.

Tanzania government recognizes that the job market outlook is still negative, mainly because of the lack of skilled workers and the mismatch between skills supply and demand. Training institutions often provide training to young people who graduate with skills that do not match those required in fast-changing market. There is also a great cry by employers that there is mismatch between the skills that graduates offer and the ones that employees need. Lack of relevant practical skills amongst graduates has been one of reasons for youth unemployment in the country.

Tanzania aims to become a middle-income country, as envisaged in Tanzania Development Vision 2025. For this to happen, Tanzania will have to industrialise rapidly. Industrialisation has, historically speaking, proven to be the only way to escape the global periphery and sustain high levels of economic development. There are many pre-requisites to achieve industrialisation, but for the purpose of this paper our focus will be on developing skills for the competitive workforce needed to contribute to making industrialisation a reality through Dual Apprenticeship Training in the hospitality industry in collaboration with the vocational training institutions.

The role of vocational training institutions in producing a competent workforce is imperative in the hospitality industry. Yet employers in the hospitality industry may identify gaps between what students learn in their post-secondary education and what they are expected to know to be job-ready. This situation is alarming in light of the large and growing number of students graduating from training institutions, but also for many developing countries that have great potential to grow and diversify their hospitality industries. The existing skills gap between what is being taught in training institutions and what employers expect from graduates has been a subject for discussion. The skills-job mismatch needs to be addressed at all levels, nationally and internationally, in order to assure quality destinations and businesses to compete. The challenges are many: for example, minimally qualified and less-motivated students who join training institutions often lead to a less committed workforce, ill-equipped training institutions end up producing partially trained candidates; and industry absorption for practical training to on going students is also questionable. These concerns need a proper analysis and potential solutions need to be explored for the hospitality industry to prosper. Now is the time for practitioners, policy makers and researchers in the industry to share their experiences and discuss sustainable solutions to these challenges.

Background

In today's rapidly changing economy, it is more important than ever to prepare workers to fill both existing and newly created jobs and to prepare workers for the jobs of the future. In recent years most governments, especially those in developing countries, have been focusing their attention on skills development to increase the employability of graduates from institutions. Work-based learning, particularly apprenticeships, is an effective way of transferring technical skills and preparing especially young persons for the labour market. At the same time, employers gain a skilled and dedicated workforce with the profiles that are needed. According to ILO, countries around the world, at all levels of development are putting work-based learning, particularly apprenticeships high on their policy agenda, recognizing its potential for reducing skills mismatch, meeting skills demand of a fast-changing labour market, providing cost-effective training, promoting private sector development and smoothing transitions to the world of work.

All young people, wherever they live and whatever their background, require skills that prepare them for decent jobs so that they can thrive and participate fully in society. Skills are developed in institutions, from basic skills in the early years of schooling to more complex skills at higher levels of learning. Apprenticeships and other forms of work-based learning are seen as having particular advantages as a learning method. They can provide young people and adults with the job-specific and generic skills employers need and so help smooth transition from school or other learning to work. Given that apprenticeships systems also strengthen cooperation between governments, social partners, employers and training institutions, it is unsurprising that their revival has become a worldwide trend.

Apprenticeship training is common in many countries, with varying duration and degrees of involvement in the production process. Apprenticeship arrangements involve apprentices who have formal agreements with employers to carry out a recognized program of work-based and classroom learning. Apprentices participate in the production process, work with a trainer who is often a mentor as well, and ultimately gain sufficient occupational mastery to become certified by an external body.

There is widespread agreement amongst Government, industry and the education sector that apprenticeship training should form a key part of the solution to addressing the issues of skills shortages and unemployment whilst delivering on career aspirations. Although it's encouraging there is a common recognition that there must be a strong focus on this area, and that recent Government reforms are providing a platform for joined up discussion, there still isn't complete alignment about how this should be achieved and implemented.

Apprenticeship training in Tanzania has a long history and has gone through different ups and downs. However, it remains a crucial training system in ensuring producing of skilled and competent personnel in line with the needs of the industry. With the current situation where the private sector dominates the economy of the current, apprenticeship training approach needs to be re-looked into. It requires persuading employers to see the need and importance of participating in training. The willingness of employers to train apprentices can be described as the necessary condition for the existence of an apprenticeship training system. Irrespective of how much a government likes to have an apprenticeship training system, it cannot be established without employers willing to take on the apprentices. Therefore, it is crucial to understand both the motivation of employers to invest in apprenticeship training and the conditions that are necessary to persuade more employers to participate.

Definitions

Apprenticeship: A long-established form of Vocational Education and Training (VET) that includes alternating periods at the workplace and in a school or vocational training centre, in which a contract of training exists between the apprentice and the employer, and in which the apprentice is legally an employee, rather than a student, and receives a wage or allowance from the employer.

Apprenticeship training: is a form of skills development by which young people acquire skills of a trade while working in an enterprise for a significant period of time. It usually includes some form of a contractual agreement between the apprentice and the employer.

A Dual Apprenticeship Training System: is a block release training system whereby the Apprentices (trainees) spent weeks of the year alternating between a training centre and their workplace (Industry). At the training centre the apprentices are taught practical and related subjects and some supportive subjects while at the same time being shown how to perform things properly and safely through practice. At the workplace (Industry) apprentices learn to exercise duties of their occupation as well as culture values and ethics of the particular industry.

Apprentice: is worker (trainee) employed by a company under an apprenticeship contract for defined and agreed period of time usually 3 years and above.

Hospitality: is the relationship process, presentation, formality and procedure experienced between a visitor/ customer/ guest and a host. It specifically includes the reception and entertainment of those who require or are invited to experience an organization's service. Taking all this into account is in order so as to provide excellent customer service.

Mentor: is a person who guides and supports a less experienced person by building trust, modelling them with positive behaviour or attitude and sharing opportunities.

Policies, Strategies, Programmes and Plans

The Government of Tanzania has been emphasizing on issues that address the country's economic and social problems with the purpose of improving the living standards of people and attain planned social and economic objectives.

Different strategies, policies, programmes and plans have been employed to achieve intended goals. To mention a few, they include Tanzania Development Vision 2025; The Strategy for Growth and Poverty Reduction II (MKUKUTA II); The Tanzania FYDP II 2016/2017 - 2020/2021; The Tanzania Long-Term Perspective Plan (LTPP), 2011/12-2025/26; National Skills Development Strategy (2016-2021) of which through the Education and Skills for Productive Jobs (ESPJ) programme the institutional capacity of the skills development system is being strengthened. The focus of the government priority is on growing economic sectors which include Agriculture, Agribusiness and Agro-processing; Tourism and Hospitality; Transport and logistics; Construction; Information and Communication Technology (ICT); and Energy (oil and gas).

Major Goal of Dual Apprentice Training Programme

The major goal is to strength skills training and employability of graduate through direct involvement of private companies in the training process at the same increase enrolment in Vocational Education and Training (VET) system.

Benefits of Dual Apprenticeship Training Programme

i. **Reducing mismatch between training and labour market needs:** Working and training closely under qualified tradesmen ensures that the apprentices acquire skills levels that are actually needed in the labour market.
ii. **Assurance of availability of skilled labour:** The youth are trained mainly by the workplace for employment at the end of which industrial employers are assured of the availability of a skilled workforce with the required hands-on skills they are looking for.
iii. **Tackling youth unemployment:** the system assures entry into the labour market for the young. It is in that way an effective step in tackling youth unemployment.
iv. **Helps youth to gain professional soft skills:** while being trained in the industry, apprentices also learn about company values and work ethics which will help them in their professional career at the same time that they provide companies with a reliable work force;
v. **Enhancing productivity:** the programme has potential of creating enough skilled labour force that will help to address the problem of scarcity

of skilled labour in the industries thus enhance productivity.

vi. **Increase enrolment in VET Centres:** the programme coordinated in blocks, therefore allow the centres to enrol new intake while other apprentices released to industries (on the job training).

DEVELOPMENT OF THE DUAL APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING SYSTEM

The development history of apprenticeship training (formal and informal) in Tanzania dates back to 1940 when the Apprenticeship Ordinance was enacted to guide training in the industry. In the early seventies apprenticeship emerged whereby basic institutional training of one or two years was followed by 3 or 2 years of in plant training in industries depending on the length of basic institutional training of that particular occupation. The system flourished under partnership between Training Institutions and Public Enterprises Industrial sector. After privatization the system declined.

In 2012 the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) re-introduced as a Pilot Project, the Dual Apprenticeship Training programme, an on-job training that combines workplace practical training and classroom theoretical training. The mode of training was initiated by VETA in collaboration with Hamburg Chamber of Skilled Crafts (HWK) of Germany. The collaboration with the Hamburg Chamber of Skilled Crafts-Germany was intended not only to introduce the system but also to build up a better linkage between training institutions and industry in order to enhance demand – driven training as well as build the capacity of institutions to effectively implement the system.

The Dual Apprenticeship Training System (DATS) consists of on the job and off the job training at the Industry/Organisation and the Vocational Training Centre respectively. Off the job training allows the Apprentices to underpin the skills acquired during on the job training at the workplace while also learning basic knowledge of all other skills attached to the occupation not encountered in the workplace. DATS is a block release training system whereby Apprentices (trainees) spend 32 weeks each year in the hospitality industry for the on-the job training and 20 weeks for off-the job training ina Vocational Training institution for the 3 years' duration.

The DATS is designed to accommodate people without previous training experience to enter the job market as an apprentice in a craft of his/her choice by signing Apprenticeship Contract with respective company. In DATS, much emphasis is put at the workplace training since the

Apprentices can easily learn skills through both experienced Mentors and repetition. Apart from exercising duties of their trade at the industry, the Apprentices and trained according to the cultural values and ethics of that particular industry.

The Pilot Project started with three occupations namely; Automotive, Hospitality and Electrical Installation. The centres which were involved in the pilot phase are Dar es Salaam Regional Vocational Training and Service Centre (RVTSC) and Moshi RVTSC. After six years (2012-2017) of piloting dual apprenticeship training, the evaluation outcome has proved its workability in Tanzania and as one of the best modes of skills training and that it was ready for roll out to other Vocational Education and Training (VET) Centres.

CURRENT STATUS OF IMPLEMENTATION

Enrolment status since 2013 to date

S/N	***INTAKE***	***OCCUPATION***	***CENTRE***	***NO. PARTICIPATING***	***FEMALE***	***MALE***	***TOTAL APPRENTICES***
1.	*May 2013-2016*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	6	13	3	16
2.	*June 2015-2018*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	8	23	11	34
3.	*July, 2016-2019*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	11	23	7	30
4.	*January 2018-2020*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	10	20	5	25
5.	*January 2019-2021*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	11	24	6	30
TOTAL				45	103	32	135

Graduates status since 2016 to date

S/N	INTAKE	OCCUPATION	CENTRE	NO. PARTICIPATING INDUSTRIES	FEMALE	MALE	TOTAL APPRENTICES
1.	*May 2013-2016*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	6	13	3	16
2.	*June 2015-2018*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	8	23	11	34
3.	*July, 2016-2019*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	11	23	7	30
4.	*January 2018-2020*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	10	20	5	25
5.	*January 2019-2021*	*Hospitality*	*Moshi RVTSC*	11	24	6	30
TOTAL				45	103	32	135

Achievements

- The DATS was launched in February 2011 as a pilot phase and Hospitality was one among other occupations of Automotive and Electrical Installation. The Hospitality programme was initiated Moshi RVTSC.

- The DATS has managed to enrol five batches each of 25 apprentices for the Hospitality occupation at Moshi RVTSC.
- By September, 2019 a total number of 135 youths (103 female) have benefited from the DATS programme in the occupation of Hospitality.
- The DATS Pilot phase of seven years which included the hospitality occupation was successfully implemented by August 2018.
- The evaluation undertaken on the implementation of the pilot phase resulted to suggest the roll out to be undertaken in extra occupations and in another VET Training centers.
- The five year roll out plan which includes the hospitality occupation has been prepared to smoothly implement roll out.
- The five year roll out plan has been shared with key implementing partners which include: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology; Association of Tanzania Employers (ATE); VETA; Hamburg Chamber of Skilled Crafts (HWK) of Germany; and West German Chambers of Crafts and Skilled Trades (WHKT).
- The Roll out VET centres include Mtwara RVTSC for the Hospitality occupation.
- The DATS managed to bring in different hospitality companies to participatein training apprentices during on the job training.
- DATS also managed to convince different hospitality companies to release mentors participating different stakeholders' forum, stakeholders' workshop and other related issues of DATS.
- Various DATS stakeholders' awareness workshop have been conducted including regular industrial visits to the new prospective hospitality companies.
- The first batch of 16 hospitality apprentices graduated in May 2016 and 100%. hospitality industries that sponsored the apprentices retained them in their respective companies.
- The hospitality industry stakeholders' have embraced the Dual Apprenticeship System and extended great cooperation in the project implementation.
- Enrolment of hospitality apprentices increased from 16 in the first batch to 30in both first and third batch.

- Participating hospitality industries increased to 8Industries in phase two from 6companies of phase one of the pilot project.
- Some of the hospitality employers pay Apprentices monthly training allowances for the entire period of their training.

Challenges

- To secure resources to implement the DATS five year roll out plan 2018/19-2022/23 which includes hospitality.
- To recruit hands on teachers and train them in teaching abilities for the hospitality industry.
- To engage companies to participate in the DATS implementation including having places for internship for DATS teachers so as to keep close to the market and networking to the vocational training centres.
- To engage prospective apprentices and keep them motivated, and informed of their progress during training.
- To engage training providers other than VETA centers engage in providing DATS according to VETA provisions.
- To ensure awards of DATS apprentices are open and permeable to the national qualification framework to enable progression.
- To avail training allowances for apprentices during training.

RECOMMENDATIONS

- Urge more industries to participate and commit themselves to implementing the dual apprenticeship training, which at the end of the day benefits most industries in the country by getting the workforce they need or enhancing their industrial productivity.
- Focus and prioritize the quality of inputs supplied to the public owned hospitality training institutions to ensure inclusive and equitable resources allocation for uniform outcomes.
- Enroll new prospective apprentices at Mtwara RVTSC – Hospitality as measure to implement the roll out plan.
- VETA to avail funds and upgrade the roll out workshops at Mtwara RVTSC as measure to implement the roll out plan for the hospitality programme.
- VETA to avail funds and equip 4 upgraded workshops at Mtwara RVTSC as measure to implement the roll out plan for the hospitality programme.

- VETA to continue promoting DATS to key prospective stakeholders through awareness workshops and visitation or the hospitality industry.
- VETA to continue with follow up recruitment of new DATS teachers for Mtwara RVTSC as measure to implement the roll out plan for the hospitality programme.
- VETA to continue liaising with potential sponsors of the roll out plan where proposals have been submitted.

THE DUAL APPRENTICSHIP TRAINING ROLL OUT PLAN

The DATS roll out plan covers a duration of five years (2018/19 - 2022/23). Implementation for the hospitality occupation is yet to start. Roll out centres for the hospitality industry will include Mtwara RVTSC (25 apprentices) for the initial year, then followed by Dodoma RVTSC (25 apprentices) and Tanga RVTSC (25 apprentices) for the second year. The enrolment for the centres will continue in the consecutive years.

CONCLUSION

The collaboration of the Vocational Education and Training Authority (VETA) owned Institutions with the Hospitality Industry in Developing Skills through the Dual Apprenticeship Training Programme has been presented. It has become evident that Dual Apprenticeship Training mode offers many advantages to the apprentices, the companies and the intuition in general. DATS is an entry into the labour market for young and in experienced people; It shows working and training closely with qualified and experienced skilled persons ensures that the apprentices will acquire the practical skills that are needed in the labour market. In addition to gaining occupational skills, the apprentices also learn company values and work ethics which will help them in their future professional career and provide the company with reliable skilled labour force. DATS also increases the productive performance of apprentices and relieves some of the training burden of the companies which may be necessary for the companies to address skills gaps of those coming directly from full-time training institutions. When industries train, they are investing in skills development and in that way support the government efforts in the development of a better trained national skilled labour force.

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Sub Theme: Community Based Tourism, Role of Stakeholders

DO VISITORS GET SATISFIED BY SERVICE PROVIDED AT DESTINATIONS? A CASE STUDY FROM SERENGETI NATIONAL PARK

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Abstract

The rapid growth of the tourism industry represents a great economic opportunity for Tanzania among the developing countries. However, this should be perceived with care, by considering the country's vision towards sustainable natural resource conservation. To what extent visitors get satisfied and what attracts them more, need to be assessed and improved. The study was conducted in Serengeti National Park and adjacent areas to assess the visitor's satisfactions and experiences. A Purposive sampling method was used where only those tourist who had completed their visits were contacted at exist gates. Data were collected using semi-structured questionnaires that were administered at exit gates a total of 134 tourists responded. Collected data were analysed using a statistical package (SPSS 18.0 for Windows). Results were reported in frequencies of responses in proportions (%). Majority of visitors who were interviewed were very satisfied 72% (n=134), with their basis for high level of satisfaction being nature and scenic beauty of SENAPA, diverse wildlife species, good services and security. Rating some of the facilities and services, a moderate proportion of visitors rated washrooms facilities as very good (24%, n=134) and excellent (23%). General rating for accommodation facilities was excellent 52% (n=134), services at the gates (31% excellent), Lodge and Camp Staff services (66% excellent), Park staff services (52% excellent) and general quality and health of the park (43% excellent). Despite the high satisfaction level, visitors rated roads as among the poor infrastructure (32%, n=134), which hinder and or reduce the level of satisfactions. From the study, it was perceived that, Serengeti National Park Management made efforts to attract more tourists while maintaining the nature and ecological quality of the park. The study recommended that, more efforts are still needed especially on the use of modern technologies for communication systems. Management need to find the best option on how the roads can be improved, to reduce the regular road maintenance and attract more visitors.

Key words: Satisfactions, Serengeti National park, Visitor's destination

INTRODUCTION

Tourism in East Africa is wildlife based (Okello *et al*., 2008) and is defined as among the world tourism destinations. Tanzania is globally known for its rich biodiversity endowed in its natural lands (URT, 2014). Tanzania is known in the world, to have a large land allocated for conservation and large part of it is devoted for wildlife conservation which is the most and first tourists' attraction (MNRT, 2018).

In Tanzania, tourism is a leading foreign exchange earner (Daly & Gereffi, 2017) and is among the fastest growing economic sectors (Eagles & Wade, 2006; Okello & Yerian, 2009; Wade et al., 2001). Tourism industry in Tanzania contributes more than 17% of Gross Domestic Product and over25%of the revenue generated by total exports; leading in number of investment projects (Kimwaga, 2014).

Visitor's satisfactions are always considered as measure of performance of a destination. Satisfactions has been defined as a degree to which a tourist's assessment of the attributes of that destination exceeds expectations (Tribe & Snaith 1998), or as post-purchase related to how much a consumer likes or dislikes a service or product after experiencing it (Woodside, *et al.*, 1989). Tourist satisfaction is an important element for the success of the destination; it influences the choice of destination and the decision for the tourist to return (Yoon and Uysal, 2005).

Understanding the level of visitor's satisfactions is important; these need regular surveys to improve the service rendered. Understanding the level of tourist satisfaction can heavily influence the prospect of repeat visits, depending on the quality of attractions, service rendered and personal interactions. Visitors with a high satisfying experience may become repeat visitors or recommend the area to future clients. This study thus aimed at assessing the level of satisfactions by visitors in Serengeti national park.

LITERATURER REVIEW

Tourism can be a challenging industry due to its volatile nature and susceptibility to a wide range of factors. Its success depends upon the host country's political situation, monetary exchange rate, and occurrence of natural disasters (Jelinek et al. 2002). Tourism is one of the world's leading largest industry contributing trillions of dollars annually to the global economy, exchanging earnings, creating jobs and wealth, generating exports, boosting taxes and stimulating capital investment (WTTC, 2011).

Tanzania with its abundance attractions, that include diverse flora and fauna species and its beautiful landscape, is regarded as among the leading tourist destination in Africa. To date, the tourism sector remains an important sector in supporting the country's development (MNRT, 2018). The high quality of nature and cultural based attractions draws visitors to destinations (Eagle et al, 2001). It is through these attractions that bring satisfactions that can be perceived from various visitors' experience.

Tourism is a client driven sector thus, it requires a big capital and marketing strategies to establish a loyal business (Okello et al. 2005). The level of tourist satisfaction can heavily influence the prospect of repeat visits; visitors with a satisfying experience may become repeat visitors or recommend the area to future clients (Dharmaratne et al. 2000).

Visitor's satisfactions are generally contributed by the type of tourism products such as basic facilities, infrastructures and services provided. Serengeti National Park (SENAPA) is the keystone attraction in Tanzania's important nature-based tourism industry (Eagles and Wade, 2006, Kaltenborn et al. 2011; Okello and Yerian, 2009). The park is famous for the large numbers of diverse wildlife. Owing to the high biodiversity, it is also considered as a natural laboratory of outstanding local, regional and global importance. In recognition of this, UNESCO has designated the Serengeti National Park as a World Heritage Site and a Biosphere Reserve, owing to the region's global importance in the preservation of biodiversity (Sinclair & Arcese 1995; Thirgood et al. 2004). Serengeti is globally known for its annual migration, where twice a year ungulate herds of unrivalled size move across the immense savannah plains of Serengeti on their annual migrations. It contains the greatest remaining concentration of plains game in Africa, thus due to its unique diverse landscapes that support hundreds of wildlife, it has attracted thousand tourists from all over the world (UNEP, 2012). It is imperative noting that, due to its fragile nature, visitor's needs that sweet their satisfactions need to be assessed regularly to maintain the international standards and win meet their needs.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study area

The study was conducted in 2016 at Serengeti National Park (SENAPA) covering an area of 14,763 km^2, located between 1°28'-3°17'S and 33°50'-35°20'E. Serengeti became a World bordered by Maswa Game Reserve to the southwest, the Ngorongoro Conservation Area to the southeast, Loliondo Game Controlled Area to the northeast, Maasai-Mara National Reserve in the north and Ikorongo-Grumeti Game Reserves in the west (Fig. 1). SENAPA is part of the larger Serengeti-Mara ecosystem. The ecosystem includes; Ngorongoro Conservation Area, Serengeti National Park, Maswa, Ikorongo and Grumeti Game Reserves, and Loliondo Game Controlled Area. It has two defined seasons, dry season that starts from late May to October, and wet season from November to May (with a short dry season January-February). It receives the mean annual rainfall of 650mm in the south and 1,150mm in the north. The monthly average temperature is between 20˚C – 25˚C, and day time ranges between 27˚C - 32˚C with a drop at night to 13˚C - 16˚C. Generally, the Park vegetation is of typical savanna in nature, dominated by savanna trees and shrubs, with an exception of the south-eastern corner that is dominated by open plain (Sinclair &Arcese, 1995). SENAPA is the keystone attraction in Tanzania's important nature-based tourism industry (Eagles & Wade, 2006; Okello &Yerian; 2009; Kaltenborn*et al*., 2011). The park is famous for the large numbers of diverse wildlife and owing the highest biodiversity in the country (Sinclai & Arcese, 1995) SENAPA is considered a natural laboratory of outstanding local, regional and global importance and in this recognition, UNESCO designated it as a World Heritage Site and a Biosphere Reserve (Mascia & Pailler, 2011). Serengeti is globally known for its annual Wildebest migration, and it contains the greatest remaining concentration of plains game in Africa (Rentsch & Packer, 2015) . Due to its unique diverse landscapes that support hundreds of wildlife, has attracted thousands of tourists from all over the world.

Objective

The study specifically aimed at assessing visitor’s satisfaction and experience and provides suitable suggestions on how to improve areas that contributes to less and or poor visitor’s satisfactions

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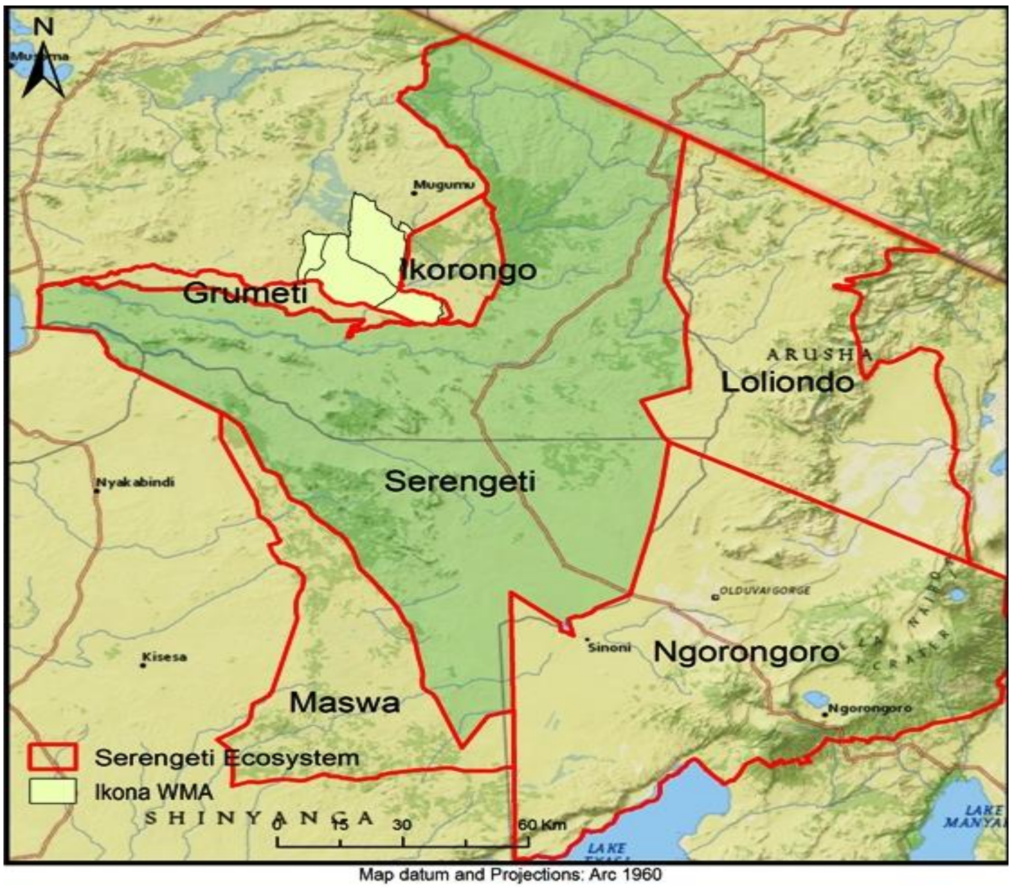


Figure 1: Serengeti National Park and the neighboring protected areas.

Data collection

A Purposive sampling method was used where only those tourists who had completed their visits were contacted at exist gates at Seronera visitor centre, Naabi gate, Seronera airstrip and Kogatende airstrip. Data were collected using semi-structured questionnaire that were administered at exit gates, out of 200 questionnaires that were distributed, a total of 134 tourists responded. Information on visitor’s experience and satisfaction was collected using a questionnaire survey that addressed a number of key issues including, reasons for visiting, and perceptions on the environment in the Park, views on visitor facilities as well as the level of satisfactions. The main target for the questionnaire survey was for visitors who were departing after completion of their visit in SENAPA. Visitor's views on services provided. Tour guides were also interviewed regarding their experience and familiarity with visitor's facilities and experience. Important attributes used to measure satisfactions as defined by Cooper *et al.,* (1993) were accessibility to the destination, attractions, accommodation facilities and services provided. In rating of the variables, a specified scale was used: 0 very dissatisfied levels while 5 were given more weight as excellent-very satisfied. Collected data were analyzed using a statistical package (SPSS 18.0 for Windows). Results were reported in frequencies of responses in proportions (%).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Visitor's experience

Out of 200 distributed questionnaires, 134 (67%) visitors responded to the questionnaire indicating a medium response/return rate. The majority of visitors (85%, n=134) reported to have visited the park for the first time, with few of them having an opportunity of visiting the park more than three times (Fig.2). More females (56%, n=134) than males responded to the questionnaire. Majority of respondents aged between 21-65years old (Fig.3), was related to the reasons that majority of young aged visitors (15-20) probably could not really see the importance of answering to the questions as they spent more time for resting or viewing wildlife.

The majority (85%) of visitors who responded to questionnaires had university education while others had secondary or other type of education level including vocation training. The main source of park information was reported to be obtained from internet (41%, n=134) and 25% from tour companies (Fig.4) while TANAPA website was reported to be the lowest source (2%), which was related to less information obtained from this website and was reported to contain out dated information which could not answer much of the visitor's questions.

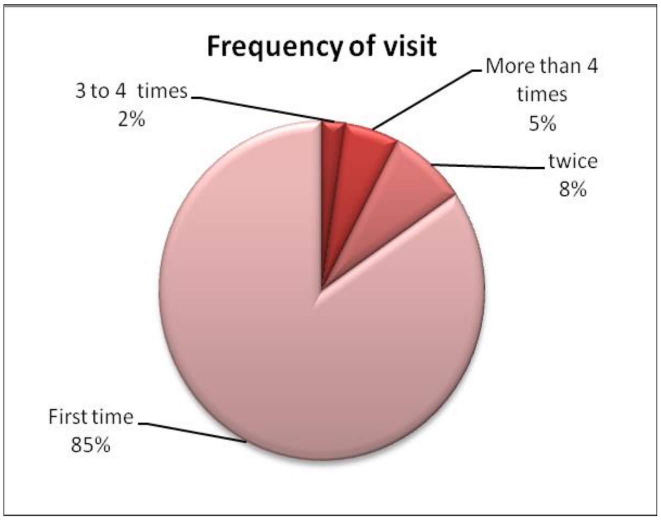


Figure 2: Frequency visit to SENAPA by visitors

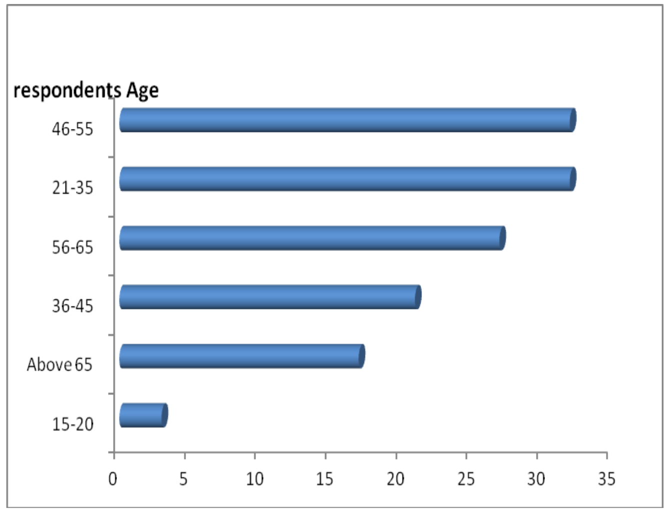


Figure 3: Education level of respondents

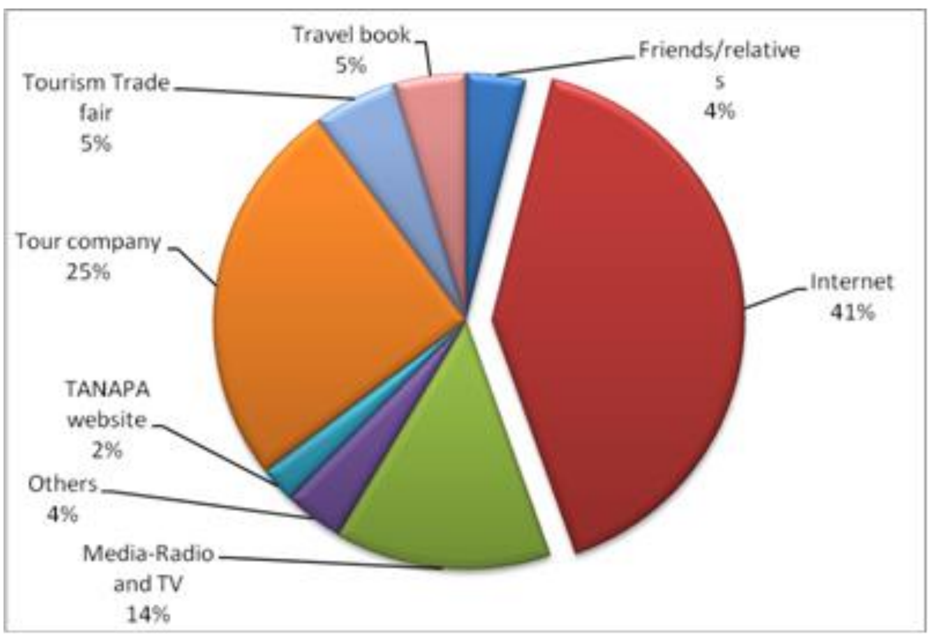


Figure 4: Main sources of information as reported by visitors

Grouping the respondents together, results indicated that, majority of the respondents (70 %, n = 134) were from Europe and North America (Fig.5), country wise more respondents were from the United States of America (USA) , followed by United Kingdom (UK) (Fig.6), findings that was supported also from previous studies (Eagles, 2006; Philipo, 2011). This has an indication that, SENAPA has been probably highly promoted in USA and UK, thus it is time now for more marketing effort is needed in the new evolving tourism areas specifically in the Asian countries. The main reasons for their visits was indicated to be nature enjoyment (Fig.7) and majority of them spent two (34%) to three (27%) nights in the park and others spent even more than 4 nights (20%). The most reason for their visit was for nature enjoyment (91%) other reason were, education and research, spent time with friends and other reasons that included on transits (Fig.7)

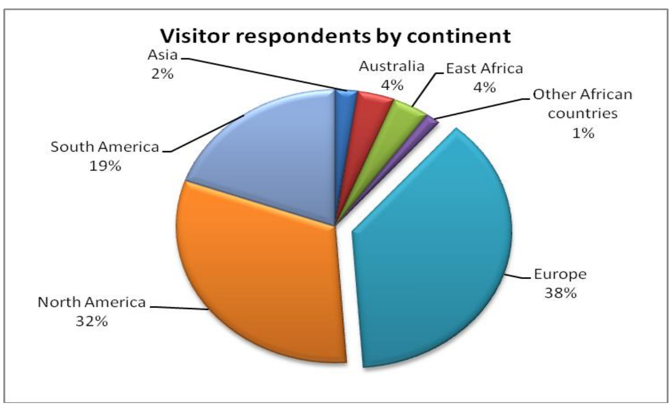


Figure 5: Visitors to SENAPA by continent

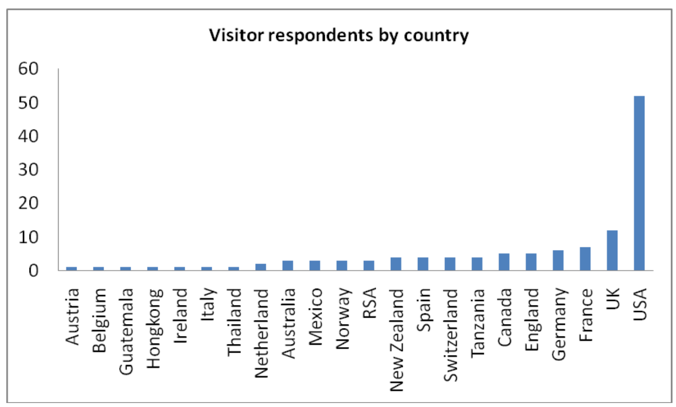


Figure 6: Visitors to SENAPA by Country

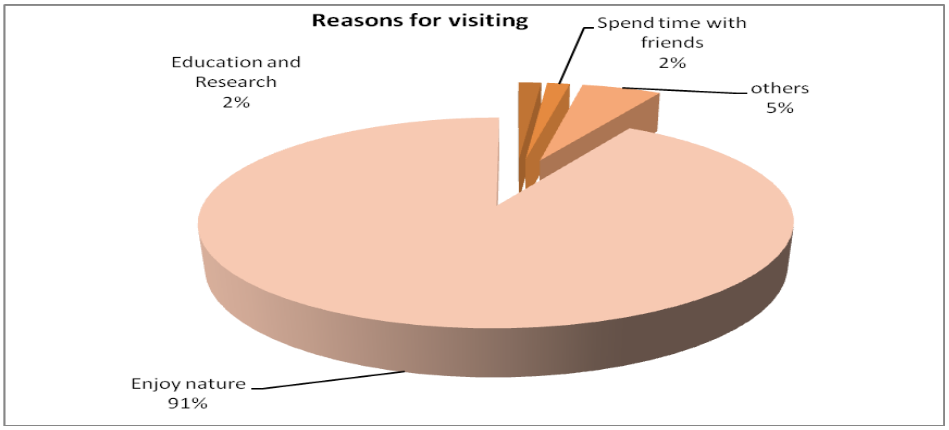


Figure 7: Reasons for visiting the park

Visitor's satisfaction

Overall, majority of visitors were very satisfied 72% (n=134), with very few reporting to have a very dissatisfaction level 4% (Fig.8). The basis for high level of satisfaction was related to the natural and scenic beauty of the SENAPA, good park services, security, existence of the important facilities and diverse wildlife species existing in large numbers. Similar findings were reported by Eagles (2006) that, 90.4% rated the park as excellent that suggested a high level of satisfaction; this high satisfaction was due to nature of the Serengeti NP. Likewise, Kaltenborn *et al.*,(2011) reported that, it was the natural environment, and wildlife in particular that was drawing people to SENAPA. This tells us that, for Serengeti to generate more revenue accrued from the tourism business, its ecological nature (natural environment) and diverse abundant wildlife species have to be maintained. For the minority group (those who were dissatisfied) major reasons were bad roads that to some extent had caused illness, vehicle congestions at Seronera specifically on carnivore sighting points and tsetse flies bites contributed to dissatisfaction level of some visitors.

Respondents indicated that the park has tried to its best to meet most of visitor's satisfaction level. Rating some of the facilities and services, a moderate proportion of visitors rated washrooms (toilet) facilities as very good (24%, n=134), excellent (23%), while 16% rated toilet facilities as poor (Fig.9a). Washrooms were taken as first class and important facility. Previous studies in the park had reported poor quality and number of washroom at various visitor meeting points (Eagles, 2006; Philipo, 2011). With this finding, there was an indication that, TANAPA has taken the issue seriously and had renovated most of the toilets at the gates and at camping sites. Hygiene at the park facilities should be of prime consideration for increasing the satisfaction level of visitors (Plessis*et al.*, 2012). Any destruction related to increased ecosystem disturbance would lead to reduced level of visitor's satisfaction. A study by Kalteborn*et al.,* (2011) indicated that, tourists would not return to Serengeti if the wildlife populations would be reduced by 50 per cent and also if number of tourists doubles. This tells us that, tourism being the world's largest industry is all about selling visitor's experiences. Like in many other tourism destinations (Buhalis, 2000), selling of high quality visitor products should be a primary objective.

General rating for accommodation facilities was excellent 52% (n=134), services at the gates (31% excellent), Lodge and Camp Staff services (66% excellent), Park staff services (52% excellent) and general quality and health of the park (43% excellent; Figure 9: b-f). Findings on services as indicated in this study were contrary to the previous studies (Eagles, 2006, Kaltenborn*et al.*, 2011; Philipo, 2011) who reported existence of poor services from park staff. With these findings there is an indication that, SENAPA Management has started implementing some strategies to improve their services. More efforts are needed especially on the use of modern technologies for communication systems. Among the infrastructures, roads were rated poor (32%, n=134), (Fig.9:g) while the majority 52% (n=134,) did not know of campsite conditions as they did not stay at campsites (Figure 9: h).

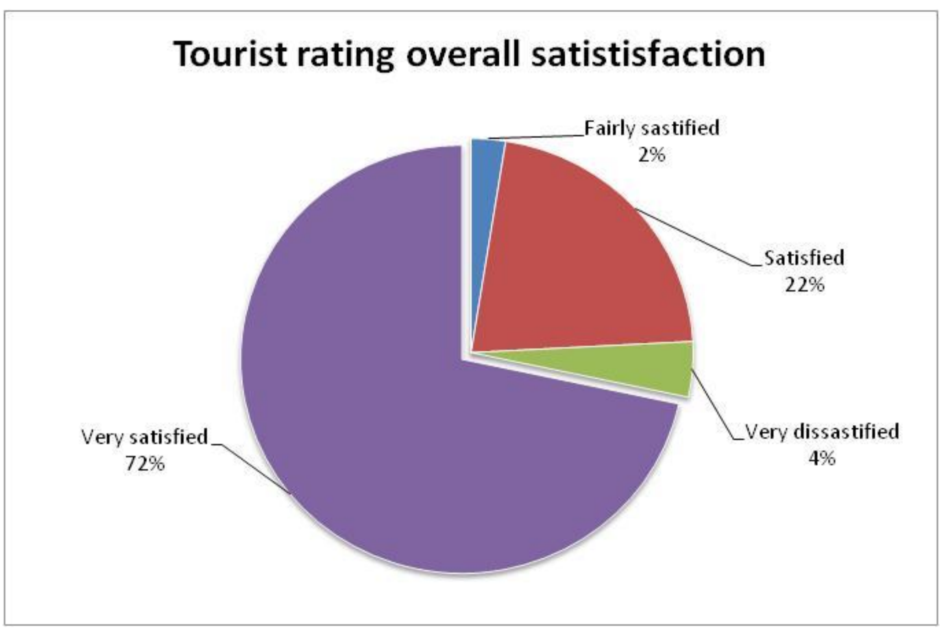
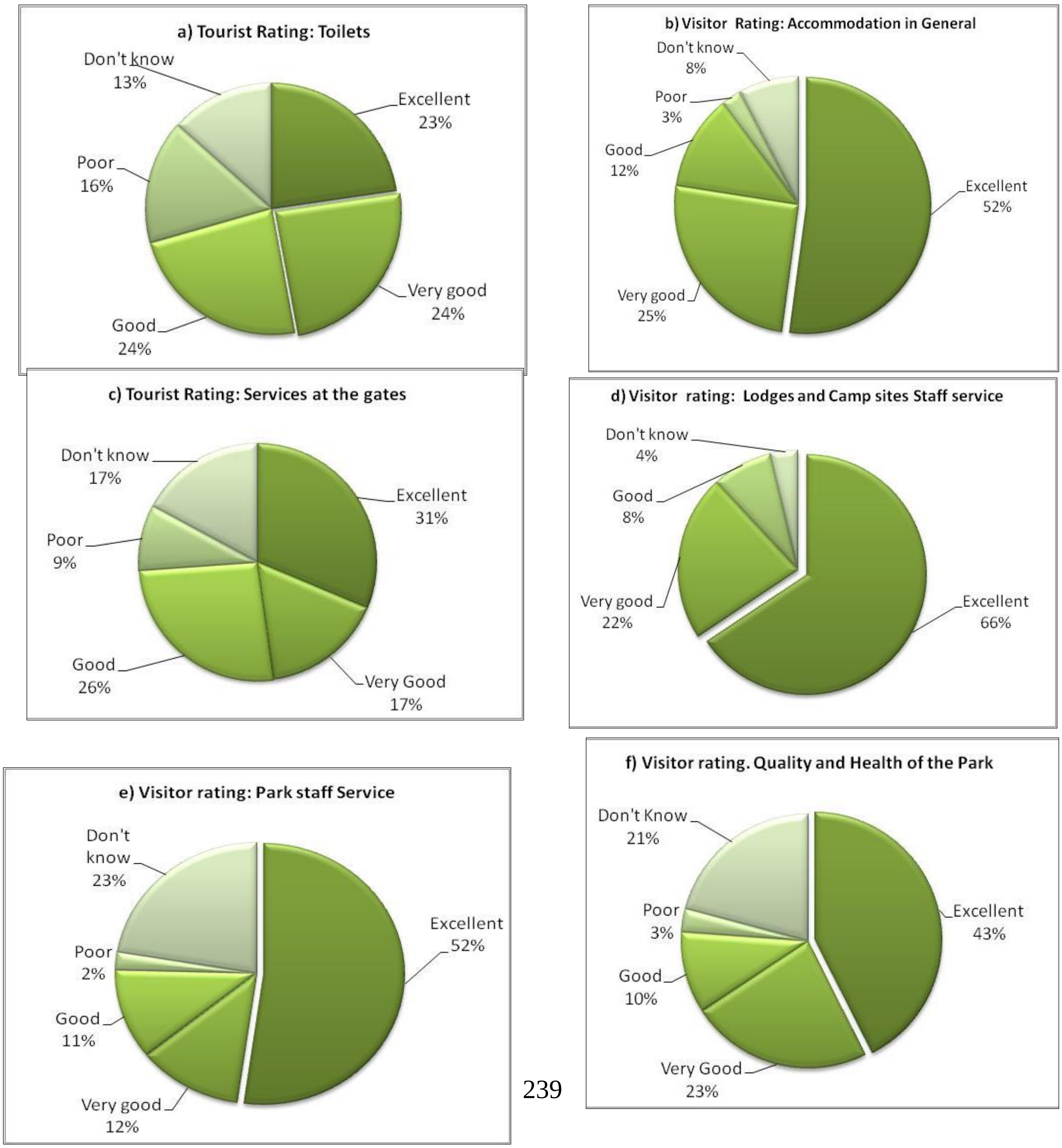


Figure 8: Tourists overall rating on the satisfaction level in SENAPA



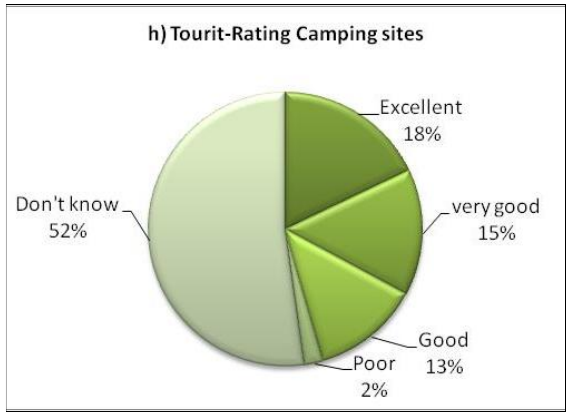


Figure 9 (a-h): **Visitors rating on facilities and services in SENAPA**

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

SENAPA has tried to its best to meet most of visitors' satisfactions, with visitor's basis for high level of satisfaction being nature and scenic beauty of the park, diverse wildlife species, improved services, and security. Thus, any kind of habitat destruction could lead to reduced number of visitors as a result of reduced visitor satisfaction. Understanding the tourist satisfaction is crucial factor for gaining the destination image; attract more customers to utilize products and services, thus generating a repeating business and loyalty.

Serengeti National Park thus, should remain the heart of the national tourism model, with more improvement of quality services to reach higher visitor's satisfactions and experience. For maintaining the high standard quality services, the study recommends the following; improve roads and tourist trails to be passable all year around and open new trails in southern Serengeti to diversify visitor needs,; improve Communication systems to allow easy interaction and timely service provisions to customers/tourists, improve services at facilities such as airstrips, visitor center, campsites and picnic sites, update TANAPA websites with detailed information to sweet visitor's needs.

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THE OPTIMAL COMBINATION OF PASTORAL ACTIVITIES AND WILDLIFE CONSERVATION IN THE SERENGETI ECOSYSTEM

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Abstract
There is competition for land between Maasai pastoralists and the park agency in the Serengeti ecosystem. The park agency wants to use the land for wildlife conservation while the pastoralist community wants to use it for livestock grazing. Predatory wildlife kills livestock while herbivorous wildlife competes with livestock for water and grazing. In retaliation, the Maasai hunt the predators and grazers to protect their livestock but also to supply the black market for wildlife products. With both the Maasai and animal populations growing, increased conflicts are inevitable. This paper develops a bioeconomic model with three animal species to analyse the optimal combination of pastoral activities and wildlife conservation in the Serengeti ecosystem. Using Pontryagin's maximum principle, the market problem for each agent is optimized and compared to the social planner's outcome. Results show that the market solutions are suboptimal because of the presence of bidirectional negative externalities and inadequate regard to biodiversity conservation values. Mathematical simulations of the bioeconomic model are used to generate a solution in which the Maasai pastoralists and park agency can optimally share the land for their mutual benefit. The policy implication is that government should establish an independent regulatory institution with a primary mandate of balancing the contested socioeconomic and ecological needs of stakeholders in prime ecosystems such as the Serengeti.

Keywords*: Bioeconomic, Livestock, Maasai, Predators and Grazers, Serengeti*

Introduction

This paper develops a bioeconomic model with three animal species to analyse the optimal combination of land uses in the Serengeti ecosystem. There is competition between pastoral activities and wildlife conservation. The national parks' agency wants to preserve land for wildlife protection while the Maasai pastoralist community wants to use the same land for livestock grazing. Given their proximity, predators kill domestic livestock while grazers compete for food and water. In retaliation against the perceived injustice over land, damages from wild animals and the desire to protect their livestock from future attacks, the Maasai indiscriminately hunt down predators and grazers but also poach them for sale at the market. The competitive market problem for each agent is optimized and compared to the social planner's outcome. In the presence of mutual negative externalities, the market solution is suboptimal. The paper then uses mathematical simulations to find an outcome in which the Maasai pastoralists and parks' agency can optimally share land for their mutual benefit. The policy implication is that government should establish an independent regulatory institution with a primary mandate of balancing optimally the contested socioeconomic and ecological needs of stakeholders in prime ecosystems such as the Serengeti.

The conflict between wildlife conservation and community livelihood activities is a challenging feature of many Sub-Saharan African countries. On the one hand, wildlife in Sub-Saharan Africa continues to be endangered by human activities (Schulz and Skonhoft, 1996). This problem is particularly severe in regions with dense and fast-growing human populations, where expanding settlements, crops and livestock have continued to displace wildlife at an alarming rate (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2017;De Pourcq et al. 2015; Skonhoft, 1997).

The decline in wildlife has instigated countries to act to protect wildlifein ways including, for example, privatization of local wildlife resources and wildlife appropriation by the state through establishment of national parks and protected areas (Marks, 1984). Traditional hunting practices have also been subjected to various regulations.

On the other hand, national parks and game reserves have been to the detriment of rural communities (pastoralists and peasants) by taking away the land that was traditionally used for cultivation and pasture, by denying them the right to subsistence hunting through anti-poaching laws, and by preventing them from eliminating 'problem' animals to protect their livestock (Schulz and Skonhoft, 1996). Whereas the rural people bear the costs of "living with wildlife", they do not get any significant associated benefit from the state. As Skonhoft (1997) posits, this situation reflects a land-use and wildlife management policy that is based on protection rather than on utilization.

The importance of conservation to an economy includes the intrinsic values of flora and fauna, benefits to the surrounding communities and the concerned economies, enhancing the satisfaction of tourists and, ultimately, bequeathing to posterity well-preserved nature. Thus, conservation should be undertaken in a way that strikes a balance with communities' development needs, which hinges on proactive communities and the private sector (Lord, 2008). Furthermore, conservation has to contend with and find solutions to problems of natural resource consumption and human population growth (Lord, 2008).

Solutions to conservation challenges often involve difficult trade-offs between conservation and other social goals, such as human development, and between anthropocentric and bio-centric goals (Lord, 2008), and the Serengeti ecosystem is no exception to such tradeoffs. In the Serengeti ecosystem, the Serengeti National Park authorities are in competition for land with the Maasai people.

It may be argued that the Maasai have a traditional claim to the land. The Maasai first settled in East Africa in the 15th century (FEMACT 2009; TANAPA 2014, 2016), wandering freely in the plains. The Serengeti ecosystem provided a crucial diversity of resources that fueled their large cattle herds. The Maasai exploited the savanna nature of the Serengeti ecosystem to replenish the soil (by burning the savanna). The hooves of their cattle mix the soils, regenerating new grassland that helps the native herbivorous wildlife to thrive, which ironically intensifies competition with the cattle. Young Maasai boys, as part of their development into Maasai "warriors", were taught how to take care of the cattle and how to protect them from predators.

However, the growth of the populations of both the Maasai and wild animals have made conflicts inevitable. Many wild animals roam outside of reserve borders and compete directly with the Maasai livestock for grass and water. In addition, the predators, especially hyenas, kill the Maasai's livestock, and the Maasai are forced to retaliate by killing the predators, and the grazing wildlife too.

The establishment of formal wildlife conservation in the Serengeti ecosystem was thus fated to be beset with challenges, as conflicts in land uses between wildlife conservation and pastoral activities remain unresolved. Whereas the Serengeti park agency wants the land to be used mainly for wildlife conservation, the communities want to use the land for livestock production.

Allocating more land for wildlife conservation means less land for livestock production, and vice versa. Thus, there is a need to find a solution that is optimal in the use of the land for both activities. In this regard, this paper formulates a bioeconomic model that addresses the issues particular to the Serengeti ecosystem and similar environs with a view to determine the optimal combination of livestock production and wildlife conservation and thereby draw related policy implications. Using information about the carrying capacity of the land, it is possible to arrive at the optimal stocks of wildlife and livestock and the optimal land allocation between the two activities.

The rest of the chapter is organized into four sections. Section 2.2 provides the literature review. Section 3 develops the bioeconomic model and presents some comparative statistics. Section 4 provides a discussion of the results of the optimization problems. Finally, section 5 presents the conclusions and drawspolicy implications.

Literature Review

Wildlife Conservation and Human Activities

Conservation areas worldwide have continued to suffer from the damaging impacts of human activities, which has led to the establishment of exclusionary conservation policies. These policies are geared towards excluding people from conservation areas with a view to protect the environment better. However, the implementation of these policies has resulted in natural resource-related conflicts (NRRCs) between local communities and protected area authorities (De Pourcq et al., 2015). In Africa, the land that is not under crops or permanent human settlement, and not protected, constitutes about 85% of the total land (Martin, 1993). This arid and semi-arid land is the habitat for a vast variety of wildlife and plant species. Martin (1993) contends that humans constitute an increasing threat to wildlife because they have continued to bring production activities deeper and deeper into wildlife habitats.

The increasing threat to the wildlife is due to increased demographic pressures, mounting rural poverty, unsustainable extraction and use of natural resources and (violent) conflicts, which have continued to cause biodiversity loss and degradation of natural habitat (De Pourcq et al., 2017).

Yet, wildlife conservation can be beneficial to humans, for example through creating employment and generating revenue (Poshiwa et al., 2013; Muchapondwa and Sterner, 2012). These benefits should create the motivation for local people to treat wildlife as an asset (Balint and Mashinya, 2006; Songorwa et al., 2000; Songorwa, 1999). One of the ways by which wildlife could be embraced by the local communities is to put in place benefit-sharing arrangements, with potential to improve incomes of the poor rural people as wildlife is turned into a valuable resource (Fischer et al., 2011; Skonhoft, 1998; Schulz and Skonhoft, 1996).

Apart from the demotivation issue, another problematic issue has been the unresolved conflicts in land use for competing activities among the stakeholders. In the case of the Serengeti National Park, Kideghesho et al. (2006) suggested that for local people to forgo other land uses in favour of conservation, the wildlife-related benefits should be equitably distributed and be able to contribute sufficiently to the local economy. A few years later in another study, Kideghesho et al. (2010) examined local people's perceptions of the costs they incur by sharing land with wildlife. The study found that the government did not recognize the local people's involuntary contribution, despite ensuring the survival of the Serengeti and its resources. The authors argued that the creation of protected areas, and ongoing wildlife conservation, have social and economic costs that are rarely compensated for; which implies the imposition of a negative externality on the local communities.

Other researchers on the Serengeti ecosystem in Tanzania found that indigenous people in the Serengeti perceive the existing wildlife protected areas as a burden, due to competition for land and other resources, damage to property, and risk to life (Kaltenborn, et al., 2008). All these costs go uncompensated, imposing also negative externalities on the local communities. Thus, some researchers have found that there is lack of appreciation of conservation in most communities in the Serengeti ecosystem, which was linkedto claims that the communities do not receive economic benefit from it (Mwakaje et al., 2013), despite the uncompensated costs. However, some studies found that communities were inclined to support wildlife conservation if they can benefit from it (Yaryura, 2014; Newmark et al., 1993).

In summary, a number of studies found that wildlife conservation and communities can exist together and suggested that there should be ways in which the communitiesand the park agency can share the land optimally (Kideghesho et al., 2013, 2010, 2007; Damania, et al. 2005). Sharing the land optimally is not just a matter of resolving the conflicts; more significantly it works to address properly the issue of the property rights, which is one of the ways of correcting for the externalities by both agents (Coase 1960).

This study uses bioeconomic modelling to investigate the "best" or optimum combination of land use (Brown, 2000) for livestock production and wildlife conservation in the Serengeti ecosystem. This approach was preferred for two reasons. First, thebioeconomic approach has been commonly used to analyze conflicts in socioecological systems in similar settings in other studies in sub-Saharan Africa (Ntuli and Muchapondwa 2017; Johannesen and

Skonhoft 2014; Fischer et al., 2005). Second, the bioeconomic model is well suited to investigating policy responses tobidirectional negative externalities in a socioecological system, which is the core of the study.

Bioeconomic Models and Conservation in Sub-Saharan Africa

Bioeconomic models are models with economic and biophysical components. Traditionally, bioeconomic models are used to analyse human uses of ecosystems for production and consumption. As such, the analysis focuses on changes in a limited set of environmental indicators that matter (directly) to human beings (Kragt, 2012).

Bioeconomic models can be divided into two categories. One categorycomprisesbiological process models, with an addition of an economic analysis component. The other category compriseseconomic optimization models, including various bio-physical components as activities among the various choices for optimization. Economic optimization in this regard refers to its broader sense of systematically evaluating a number of alternative activities so as to determine the one which will result in the "best" or optimum performance (Brown, 2000).

As already indicated, wildlife conservation is prone to negative externalities that agents impose on each other in the pursuit of their economic objectives. For the Serengeti ecosystem, land use in the Serengeti National park is legally restricted to wildlife conservation. Outside the park, the surrounding Maasai communities engage primarily in livestock production. Similar to Zimbabwe (Fischer et al., 2005), wildlife roam around the lands adjacent to the park causing the negative externalities to the communities by killing livestock, threatening property and the people, competing for the scarce grazing land with livestock and transmitting diseases.

The problem of externalitiesstarts with competition for grazing land outside the park. In response to the damages caused by intruding wildlife, the Maasai communities encroach in the parks in search of more grazing land for their livestock, whereby livestock compete for conservation land with wildlife; also, the Maasai kill wildlife predators that threaten or kill their livestock, thereby imposing negative externalities on the park agency as well.

The externalities by both agents tend to affect the behaviour of both agents, such that none of their optimization outcomes may be optimal in competitive equilibrium, even though one may dominate the other. Hence, the bioeconomic model developed for this study assesses the outcomes of the agents based on that of the social planner, which is taken to be the most desirable outcome in the literature. Both agents are taken to behave as private rather than social actors;as such they do not face the 'correct price' for their activities, i.e., the marginal social cost of their respective activities. Hence the social planner's problem is formulated to align private costs and benefits to social costs and benefits and generate the outcome that is free of externalities for both agents.

Bioeconomic models have also been widely used worldwide in analyzing issues related to wildlife conservation, among others (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2017; Johannesen and Skonhoft, 2014; Fischer et al., 2005). This review focuses on a few studies that have employed bioeconomic modelling in sub-Saharan Africa, with a view to indicate how the model has been used and to demonstratethe gap that this study has attempted to fill. In general, the reviewed studies have used bioeconomic modelling to examine the challenges affecting wildlife conservation in sub-Saharan Africa; in particular, the studies attempt to provide solutions for conflicts between people's production activities and wildlife conservation.

One of the solutions to land-use conflicts is to introduce property rights. In the presence of externalities, the market can potentially solve the problem of externalities if property rights are clearly assigned and negotiated (Coase, 1960). Skonhoft (1998) introduces property rights in the land-use conflict between local agropastoralists and a park authority by allowing the agropastoralists to share the profits from wildlife hunting and tourism.

The introduction of property rights serves as the incentive for the park manager to increase the offtake and thereby decrease the wildlife stock in the long term, which reduce the irritation from the roaming wildlife.

With the decrease in wildlife stock however, the agropastoralists are motivatedto keep more livestock, thereby bettering their welfare relative to the situation where they had no property rights; in addition, they receive a profit share from the tourism activity and hunting. Skonhoft (1998) argued that under certain conditions this arrangement will generally lead the stock sizes to approach the optimal situation, with the implication that the decentralization of ownership rights to the local agropastoralists incentivizes them to view wildlife conservation positively and desirable in the long term.

The property rights structure was used in another study to compare two benefit-sharing arrangements, namely the sharing of tourism revenue and hunting licenses (Fischer et al., 2011). The bioeconomic model used includes poaching by external agents and community anti-poaching enforcement. The results show thatmeaningful conservation and welfare improvements are predicated on the size of benefits granted and how benefit-sharing arrangements are planned. Fischer et al. (2011) conclude that linking benefits directly to the actions of locals can result in significant conservation outcomes.

A bioeconomic model has also been used to choose between two alternative policies as gauged on the effectiveness of a policy in enhancing conservation outcomes (Zabel et al., 2011). The authors estimated two policy methods for carnivore conversation, namely ex-post compensation and performance payments, which resulted in differing outcomes.

The unconditional ex-post compensation was shown to have a distortionary effect on incentives to conserve. The study concluded that the effectiveness of the performance payments was due to their direct link to specific conservation outcomes.

Regarding benefit-sharing schemes, a bioeconomic model was used to choose between two benefit-sharing schemes for the park agency and local communities in the study of Mountain Gorillas of Central Africa (Mukanjari et al., 2013), namely, the revenue-sharing scheme and the performance-linked benefit-sharing scheme. In the latter scheme, the park agency made payment to the local community based on the growth of the gorilla stock. The results from the study showed that whereas the revenue-sharing scheme yielded sub-optimal conservation outcomes, the performance-linked benefit-sharing scheme was shown as being capable of achieving socially optimal conservation, rendering needless poaching effort by the local community. The implications from the findings is that with the performance-linked benefit-sharing scheme, it becomes unnecessary to impose poaching fines and anti-poaching enforcement on the local community.

Two other alternatives, namely, anti-poaching enforcement by the park agency and anti-poaching effort exerted by the conservancy community, were compared for two habitats adjacent to a national park in Zimbabwe (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2017). The results showed anti-poaching enforcement by the park agency to be suboptimal, whereas anti-poaching effort exerted by the conservancy community wasshown to be socially optimal. Furthermore, local communities might approach the same result under the conservancy community if they invest in CPR institutions.

Other studies that used bioeconomic models include Bulte et al. (2008) who examine habitat conversion, species preservation, and welfare in Eastern and Southern Africa. Johannesen (2007) uses bioeconomic analysis in studying protected area expansion in Africa, and Johannesen et al. (2005) employ a bioeconomic model to investigate strategic interaction between the park managers and local people in Integrated Conservation and Development Projects in Africa. Such studies include the one examining property rights and wildlife utilization in the Serengeti-Mara ecosystem by Johannessen and Skonhoft (2000), and the one examining land use conflict in East Africa by Schulz and Skonhoft (1996).

Like previous studies on conservation issues in sub-Saharan Africa, this study uses bioeconomic modellingtoexamine how land of the Serengeti ecosystem should be optimally allocated between wildlife conservation and livestock keeping. The optimal land allocation is arrived at using both the carrying capacity of the land and the optimal biological stocks.This study makes a methodological contribution to the corps of bioeconomic models by incorporating threespecies (livestock, grazing wildlife and predatory wildlife),bidirectional negative externalities (livestock to wildlife and wildlife to livestock) and two sources of conflict (predation and grazing competition) in one model.

The bioeconomic model for the Serengeti Ecosystem

In this section, a bioeconomic model which describes the situation in the Serengeti ecosystem is developed, following on the modelling techniques in studies that have analyzed wildlife conservation issues elsewhere in sub-Saharan Africa (Ntuli and Muchapondwa, 2017; Mukanjari et al., 2013; Fischer et al., 2011;Skonhoft, 1998;Schulz and Skonhoft, 1996; Skonhoft and Solstad, 1996).The key components of the model are presented in Figure 1 while Table 1 presents the definitions of variables.

Figure 1: Key components of the bioeconomic model

Two agents:	A park agency (Serengeti National Park) and pastoralists in the neighborhood of the park (the Maasai community)
Two land uses:	Livestock production (by the pastoralists) and wildlife conservation (by the park agency)
Three stocks:	Livestock, predatory wildlife,grazing wildlife
Three economic activities:	Livestock consumption, protection of livestock (against the predators), wildlife tourism
Land constraint:	The total land (L) is allocated to park activities (H) and pastoral activities (U); but there is a possibility of bidirectional encroachment.

Table 1: Definition of variables used in the bioeconomic model

X_i (i = 1,2)	The stock (i.e. biomass or population) of wildlife species *i*i.e. predators and grazers respectively
K	The carrying capacity of the land
$F_1(X_1, X_2, N)$	The natural growth function of wildlifepredators
$F_2(X_2, N)$	The natural growth function of wildlife grazers
J	Anti-poaching effort
E	Poaching effort (i.e. time spent on poaching activities)
$\psi_i(J, E)$	The poaching function
N	The stock (biomass)of livestock
$F_3(N, X_2)$	The natural growth function of livestock
n	The quantity of livestock harvested by the pastoralists
ε_{ij}	The externality from species *j* to species *i*
$G(X_1, X_2)$	The national "public good" value which includes non-consumptive value of wildlife from tourism services
$R(X_1, X_2)$	The international "public good"value which largely includes the existence value of wildlife
s	The unit cost of anti-poaching enforcement
sJ	The cost of anti-poaching enforcement
θ	The probability of catching a poacher
c	The fine imposed on poachers
$c\theta(J, E)$	The proceeds from fines
P	The market price
$\overline{y}_i$	The harvest quotas for wildlife species *i*
y_i	The harvest rate of wildlife species *i*
$p_i y_i$	The revenue from harvesting wildlife species *i*
μ, λ, η,and γ	Shadow prices for the predators and grazers
$\overline{Z}$	Total time available to pastoralists

Z	Time spent on pastoralism activities
$U(N)$	The utility associated with the non-consumptive use of livestock
g	The unit cost of time spent on livestock production
p_n	The market price of livestock
$p_n n$	The revenue from the sale of livestock
v	The black-market price for illegal wildlife harvest
$v\psi_i(J,E)$	The revenue from poaching of wildlife species *i*
q	Cost associated with poaching effort
ω	Shadow value of livestock

We use N to represent the stock (biomass or population) of livestock.For $i=1,2$, i.e. predators and grazers respectively,we have X_{it} as the stock (biomass or population) of wildlife at time t with $0<X_i<K$ where K is the carrying capacity of the land.For simplicity, we will drop the time index. Let $\frac{\partial X_i}{\partial t}$ represent the stockdynamicsand y_i is the rate of harvest.Let $F_i(X_i,.)$ denote the natural growth function and is a humped curve increasing to a peak value for an intermediate value of X_i, i.e., $\frac{\partial F_i(X_i,.)}{\partial X_i}>0$ and $\frac{\partial^2 F_i(X_i,.)}{\partial X_i^2}<0$.

Predators are positively affected by the food abundance. They prey on both livestock and grazing wildlife. The effect of competition from grazing livestockon grazing wildlife would be depicted by a depression of the growth of grazing wildlife as the stock of livestock increases.Predation by predators on wildlife grazerstakes the form of removal of units from the grazingwildlife population. The intensity of the removal depends on the interaction coefficient between the two species, captured by ε_{21}.

In addition, more land designated to wildlife habitat protection will shift the growth function outward, but at a decreasing rate (Swanson, 1994a, b; Skonhoft, 1995; Schulz, 1996). To be precise, we will assume that there is no growth if either the stock size is zero or the carrying capacity is reached, i.e., $F(0,.)=0=F(K,.)$.

Let $\psi_i(J,E)$ denotes thepoaching function, and we assume that the poaching function increases with poaching effort (E) and reduces with anti-poaching enforcement (J) by the park agency. We also assume that the poaching function is unique, i.e., the pastoralists use the same technology like wire snares to harvest both predators and grazers.Equations1 tells us the stockdynamics of the predatory wildlife species over time.

1. $$\frac{\partial X_1}{\partial t} = F_1(X_1, X_2, N) - y_1 - \psi_1(J,E)$$

The first term on the RHS captures the positive effect of food abundance in the form of livestock and grazing wildlife for predators, the second term shows the harvest rate determined by the park agency, and the last term shows the quantity removed through illegal poaching by pastoralists.

Equation 2 tells us the stockdynamics of the grazing wildlife species over time.

2.

$$\frac{\partial X_2}{\partial t} = F_2(X_2, N) - \varepsilon_{21} X_1 X_2 - y_2 - \psi_2(J,E)$$

The first term on the RHS captures the effect of competition from grazing livestock, the second term captures the effect of predation from other wildlife, the third term shows the harvest rate determined by the park agency, and the last term shows the quantity removed through illegal poaching by pastoralists.

The stock of livestock will be negatively affected by wildlife. The effect of wildlife grazing competition on livestock would be depicted by a depression of livestock growth as the stock of wildlife increases.Predation on livestock by wildlife takes the form of removal of units from the livestock population. The magnitude of the removal depends on the interaction coefficient between the two species, captured by ε_{31}.We use n to represent the quantity of livestock harvested by the pastoralists.The stock dynamics of livestockaretherefore given by;

3. $$\frac{\partial N}{\partial t} = F_3(N, X_2) - \varepsilon_{31} N X_1 - n$$

The first term on the RHS captures the effect of grazing competition from wildlife, the second term captures the effect of predation by wildlife while the third term shows the harvest rate of livestock determined by pastoralists.

Optimization Problem

We consider the optimization problem of the park agencyand the pastoralists andcompare to the social planner's problem.

a. The park agency's problem

We assume that the park agency cares aboutthe national "public good" value $G(X_1, X_2)$ of wildlife and employs anti-poaching effort (J) to protect the wildlife stock.We assume that the public good value includes the non-consumptive value of wildlife from tourism services. It is assumed that more wildlife means more value, at a decreasing rate, $G(0)=0$, $G_x > 0$ and $G_{xx} < 0$.

The cost of anti-poaching enforcement is given by sJ where s is the fixed cost per unit of wildlife protection effort. The proceeds from fines is given by $c\theta(J,E)$, where the probability of catching a poacher is denoted by θ and c is the fine imposed on apprehended poachers. The probability of apprehension depends on anti-poaching enforcement and poaching effort such that $\theta_J > 0$ and $\theta_E > 0$.

The net benefits for the park agency of wildlife conservation therefore depends on the national public good value, revenue from legal trophy hunting, proceeds from wildlife protection activities and the cost of monitoring and enforcement.We define $p_i y_i$ as the revenuefrom harvesting wildlifespecies *i*where$p_i$is the market price of wildlife species *i*.

The park authority therefore seeks to maximize discounted profit in equation 4 subject to the stock dynamics of wildlife and the harvest quotas for both grazers and predators, i.e., the harvest rate should not exceed the quota for each wildlife species *i*($y_i \le \bar{y}_i$).

4.

$$\underset{\{J,y_1,y_2\}}{Max} \Pi(J) = \int_{t=0}^{\infty} \left(G(X_1, X_2) + p_1 y_1 + p_2 y_2 + c\theta(J,E) - sJ \right) e^{-\delta t} dt$$

Subject to

$$\frac{\partial X_1}{\partial t} = F_1(X_1, X_2, N) - y_1 - \psi_1(J,E)$$

$$\frac{\partial X_2}{\partial t} = F_2(X_2, N) - \varepsilon_{21} X_1 X_2 - y_2 - \psi_2(J,E)$$

$$y_1 \le \bar{y}_1$$

$$y_2 \le \bar{y}_2$$

The current value Hamiltonian is given by:

$$\begin{aligned} H = \quad & G(X_1, X_2) + p_1 y_1 + p_2 y_2 + c\theta(J,E) - sJ + \mu\left[F_1(X_1, X_2, N) - y_1 - \psi_1(J,E)\right] \\ & + \lambda\left[F_2(X_2, N) - \varepsilon_{21} X_1 X_2 - y_2 - \psi_2(J,E)\right] + \eta\left[\bar{y}_1 - y_1\right] + \gamma\left[\bar{y}_2 - y_2\right] \end{aligned}$$

where $\mu > 0$, $\lambda > 0$, $\eta > 0$, and $\gamma > 0$ as shadow prices[5] for the predators and grazers, respectively.

As opposed to the pastoralists, we assume that the park agency places different values on grazers and predators,and whether the animals are dead or alive. The following expressions can be obtained from the first-order condition:

5.

$$c\frac{\partial\theta(J,E)}{\partial J} - s = \mu\frac{\partial\psi_1(J,E)}{\partial J} + \lambda\frac{\partial\psi_2(J,E)}{\partial J}$$

According to equation5, the park agency will continue to employ anti-poaching effort until the net benefits of increasing anti-poaching enforcement by a unit is equated to the marginal value of increasing the stock of predators and grazers, respectively.

6. $p_1 = \mu + \eta$

7. $p_2 = \lambda + \gamma$

Equation6and 7 tell us that the park agency allocates hunting permitsuntilthe shadow price of the stock equals the market value.

[5]The shadow price measures the approximate decrease in the present value of net benefits, resulting from a unit decrease in the wildlife stock.

8. $\delta = \frac{1}{\mu}\frac{\partial G(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_1} + \frac{\partial F_1(X_1, X_2, N)}{\partial X_1} - \frac{\lambda}{\mu}\varepsilon_{21}X_2$

9. $\delta = \frac{1}{\lambda}\frac{\partial G(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_2} + \frac{\partial F_1(X_1, X_2, N)}{\partial X_2} + \frac{\partial F_2(X_2, N)}{\partial X_2} - \lambda\varepsilon_{21}X_1$

The (steady state) portfolio conditions (Equation 8 and 9) show that the sum of the wildlife gain and the net stock effect resultingfrom maintaining one unit of wildlife must be equal to the marginalbenefit of harvesting and putting the proceeds into the bank. Using the functional form presented in the appendix, we can calculate the equilibrium (optimal) value of the park agency.

b. The pastoralists' problem

We assume that the Maasai community has only a fixed amount of time $\overline{Z}$ to allocate to the two activities, namely pastoralism (Z) and poaching (E), i.e.,time allocated to the illegal harvest of wildlife. Assuming a binding time constraint, we have:

10. $\overline{Z} = Z + E$

The standard assumption in the bio-economic literature holds that local communities exhibit myopic behaviour when dealing with wildlife since they view it as a threat to their livelihoods. As a result, they do not take the stock dynamics of wildlife into consideration when making harvesting decisions. There is also information asymmetry between the Maasai community and the park agency, i.e., the park agency does not know with certainty what the community is doing which makes it difficult to recover fines from poaching activities. Parallel to the park authority, the pastoralists are assumed to maximize equation 11 taking into consideration only the stock dynamics of livestock. Therefore, the local pastoralists maximize discounted net benefits:

11. $\underset{\{E,n\}}{Max}\,\Pi(E) = \int_{t=0}^{\infty}\left(U(N) + p_n n + v\psi_1(J,E) + v\psi_2(J,E) - g(\overline{Z} - E) - qE - c\theta(J,E)\right)e^{-\delta t}dt$

Subject to

$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial t} = F_3(N, X_2) - \varepsilon_{31}NX_1 - n$$

where $U(N)$ denotes the utility associated with the non-consumptive use of livestock and the cost of livestock production is represented by g. Here we distinguish between the cost of livestock production (management) and the cost associated with poaching, which is equally defined as livestock protection.

The revenue from the sale of livestock is captured by the term $p_n n$, while revenue from poaching activities is denoted as $v\psi(J,E)$, where p_n and v are the market prices for both activities, which are taken as given. Since poaching is an illegal activity whose harvest cannot be sold at the legal market price, v represents a black-market price.

As indicated before, poaching attracts a fine c and offenders incur a loss equivalent to $c\theta(J,E)$ if caught. In addition to the fine, poaching comes with a cost of q associated withevery unit of time spent conducting the activity.

The current value Hamiltonian is as follows:

12

$$H = U(N) + p_n n + v\psi_1(J,E) + v\psi_2(J,E) - g(\overline{Z} - E) - qE - c\theta(J,E) + \omega\left[F_3(N,X_2) - \varepsilon_{31}NX_1 - n\right]$$

The first order condition is given by;

13. $v\dfrac{\partial\psi_1(J,E)}{\partial E} + v\dfrac{\partial\psi_2(J,E)}{\partial E} = c\dfrac{\partial\theta(J,E)}{\partial E} + q - g$

Equation 13 tells us that the pastoralists will continue to employ the poaching effort until the marginal benefits from poaching equate to the marginal cost, while equation 14 indicates that the pastoralists equates the market price to the shadow value of livestock in making their harvesting decisions.

14. $p_n = \omega$

15. $\delta = \dfrac{1}{\omega}\dfrac{\partial U(N)}{\partial N} + \dfrac{\partial F_3(N,X_2)}{\partial N} - \varepsilon_{31}X_1$

Equation 15showsthat, in steady state, pastoralists equate the sum of livestock gain and the net stock effect resulting from maintaining one unit of livestock to the marginal benefit of harvesting and putting the proceeds into the bank but taking into account wildlife externalities. Using the functional form presented in the appendix, we can calculate the equilibrium (optimal) values of the poaching effort and livestock.

There are two fundamental problems with the market problems. Firstly, there are international non-use values of the wildlife, such as existence value, that are not perceived and taken care of by the park agency or the pastoralists. The park agency only works with the national public good value because of its predominantly national mandate. Secondly, the park agency and the pastoralists act independently, ignoring their cross effect. These problems therefore generate sub optimal results for both parties. The deficiencies can be laid bare by introducing a social planner, who considers the international public good value and balances out the bidirectional externalities. By comparing the market solution to the social planner's solution, mechanisms for solving for inefficiencies of the market solution can be explored.

c. *The social planner's problem*

The idea of the social planner is to correct market failures (externalities) and balance the trade-off between the two-competing land-uses, i.e., livestock production and wildlife conservation. The social planner solves a joint maximisation problem for the two agents, taking the international public good value into account. Most importantly, the social planner determines the optimal levels of poaching by the pastoralists and anti-poaching effort by the park agency.

In addition the opportunity cost of land is also assumed to be determined within the model, i.e., by solving for X_1 and X_2, the social planner is able to arrive at the optimal land allocation via the carrying capacity of the land. Equation 16 is therefore maximized, given constraints (1), (2) and (3) above

16. $$\underset{\{J,E.y_1,y_2,n\}}{Max} \prod(J,E) = \int_{t=0}^{\infty} [G(X_1,X_2) + R(X_1,X_2) + U(N) + p_1y_1 + p_2y_2 + p_nn + v\psi_1(J,E) + v\psi_2(J,E) - sJ - c\theta(J,E) + c\theta(J,E) - g(\bar{Z}-E) - qE]e^{-\delta t}dt$$

Subject to:

$$\frac{\partial X_1}{\partial t} = F_1(X_1,X_2,N) - y_1 - \psi_1(J,E)$$

$$\frac{\partial X_2}{\partial t} = F_2(X_2,N) - \varepsilon_{21}X_1X_2 - y_2 - \psi_2(J,E)$$

$$\frac{\partial N}{\partial t} = F_3(N,X_2) - \varepsilon_{31}NX_1 - n$$

$$y_1 \le \bar{y}_1$$

$$y_2 \le \bar{y}_2$$

The current value Hamiltonian is shown in equation 17, where λ and μ are the shadow values (co-state variables) of the wildlife species while ω is the shadow value of livestock.

17. $$\begin{aligned} H &= G(X_1, X_2) + R(X_1, X_2) + U(N) + p_1 y_1 + p_2 y_2 + p_n n + v\psi_1(J,E) \\ &\quad + v\psi_2(J,E) - sJ - g(\bar{Z} - E) - qE + \mu\left[F_1(X_1, X_2, N) - y_1 - \psi_2(J,E)\right] \\ &\quad + \lambda\left[F_2(X_2, N) - \varepsilon_{21} X_1 X_2 - y_2 - \psi_2(J,E)\right] + \eta\left[\bar{y}_1 - y_1\right] + \gamma\left[\bar{y}_2 - y_2\right] \\ &\quad + \omega\left[F_3(N, X_2) - \varepsilon_{31} N X_1 - n\right] \end{aligned}$$

According to equation 18, the social planner will continue to employ anti-poaching effort until the net benefits of increasing anti-poaching enforcement by a unit is equated to the marginal value of increasing the stock of predators and grazers, respectively.

18. $$v\frac{\partial \psi_1(J,E)}{\partial J} + v\frac{\partial \psi_2(J,E)}{\partial J} - s = \mu\frac{\partial \psi_1(J,E)}{\partial J} + \lambda\frac{\partial \psi_2(J,E)}{\partial J}$$

19. $$v\frac{\partial \psi_1(J,E)}{\partial E} + v\frac{\partial \psi_2(J,E)}{\partial E} + g - q = \mu\frac{\partial \psi_1(J,E)}{\partial E} + \lambda\frac{\partial \psi_2(J,E)}{\partial E}$$

On the other hand, equation 19 tells us that poaching(harvesting) effort is employed until the marginal benefits from poaching equate to the marginal cost, while equations20 and 21 indicate that the social planner allocates hunting permitsuntilthe shadow price of the stock equals the market value. While equation 22 tells us that the social planner decides on optimal harvest of livestock where the market value equals the shadow price of the livestock.

20. $$p_1 = \mu + \eta$$

21. $$p_2 = \lambda + \gamma$$

22. $$p_n = \omega$$

The (steady state) portfolio conditions (Equation 23and 24) show that the sum of the wildlife gain and the net stock effect resulting from maintaining one unit of wildlife must be equal to the marginal benefit of harvesting and putting the proceeds into the bank.

23. $$\delta = \frac{1}{\mu}\left[\frac{\partial G(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_1} + \frac{\partial R(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_1}\right] + \frac{\partial F_1(X_1, X_2, N)}{\partial X_1} - \left(\frac{\lambda\varepsilon_{21} X_2 - \omega\varepsilon_{31} N}{\mu}\right)$$

24. $$\delta = \frac{1}{\lambda}\left[\frac{\partial G(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_2} + \frac{\partial R(X_1, X_2)}{\partial X_2}\right] + \mu \frac{\partial F_1(X_1, X_2, N)}{\partial X_2} + \lambda \frac{\partial F_2(X_2, N)}{\partial X_2} - \lambda \varepsilon_{21} X_1 + \omega \frac{\partial F_3(N, X_2)}{\partial X_2}$$

Equation 25shows that social planner equate the sum of livestock gain and the net stock effect resulting from maintaining one unit of livestock to the marginal benefit of harvesting and putting the proceeds into the bank but taking into consideration wildlife externalities.

25. $$\delta = \frac{1}{\omega}\frac{\partial U(N)}{\partial N} + \mu \frac{\partial F_1(X_1, X_2, N)}{\partial N} + \lambda \frac{\partial F_2(X_2, N)}{\partial N} + \frac{\partial F_3(N, X_2)}{\partial N} - \varepsilon_{31} X_1$$

The social planner's specificsolution can be computed from the first order conditions, using the functional forms presumed, and presented in the appendix.

For the maximization problems discussed above, we can estimate various optimal values particularly the anti-poaching effort (J^*), poaching effort (E^*), time spent on pastoralism activities (Z^*), harvests of the three animal species (N^*, X_1^* and X_2^*).The steady state wildlife stock and the optimal landallocation can also be computed. Table 2shows the comparison between a few optimal values across the market equilibrium and the social planner's solution. The market equilibrium has excessive amounts of poaching effort and anti-poaching enforcement. The wildlife stocks are also subdued in the market solution.

Table2: Comparison of the market solution and the social planner's solution

Market Solution	Sign	Social Planner
$J^* = \left[\frac{\alpha(A_1\mu + A_2\lambda)}{c\rho - s}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$	>	$J^* = \left[\frac{\alpha\left[(A_1\mu + A_2\lambda) - v(A_1 + A_2)\right]}{-s}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\alpha}}$
$E^* = \left[\frac{v(b_1 + b_2)\beta}{c\rho + q - g}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\beta}}$	>	$E^* = \left[\frac{\beta[v(b_1 + b_2) - (b_1\mu + b_2\lambda)]}{q - g}\right]^{\frac{1}{1-\beta}}$
$X_1^* = K\left[\frac{d_1 - \lambda\varepsilon_{21}X_2 + \mu(r - \delta)}{2r\mu}\right] + \frac{\varepsilon_{13}N + \varepsilon_{12}X_2}{2}$	<	$X_1^* = K\left[\frac{d_1 + l_1 - (\lambda\varepsilon_{21}X_2 - \omega\varepsilon_{31}N) + \mu(r - \delta)}{2r\mu}\right] + \frac{\varepsilon_{13}N + \varepsilon_{12}X_2}{2}$

$X_2^* = K\left[\frac{d_2 + \lambda\left(r - \varepsilon_{21}X_1 - \delta\right)}{2r\lambda}\right] - \frac{\varepsilon_{23}N}{2}$	<	$X_2^* = K\left[\frac{d_2 + l_2 + \lambda\left(r - \varepsilon_{21}X_1 - \delta\right)}{2r\lambda}\right] - \frac{\varepsilon_{23}N}{2}$
$N^* = K\left[\frac{m + \omega\left[r - \left(\varepsilon_{31}X_1 + \delta\right)\right]}{2r\omega}\right] - \frac{\varepsilon_{32}}{2}$	<	$N^* = K\left[\frac{m + \mu + \lambda + \omega[r - (\varepsilon_{31}X_1 + \delta)]}{2r\omega}\right] - \frac{\varepsilon_{32}}{2}$

Source: Own calculations 2017- 2019

Discussion of the results

We also consider some comparative statistics of the theoretical model, some numerical illustrations and implications for the optimal land allocation policy. The optimal land allocation is calculated after computing the optimal stocks for grazers, predators and livestock, but taking into consideration the carrying capacity of the land.

Comparative statistics

Our results are consistent with our expectations and the results of other studies.Table 2 shows that the stock of wildlife(for both predators and grazers) under the market solution (park agency's maximization problem)are less than the social planner's solution. Firstly, this is because the park agency ignores the international public good value which the social planner captures. Secondly, the pastoralists exert a very high poaching effort which contributes to the wildlife stock's divergence from the social equilibrium. The fact that the market solution differs from the social planner's outcome implies that the anti-poaching effort employed by the park agency is sub-optimal. This is not surprising considering the sources of revenue of the park agency which are ploughed back into conservation (Ntuli and Muchapondwa,2017;De Pourcq et al., 2015).Park revenues from poaching fines, hunting licenses and tourism are usually low (Dikgang and Muchapondwa, 2017).Otherwise, the harvest rate by the park agency is efficiently subdued. Therefore, achieving social optimality also ensures that both grazers and predators are balanced in the ecological system.

Depending on the stock dynamics of the species and how far away the market solution is from the socially optimal solution, the system could drive either the stock of grazers or predators towards economic or even physical extinction. A wildlife stock above the social planer's prescription would cause massive environmental degradation, which would reverse the gains from wildlife conservation with possible implications on the welfare of the Maasai communities.

If we assume that the fines from poaching are equivalent to the revenues collected when the community is allowed to hunt, then the market solution has greater anti-poaching enforcement and poaching effort than the social planner's solution. This result implies that the park agency exerts more anti-poaching effort at the margin than what is socially optimal to achieve the same stock level(s) as the social planner, i.e., biodiversity outcomes. If the park agency is applying more anti-poaching effort, then it means that resources could be freed and used for other purposes. The anti-poaching effort would be the same if local communities are allowed to hunt, say by use of a quota system, so that the cost associated with poaching is reduced to zero ($q = 0$).The pastoralists would contribute towards anti-poaching enforcement. Based on evidence gathered from the ground, this analysis assumes that poaching is done by the Maasai community and there is no external poaching.

As expected, the stock of livestock is less to what could be achieved in the social planner's solution. This is not surprising since livestock is an asset and the pastoralists will only increase its production as household size increases in order to create inheritance for the future generations to come and to hedge against future risk. For centuries, livestock has been used as an important household asset in many Africa communities (Fischer et al. 2005). The Maasai community increase livestock production by encroaching the protected areas in order to have more grazing land. As a result, the optimal harvest of the pastoralists could be less than that of the social planner.

Our results show that the solution of poaching effort of the community (E^*)is greater than in the social planner's solution. Social optimality is achieved if livestock protection effort under the pastoralists is the same as the social planner. Arguably, the Maasai will continue to increase the poaching effort to protect their livestock and to increase livestock production due to the principle of local non-satiation from the microeconomic theory which states that more is better (Varian 2009).

If the Maasai continue to grow the livestock, then this could potentially throw the whole social ecological system out of equilibrium. This translate into increased demand for grazing land, more human-wildlife conflict in the buffer zones and consequently a reduction in wildlife stocks.

To internalize the externalities, first the social planner might distribute the benefits from wildlife conservation between park agency and the pastoralists. Another way might be to compensate pastoralists for the damages caused by wildlife, but this has got its own advantages and limitation (see Mukanjari et al. 2013;Fischer et al. 2005). Second, the social planner adjusts the wildlife benefits accruing to the local community because they do not consider the shadow values of grazers and predators. Finally, the social planner might impose a tax on the livestock that is equivalent to the damages caused by having a large head of livestock. As anticipated, communities will reduce their poaching effort if the cost associated with the activity increases and this would be compensated by increasing effort exerted towards livestock production. Therefore, we argue that the level of anti-poaching enforcement, poaching effort and livestock should be reduced to the required levels while at the same time maintaining the wildlife stock at the current efficient optimal levels.

Numerical illustrations

Using mathematical simulation, we calculate the optimal solutions from the optimization problems given above, and then proceed to illustrate the stock dynamics as we vary poaching effort and anti-poaching effort, while keeping other variables constant. We follow Ntuli and Muchapondwa (2017)and normalize the carrying capacity equal to one, i.e., $K=1$. The inherent growth rate r is set equal to 0.3 (Caughley, et al. (1994); Johannessen, et al. (2000) and Ntuli and Muchapondwa (2017)). Like other studies, the wildlife stocks, livestock, anti-poaching and poaching effort lie between 0 and 1, i.e., $0 \le X_i \le 1$, $0 \le N \le 1$, $0 \le J \le 1$ and $0 \le E \le 1$respectively.

The simulations resulting from the model are as predicted in section 4.1. In equilibrium, the anti-poaching effort by the park agency is more than the level of effort suggested by the social planner. The poaching effort employed by the community is much higher than required for social optimality. The equilibrium stocks for wildlife under the market solution are less than the social planner's solution while the equilibrium stocks for livestock under the market solution are equal to the social planner's solution.

Table3: Numerical illustration – optimal solutions

Market Equilibrium	**Social Equilibria**
$X_1^* = 0.21$	$X_1^* = 0.25$
$X_2^* = 0.62$	$X_2^* = 0.67$
$N^* = 0.46$	$N^* = 0.46$
$J^* = 0.56$	$J^* = 0.48$
$E^* = 0.43$	$E^* = 0.35$

Optimal Land Allocation

This study sought to find the optimal land use sharesfor both the park agency and the local pastoralist community. The land allocated for both park and pastoralist activities couldbe sub-optimal in the market solution than that in the social planner. The source of this misallocation is coming from the demand for grazing land by the pastoralist, which needs to be corrected.

We assume that land (L) is divided between livestock production (U) and wildlife conservation (H), i.e. $L = H + U$ .Since land is a scarce factor, the constraint should hold as equality. Assuming that we have the maximum population of wildlife and the carrying capacity of the ecosystem is the same for both wildlife and livestock, we compute the optimal land allocation proportional to the optimal stocks for the market and the social planer's problem.Table 4 shows that the allocation of land for livestock grazing under the market solution is greater than that for the social planer by 6.5%, while land allocation for wildlife has been reduced by 12.3% in total i.e. reduction of 11.3% for predators and reduction of 1% for grazers.

Therefore, the land allocated for pastoralism grazing will depend on the effort put by the community in protecting the livestock against predation and effort used for poaching when all other things are assumed to be fixed.

Table 4: Optimal land allocation

	Market solution	**Social planner's solution**	**% Change**
Predators	16.3%	18.1%	-11.3
Grazers	48.1%	48.6%	-1.0
Livestock	35.7%	33.3%	6.5
Total	100.0%	100.0%	

Stock dynamics and land policy implications

Figure 2 shows the effort exerted by the park agency and the pastoralists compared to the social planner's solution. The park agency faces a concave effort function, while the pastoralists face an almost linear effort function. Starting at a level that is slightly higher than the social planner's recommendation, the park agency will continue to increase effort until a certain point and then reduces it. This is reasonable because the park agency depends on government and donor funding to finance conservation activities. Invoking the principle of non-satiation from microeconomic theory, the pastoralists will continue to increase poaching effort because more is better. From a policy point of view, putting more effort whether for livestock production or wildlife conservation translate into increased demand for land.

Figure 2: Market solution for the pastoralist and park agency versus the social planner

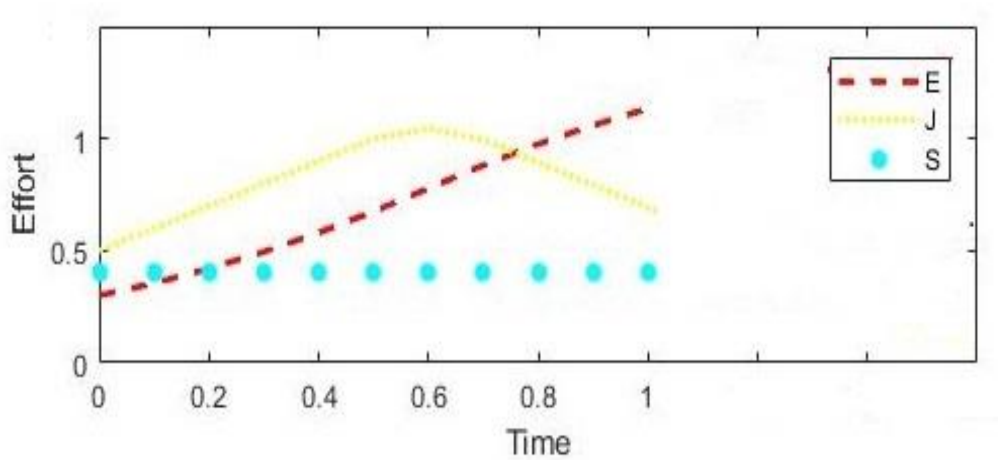


Figure 3 shows the dynamics in the stock levels for both livestock and wildlife as we change the poaching effort over time. To simplify reality, we assume that the stock of wildlife does not distinguish between grazers and predators. Starting from a level that is higher than the social planner's recommendation, our results illustrate that the stock of wildlife will fall drastically as the pastoralists continue to increase poaching effort, while livestock increases exponentially until the carrying capacity of the ecosystem is reached. The reduction in wildlife could have a serious consequence on sustainability if the population is driven below the threshold limit (Ntuli and Muchapondwa (2017)). On the other hand, overstocking livestock has implications on the ecosystem since this may result in environmental degradation. Increasing livestock production means increased demand for grazing land which must be compensated by a reduction in conservation land.

Figure 3: Stock dynamics as we vary poaching effort

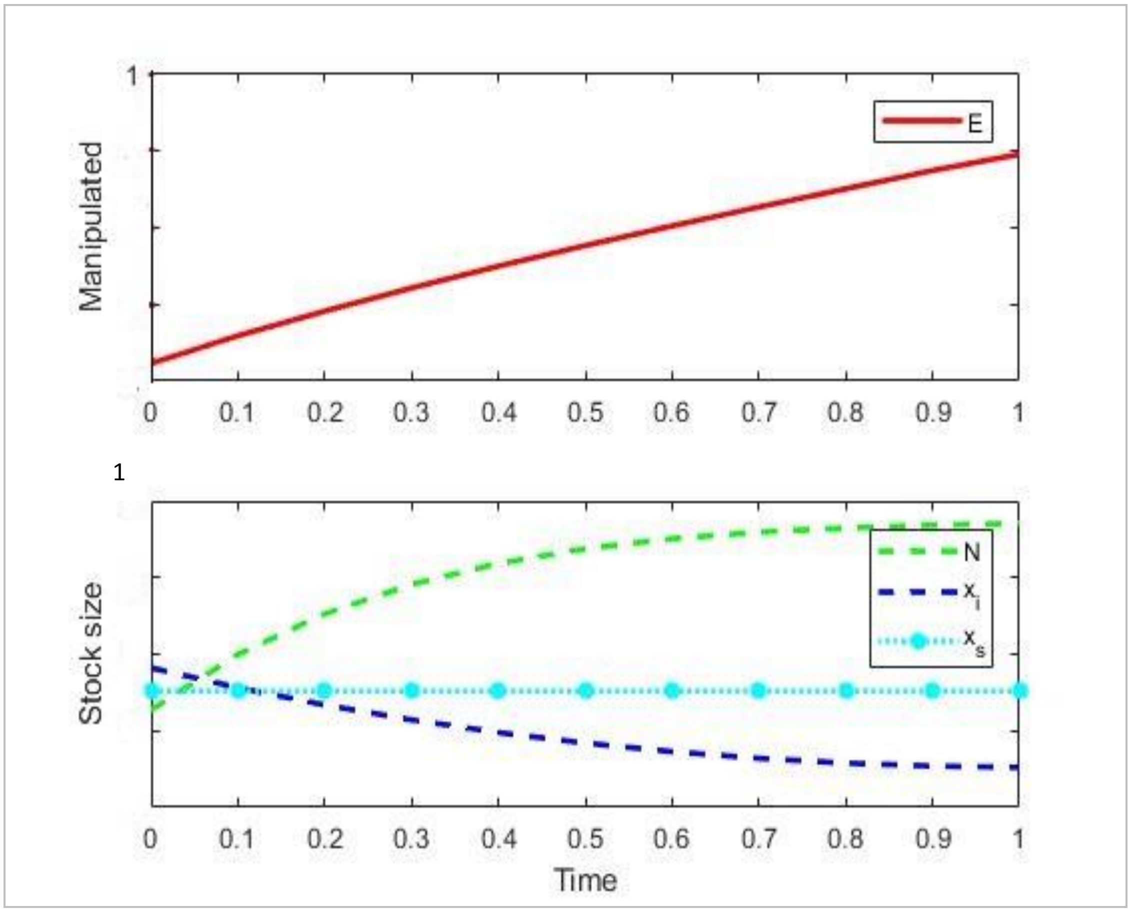


Figure 4showsthat overexploiting wildlife can result in either economic or physical extinction of the resource. Economic extinction occurs when the resource reaches a lower limit beyond which it is no longer profitable to extract, while physical extinction implies that the resource ceases to exist (Caughley, et al. (1994); Johannessen, et al. (2000) and Ntuli and Muchapondwa (2017)). Economic extinction might imply physical extinction since it becomes difficult for the resource to regenerate.

Figure 4: Economic and physical extinction

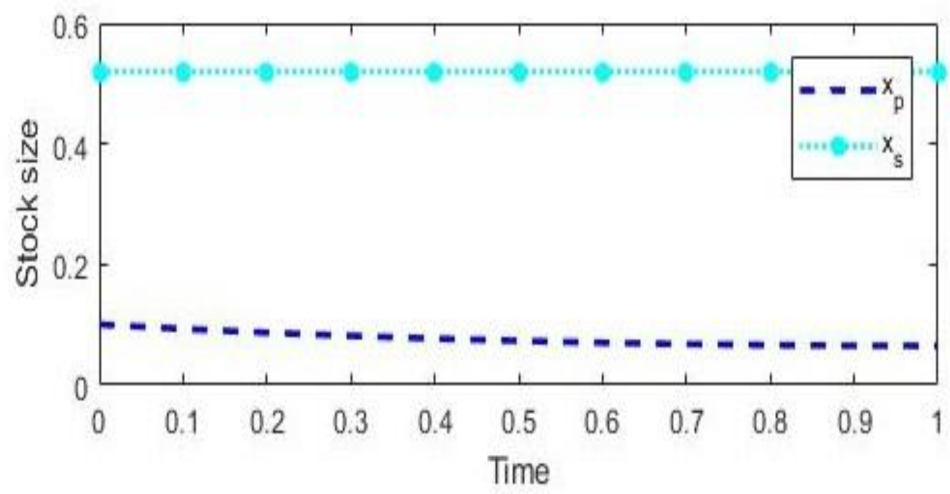


Figure 5 illustrates that gradual employment of anti-poaching enforcement starting at a lower level results in an increase in wildlife stocks and reduction in livestock over time. The stock of wildlife approaches the social planner's solution, while livestock diverges from the social planner's solution and seem to stabilize at a much lower level.

Figure5: Stock dynamics as we gradually increase anti-poaching effort

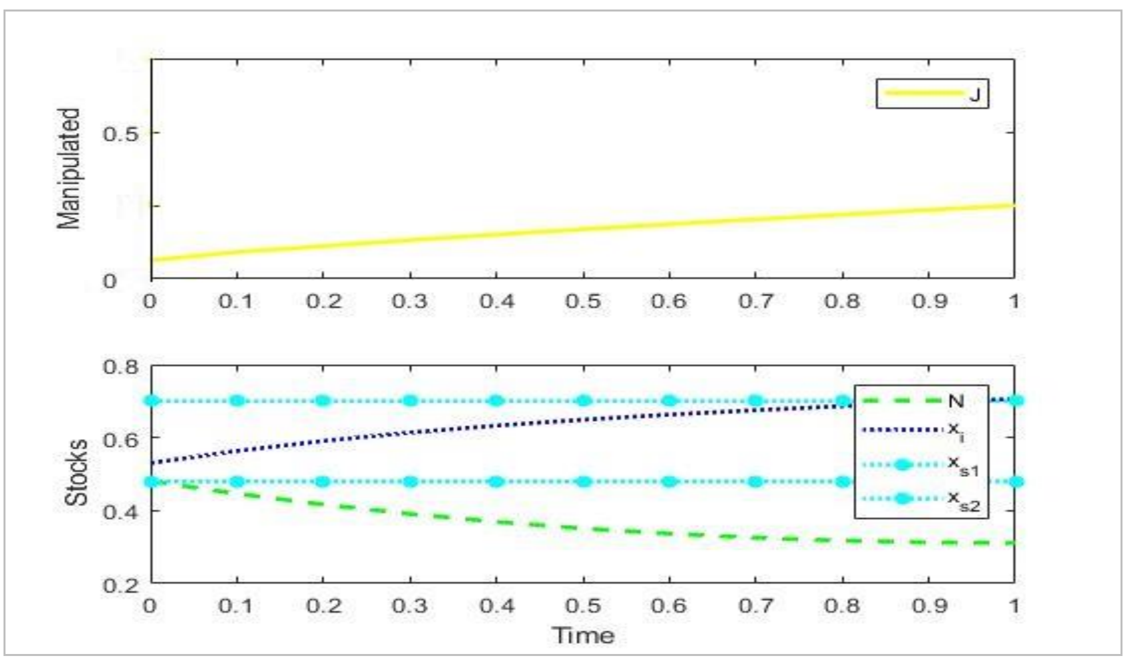
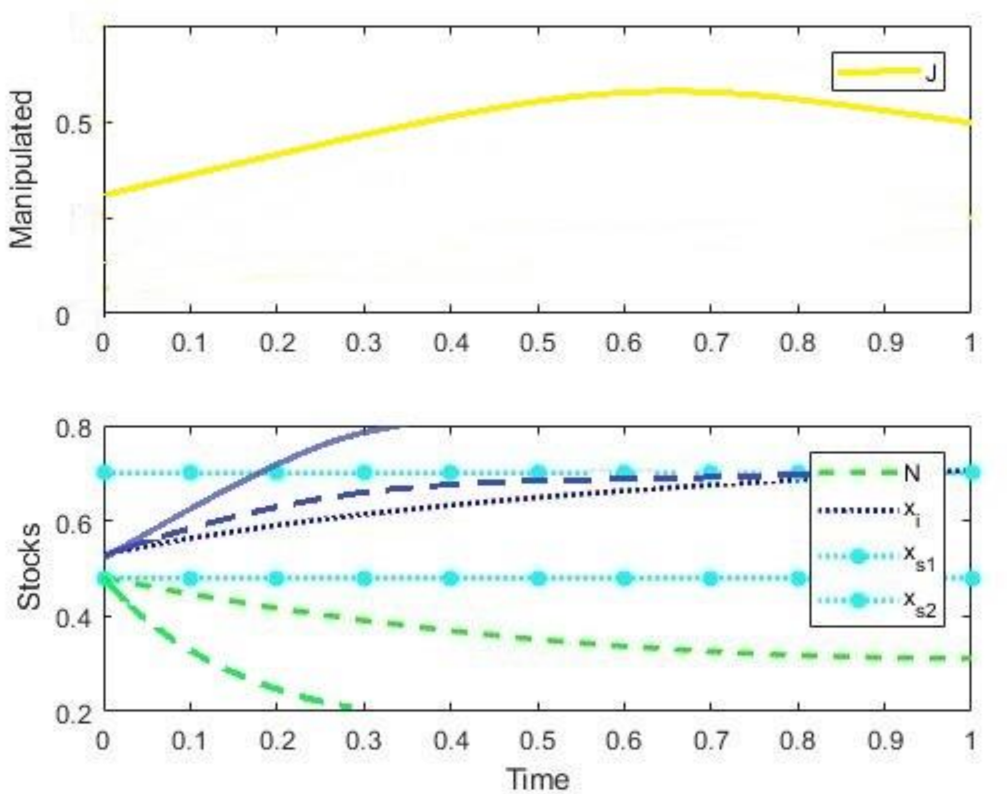


Figure 6 illustrates that, starting from a lower level (0.3), the park agency's effort overshoots the level prescribed by the social planner depending on availability of resources. This is in line with what Ntuli and Muchapondwa (2017) observed, i.e., theZimbabwe National Parks and Wildlife Authority (ZIMParks) exhaust its budget every year in anticipation for more money in future. The employment of effort above the social planer's recommended level does not yield benefits in terms of increased wildlife stock over and above the optimal level, but instead diminishes the welfare of the pastoralists.

As a result, the pastoralists might retaliate by increasing poaching effort thereby forcing the social planner's equilibrium to obtain. A rapid increase in anti-poaching effort leads to a dramatic fall in livestock, while the wildlife stock quickly approaches the steady state. In the presence of resource abundance, we can have equilibrium where there is no pastoralism but only wildlife conservation, which might not be desirable.

Figure6: Stock dynamics as we rapidly increase anti-poaching effort



If the park agency were to apply the level of anti-poaching effort above the social optimum level without reaction from the pastoralists, then we will have a scenario where the wildlife stock will overshoot the social optimum level with disastrous consequences on the ecosystem. The implications of employing the level of anti-poaching effort that is above social optimum is to transfer land from livestock production to conservation since the amount of livestock has been reduced.

Conclusions and policy implications

Optimal land use in the Serengeti Ecosystem is central for development in Tanzania. However, lack of independent institution with regulatory functions with the primary role of working to balance optimally the needs of all stakeholders in the ecosystem is a matter to be addressed.

The objectives of this study are to examine how land use can be utilized optimally by both pastoralists and the park agency, and to consider the possibility of introducing the social planner that might replicate successful conservancy outcomes for both stakeholders.

The bioeconomic model is used to interrogate the challenges for optimal land allocation in the Serengeti ecosystem. Our results show that, putting more effort whether for livestock production or wildlife conservation translate into increased demand for land. We indicate that, the reduced stock in wildlife could have a serious implication on ecosystem dynamics and sustainability if the population is driven below the required limit. We argue that, overstocking of livestock may result into negative consequences on the ecosystem since this may lead into environmental degradation. Increasing livestock production means increased demand for grazing land which must be compensated by a reduction in conservation land. Therefore, there should be no over-exploitation of wildlife in order to avoid economic and physical extinction.

Desirable outcomes may not be achieved if park agency employs effort above recommended level of the social planer. Instead of bringing benefits the increased wildlife stock over and above the optimal level, results into welfare education of the pastoralists. There will be disastrous consequences on the ecosystem if there is an increased anti-poaching effort above the optimal level without the reaction from the pastoralists.

In terms of land allocation, it implies that, employing the level of anti-poaching effort that is above social optimum is to transfer land from livestock production to conservation because the amount of livestock has been reduced.

Regarding policy implications, putting the social planner’s outcome in practice is a challenge that the government should address by establishment of an independent institution with regulatory functions with the primary role of working to balance optimally the needs of all stakeholders in the ecosystem.

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WOMEN AND CUSTOMER SERVICES IN HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: A DRAMATURGY PERSPECTIVE

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Abstract

This paper is about the ways in which female customer service workers influence the environment they encounter in their daily life, in order to perform in their work in the hospitality industry. It uses a marketing framework to show the environment that constitutes the selling of services offered by hotels and restaurants and their role as actors in production of services. The dramaturgy framework that regards individual life as a theatrical performance was used to see the way they organize their social lives in their households, society and workplace taking into consideration that their jobs are not acceptable (for women in the Zanzibar society). Because according to this framework individuals perform series of activities to impress each other, they are the actors who perform according to the instructions given. In-depth interviews were done with the female customer service workers to capture the activities that they do in order to cope with their work and social demands. The results showed that women have to impress their husbands, parents by not revealing the truth about their jobs or by trying to show them that their job does not break the laws of society and also to maintain their work performance to impress both managers and customers in order to get extra benefits (tips). In doing so they do series of activities, in which in the workplaces, they impress customers through their body language to impress the customers; and in their society by maintaining their traditions and financial support to families. Thus, women have double responsibility, and the activities that they do to impress they help to change the impression that society hasabout the customer service job. Thus, the study is of importance to customer service managers, policy makers and academicians.

Key words: women, customer services, hospitality industry, dramaturgy

INTRODUCTION

This study is about women who work in the hospitality industry, with focus on those who work in the customer service section of hotels and restaurants. It aims at exploring why and how women work, perform and advance in this sector while it is knownas the sector that challenges women in different ways. Researches, especially in tourism have shown that women have been challenged because of structures including facilities, businesses and organizations (seeVeijola&Valtonen, 2007; Pritchard and Morgans 2000a) as well astheir social relationship in workplace and society (Pritchard and Morgan, 2000b; Kinnaird et al., 1994, Maliva, 2016). Generally, these studies demonstrate that women's work in hospitality has been influenced by their gender (Swain, 1995) in terms of the way society and processes in tourism view them (Kinnaird et al., 1994).

In many parts of the developing countries including Tanzania, society view customer care services work in hotels and restaurants is not descent for women (Tucker, 2008, Maliva, 2016, Maliva *et al.* 2017). Various studies come with the explanations of the tourism environment, in which customer services is key in the process of producing and consuming the offered services/products. Some authors have the opinion that hospitality in tourism comprises the interactions between hosts and guests, which in most cases, the hosts are argued to create exotic environment to entice guests who are coming to buy services (example Aitchison, 2001).This may expose women to sexual embarrassments by customers as well as co-workers including supervisors (Guerrier &Adib, 2000). This environment also is argued to make women in the customer service to be the object of business transaction well as the object to be gazed by the customers who are guests (Aitchison, 2001a; Cohen, 2001; Pritchard & Morgan, 2000b; Jordan & Aitchison, 2008). This raised the issue of objectification of women, which, in most cases the rights of women as workers/employees areundermined. Moreover, it has also said that, even the facilities in the hospitality do not consider the fact that men and women differ in their heights, for example kitchen facility are designed for male workers (see Veijola and Valtonen, 2007). However, despite of the challenges posed to women, hospitality is one of the sectors that embrace more women compared to men (Baum, 2013) and thus plays greater role in facilitation of customer services.

Facilitation of customer services workers is an important aspect in the management and marketing of services offered by the organization (Fisk, Grove & John 2008). The study of customer service workers have been widely studied in the service marketing literature, in which the characteristics of services including *intangibility*, *inseparability*, *heterogeneity*, and *perishability* (Fisk, Grove & John 2008; Zeithaml, Parasuraman& Berry

1985). However, while studies on customer services workers have been receiving attention in hospitality research (Seymore, 2000; Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Al-Hawari et al., 2020; Asumah et al., 2019), there are still limited studies about women (Yasin et al., 2019; Koseoglu et al., 2019; Mattila, 2000). Customer services workers have been given importance due to their position in the companies offer (Hatami, 2011; Berry, 1981; Fisk, 1992; Lovelock 1981). Because of the unique characteristics of the services as described in the marketing of services literatures, the customer services workers are the key participants who are famously known as co-producers of companies products (Ibid.). In being so, both physical labor and emotion labour are required in the process of producing services, which entails production and consumption simultaneously (Berry 1981). In exploring the role of customer service workers behavior their emotions have been found to be one of the ingredient that determine the quality of the service offered thus they have higher demand compared to physical and mental labour (see Seymore, 2000; Asumah*et al*., 2019).

Apart from customer services workers behaviours, researchers have also been researching the workers interactions with customers during the service encounters, in which workers experiences embarrassments from customers (Guerrier &Adib, 2000). In these studies, co-production has been explored to see the impact of the interactions between workers and Apart from co-production experiences the authors also explored about the relationship between workers and supervisors, to see the impact of abusive supervision to employees' capacity to satisfy customers (See Al-Hawari et al., 2020). Gender imbalances in these interactions in hospitality services works have been shown qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitatively, differences between men and women is seen by their earnings which is caused the fact that women carry more burden of responsibility to family and society and as a result they have fewer hours spent to work than their male counterparts (Thrane, 2007; Tugores 2007). Also, these disparities are caused by women's level of education, which is comparatively lower than that of men (Baum, 2013). However, despite of the qualitative imbalance as mentioned it has been proved statistically that a number of women working in tourism almost exceeds of that of men (Baum, 2013; Peeters, 2009). However, recent studies, shows the decreasing of gender disparity in hospitality services both in quality and quantity for example, by Koseoglu and his co-workers (2019).

It is therefore important to get more understanding about women in customer services in hospitality because of their increasing number (Baum, 2013: Peeters, 2009). According to Baum (2013), hotels, catering and tourism sector has an average female participation of 55.5 per cent at global level and up to 70 per cent at regional level. In Tanzania hospitality, especially tourism related enterprises takes 70 percent of all the workers (Peeters, 2009). Women are employed as cleaners and kitchen staff, front-line customer service workers and senior management, and they are categorized in the groups of front office, back office and managers (Maliva, 2016). This study, therefore is exploring women's view of the environment that they encounter in their daily interactions in their households, society and workplaces and the activities that they do in order to bargain and be able to perform/participate in their customer services duty. In this study, I take marketing perspective, which views environmental and interpersonal influences as critical in services evaluation (see Bessom and Jackson 1975; Shostack 1977; Bateson 1979; Berry 1981; Lovelock 1981). By this view marketing strategies considers the intangibility and simultaneity of production and consumption of services. By being so, it is necessary to consider the social and physical context of the marketing exchange in order to ensure that customers are satisfied (Lovelock 1981). Therefore, dramaturgy theory was used to identify and explain strategies that women use to cope with the demands as well as being able to impress their social and employment engagements demands. So in the study women are placed as the actors in the theatre who perform according to the instructions that they are given from their family leaders, supervisors, customers and other stakeholders who they interact them.

Literature Review

Customer Services in Marketing

Marketing concerns exchange in which customer service worker is placed as a part and parcel in facilitating the exchange (Hunt, 1983). They are the key implementers of the transactions that take place in the exchange of services with customers. Similarly, services in marketing are mostly recognized by its characteristic of intangibility and the fact that it requires simultaneous production and consumption (Berry 1981). By being so, the environmental and interpersonal influences are critical in services evaluation (Berry 1981; Lovelock 1981). Also in evaluating services social and physical context of the marketing exchange is necessary in order to ensure quality of service and consumer satisfaction (Berry 1981; Lovelock 1981). It should also be noted that in the exchange situations favourable or unfavourable impressions can be created. The social and physical context important in describing and evaluating service and they are described in detail bellow.

Social Settings

Social settings include the appearance and behaviour of those involved in facilitating the exchange. This is an aspect that consumers can use to evaluate services. From the consumer's perspective, those assisting in the production of the service may represent the service itself Berry (1981). Thus, due to the fact that customer services in the hospitality are of high contact with customers the interpersonal influences are of particular concern. Moreover, since services are generally consumed and not possessed, the performance of those providing the service offers some clue as to the quality of the product. Under high personal contact situations, those taking part in the provision of the service they may be evaluated in terms of their technical and customer-related skills, personalities, attitudes toward their work, consistency of quality performance and appearance (Berry 1981; Lovelock 1981). These characteristics of the service worker provide some tangible evidence of a basically intangible product to the consumer, thus they can be utilized to create favourable impression of the service. Social settings include other aspects such as crowding, presence of others not directly involved in the exchange, and demographic characteristics (age, sex. race, etc.). These also may influence consumers' assessments as well as their satisfaction. Thus training and interpersonal skills have influence in determining activities that women customer services do in order to perform in their jobs.

The Physical Setting

According to Kotler (1973) physical setting of an exchange may be described in terms of atmospherics. These include visual, aural, olfactory, and tactile perceptions as well as the characteristics such as the colors or brightness of the surroundings, the volume and pitch of the sounds employed and/or present at the setting, the scents and freshness of the air, and the temperature prevailing at the time of the exchange may all help to shape a consumer's feelings concerning a service rendered. Additionally, the physical settings include the space and the style of furnishing, as well as the presence or absence of other clues. The physical environment has the potential to influence one's impression of the service (Shostack 1977). They also provide the consumer with tangible indications of the service and also are important in influencing consumer satisfaction with a services exchange (Lovelock 1979). While the physical setting may have an effect upon the exchange of goods as well as services, it is suggested that the, setting's symbolic value has greater impact upon the evaluation of a service. This, again, is largely due to the relative absence of tangible product characteristics with which to assess in the exchange of a service.

Dramaturgy

Dramaturgy is a sociological perspective from which social life is organized within the physical confines, can be studied. In this perspective, there a set of features that together forms a framework that can be applied to any concrete social establishment (Goffman, 1959). The dramaturgical perspective has its roots in the Symbolic Interactionist school of thought. The major premise underlying symbolic interactionism is that man is a symbol user and interacts with others based upon interpretations assigned to different features present at the behavioral setting. It is essentially concerning symbolic exchange in which any action or object including gestures, expressions, properties of the physical environment, language etc. has the potential to influence one's assessment of the interactional situation, and, ultimately, one's reciprocating behavior (Bagozzi, 1975).

Dramaturgy uses the theatrical performance to consider the way in which the individual in ordinary work situations presents herself and his activity to others, the ways in which he guides and controls the impression they form of her, and the kinds of things he may and may not do while sustaining his performance before them. Goffman describes social behavior as theatrical 'performances' in which 'actors' present themselves and their actions in such a manner as to fashion desired 'impressions' before an 'audience'. During interaction actors continually adjust the expressions which they 'give' and 'give off' in the context of a 'front region'. To a large extent the success of the actors' front region performance, (i.e.how believable, sincere and /or authentic it appears) is enhanced by rehearsal in 'back regions' away from audiences' view. Here critical aspects of actors' presentations are planned and practiced to arrive at a general coherence among the dramaturgical elements necessary to staging a believable performance. Through it all, however, is the realization that performances are fragile processes that are easily undermined by the most minor mishaps. The components of theatrical performance are described by Goffman (1959) as follows:

The stage

According to Goffman (1959), the entire world is a stage. It presents things that are make-believe; presumably life presents things that are real and sometimes not well rehearsed. More important, perhaps, on the stage one player presents himself in the guise of a character to characters projected by other players; the audience constitutes a third party to the interaction - one that is essential and yet, if the stage performance were real, one that would not be there. In real life, the three parties are compressed into two; the part one individual plays is tailored to the parts played by the others present, and yet these others also constitute the audience (Fisk & John 2000).

Performance

In the dramaturgy model, our life, in this model, is simply a series of performances**.** Thus performance is a term given to the total activity of an individual which occurs during a period marked by the individual's continuous presence before a particular set of observers or audience and which has some impact upon them (1959. p. 22). A performance may be characterized as sincere, in which case the actor is taken in by his own act, or cynical, wherein the performance is viewed by the actor as only a means to an end. In order to communicate a believable performance to the audience, the actor may intentionally or unwittingly employ certain expressive equipment collectively termed the front. The main element of performance includes strategies of impression management.

Impression management is central to Goffman performance metaphor, all social situations or two or more people involve attempting to persuade others of your definition of the situation. In our life we create impressions through sign vehicles which include both our language as well as our body language. According to Goffman (1959) there are two different kinds of expressions: first, is the expressions we give, primarily the things we say, and the intentional poses, facial expressions (smiles, surprise, etc.) and other controlled body language we emit; second, is the expressions we give off, which are the elements of our expressiveness over which we have less control; the inconsistencies between what we say and what we actually do, the body language which "gives us away" in some situations. Moreover, performance is about individuals self-presentation, in which its motive is to achieve our personal goals; to present a consistent and positive view of our self to the world and to conform to social norms

Performance Teams

Goffman and the dramaturgical perspective recognize that the definition of the situation fostered by an actor is often part of a projection created through cooperation with others. The term "performance team" or simply "team" is given to the set of individuals who cooperate to create a single definition of reality (1959, p. 79). The team may be relative to the performance situation that is emergent at the scene, itself or a part of the enduring social structure. Whichever the case, the team members' interactions foster a single impression for the audience responds. Involved in this collusion of sorts is a common bond among the members of the team not to undermine or disrupt the performance. In essence, those taking part in the show have a reciprocal agreement to respect one another's dependence upon each other; realizing that their behavior is a performance, it would be easy to shatter its reality by unmasking the other actors involved. With this in mind, actors pay crucial respect to each other's rights of familiarity in the quest of a believable performance.

Front Stage and Back Stage

The front stage of our life performance occurs in situations in which we interact with others in public or professional settings. So it is where a performance is given and it is open to the audience's inspection. Consequently, behavior in the front region requires attention to standards meeting the audience's approval. A waitress, for example, will try her best to keep a cheery disposition while she is dealing with customers, even cantankerous ones, and even if she isn't feeling well, whereas she may go back to the kitchen and talk about those cranky whiny customers. This would be somewhat more back stage behavior. The most back stage behavior occurs in one's home environment where you can stretch and be yourself. It is normally beyond the audience's inspection. Here, the performer can drop his front and step out of character. Often in the backstage, actors may be found rehearsing their parts or memorizing their scripts, and teams may be seen running through their performance in order to correct its flaws.

The backstage and front regions are usually kept quite separate due to the risk involved with the audience's possible discovery of behavior contradictory to the actor's performance. Beyond the potential observation of imperfection of performance, there is the possibility that the audience may be exposed to all kinds of improper behavior not found in the front region. In order to guard against such a mishap, careful attention is given to keeping the passageway between the two regions closed to the audience.

In this study, the service marketing is used to show the front stage of the women customer service workers. It is a place where they perform their professional work and thus they interact with customers and supervisor. Also it shows women's action when they participate in the process of service production. The study notes that women customer service workers as the co-producers they have opportunity to act according what their job want them to do. In other words the study is concerned about how they work according to their job description. So it takes note of both physical and emotional job provided to the hotels. So the concept of dramaturgy enables to link women workers social interactions and the performance of their job descriptions. Here the study looks also the description that women get from the back stage which comprises of society's culture, family, religion, traditions and norms.

Methodology

The article is based on the data accumulated through interviews with women employed in hotels and restaurants in Zanzibar. The research was conducted in Zanzibar covering Stone Town, Northern Zanzibar including Nungwi and Mnarani, Easterm Coastal line including Kiwengwa, Kendwa, Paje, Jambiani and

Bwejuu. Women employed in different levels of hotels form five star to small and medium level hotel were interviewed. Unstructured interviews were conducted to capture their experiences of the social and physical settings that they encounter in their daily lives, their responsibilities in their households and workplaces in the hotels and restaurants. Moreover interview was done to capture who they interact with, how they cope with the instructions given and how they influence other people around them.

A total of 15 interviews were conducted with women acquiring different positions in hotels and Restaurants in Zanzibar. Purposive sampling methods were taken basing on the willingness of the respondents and the interviewer's judgements. This was done to ensure the study covers all categories of workers. So the interviewee comprised of front office workers (receptionists, waitresses and bar attendants), back office workers (housekeepers, gardeners) and managers. The data collected were coded with the aid of qualitative software package Atlas.ti. Data analysis and interpretation followed the dramaturgy framework. Data collected was in the form of narrations, which were sorted by observing the patterns of their actions and then choose some narrations that show their actions when they perform both front and back stage instructions. Thus the findings are presented in the forms of verbatim in the quotes.

Findings

The findings are presented in the forms of verbatim in order to show their voices when they explain their experiencesabout what motivated them to work as customer services workers, what it takes to work in customer services of hotels and restaurant, what other say about their jobs.

Verbatim: Women talk about what motivated them to work as customer services worker

"It was something that came into my heart; I just loved it although I did not know what the environment was like. Everybody was talking about hotel management, I just found myself loving it. I had a teaching post but I didn't like it, instead I chose to go for hotel management. I told my parents that I did not feel like being a teacher. I was happy because they gave me the freedom to choose the option that I wanted."

"To be honest, I do not like to stay in this job. I am here because I want to earn money to pay for the fees for my evening class".

"*I finished training and got a job instantly"*.

"Because I know what I want in the hotel, I definitely be able to work without engage in unacceptable behaviour".

"I got a lot of skills by being receptionist for long time".

Verbatim: What it takes to Work in the Customer Service Section

'...working in hotels require skills so without education is not be easy'

"Working in hotel is as tricky as working in hospital. That's why it is called hospitality, we have to be like nurses, start with understanding customers first".

".....All you have to do is to be hospitable to them; they are impressed by your smile. I am telling you, the customer can be very kind if you are humble to them they can release their tips like never before"

"In unexplained environment they found me collapsed in the office... I believe this was a kind of devil that my male subordinate sends to finish me".

"The worst thing about working in a hotel is that these jobs have no future, so if they get tired of you they will just get rid of you immediately and pay you three months' salary so after the three months you'll have to start looking for a new job and it doesn't mean that you'll get one immediately, it can take you three months or even a year to be able to get a new job. Now how will you be surviving for all that time. So for those women who do not have husbands, they look for other alternative means, considering that you need to feed yourself and also pay rent. So what you earn is just used to feed and pay rent and nothing is left for development purposes. And the salaries may range from 80,000 to100,000".

"In this job we face some obstacles, it is a good job because we get to meet different people from all over the world and learn a lot from them. So I can say that is job is neither bad nor good. It will be good if you do not have any problems with your supervisors and customer. But if you want to achieve more than you can afford then the job will be hard for you, because a lot of people come here and sometimes you may be approached by a tourist, some women think that being with a European will make life easier but the tourist is just here to waste time and he will soon be going back home, of course there are those who may get such a chance but it is a very small percentage of them".

"When I get out of this place is when I dress like that, I already got used to it so I cannot go in public like this without covering up myself. But when I get here I have to take them off and dress officially".

"...the waitress job is challenging because you sometimes work with people who are already drunk, they would touch and pat us even if we do not like. But because a customer is a king we just stay and pretend as if we enjoy, but we are not......we sometimes smile ....because we want to get tips"

"*Since the hotel forces us to wear short dresses, I normally wear one and after work, I cover my body with a hijab*"

"The days are not the same every day. Our job requires outgoing behaviour, like smiling to welcome the guests. But we face many problems here; sometimes you may come in late because the car did not pick you up in time. If I am late, the manager will scold me. Imagine this situation, how can I smile to customers and convince them to give tips?"

"We have to be smart here, Lazimaujidamshi ,we have to impress our customers and also our managers

"I do not care about anyone. So long as they do not give me another option"

"If you are just naturally charming, the guest will see that in you, and you just have to be honest in your work and not admire what others are earning because you may not know what it takes to earn like them".

"I do not mind for the customers to touch me, or other people say. What I do is not who I am, I just want to get money".

"We spend many hours at work and we have to be here every day".

"*Sometimes our manager comes and scolds me unreasonably. This can really ruin my mood and makes it hard to attend to my customers properly.*"

"What matters is individual's behaviour; I have seen other women working in the offices that we perceive as decent for women misbehaving in public".

"We have to ignore some other activities in neighbourhoods in order to be reliable in work place"

"I normally use my leave to visit all occasions happened while I am busy in work, otherwise I have to be in office regularly in order to maintain hotel services…otherwise we cannot compete in this rivalry tourism market".

"Yes, and that is when I decided to go and study more because. Most people are not educated in this sector, they just get the basic job training when they get employed. But I saw it would be better if I go to a college and study more about it".

"I got a lot of skills by being receptionist for long time. I have established my family tour company which my husband works there full time… I can easily get customers from this hotel…"

"I send my children to my mother in law in the morning and pick them up in the evening on my way back".

"I faced a lot of challenges such as envy from other old staff who don't want me to be their boss while I am younger than them. I thank God that I am progressing but the challenges are

also a lot I have been subject in many tests including 'Swahili things'. For example one time my manager went to the leave so he handed over the office to me, with my surprise I slept and find myself with cuts in my laps and also many other things have been done to me, imagine I wake up and find my body is dirty like someone who was working in the field etc. But I concentrated in prayers, you know that things were very bad, for me I thought they should rather kill me rather than doing such things. This happened last year"

Verbatims : What other say about their job

"Working here is not as easy as you think. Here in Zanzibar, people think for a woman working in hotel is prostitution. The sometimes say 'kwanini 'mnajianika' kwawazunguhukomahotelini"

"Many people do not respect hotel jobs…"

"For us who decided to work in hotel….we forget about marriage….no one will marry you"

"When I started at hotel my relatives were mad at me, because I had to wear short skirts…."

"My parents disowned me….."

"My husband divorced me….he just listened to our neighbor"

"Working in hotel separates us from our families ….we can hardly participate in family issues like funerals".

"My husband is happy for me to work here because all I do is to clean the rooms. But, I learn a lot from them, including guests' behaviours. Also I sometimes get a chance to learn new cooking techniques, these I also use at home. I also learn how to keep our houses clean, when I learn how to organize a room here and how to lay the bed, I go home and do the same".

"My family did not like my idea of working in hotel. When I decided to start working, everyone was mad at me. Some of them, refused even to greet me".

"Because women feel that they receive status by participating in social activities such as helping sick people and clan members, they find the ways to impress my relatives".

"Sometimes I work very hard spending long days (many hours) in the office consecutively for like two months. I sometime start here very early at 5 in the morning. This enables me to accumulate off days together and use to go visit past family occasions and events"

"I usually contribute large sum of money compared to others. This enable me to convince them understand my position in work. They just respect me".

"By this job, I have been able to build my own house, support my parents and my siblings…now they are also convinced that work in hospitality is just like other jobs"

"Many people in my neighbourhood are now sending their children to Utalii College"

Discussions

According to the responses from women working in tourism, the study found that they see the challenges that they encounter as normal in life. Despite the fact that they know that working in hospitality industry as customer service worker is not acceptable, still they are motivated to work in the industry. From their responses, we see that some of them are driven by their own interest, some because of their background and some because it is the only opportunity that was available for her at the time she seeks for job. After getting into the job, they realise that the accusation from society is not true. The hotel is a place that they worked, meet people from different areas, advance their career, and get financial as well as other benefits. Importantly, they have employment it is does not matter whether is permanent or temporary.

The aim of this study was to identify the activities and actions of women when they participate in the co-production of services in the hotels and their implications to their social life and workplace life. So from their voices the study has been able to reveal what they think about themselves and about other people around them think about the job. For the interest of this study, the focus is on how they have been taking advantage of the life they live and the work they do to act and achieve their goals, workplace goals and society goals. The study used the dramaturgy model to reveal the dramas that women perform during profession job encounters and social interactions. So it uses the dramaturgy to explain women's dramas by showing the stages that women perform, their performance in both theatrical front and back stages.

The stage for women in Customer services in hospitality industry

The study considered the stage in terms of the areas where women encounters the exchange of services. Drawing from Berry (1981) Na Lovelock (1981) the service is intangible and women are the ones to tangibilize the service. This is because customer sees them as the service (product) of the hotel or restaurant. Women have a feeling that they are important in this exchange because they are presenters. This is seen from their experiences especially when they feel that they have to be in the work places timely and committedly because sometimes they have to prioritize work by spend more time in office and forgo their other responsibilities in the society such as children care and attending funerals. They also see the importance of their customers' evaluations. So they work to understand their customers so that they can give them tailor made services, which is providing services according to what individual customer want. So there are both environmental and interpersonal influences during the exchange of services between customer services workers and customers. This is in line with Berry (1981) and Lovelock (1981)

Moreover, as far as marketing of services is concerned, social and physical contexts have also been observed in this study. For social context, women are talking about appearance. They know that their appearances and customers' appearances for co-production of services to take place. They have to appear smart wearing right dresses and faces, such as applying makeups, smiling and generally being charming to the customers. Since customer services constitute the high personal contact, the behavior has to be adjusted to meet customers' expectations and satisfaction. However, women workers perceive customer satisfaction by the tips that they receive. As such it is observed that they always work to make favorable impressions of services to customers and supervisors. Women have to work to impress other people who they interact with such as husbands and family members so that they can be allowed to perform.

Physical setting, which according to Kotler is about atmospheric was captured from women's verbatim. Hotel spaces are separated from the areas that other people in the society and who are not concerned in the services cannot reach. This creates atmosphere for women who are not allowed to work in hotel perform their jobs comfortably. They can dress according to what the hotel demand during service exchange and after duty they can wear as the society demand them. Moreover, the atmosphere of the exchange of services in the hotels they give them a chance to communicate with customers closely. This gives them a chance to obtain what they want from customers directly.

Women's Performances in Hospitality Industry

According to the verbatim, women have the series of performances that they act at home also in the hotels. They express themselves to people around them in different ways in order to impress them and obtain what they want. The study reveals that in the course of interactions they created their own meanings of the front and back stages. The following are the activities and actions that women do in order to fulfil the requirements of their jobs and their own personal requirements.

For women front stage means professional ground as well as social grounds. They make rehearses in order to impress their professional services and people around them. In their professional services, women work to improve their skills and competencies. The verbatim shows that there are those who take initiatives to go for trainings and othersimprove their performance through their experiences in saving customers. Another prominent activity that they do is to impress their audiences, who are customers and supervisors is to create body languages that will entice customers. They add value in their serving job by smiling and being charming to the customers. Similarly, they work impressions to people around them such as husbands and parents. They impress them by appearing in the acceptable behaviors by wearing piety dresses in the community. They also impress them by participating in the social events by either go physically when they get leaves and also their financial contribution. As a result of this they gain respect from her people and also to convince them to view customer services jobs in hotels and restaurants are paying and descent.

Women also demonstrated the series of activities in their lives. They start by understanding audiences such as customers, husbands, supervisors. Some women have shown that they enjoy working because they have been given permissions by their husbands or parents. They get the permission after convincing those using body languages and through the support that they give to them. Likewise to customers, they work according to their understanding of customers. If the customers are drunk, they willingly accept to be touched and patted. But also they take advantage of this situation to get tips.

Generally, women's performance is driven by their willingness to abide to different situations. This does not matter if what they do is their behavior; they just act by creating the behaviors that are required at that particular time. Then later, they return to their normal behavior. Thus their performances are contains dramas. It should not be forgotten that in order to perform women have to encounter both social and professional environments in the same ways.

Theoretical and practical Impression of this study

This study contributes to the hospitality literature in several ways. First, by linking the social interactions with business interactions during the provision of services, some other factors that influence service exchange have been revealed. The dramaturgy framework has been of helpful because of its elements. By placing women in different elements the study has been able to view the meanings that they assign to their positions and it is these meanings that they use to impress and obtain their personal, hotels and society benefits. Secondly, the dramaturgy has been useful in revealing the activities that women do. These activities can be categorized into emotions and physical labor, which was mentioned in the introduction of this article. Mostly women provide physical labor when they follow the instructions from their job descriptions while emotional labor is provided in their effort to add value to the service.

Moreover, dramaturgy has enabled us to understand how the workers view their positions as workers as well as the citizens of the society.

Practically, this study contributes by giving the inputs for managers and policy makers when they address worker's issues, especially the factors affecting their performances. By getting women's views, it helps them to understand them. Women are responsible to their work and also at home. This is different from men who have a greater say in decisions at home compared to their women counterparts. Because the importance of women as well as the challenges they have seen, they have to pay required attention to women.

Conclusions

The identified women's activities and actions have shown that women employed to the hotels see that customer service in hospitality industry provides the descent work like any other job. By their actions and activities women used their efforts to play dramas that will convince the society about their jobs. In most of time they did the activities that may hide their intentions (for example to dress according to both hotel requirements and society requirements simultaneously). They have been adjusting their behavior to fit to the environment; as a result, they advance their careers and improve their living conditions

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THE ROLE OF CLUSTERS IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

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Abstract.

Clusters have often been associated with dynamism, innovation, and competitiveness. The reason for this is that clusters are linked to joint actions and cooperation to overcome individual firms' limited resources. Clusters can develop and survive because they collect and disseminate knowledge about products, markets and procurement issues. There are different models of cluster development, and two of them are presented in this paper. Cluster development in the tourism industry is a phenomenon with scarce research, especially in East Africa, but it is seen as a strategic tool for growth, so more research is needed. Three examples of tourism clusters is presented. The conclusions are that cluster development is an excellent way of creating geographical development, provided that strong international brands are created, information is shared, and a Destination Management Organization is leading the process. This is a conceptual paper where knowledge from prior research will be disseminated.

Keywords: Tourism, Cluster, Innovation, Development, Competitiveness

Introduction

Clustering is a process of firms and other actors located within a geographical area and cooperating around a function. One often-used definition is the one by Porter (1998:79), which is, "Clusters are geographic concentrations of interconnected companies and institutions in a particular field". Organizations establish close links between each other in a cluster to increase their competitiveness as a group (Andersson et al., 2004). The cluster concept was originally developed to describe cooperation within industrial companies producing goods (Hamdouch, 2007).

From the literature, we find that the cluster concept is similar to other concepts, for example, networks, value chain, industrial district, local production system, competition, regional system of innovation and technological park (Bengtsson and Raza-Ullah, 2016; Hamdouch, 2007). In this paper, we are not going to elaborate on these different concepts. We only note that there are several concepts closely related to the cluster concept.

Clusters have been recognized by different governments around the world to be a potential factor for industrial growth, and various policies to enhance cluster development has been put in place ("cluster policy" or "cluster initiative").Governments (on different levels) support business in different ways, like policies, regulations, and infrastructure. They also handle business licensing and registration, safety and health regulations, minimum wages, business location rules, and tax regulations. The way these are enforced will have an impact on business development in a country/region. These rules and regulations are also crucial for the development of a cluster, which in many cases, the Governments promote the establishment and development of. However, it has been proven difficult for Governments to create clusters with a top-down perspective. (Hamdouch, 2007).

However, according to Fundeanu (2015),is tourism clusters one of the most famous models of economic development because of the involvement and cooperation of the economic environment, research institutions and innovation, education system, public authorities and other relevant organizations for tourism. This statement justifies more research on the role of clusters in the tourism industry. The objective of this paper is to study the role of clusters in the tourism industry

Method

This paper is based on a literature study of the areas "cluster" and "tourism". Articles from different journal databases have been used (Jstor, Emerald, Elsevier) and Google search using keywords (alone and in various combinations) as a cluster, cooperation, co-opetition, network, tourism, policy, and growth. After that, the articles have been subject to content analysis (Budd Thorp, and Donohew,1967; de Sola Pool, 1959; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005; Stemler, 2001). Content analysis is defined as a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into less content used to categories based on explicit rules of coding (Stemler 2001). This method of analysis was contextualizing interpretations of the articles to produce valid and trustworthy results. In this case, the two areas of articles were analyzed manually and separately to generate the data for this study.

A Cluster Model

A significant part of the research about clusters is built on the Diamond Model by Porter (1990). That model was initially developed to analyze the competitiveness of nations and has later on been modified to fit clusters. The Diamond Model consists of four factors:

Firm strategy, structure, and rivalry (The regulations in a country governing how companies are created, organized and managed plus the conditions of domestic competition)

Demand conditions (The state of demand in the domestic market)

Factor conditions and (The nation's ability to compete in a given industry with skilled labor and infrastructure.

Related and supporting industries (The presence or absence of supplier industries and other linked industries which are internationally competitive)

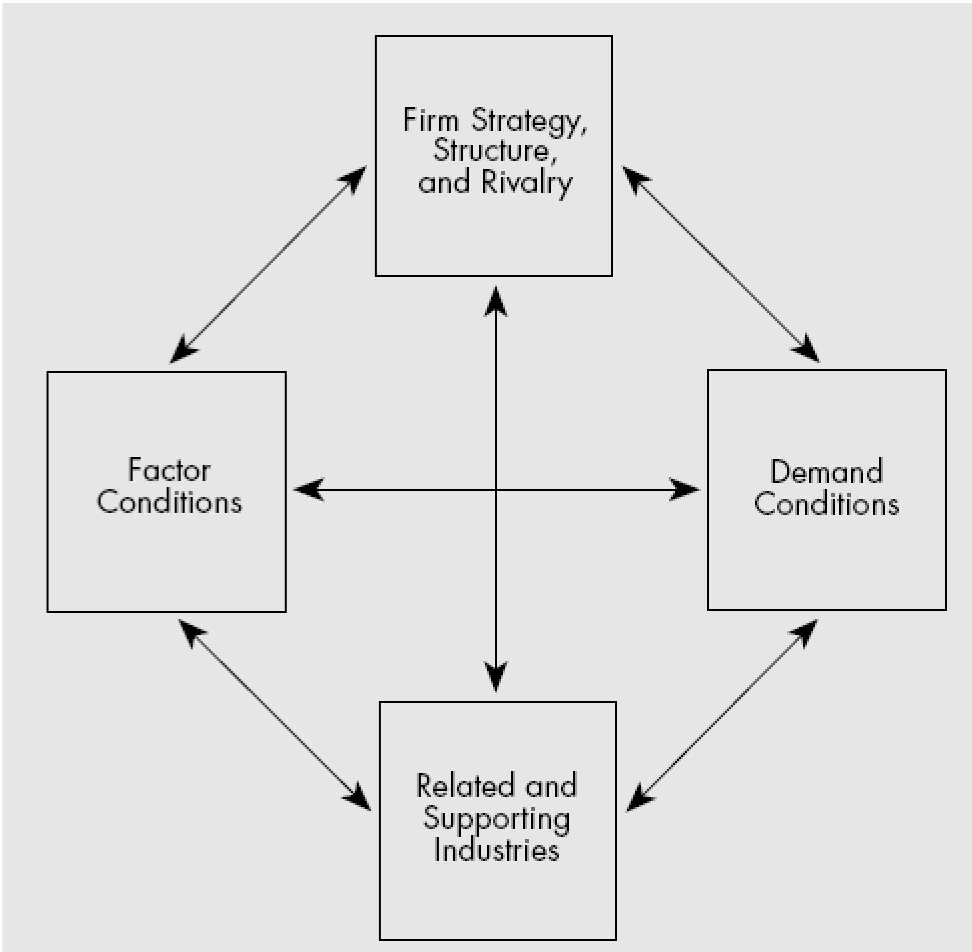

Figure 1. Porter's Diamond Model. Source: Porter (1990, p.78)

Later on, Porter introduced a cluster theory and emphasized the networks and interconnection between companies, suppliers, and other relevant organizations (Porter, 1998). There is a portion of rivalry in a cluster formation if companies sell similar products, but this must be handled within the network. This links to "coopetition" where companies both compete and cooperate for the benefit of all members of the network (Bengtsson and Raza-Ullah, 2016). This rivalry could stimulate innovations and increased competitiveness of companies and the whole cluster.

Some advantages for cluster members are economies of scale, synergies, innovation, stimulating new business, an increase in employment, an increase in productivity, reduce uncertainty, and an increase of quality. The competitiveness of the cluster members will depend on the ability to cooperate, and the effectiveness and productivity of the cluster. Clustering can create significant opportunities for undeveloped regions that can accelerate theirtechnological development and growth due to the synergy effect.(Čolović,Beran, and Raguž, 2016; Yalçınkaya, and Güzel,2019)

The cluster theory is very appropriate for the tourism sector since it has a fragmented structure typically based on small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) and a network of participants who are not necessarily involved in the same economic sectors (Bernini, 2009). Tourism differs from other industries in that it is a product that can only be consumed *inLoco* (da Cunha and da Cunha, 2005).

Problems with clusters

Oyeyinka and McCormick (2007, p.2) noted that there are some weaknesses in a cluster with this statement: "Despite the usefulness of the cluster approach, however, it has, like all abstractions from reality, its fundamental weaknesses. One such weakness is the assumption of homogenized relationships between the different-sized firms in the cluster. In other words, the cluster theory assumes that all firms are equal in the status and power they wield in the cluster."

They are referring to the situation when, for example, an MNE is participating in a cluster, for good and for bad. Their strength and power are far more than the other actors in a cluster, which creates an imbalance. However, this must be handled by the cluster actors and hopefully, the advantages of the contribution of an MNE (with their network, financial resources and knowledge) will bring more benefits to the cluster instead of problems.

The difference between a cluster and a network is also unclear. The definitions of a cluster are sometimes very similar to the one of a network. There are also different views about the linkage between actors in a cluster if they are formal or informal. (Hamdouch, 2007). However, the cluster concept will be appropriate in the context of tourism development.

Clusters in tourism

Researchers, tourism specialists, regional economists, practitioners, and policy-makers have tried to find a strategic way to maximize the positive effects of tourism development. Strategies forth is development is especially important in developing countries, and less developed areas where there may be great enthusiasm to develop the tourism sector, and many studies of cluster development in tourism have used Porter's diamond model. Many case studies have focused on investigating the potential of tourism destination competitiveness based on the four factors. (Kim and Wicks, 2010)

Kim and Wicks (2010), combined factors from different researchers who have tested and developed the Diamond model into a more comprehensive model of cluster development. The base is still Porter's idea, but they added/changed different actors and their connections among each other. The authors write (p.7),"This model can be useful for less developed destinations that need to create or upgrade tourism destinations and clusters. Developers and government officers should promote a strategy fostering collaboration between all cluster actors and highlight the effectiveness of the cluster-based approach as a way to enhance sustainable tourism clusters."

A critical issue from this citation is the need for collaboration between public and private actors in the industry. The importance of this collaboration is immense. In many cases, the officers in public organizations have too little knowledge about how the tourism industry works and what it generates for the region and the country in the form of, for example, employment, economy, foreign currency, and social development. If there is a low level of knowledge, it could lead to the implementation of rules, regulations, and taxes, which will harm the development of the tourism industry instead of helping the industry to grow. Collaboration is key to positive development!

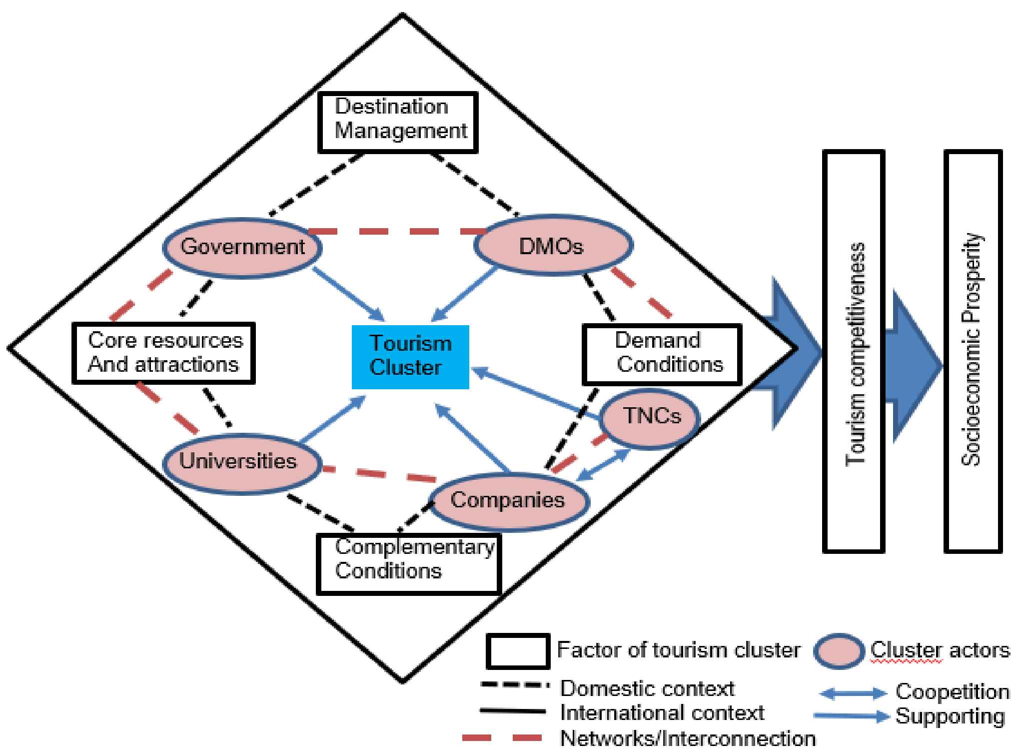

Figure 2. Tourism Cluster Development Model for Global Competitiveness

Source: Kim and Wicks (2010, p.5)

Typical areas of cooperation in the tourism clusters are business planning, marketing, and joint sales of a variety of related products. For example, walking safari, accommodation, restaurant, transport, souvenir shop, and different programs are offered at a single point of sale (today mostly at a web page). A critical issue, especially for the tourism industry, is that even though the activities belong to various companies, it is not essential what the tourism business structure is or to whom the products belong (the brand) for the tourists. The tourists want an excellent experience from their stay at a destination. That is why the destination brand is the one the tourists relate to at first before they recognize a company brand (if it is not a very well known global brand). The destination brand (place branding) is the key to attracting tourists from all parts of the world, for example, Toscana, Parma, Zanzibar, and Swedish Lapland.

Clusters could enhance the competitiveness of destinations, and destination management has a crucial role to play here. The destination management organization could be either aDestination Management Organization (DMO), a public organization, or a public-private partnership organization. The destination management has to handle marketing and management as a value-creating activity in the network, andthere are two central issues to deal with, the strategic management and the coordination ofcooperation among the actors (Meriläinenand Lemmetyinen, 2011).

The Trans-National Corporations (TNCs) in the model could come with foreign direct investments in Hotels, infrastructure, etc. which will give a boost to the tourism destination. We can, for example, notice this in Zanzibar with the many foreign-owned Hotels.

The Universities in the model could either collaborate with the TNCs or collaborate with the destination and individual companies in the cluster. Universities are knowledge creators, and sharing this knowledge with the cluster would benefit their growth.

Yalçınkaya and Güzel (2019, p.29) state that "The participation of university representatives is a must for a successful cluster through effective university-industry interaction". The University representatives could serve as a catalysator and knowledge bank for the cluster members, and help to solve problems for them. Universities can also conduct courses and training in various areas, for example, in marketing, menu development, customer care, and internationalization issues.

Examples of tourism clusters in the world

There are some excellent examples of clusters in the tourism industry where competitiveness has increased, and they attract many tourists from different countries in the world. Three clusters in tourism are presented here.

The Montagne cluster

The Montagne cluster started in France in 2012. The clusteris in the center of the FrenchAlphs, and one of the aims of the cluster is to represent and promote French how-know for sustainable mountain tourism development around the world. Another aim was to organize a structured tourism sector with the "French Travel" strategy to sell the French excellence for infrastructure building, hostelling, and events organization. The mountain tourism is now trying to improve the summer tourism for the destination by collaborating with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and International Development, Ministry of Sports, Ministry of Finances. The reason for this shift is climate change which will affect the destination since there will be warmer and warmer and the winter products must have substitutes for a large part of the year in the future.

This cluster offers its members different professional services (information, innovation, international, and performance). The Montage cluster consists of 216 companies, ten education organizations (including Université Grenoble Alpes), training and research centres, 25 institutions, and 33 partners.

(Source: http://www.cluster-montagne.com/en/)

Art and food in Tuscany

The art and food platform of Maremma, a vast rural area in southern Tuscany, is an excellent example of how a cluster consisting of institutional, economic and noneconomic actors can produce a prosperous and creative environment.

Besides the two main components, 1) the agro-food industry and 2) the cultural, artistic and environmental heritage, there are two additional components: the hospitality industry and the handicraft sector. An essential foundation of this cluster is in the activity of training. Training is provided about tourism management, cuisine, sommelier and chef/waiter for the hospitality component. For the handicraft, there is training about culture and music.

The south of Tuscany is characterized by the presence of the so-called 'artist gardens', which deals with environmental art like places (usually born from the initiative of artists), in which there is an opportunity for artists from all over the world to create their unique art work and place them along a particular route in a historical garden.

(Source: UNIDO, 2017)

The Cluster Consortium in South Africa

In 1998, Tourism stakeholders from various sectors started to discuss the future and the formation of new linkages and the opening of a dialogue between operators (who previously had not exchanged much information) started. The stakeholders discovered that they could achieve growth through a process of collaboration. Many new tourism development projects were created and implemented. This process resulted in seven clusters, one at the national level, two at a thematic level, and four at local levels. The aim was to reach global competitiveness.

The clustering process involved a well-planned organization and was governed by representatives from business, government, and labor forming the Tourism Leadership Group (TLG). Three consultant firms facilitated the process(The Blueprint Consulting from South Africa, the Cluster Navigators from New Zealand and the ECG, an American firm. It was fully funded by government means (public-private partnership).

One clear result of the development was that the clustering initiatives at the local level were

the most effective. At this level, it created a more immediate sense of clear benefits for the involved, which helped motivate the participants. Immediately, they could see a measurable effect.

(Source: Nordin, 2003)

Conclusion

From the literature about cluster and clusters in tourism, we can conclude that it is an excellent way of creating development and growth in a geographical area. The collective actions from the cluster members create competitive advantages for a tourism cluster in a highly competitive international market.

Some issues seem more important than others, like the collaboration between private and public organizations. A tourism cluster cannot thrive without support from public organizations. The support should be both financially (to the organizing of the cluster, the creating of an internationally competitive brand, and some initial marketing activities) and administrative (formation, process management, linking the cluster to the public network, and understanding of how rules and regulations affect the cluster's performance).

Information exchange between the cluster members is also very crucial (including the knowledge transfer from Universities). With information, the knowledge level among the cluster members will increase and create an informal ”database” for future decisions about product development, marketing, customer's needs and wants, and future international trends in the tourism industry. With this type of information, product development can attract present and future tourists.

Another critical issue is the central role of a DMO as a centre for information gathering and dissemination, marketing, and a collaboration link between cluster actors. The DMO could be either private or public. The vital issue is that the cluster members have trust in the DMO since it plays a very crucial role in the prosperity of the cluster members and the whole cluster.

Recommendations

For Tanzanian public organizations, the recommendation is to initiate the creation of tourism clusters in different geographical locations, to enhance the creation of internationally competitive brands, and to support the development of the different clusters (financially and administratively) and to help promoting the cluster brands in international tourism trade fairs and on the national tourism web.

For the Tanzanian tourism companies, the recommendation is to start to cooperate with different tourism actors, to share information, to participate in the creation of internationally competitive brands, to trust all potential cluster actors, and to continue to develop the tourism product for the benefit of the tourists' experiences of the destination/cluster.

Further research

The cluster research is scarce in East Africa and needs to be studied much more. One method which will be interesting for many stakeholders is to conduct a qualitative longitudinal study using action research, where the researcher(s) follows the development of a tourism cluster and share their findings during the research process. With this method, the researcher(s) will be one of the cluster actors and could serve as "consultants" during the research process, sharing theoretical and practical knowledge with cluster members. This method is seldom used in research in East Africa mainly because the knowledge about qualitative methods is low among researchers at the Universities.

Another idea for further research is to test different models of cluster development in a Tanzanian context. Most models are developed in other continents (mostly Europe), and the applicability of them in a Tanzanian context is generally unknown.

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Sub Theme: Entrepreneurship, Sustainable Tourism

IMPACT OF WILDLIFE TOURISM ON CULTURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN MONDULI DISTRICT, ARUSHA TANZANIA

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ABSTRACT

The study intended to document the impact of wildlife tourism in the development of cultural tourism in Monduli District. Also, it identified wildlife tourism activities; assessed major marketing strategies adopted by Cultural Tourism Enterprises coordinators in marketing cultural tourism products and examined cultural tourist interests in visiting Monduli district. A survey research was undertaken in Monduli district purposively selected to represent other similar wildlife tourism in Arusha. Data were collected from 60 respondents through structured questionnaire from tourists, CTE Coordinators and local tour operators, interviews and observation methods. Data were analyzed through descriptive analysis methods and thematic issues analysis methods. The study revealed that wildlife tourism activities like game drive, photographic, bird watching, hunting tourism and fishing activities had significant contribution of 81 % towards developement of cultural tourism in Monduli district. In additiont the study reveals that Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTE's) depend much from tour operators who package the wildlife activities while cultural tourism activities are often treated as a compliment to the wildlife tourist package in Monduli district. Results further indicated that 76% of the interviewed tourists had interest in cultural tourism although many packages did not feature the cultural sites and activities. A general conclusion from the study was that, CTE coordintors rely their marketing campaign on wildlife packages tours and that cultural tourism is treated as the subset in wildlife tourism activities.

Key words: Cultural Tourism, Wildlife Tourism, Cultural Tourism Enterprises, Monduli.

Introduction

Cultural tourism has certainly remained a major segment of global tourism product. A recent review by the UNWTO (2018) confirmed that 'cultural tourists' make up almost 40% of all international travellers or 530 million cultural tourists in 2017 and strongly contribute to almost 360 million international tourism trips in 2007. The survival and attractiveness of cultural tourism products depends on the basic principles of sustainable tourism which gives concern on up-to-date and competitive cultural tourism product development approach based on quality, distinctiveness, economic benefit and creativity (Ontario in 2009). The new market in tourism generations also are motivated by sport, spectacle and satisfaction. World Tourism Organization as United Nation organ (UNWTO) through different series of its report has recognizes that cultural tourism plays a vital role in promoting global economic and improvements of community livelihood in the development agenda through Gross Domestic Product, job creation and exports (WTO, 2010a; 2010b; 2017).

Also the development of cultural tourism may be supported by the development of the regional culture, continued effort on protection of the natural habitat, accentuation of tourism generating regions, strengthening of the local traditions and culture as well as the extended tourism seasons (János Csapó 2012). Sacco et al (2018) described that, nowadays people's movement is to get cultural experiences when they travel because of the shifts in the production and consumption of culture.

Tanzania is a rich country in terms of culture. From the Maasai and their unique way of living in the northern parts of the country to the rock paintings in Kondoa, Dodoma Region, the country harbours many historical and archaeological features that together constitute a rich base for the development of a thriving cultural tourism sector. On the coast, Tanzania offers such cultural sites as Stone Town in Zanzibar, Bagamoyo, Kilwa and Kilwa Kisiwani. In addition, the country possesses important archaeological site of the Olduvai Gorge ravine in the rift valley, and the Stone Age site of Isimila near Iringa (MNRT, 2002).

Apart from the mentioned historical and cultural attractions, Tanzania is home to more than 120 major ethnic groups comprised of Bantu, Nilotic and Hamitic languages, traditions and customs with the potential to further enrich the cultural tourism in the country (MNRT, 1999).

Generally Investments in tourism industry have the potentials toward improving local communities' livelihood and have been regarded as the viable economic option for the communities' sustainable development (Mrema, 2015). In terms of policy, the National Tourism Policy of 1999 is the main policy document that provides directives on how tourism in general and cultural heritage tourism in specific should be run in the country It also provides specific strategies for cultural heritage tourism (URT, 1999: section 5.3) that intend to enhance visits to museums, monuments, archaeological and historical sites, encourage individuals, local authorities and other organizations to support and promote cultural attractions, and incorporate, develop and market villages and their local culture for tourism purposes.

On other side, wildlife tourism is the main motivated activity in Tanzania Mainland followed by beach and conference tourism. Other important activities were visiting friends and relatives; enjoying mountain climbing as well as history and culture. Wildlife tourism dominates by 30.9 % of the total tourism activities in Tanzania while cultural tourism takes only 6.7 %.(URT 2016). Wildlife tourism is conducted within national parks that comprise a multitude of wildlife species ranging from both fauna and flora including mammals, birds, fish, reptiles and amphibians, game reserves like the famous Selous Game Reserve as well as game controlled areas, and the popular Ngorongoro Conservation Area which is also a world heritage site. (MNRT, 2002).

In 1999, when the idea for developing cultural tourism emerged in Tanzania, Marcel Leijzer noted that "Tourism in Tanzania is in the hands of tour operators. The operators take tourists into the national wildlife parks, where they pay high entrance fees and sleep in hotels that are owned by foreigners. The people who live near the roads that lead into these parks only have the dust to eat that the cars leave behind."(p 13). In line with that, efforts among tourism professionals especially in Tanzania's Northern Tourism Circuit are put on a ttracting wildlife tourists and cultural tourism activities are often treated as a compliment to the wildlife tourist package. Several advises have been provided to take institutional measures so as to diversify tourism products including cultural attractions so as reduce pressure on the northern circuit wildlife attractions. (Mariki et al. 2011).

Moreover, many efforts have been made by the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism to promote tourism, and still there is high reliance on nature based tourism. This was identified by Kimwaga (2014) as one of the challenges that exist in terms of developing tourism sector in Tanzania. The International Visitors' Exit Survey Report 2017 shows that wildlife is the focal tourism activity in Tanzania followed by beach and conference. This dominance is largely attributed by the lack of specific plans and programs for developing other types of tourism products like beach areas for sporting and recreation activities. The URT (2016) report also activates that, other motivation for tourist includes visiting friends and relatives, cultural tourism and mountain climbing.

Statement of the problem

Developing countries for which Tanzania is among are gifted with substantial number of tourist attractions ranging from Cultural, natural and man-made attractions. These attractions accounted to authentic cultures and traditions, national parks, conservation areas, beautiful beaches, corals, game reserves, recreation sites and beautiful scenic agricultural activities.

Historically, SNV in 1999 has pointed out that, the primary objective to establish cultural tourism in Tanzania has been centred on rural development, agriculture, environment, capacity building of civil organizations and small enterprise development; and believing that tourism would create new opportunities. Greg Richards in (2018) showed that, in a country like Spain, cultural tourism development depends much from the attractiveness and sustainability on the broader cultural fabric, which includes local cultural associations and the thousands of local people engaged in cultural activities. However, Ali Omar Ali (2015) described that, the growth and development of cultural tourism in Tanzania is mainly supported by social infrastructure, community awareness, strong policy framework as well as promotion and advertisement. These areas are considered to be the motivating factors for the cultural tourism to develop, grow and compete with other countries. Additionally, Haan (1997) suggests, growth in cultural tourism is driven mainly by increased tourism demand, rather than a greater hunger for cultural consumption.

BOT and NBS through the International Visitors' Exit Survey Report (2017) shows that wildlife is the main tourism activity in Tanzania followed by beach and conference. The dominance of wildlife activities over beach is largely attributed to lack of specific plans and programs for developing the beach areas for sporting and recreation activities while the northern circuit continues to dominate the influx of tourism in country. MNRT report (2016) shows that, despite of having many and unique cultural attractions in the country, not many tourists are coming to Tanzania with an articulated aim to visit these cultural sites, but contrary to that, cultural tourism within wildlife adjacent areas is flourished compared to areas with no wildlife tourism activities.

With these facts, there is a limited understanding on what impact does wildlife tourism has in the development of cultural tourism in the country and Monduli district in particular. Also, the ability to market cultural tourism products independently without depending wildlife tourism activities remains unswered phenomenon to tourism stakeholders in Tanzania and Monduli district in particular.

This study is therefore intends to document the impact of wildlife tourism in the development of cultural tourism by identifying wildlife tourism activities, assess major Marketing strategies adopted by CTE's coordinators in marketing cultural tourism products in Monduli district and examine tourists interests who visit Monduli district that will add value to the current government strategy to diversify and utilize tourism products in Tanzania.

Objectives of the study

Overall objective

The main objective of this study is to find out what impact does wildlife tourism has in the development of cultural tourism in Monduli district.

Specific objectives

i. To identify wildlife tourism activities practiced in Monduli district.
ii. To assess major Marketing strategies adopted by Cultural Tourism Enterprises coordinators in marketing cultural tourism products in Monduli district.
iii. To examine tourists' interests in visiting Monduli district

Significant of the Study

Findings from this study are expected to provide detailed information on what impact does wildlife tourism has in the development of cultural tourism in Monduli district by identifying wildlife tourism activities conducted in the area. The study will further provides an understanding of major Marketing strategies adopted by CTE's coordinators in marketing cultural tourism products in Monduli district and document the cultural tourist interests in visiting Monduli district.

The information generated from the study is going to be used by policy makers and various stakeholders such as Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTE's), Tourism and Antiquities Department of the Ministry of Natural Resource and Tourism (MNRT), Tanzania Tourism Board (TTB), Non-governmental organizations (NGOs), research institutions and academicians in exploring further ways of improving cultural tourism for the benefits of present and future generation.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)

This chapter aims to go through various sources of information to get what is known about issues related to cultural tourism and wildlife tourism in the world, Africa and Tanzania in particular. The literature review will help the researcher to get a direction and good understanding of the problem under study. It will enable the researcher to be familiar with the given concept in the area of the study.

Definition of concepts

Cultural tourism

Different scholars have defined the concept of cultural tourism by firstly explaining what culture means. In 2009 ATLAS explains that cultural tourism as movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts and drama outside their normal place of residence.

In (2017) Adie and Hall argues that for the designing of effective destination marketing strategies it is very crucial to understand cultural tourists and their needs. It is therefore clear that the prospects of cultural tourism are very significant, though in the context of Zimbabwe, the development of the sector is largely neglected.

Erisher & Edith (2018) also explains that in many developing countries many tourists who visit cultural attractions are not motivated by the beautifulness of the sites and cultural materials as a single entity, rather this product is featured in the overall tour packages within a destination. Culture is an important tourist motivation that powers destination choice. (Correia et al. 2013).

Cultural tourism has shown diversity when comes to its definitions and shows the complex relationship between culture and tourism which underlines the problem of defining cultural tourism. In some cases, others consider culture as a component in every single aspect of human life, and later assume that everything is cultural, therefore all tourism are somehow cultural tourism. However, this broad and general approach is not particularly convenient in identifying those cultural values important in tourism and vice versa, or in other words, in defining cultural tourism. (Seyed Sina Mousavi et al 2016).

Wildlife tourism

Newsome et al, (2005) has defined Wildlife tourism as undertaken to view and/or encounter wildlife. It can take place in a range of settings, from captive, semi-captive, to in the wild, and it encompasses a variety of interactions from passive observation to feeding and/or touching the species viewed. The interaction between the visitors and the wildlife is a core to wildlife tourism experience. This experience is a result of the interface of elements relating to the natural resource base (wildlife and associated habitat), the visitor, the operator and host community, the economy and any management set in place.

Cultural tourism development

The development of Cultural tourism has been identified as an important part to support social - economic progress in many African countries. (Ivanovic and Saayman, 2013). This form of tourism is using available cultural and natural potentialities that are found in the particular community and its development is relatively cheaper as it does not require big infrastructural and superstructure investments.

The development of cultural tourism has a chance to increase the destinations competitiveness and attractiveness of tourism activities. In order to diversify tourism product in the tourism sector, the development of cultural and heritage tourism is an important move to achieve it.

Also the development of cultural tourism will contribute towards the diversification of the seasonal and threatened nature-based tourism in any developing country. Interest towards the consumption of culture is growing among tourists (Ramires et al., 2016). As a result, destinations are trying to modify traditional products in a way that attracts new tourists (Ramires et al., 2016)

Cultural tourist interest and motivations

Stylianou-Lambert (2011) pointed out many typologies of cultural tourism and attempt to characterize cultural tourists in terms of motivations, interests, experiences sought or activities engaged in. However, her review also shows that few studies have attempted to explain why certain tourists fall into one category or another.

Additionally, other typologies of cultural tourist have been identified as, some tourist may not travel for cultural reasons, but after participating, ends up having a deep cultural tourism experience, while others does not travel for cultural reasons, but nonetheless participates in some activities and has shallow experiences. Contrary to those who do not travel for cultural reasons, but after participating, ends up having a deep cultural tourism experience. (McKercher and Du Gros 2011).

Pulido-Fernández and Sánchez-Rivero (2010) also used latent class analysis to segment the cultural tourism market in Spain. They identified three major segments: 'museum culturophiles', who value museums highly but do not visit events, the 'culturally inactive' segment, consisting of persons who attach particular importance to the museum offer but who have a low probability of making actual visits and the 'roaming culturophiles', or tourists who are very likely to make cultural visits during their stay, who take cultural events into account in making their choice of destination, but who have little interest in museums

Different factors have been recorded in affecting the decision or choice of cultural products that are used by tourist. These include but not limited to the addition of intangible and 'live' culture, the growing integration of tourism and everyday life and the level of community awareness on the importances of cultural tourism activities. the trend for over 26 years since the ATLAS cultural tourism project has been launched, the grow of cultural tourism product in different countries has been inevitable. Greg Richards (2018)

RESEARCH METHODS

Study area

Monduli district covering the four wards of Monduli juu, Nanja, Makuyuni & Mto wa Mbu being the popular places for both wildlife and cultural tourism. Also, a popular tourist spot - diverse wildlife attractions, how local people live-the Maasai, and home stays. Tourism takes the second biggest part of the economy in the district (MDC 2019). Village walks, biking, farm based tourism, home stays, forest walks, local food experience, and Maasai culture experience. Also the presence of cultural tourism Entreprises like mto wa mbu Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTE's), the Rift Valley CTE, Sunday Ground, Foot on Africa, Tanzania Wellness Society, Safari Guide and Tembea Tanzania.

As such Monduli is a good site to investigate the dynamics of the Tanzanian tourism sector especially in documenting the Impact of Wildlife Tourism has towards development of Cultural Tourism.

Design

Qualitative & quantitative research was employed to measure perception, attitudes belief and experience of which purposely sampling was used. Sample size of 5% of the 1200 study population in which 60 respondents from area in which 8 are C.T.E coordinators, 16 local guides, 30 tourists and 6 key informants. The selected sample is reasoned by limited access to time, finance, social and physical resources.

Data collection methods

Primary data were obtained through key informants' interview -Tourism and Game Officers of Monduli District, Forest Officers, village government leaders from Mto wa Mbu, Makuyuni, monduli juu and Nanja Wards. Quantitative data were collected by using closed ended questionnaire C.T.E coordinators, local guides, and tourists.

Data analysis

Quantitative data were organized and analysed using description analysis, and qualitative data were analysed base on thematic analysis. Findings of data analysed were presented by charts and tables.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Wildlife tourism activities practiced in Monduli district.

The study revealed that Wildlife watching covers the major wildlife tourism activities in the area of which 69.6% was observed, followed by Photographic tourism-13%, Sport fishing-10.9% and lastly Bird watching6.5%.

Marketing strategies adopted by Cultural Tourism Enterprises coordinators in marketing cultural tourism products in Monduli district.

The study revealed that 63% of CTE coordinators use Tour operators' packages while 37% uses social media to market their products.

Generally, this study revealed that wildlife tourism activities like game drive, photographic, bird watching, hunting tourism and fishing activities had significant contribution of 81 % towards development of cultural tourism in Monduli district. In addition, the study revealed that Cultural Tourism Enterprises (CTE's) depend much from tour operators who package the wildlife activities while cultural tourism activities are often treated as a compliment to the wildlife tourist package in Monduli district. Results further indicated that 76% of the interviewed tourists had interest in cultural tourism although many packages did not feature the cultural sites and activities

Tourists' interests in visiting Monduli district

Among the reasons that this study showed on th reasons for as to why most tourist are interesting with cultural tourism activities include; 73.9% said that CTE's are located near wildlife attractions, others 26.1% said some tourists get tired of the same wildlife products. this means that cultural tourism was considered the sub set of wildlife tourism in the area.

Qualitatively; The key informants' interviews had revealed that the growth of different cultural tourism activities in Monduli are impacted by the available wildlife tourism resources. One of the respondents had this to say …. ***"We tap the potentials of being a transit place for tourists to wildlife areas like Manyara, Tarangire, Ngorongoro and Serengeti, in which our community utilizes it to form different community based tourism in the area….."***

Furthermore; the awareness of the community to form cultural tourism activities was another theme captured in the interviews with respondents. ***"….the Ward collects big percent of revenue from cultural tourism activities in high season when tourists pass here with different tour companies that have a link with number of CTE's who later bring their customer to experience cultural and artistic works to our people…***.." quoted one of the Local government official in Mto wa Mbu. This implies that wildlife tourism activities have much to support for cultural activities in the area.

CONCLUSION

Wildlife tourism activities like photographic, bird watching and fishing activities had significant contribution towards development of cultural tourism in Monduli district. Cultural Tourism Enterprises rely their marketing campaign on wildlife packages tours, while cultural tourism activities are often treated as a compliment to the wildlife tourist package in Monduli district.

RECOMMENDATIONS

There is a need to identify and digitalize cultural tourism products and have aggressive marketing of cultural tourism to stand as the independent product to attract tourists in the country. This is important because Tanzania possesses different authentical cultural potentials that can contribute in boosting tourism arrivals, increase visitors' length of stay and improve community wellbeing.

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SUSTAINABILITY OF TAXICABS TRANSPORT BUSINESS SUPPORTING TOURISM SECTOR IN TANZANIA

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Abstract

This quantitative study examined the future sustainability of taxicabs in Tanzania with the emergence of boda boda (motorcycles and Bajajs) in supporting tourism sector in Tanzania. Specifically, the study aimed at establishing whether service delivery and price negotiation have effect on taxicabs sustainability. A total of 130 registered taxicabs in Mbeya Urban were involved in this study, from which 97 taxicab owners were randomly selected to form the sample. The study was interested to understand the effect of introduction of motorcycles on taxicabs sustainability as the use of motorcycle is used for tourists' transportation. Chi-square and Pearson correlation were used to measure the relationship between variables leading to sustainability. Findings suggest that, taxicabs business in this area is experiencing stiff challenges to compete with motorcycles in the evolving market. The results show further that there is positive relationship between the services delivered and sustainability of taxicabs business. However, price negotiation showed negative relationship with taxicabs sustainability. It is recommended that business owners should be in a position to put forward pricing strategies in relation to demand for service; take precautions to monitor the market and its competition; put in place strategies to compete in the marketplace for the sustainability of taxicabs business.

Key words: Taxicabs, urban transport, and sustainability

INTRODUCTION

Taxicabs play an important role as a transportation alternative in many cities. In developed countries, taxicabs tend to be used as a substitute for private vehicles by passengers who use the service for convenience reasons or because they do not want to own a car (Silva & Balasiano, 2011). A taxicabs used interchangeably as taxicab, transfers passengers between locations of their choice in either group or individually (Zegra & Austin, 2014; Silva & Balassiano, 2011; Zhan, Qian, & Satish, 2014). In modern societies, a taxicab can be hired for self-drive and this is important in reducing operational costs of business. Taxicab is also a component of transport which intends to support passengers' flexibility to their convenience (Zhan, Qian, & Satish, 2014). Taxicabs differs from other modes of public transport where the pick-up and drop-off locations are determined by the service provider, not by the passenger, although demand responsive transport and shared taxicabs provide a hybrid bus/taxicab mode. The service is highly needed in cities to pick passengers from any point to their convenience. Also, taxicabs are important when a country wants to have sustainable tourism sector for high contribution to an economy. The demand for taxicab and its contribution to employment and the economy cannot be neglected.

Taxicabs are the recognizable mode of urban transport found in almost every city in the world (Silva & Balasiano, 2011). In recent years, on-demand ride of taxicab for the tourists has seen service declining. The on-demand ride services have debates between the roles in transportation within the cities (Shaheen, *et al.*, 2014). Taxicabs provide a supplementary public transport available service and are therefore assumed as part of public urban transport. There is no argument about the use of taxicabs for transportation of tourist from one point to another. Obvious few tourist sites in Tanzania have developed better infrastructure for public transport to operate efficiently. The use of taxicabs takes part to serve tourists to tourist sites for reliable costs. The taxicab services have several challenges including customer-handling issues, unclear regulations, and changes in mode of services. The usage of communication technology has posed a challenge to taxicab business (Toner, 1992). Despite the challenges, the taxicab on-demand ride has the role to supplement transportation options that serve unmet demand for fast, flexible and convenient mobility in an urban area (Shaheen *et al.*, 2014). When taxicabs have been well established the business can be self-driven by customers. It is known that self-driven taxicab supports in saving costs of operation of the business (Shaheen *et al.*, 2014). Difficulties on the operation of taxicab include lack of regular schedules and routes; and station location where the taxicab can be found as compared to public transport (Shaheen *et al.*, 2014). In the case of drivers, good character, safe driving skills, good health and geographical knowledge becomes a challenge. However, quality control is also a challenge as a requirement for market entry (Gwilliam, 2005).

The history of taxicab can be traced back to the 17th century when Hackney coaches brought them into the stand outside the Maypole Hotel (Robert, 2018). Nowadays passengers can enjoy several modes of taxicabs transport. In recent years the market share of a taxicabs transportation has shown declining trend in developing countries. The decline is assumed to be caused by the introduction of motorcycles and tricycle motorized into the transport sector (Wolf, 2015). The regulatory authorities have allowed motorcycles and tricycles to ferry passengers for their convenience in cities and rural areas. It is important to note that, motorcycles have taken part of market share from taxicabs. Motorcycles take part of transporting tourists even to remote areas where taxicabs cannot manage to reach. This study is aimed at examining the relationship between service quality delivery and future sustainability of the taxicabs business given the massive introduction of motorcycle riders.

Historical perspective of taxicabs in Tanzania

The history of taxicabs can be traced back to 1640s when horse-driven cars were introduced in France (Rizzo, 2020). In Tanzania taxicabs started before independence, during which the economy was in the hands of Asians and Europeans (Rizzo, 2002). Then, taxicabs were operating mainly in towns and the major users of taxicabs were Asian traders and White rulers (Rizzo, 2002). In Tanzania, taxicabs were termed illegal business until 1975 when commuter buses (daladala) were legally registered for passenger transportation (Trip, 1997). Daladala were legalized in 1975 to 1983 when the public transport services operation capacity declined by 36% while the population in need of transport increased to 80% (Rizzo, 2002). In the subsequent years the number of legal private commuter operators as town buses rose to 450% (Rizzo, 2002). In the year 1998 for example, the government set rules and regulations for a vehicle to qualify for passenger transportation causing some to be disqualified (Rizzo, 2002).

Taxicabs nowadays play a great role in economic development in Tanzania across all urban areas in all regions. Taxicabs are registered and regulated by the local governments where they pay tax and report their challenges. Taxicabs serve as a means of transport and like other modes of transport, the requirement for a successful service is the infrastructure (Kumar & Barrett, 2008). As compared with other modes of public transport, taxicabs provide high flexibility and convenience for transportation of passengers but the prices are high (Zegra & Austin, 2008). The regulations and registration of taxicabs transport services in Tanzania urban allow taxicabs to operate flexibly with no well-defined routes and time. The taxicabs registration is vested to local government authorities for its monitoring. Taxicabs in this study mean all car/vehicles which can carry four to eight passengers per trip; this includes town trip passenger caring vehicles and those specialized transporting tourists.

In Tanzania the government has also allowed a number of motorcycles for on-ride demand for transportation of passengers. This has happened due to the cheap cost and flexibility of the mode of transport and legalization of the business by the government. It is noted that, majority of tourists with low income prefer using motorcycle due to its flexibility and fast as compared to taxicabs. Motorcycles can transport tourist to impossible routes by taxicabs, this might be a reason for acceptability by tourists. The trend has caused traffic congestion especially in the morning and evening in cities (Bishop & Ahmed, 2015). In developing cities of Tanzania, taxicabs are a growing concern as road space is becoming scarcer due to population growth and a rapid increase of motorized transport services such as motorcycles and motor tricycles. In Tanzania, registered motorcycles have increased by a remarkable size from under 2,000 motorcycles in 2003 to over 800,000 in 2014 (Bishop & Ahmed, 2015). The demand for transport services is increasing and competition among transport service providers is becoming intense. This is particularly between taxicabs and motorcycles and motor tricycles' popularly termed as Bajaj (Bishop & Amend, 2015). These new entrants in the transport sector became popular in the 2000s in East Africa including Tanzania. The challenge of taxicabs in Tanzania has been the emergence of regulation to allow motorcycles and tricycles to carry passengers for pay. The trend has posed a competitive challenge to the sustainability of the taxicabs business in the near future.

The term sustainability was used for long by natural scientists looking for environmental protection to be used by generations. The use of sustainability management is relatively new for most management scholars. Now day's sustainability is used in social sciences. Sustainability is a process or state that can be maintained at a certain level for as long as is wanted (Silva & Balasiano, 2011). The Commission defined sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The continuing evolution and increasing salience of the concept and practice of sustainability among individuals, organizations, and societies worldwide appears to warrant the development of conceptual approaches to theories of sustainability management for application to management research, education, and practice.

The rapid emergence of motorcycles has created many challenges to taxicabs. New modalities of urban transport have changed dramatically. The motorcycles and taxicabs differ greatly in many features and therefore there is a great difference in operations. The differences create high competition in urban transport (Wolf, 2015). Despite their difference in features, the motorcycle threatens taxicabs business in terms of market share in the transport industry. Sustainability theories argue that, stepping beyond the constraints of the traditional 4Ps of marketing mix is a necessary condition for contemporary marketers to optimally drive sustainability. Marketing facilitates more sustainable consumption that is a marketplace norm rather than a niche (Belcher, 2018). The complexity of the environmental and social challenges facing business in today's critical climate requires businesses to develop solutions to problems that fall beyond the walls of business as usual. There is extension of 4Ps of marketing mix to 8Ps of marketing mix for service oriented firms such as taxicabs transport business. In this study the marketing mix variables of price and service delivery (i.e. reliability, responsiveness, tangibles, assurance, and empathy) are taken as the marketing drivers of sustainability of taxicabs transport business.

Key Characteristics of Public Urban Transport-Taxicabs

Taxicabs are a vital link with public transport system functioning in accordance with public demand (Zegra & Austin, 2008; Silva & Balassiano, 2011). Taxicabs serve a demand that is present in almost all cities in one form or another. The options nowadays include motorcycles, tricycles and even animal-pulled vehicles. Taxicabs can be used to support economic and social benefits of development as pointed out by Toner (1992) and Belcher (2018). The benefits of economic development include:

Revenue; whereby economically in the taxicab industry is characterized by variable turnover and inflows. This is true among cities; the revenue for each taxicab depends on different reasons. Economically, the importance is that although entry requirements to the industry tend to be quite easy to meet, operating a successful taxicab company takes considerable skills and effort. Belcher (2018) noted that, it is important for taxicab operators to be careful when dealing with customers. Customer mishandling may result into lower revenue (Toner, 1992; Belcher, 2018).

Demand variation which is not only is there great variation in revenue within the taxicab population, but there is also a repeating cycle on demand. On-demand for taxicab will depend on several factors including season, population size, income, status and location (Silva & Balassiano, 2011). Since most taxicabs markets are locally positioned, the taxicab market is local hence the low occupancy rates combined with prices per kilometre. However, prices of taxicabs depend on the market demand of service; as the market demand raises the prices increase. It is very difficult to control the market price as it depends on the agreement between the two parties. In taxicabs business, it known that, charges quickly gets expensive when distances increase (Shaheen *et al.,* 2014).

Despite the contribution of taxicabs to tourism and economic development, sustainability is not certain as competition becomes intense (Trip, 1997; Bert, 2018). There is an assumption that a larger market share of urban and rural transportation has been shifted to motorcycles/tricycles in Tanzania. The motorcycles and tricycles have been allowed to shuttle passengers and have become competitors of taxicabs which hinder sustainability for the future (Bagatya, 2007; Belcher, 2018). For a business to be sustainable it needs to have a reasonable share of the market in the industry. The main aim of any business is to earn profit for sustainable development, and hence attain the going concern principle. Generating profits in a taxicab business environment often indicates that an organization is offering quality services desired by consumers at a reasonable price. Taxicabs business that cannot compete in service quality and lower price focus may face the prospect of losing customers from their operations and dealing with the consequences of financial loss (Porter, 1985; Adam, 2018).

Many people who use taxicabs including tourists for flexibility travel agree that the massive influx of motorized cycles has a detrimental effect on the reduction of market shares of taxicabs in Tanzania (Bishop & Amend, 2015). Motorcycles and tricycles are like a double-edged sword in the sense that they operate in both urban centers and rural areas of Tanzania. The debate is silently witnessed in the eyes of stakeholders regarding the choice of the modes of transport to opt in the quest to meet the strong travel demand. This has often clicked the minds of transport practitioners and stakeholders to think and predict the future of taxicabs transport services in urban areas in Tanzania. On top of that, the government of Tanzania has put down the requirements for taxicab business to flourish including policy and regulatory framework (Bishop & Ahmed, 2015). Despite the policy framework for the taxicab business to flourish, its future sustainability is uncertain. The uncertainty of the taxicab business puts doubt on its sustainability and hence its contribution towards economic development. The question which is still unanswered is whether motorcycles have taken over the role of taxicabs? The aim of this study was to examine the future sustainability of taxicabs in Tanzania environment taking care of all the competition within the transport sector.

Business Sustainability

A business practice that is economically viable, socially responsible and environmentally friendly is usually regarded as being sustainable (Rezaee, 2016). There are many ways to define sustainability. While there is no universal definition of sustainability, there is broad consensus that sustainability can be viewed as a holistic system, inclusive of nature and man-made, that needs to be regenerative and balanced in order to last for a very long period of time. In the business world, sustainability is viewed as a form of triple-bottom-line reporting system whereby a business enterprise communicates to their stakeholders. The goal in developing sustainable business practices is to create strategies that preserve the long-term viability (Belcher, 2018). Sustainable business is an entity that operates primarily focusing at meeting its predetermined mission, vision, goals and objectives (Belcher, 2018).

The business not only strives to achieve financial and economic benefits but also focuses on the environment which would eventually lead to position itself considering present and future societies. Rezaee (2016) pointed out that sustainable business is the one that strives to fulfill its financial (profit) and social/customers (people) needs without ignoring the negative impacts of their business activities on the environment. Sustainability therefore, considers societal and environment impacts and moreover seeks to achieve economic and financial benefits for a determined time. It is important for the taxicabs operators to consider factors which would compete to the transport sector, the sector is important for transportation of tourists to destination sites. Transporting tourists to tourist sites need to be safe and reliable which taxicabs can facilitate as compared to motorcycles.

Service Marketing Mix

Sustainability of business depends on a combination of strategies known as marketing mix (Bert, 2018). The marketing mix is a set of controllable factors that a company uses to create a desired response in the targeted market and gain market share of the industry. The set of these tools for services include factors referred to as the 8Ps of service marketing namely; product, price, promotion, place, people, process, physical evidence and (branding) positioning (Wallsten, 2015). The service marketing mix is the combination of different marketing decision variables being used by the firm to market its goods and services. After having identified the market and gathering the basic information about it, the next step in the direction of market programming is to decide upon the instruments and the strategy to meet the needs of the customers and the challenge of the competitors (Porter, 1985; Belz & Peattie, 2009)). Marketing mix offers an optimum combination of all marketing ingredients so that companies can realize goals for example profit, sales volume, market share, and return on investment.

Studies have been done in developing/developed world on taxicabs business. Scant studies have been done in Tanzania on the taxicabs establishment and development. Zegras and Austin (2014) did a study to investigate the taxicabs and its role as a form of public transportation using Boston taxicabs system. The main issue of the study was to examine how the taxicabs satisfies the demand for transport as efficiently as possible and ensures business sustainability. The study contribution was that, taxicabs business is an important mode of transport despite the fact that they are not included in the planning process. The study suggested that, taxicabs acts as mass transportation and substitutes and complements general passenger demand. The study concludes that, taxicabs transport supplements for the unmet demand of transportation service from one point to another (Zegra & Austin, 2014). Here it is important to not the contribution of customer satisfaction of transportation in tourism and other sectors can be attained by use of taxicabs.

Zhan, Qian and Satish (2014), in analyzing the efficiency of urban taxicab service system that, sharing economy and its competitive effects to ride sharing on taxicabs industry. The analysis dwelt on the effects of side-sharing ride car and its sustainability specifically on taxicabs. The main concern was that of the customer complaint about taxicabs service quality. The study observed that, due to several complaints about the taxicab services the customers tend to shift to alternative modes of transport (Zhan, Qian & Satish, 2014). The analysis also noted that, taxicabs transport is private and not regulated as public transport; even the ride service has no clear information on their operations. The analysis concluded that the competition of taxicab and ride car is unfair and it affects the economic benefits that may accrue to both. It is important to note that, quality of service specifically handling tourists in sensitive. It is the role of the transport sector to improve service quality to meet customers/tourists demands and compete effectively.

Silva and Balassiano (2011) did a study to provide a comprehensive and systematic analysis of existing global taxicab schemes and their respective policies and regulations. The paper was presented to an expert group meeting on sustainable urban transport in Latin America. The study came up with issues to review taxicab schemes and regulation of taxicab business. The study noted that there are difficulties in integrating the taxicab business into strategic plans of cities as a barrier to monitor its operation. The study also noted the importance of taxicab business in developing countries for the supplementation to low supply of public transport. In that case, taxicabs are characterized by shared ride or low cost single passenger (Silva & Balassiano, 2011). In cases of the inadequacy of taxicab and public transport supply, it is known that passengers will tend to shift to alternative transportation as motorcycles and tricycles. This study concluded that, few licensed taxicab in a city creates a serious effect on the availability of service and on the economic viability of the taxicabs business. This study's emphasis was on the importance of taxicab operation for delivering good services in a country to ensure sustainability.

In summary, when demand is high and supply of public and taxicabs is low, customers will shift to alternative systems; here motorcycles are advantaged for passenger transportation including tourists.

This study aimed looking at the sustainability of the taxicabs in relation to the introduction of motorcycles and tricycles as passenger transporters in Tanzania. In this regard, the question is what will be the fate of taxicabs with the increased motorcycle and tricycles being registered to carry passengers? The paper comes with suggestions to taxicabs owners competitive advantages in the transportation industry.

METHODOLOGY

The study employed a cross-section research design. The descriptive cross-sectional study design involved measuring the relationship between variables in a specific time for a defined population. This study used different groups of people who differ in the variable of interest but share other characteristics, such as socioeconomic status, geographical status as argued by (Delice, 2002; Setia, 2016). In a cross-sectional study, the investigator measures the outcome and the exposure of the study participants at the same time. Cross-section study is unlike in case-control studies where participants are selected based on the outcome status or cohort studies (Setia, 2016). The study was done in Mbeya Urban where a combination of passenger transportation is done by taxicabs, motorcycles and tricycles. The selection was based on the availability of taxicabs owners being based in urban areas. Also, urban dwellers are the regular users of taxicabs transport for various economic and social activities such as sending patients to hospitals, moving to-and-from airports, to tourist sites, attending social gatherings, moving to bus stations, to mention a few. Questionnaire was administered to collect data from taxicabs owners on the assumption of the sustainability of their business in the future. Likert scale was developed with 5 levels from 1 as highly agreeing on the question/concept to 5 which was highly disagreeing.

The total number of registered taxicabs in Mbeya Urban was 130 at the time of the study. The sample size was taken from the registered taxicabs by the Municipal Council which accounted to 97 taxicabs owners. Selection of respondents was based on registered transport operators in Mbeya Urban and the registered taxicabs drivers from the city council database. The sample of respondents was 97 out of 130 taxicabs operating in Mbeya City as per sample determination developed by (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Data analysis started with the collection of data followed by data processing and sorting. Processed data helps in obtaining information as the raw data is non-comprehensive in nature. Texture method was supplemented by presenting the useful information for decision and discussion (Delice, 2002; Baxter & Jack, 2008; Zhan, Qian & Satish, 2014). In this study, data were mainly analyzed quantitatively to examine the future sustainability of taxicabs supporting tourism which is one of the key contributors of economy in Tanzania. Quantitative analysis used correlation analysis between variables and Chi-square determination of its causal relationship. Quantitative methods included descriptive statistics and correlation test, to test the association between the marketing mix elements towards sustainability.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study wanted to know the satisfaction of customer/passengers to taxicabs transport; the finding shows that, the correlation (r^2) between services quality to customer pick was 0.795 and Chi-square is 0.00 which is within accepted level, hence a strong relationship. Quality of service is one of the factors for repeated business which can lead to business sustainability if the majority of users do repeat for service. However, in tourism sector, one can recommend to colleagues to use the service. This study then accepts the hypothesis that there is a relationship between service quality delivery and taxicab business sustainability. While satisfaction of service and reliability has a correlation of 0.359 and a Chi-square (x^2) of 0.905 which is beyond acceptable level of 0.05; this showed that there is no relationship towards sustainability. Different scholars argue that service delivered is a key to business sustainability, while this study rejects the notion (Belcher, 2018). This study gives us new issues to be looked upon on the factors. It can be deduced that the taxicabs is fast in delivering customer satisfaction. However, price determination showed a correction of -.354 which showed a negative relationship for business sustainability. The study calculated Chi-square for the price determination in relation to taxicabs sustainability, the result was $x^2 = 1.714$ for price affordability and $x^2 = 0.115$. Results of the study can deduce that there is no relationship between price affordability and price negotiations towards taxicabs sustainability (Crewswell, 2014).

Also, the study wanted to know whether customers using taxicabs are satisfied with the price flexibility, knowledge on pricing system and satisfaction. The results show that the relationship between pricing system and price flexibility had $x^2 = 0.254$; the relationship between pricing system and customer satisfaction was rated $x^2 = 0.739$, the acceptable level is 0.05 (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970; Crewswell, 2014). The results denote that pricing flexibility has a weak relationship with satisfaction while pricing system has a strong negative relationship with satisfaction hence sustainability.

The results also show that 74% of taxicab owners had an opinion to non-breaking the costs of operation and only 26% can break-even the cost of operating taxicabs. These results show that the operators do operate because they are in the business. Both agreed that the introduction of motorcycles in the transport business has a negative effect on taxicabs business. The results support a study by Wallsten (2015) that unfair competition can lead to competitors' failure to compete. The effect of unfair competition causes others to fail to pay tax and related government dues.

The taxicabs owners argued that there are important issues to be taken into consideration in order to rescue the taxicabs business in Mbeya. 89% showed that pricing strategies may be important to sustain transport business and 11% showed that other strategies including quality and management may rescue the business. The results relate to a study by Zegra & Austine (2008), which concluded that, when the demand of the service is low and customers shift to alternative services, there are strategies to be put in place. The demand for taxicabs is lowered by the introduction of Bajaj and motorcycles as modes of public transport. For the taxicabs to beat competition it is advised to use Porter's model (Cooney, 2009)that the competitive advantage factors include lower leadership cost, differentiation and focus of customer group.

The results revealed that 89% of respondents/taxicabs owners opinioned that the sustainability of the taxicabs business in the future is not certain. This is because even tourists opt to use motorcycles for the site visits. However, 11% of respondents had an opinion that the future of the taxicab business is good and certain. The majority felt that the Bajaj and motorcycle have taken the taxicabs business with unfair competition and some without being registered. The regulations for public transportation state that one must be registered and prove beyond doubt that the equipment has all the features for better services. Above all the owner must pay taxes and municipal dues. It was observed that some Bajaj and motorcycle owners do not pay taxes, resulting into unfair competition in the industry. The results are similar to a study by Silva & Balassiano (2011) where it was noted that unfair competition is a challenge to transport business. It is important for regulators to regulate the business in order to ensure a fair environment and help the future business of taxicabs. The results also correspond with the results of a study by Bishop & Amend (2015) which showed relationship between failure of business within the industry if there is no systematic regulatory framework. The regulatory framework of taxicabs business in the changing environment cannot be neglected as it helps in the development of other sectors like tourism management as noted by Trip (1997) and Shaheen *et al.,* (2014). Since the Tanzania Government vision is to become a middle level economy by 2025, this calls for the different sectors to be integrated for the purpose of focusing the development vision. One of the important sectors is efficient transportation easing movement of people, goods, and services.

The study wanted to find out if the taxicabs owners have any alternatives for the future sustainability of the taxicabs business. The results show that, 82% said the reduced cost of transport could sustain future business; 7% said about proper customer care and 11% had an opinion that other strategies can be instituted including quality services, automated services, self driving services and security of users. This is in line with the Porters model that for one to compete in a stiff market some strategies must be put in place including lower leadership cost, differentiation of service and business focus. Porter (1985) in line suggests that, under stiff competitive market, the owners should think of lowering the costs to compete with the Bajaj and motorcycles. However, it was learnt that the price of travelling as tourist for an individual was not different from group transport. It was learnt also that, in the study the respondents had no knowledge that group transport can attract group hiring taxicab with shared costs which is competitive advantage as compared to motorcycles. Also driver owners had no knowledge on other business niche to introduce into the business focusing on the special niche of a market, as it is happening nowadays serving for students, airport rides and or harbour rides.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The study's objective was to examine the factors that could support taxicabs business sustainability with the introduction of alternative public transportation. Study specifically dwelt on at taxicabs business in supporting tourism sector and its sustainability. It was found that for the business to be sustainable, issues of customer care and service delivery must be vital for owners. However, the study result accepts the hypothesis that there is a relationship between quality services delivered towards taxicabs business sustainability. The study results therefore show that services delivered does not guarantee sustainability of business other factors for sustainability must be looked at. The factors which might influence the business to be sustainable include customer care, pricing flexibility and business focus. It is important to note that, transport business is in a competitive industry; the operations of one segment need to be handled with care. If mishandled the customers shift to alternatives; for this case, the majority of customers who could be using taxicabs have shifted to Bajaj and motorcycles. This has happened due to higher costs of hiring a taxicab as compared to Bajaj and motorcycles. The alternative was to use the Porters model of generic business strategies for business sustainability. Porter (1985) and Bert (2018) suggest for a business to compete effectively it must have focused market, cost leadership and differentiation of products or services.

It is concluded that, the sustainability of taxicabs and the future depends on the competitive advantages looking at the line of Porter's model of business competition. The study recommends to the owners to take measures and strategies and compete in the stiff market. The strategies for competition in the market among others are: knowing competitors and what they do; knowing the customers and what they want; differentiating products through innovation and step up into marketing with the differentiated image and focusing on lower price leadership (Bert, 2018; Adam, 2018).

The local government should make sure the regulations for transportation cut across all the industry practitioners. The registration and payment of revenue to the government be instituted to taxicabs as well as the Bajaj and motorcycles and there is a need for regulators to put measures to improve and allocate stations for all operators to support sustainability for all.

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ROLE OF KITCHEN DESIGN ON WORK EFFICIENCY OF KITCHEN STAFF IN HOTELS, ARUSHA CITY

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to assess the proper hotel Kitchen design and planning which should enable the Kitchen staff to be able to work efficiently, quickly, safely and in comfort environment. The study was conducted in 15 hotels classified and unclassified found in Arusha City. Interview schedule was used to administer a structured questionnaire to 84 kitchen employees, frequency distribution tables and Bar charts were used for results analysis. The study showed that 40.50% of kitchens are not well designed as per standards and 4.80% kitchen staff were unsatisfied with working in a designed kitchens with the good `performance based on efficiency, quickly, safely and comfortable environment. Properly planned layouts of adequate kitchen equipment, tools and materials that do the job are essential to be carried out efficiently in practical work so that equipment can be correctly placed then work will proceed smoothly with proper sequences of a back tracking and lower the turnover employees in the kitchen.

Keywords: ***Hotel kitchen design and Kitchen staff, work efficiency, Hotels, Arusha city***.

Introduction

Background of the study

Study aims to discover if there are any problems between the designs, planning, kitchen staff attitude and the time which is taken to complete the work as good quality services. On the other hand the influence on the customer's attraction and staff satisfaction. The objective of the present study is to examine whether a design and planning equipment space tracking and how we can support staff for creativity, safety and Kitchen staff's performance.

Layout design must consider working methods, kitchen facilities arrangements for Hazard Analysis Critical Control Point (HACCP) must be intrinsically safe and preferable for achieving the safe and comfortable food preparation in the kitchen. Before a kitchen is planned, the management must know its goals and objectives in relation to market strategy. Proper Kitchen design and planning should enable the Kitchen staff to be able to work efficiently, quickly, safely and in comfort environment. The aim of designing and planning a kitchen is to ensure that food is prepared and served without waste of both effort and time in daily operations David Foskett and Victor Ceseran(Ceserani and Kinto's, 2007). This is particularly important with mechanical installations of cooking area is closely to salad preparation which will reduce number of kitchen staff and work become more friendly to employees, also air conditioning and ventilation systems will need proper balancing, testing and setting up for proper control under the building management (Kinton R. , 1994)'',concluded that a proper planned layouts of adequate equipment, tools and materials that do the work are essential to be carried out efficiently in practical work, is to that equipment can be correctly placed, then work will proceed smoothly with proper sequences of a back tracking or crisscrossing and lower the turnover employees in the kitchen (Vaughn P, 2010).The idea is to place the equipment in such a way that the distance between it and the staff members who use it is minimized. Professional planners, assisted by drafters are available for a fee. Planners may also recommend equipment that fits the menu and the restaurants clientele and make sure that the chef and kitchen crew have the knowledge and skills to operate the kitchen. The plans show the movement of food from delivery through various work stations and to the guests, circular work flow patterns are not efficient. (Alan, 2014) defined risk control as: Coordinated activities to modify the level of one or more risks that have been evaluated as unacceptable, with the goal of achieving, maintaining, and demonstrating an acceptable level of risk for the risk(s) of interest, and an overall improvement in the organization's risk profile.

Literature Review

Designing and planning financial analysis

Several authors have suggested that the physical work environment can stimulate (orinhibit) individual creativity in an organization (Shalley and Gilson,2004; Ceylan and et at, 2008) . For example, physical environments that are engineered to be cognitively and perceptually stimulating can enhance creativity. "Katz (1997) added that the operational requirements established in the operation plan will dictate the physical components of the restaurant. Without a clear understanding of how you plan to operate and function and what space and amenities require, the design team cannot design an effective space in which you can operate. the same author added that , In business plan, presented menu plan and discussed the preparation of some key items are very important, study the menu, item by item ,and document the raw ingredients, how they are purchased (fresh, frozen, dry storage), their storage requirements (refrigeration freezer , dry storage, secured or open shelving), the stages of preparation and the tools , space, and equipment required, how they are held after cooking, where are they set for pickup, who picks them up ,and so on(Josef &Hadyn, 2000)**.** This will enable staff to determine what storage, prep space, tools, equipment, and serving space they need. Chefs or executive chef will participate in this activity. As they develop these requirements, they will probably revise their service procedures, adding, deleting, and transferring responsibilities among their service staff Katz (1997)**.** Walker, (2008); Vaughn, and et al, (2010) reported that the kitchen plan helps to ensure an easy flow of food in and out of the kitchen. The idea is three(3) to place the equipment in such a way that the distance between it and the staff members who use it is minimized. Professional planners, assisted by drafters are available for a fee. Planners may also recommend equipment that fits the menu and the restaurants clientele and make sure that the chef and kitchen crew have the knowledge and skills to operate the kitchen.

Practical Implications

Approximately 4.2 m2 (15 square feet) is required per person; too little space can cause staff to work in close proximity to stoves, steamers, cutting blades, mixers, and so on, thus causing accidents as stated by (Kinto's, 2007).Kitchen design differs in terms of creativity potential can have implications for today's kitchen design as reported by (Ceylan, 2008).Over the past few decades, companies have changed their approaches toward workplace design, partly because of changing trends and partly because of changing needs.

Previously, hospitality industry had focused on, for example, facility costs reductions and employee efficiency (e.g., performance standardization, information technology systems), employee health and comfort (e.g., ergonomic kitchen design), or employee communication. Employee creativity was, at best, an indirect or implicit goal of the company's approaches for kitchen (Brougher, 2009). To this end, local health officers draw up extensive requirements for floor covering, number of toilets, foodservice equipment, lighting, fire exits, and other factors that bear on the hazards associated with restaurant operation. Requirements vary from place to place.

Work flow

Food preparation rooms should be planned to allow work flow whereby work processed through the premises the point of delivery to the point of sales or service, with the minimum obstruction. The various processes should be separated as far as possible, and food intended for sale should cross path with waste food or refuse. Staff time is valuable, and a design that reduces wasteful journeys is both efficient and cost effective.

The overall sequence of receiving, storing, preparing, holding, serving and clearing is achieved by: Minimum movement, Minimal back tracking, Maximum use of space and Maximum use of equipments with minimum expenditure of time and effort (Kinto's, 2007).

Kitchen Equipment

The type amount and size of equipments will depend on the type of menu being provided. Fitzsimmons and Fitzsimmons (2004); Alexana& et al (2012) mention that, the kitchen, as a system, should be a function for the target public, the location and service between production and sale of the product should be perfect. Any mistake occurred in this route will cause a decrease in quality of service, causing dissatisfaction to the consumer. The same authors added that to an appropriate layout, another aspect of great importance for the optimal use of a kitchen are the issues related to the size, safety management and industrial kitchen equipment, which directly interfere with the usability of these products . the Kitchens today, must be based on the rationalization of the methods of food production, reduction of operating costs, quality control of the final product, reducing of production and expansion of areas for the client, conservation, transportation and safe storage.

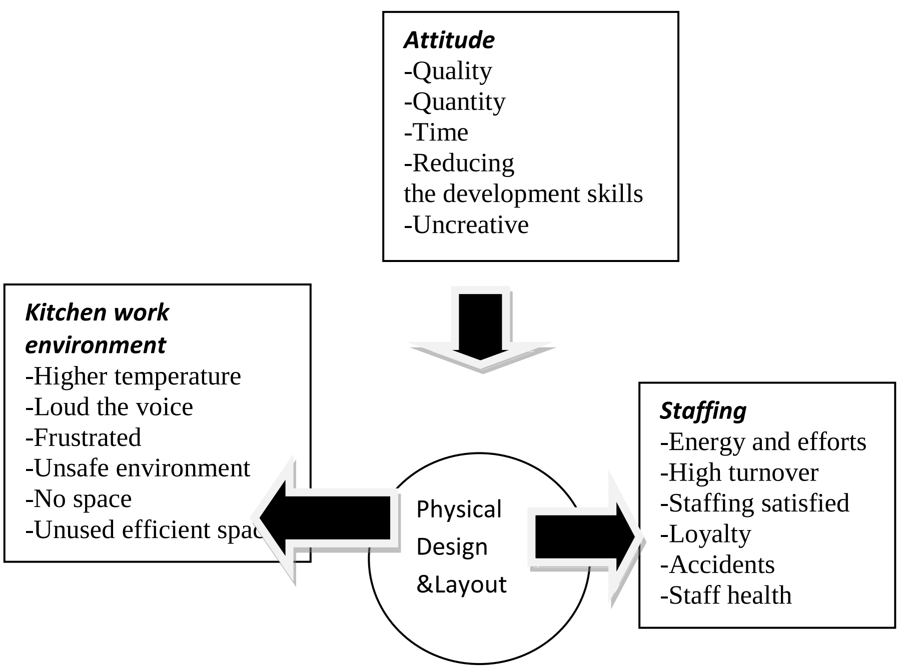
Stove/oven

The most prominent piece of equipment in the full service kitchen is the traditional range, the combination stove, fired by gas or electricity. The kitchen is often planned around the stove/ oven. With the availability of convection ovens, steam –jacketed kettles, and 5 tilting skillets, some kitchen planners deliberately eliminate the range, regarding it as cumbersome and inefficient. Newer equipment that transfers heat more efficiently than the old space-consuming range is preferred (Kinton R. , 1994).

Employee impressions

Employees share certain design perspectives with the guests. But in addition to being a consequence of design impact variables, employee satisfaction with the building is also affected positively by the sensory aspects of the building's performance (light, air quality, acoustics, and temperatures) and the employees' comparison of their own properties with other hotels they have visited. Similar to the guests, the employees' impact dimensions correlate positively with market shares for both (Marie & et al, 2008).

Diagram:1 Impact the design and layout on staffing, workplace and Attitude



Methodology

Sample

The field study was conducted in four and three stars hotel kitchens and unclassified hotel located in Arusha City. Research sample applied the evaluation for 15 hotels in Arusha City from a total number of 90 questionnaires, 84 staff provided the answer, including: chefs, cooks and kitchen cleaners.

Data collection instrument

Data were obtained through structured Questionnaires to kitchen staffs (Executive chef, Sous Chefs, and cooks.

Statistical analysis

The analysis was made from statistical tests of correlation. The following Statistical analysis was conducted:

Percentages, frequency tables and bar charts were used in analyzing kitchen staff questionnaires by using **SPSS**.

Hypotheses

1. There is no significant consideration on how proper hotel kitchen design is practicing in Arusha City.

2. Good hotel kitchen design is significant influence the good performance of the kitchen staff in Arusha City.

Results

The purpose of the study to check the physical layout(Workflow, kitchen environment, kitchen equipment, kitchen temperature, noise, light and air ventilation) of the designed kitchen in Arusha City hotels as a way of enhancing safety, Comfort ability of the working area, faster of the food service delivery and as a results improving Kitchen staff performance.

Work flow of the kitchen

The results showed that 44.50% of the respondents about Work flow of the kitchen in hotels has poor environment compared to the other degree of acceptance scale of very good, good, and acceptance and poor as the figure. 1 below shows

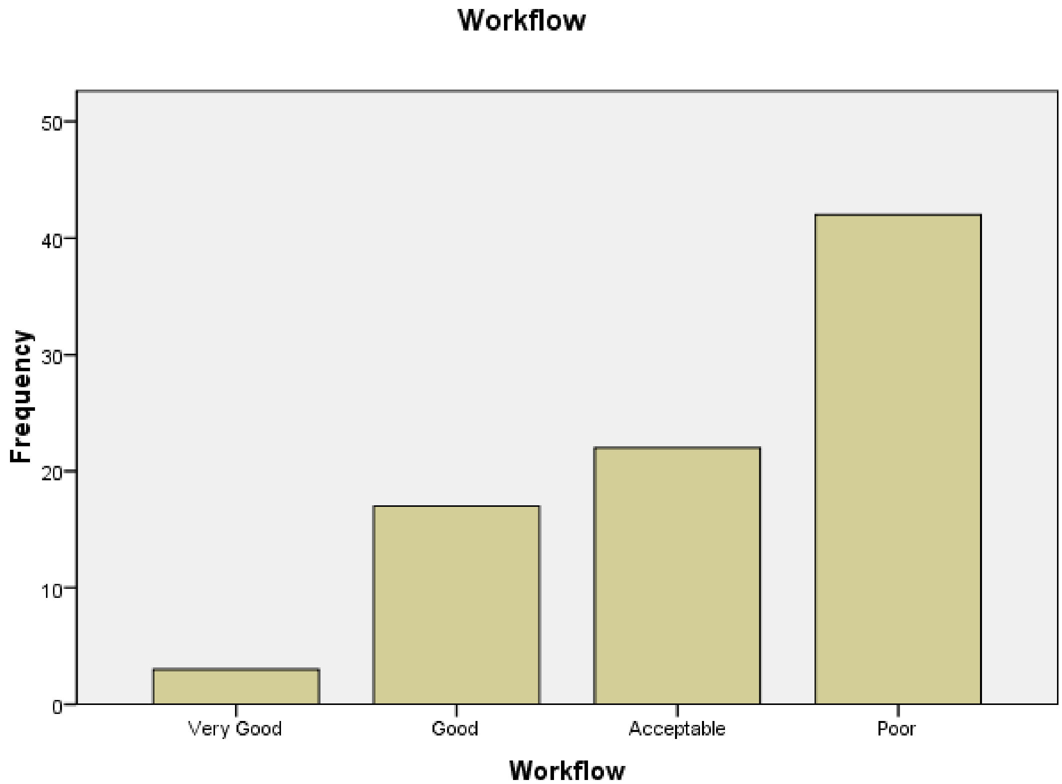
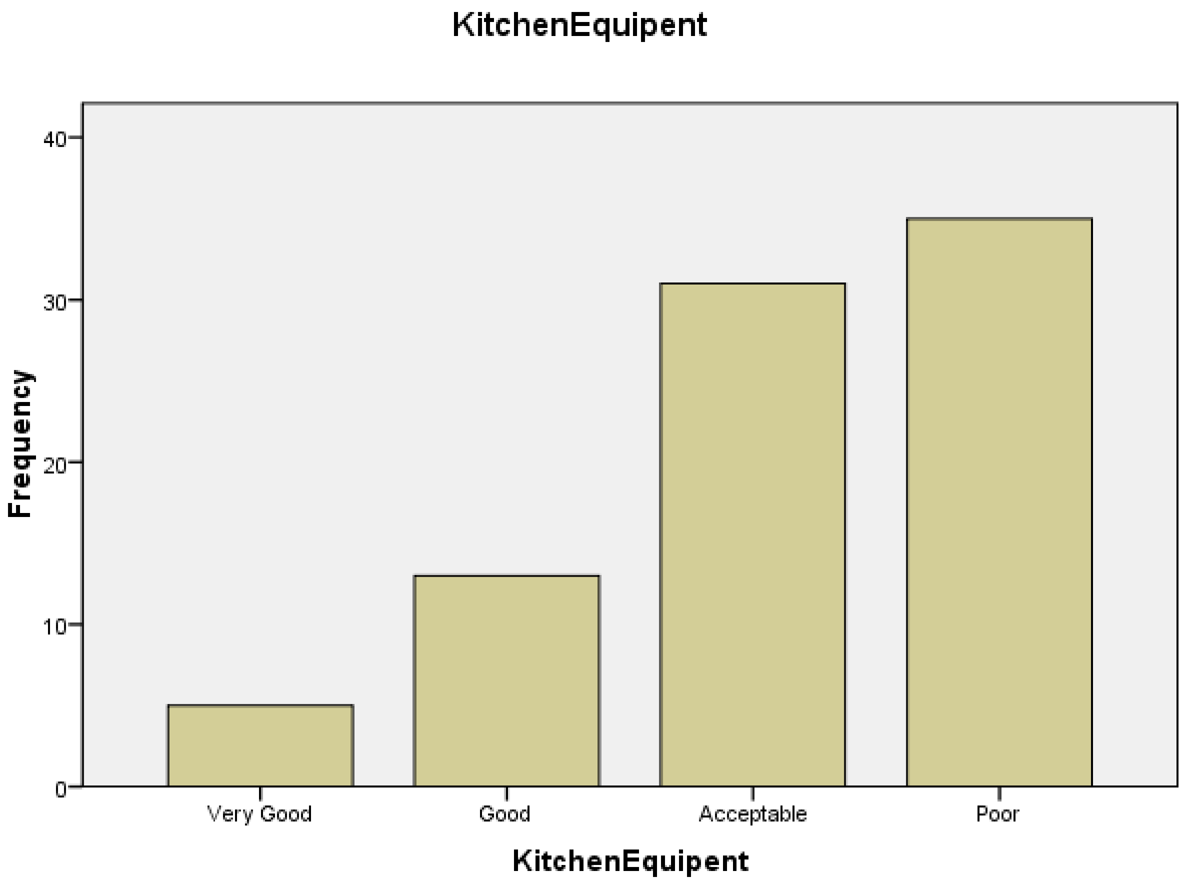


Figure. 1

Kitchen equipment

41.70% of the respondent shows that kitchen equipment is poor, means many hotels does not have standardized equipment such as salad preparations, portioning ingredients; heating devices in the sections as a results poor and acceptable degrees of acceptance are competing by 41.70% and 36.90% respectively this shows how kitchen does not have standard equipment as the figure. 2 below shows

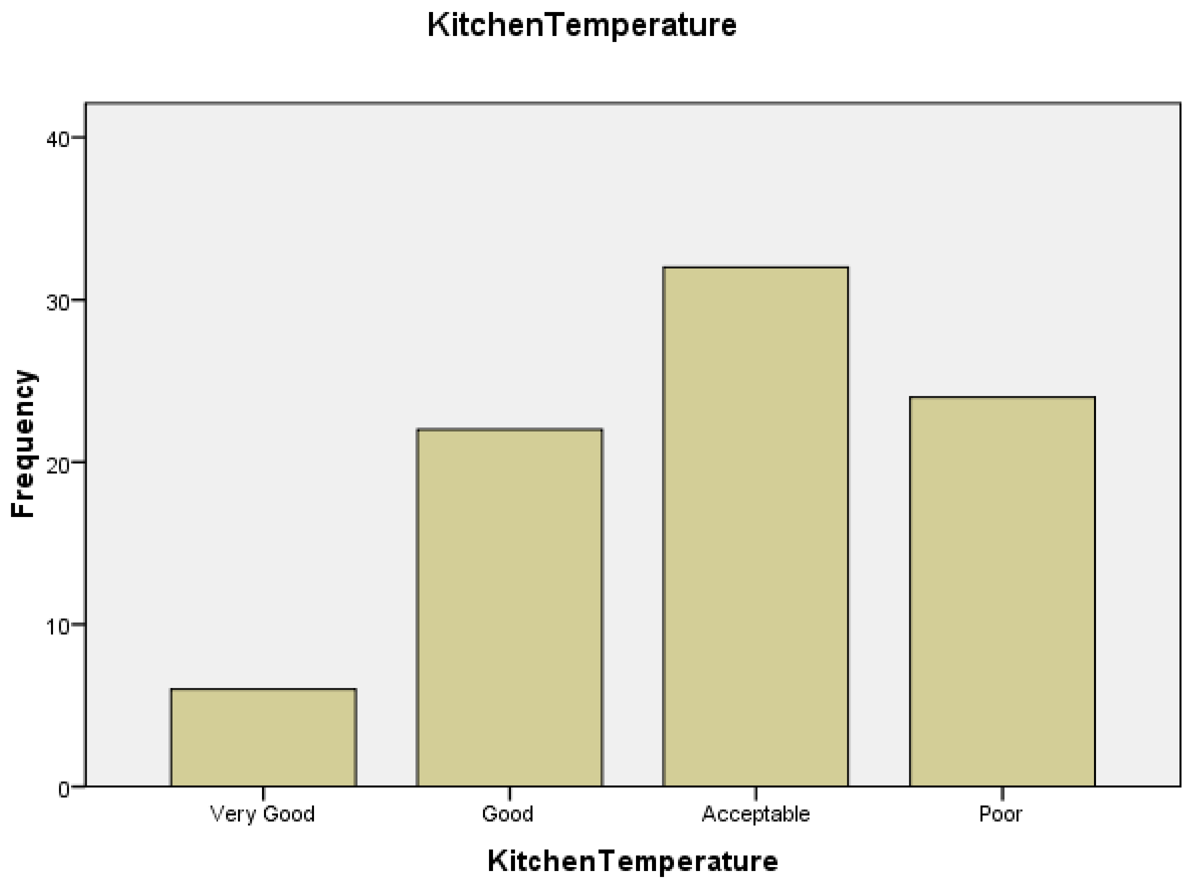
Figure. 2



Kitchen Temperature

38.10% of the respondent showed that Temperature of the kitchen in most hotels has an acceptable conditions and is near to the scale of good (26.20%), and poor(28.60%) as the figure. 3 below shows

Figure. 3



Kitchen Air ventilation

Kitchen Air ventilations result showed that 38.10% of the respondents air ventilation is acceptable for human being to be a kitchen but also is nearby to poor(35.70%) table 1 below shows.

Table: 1

Kitchen Air Ventilation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Very Good	7	8.3	8.3	8.3
	Good	15	17.9	17.9	26.2
	Acceptable	32	38.1	38.1	64.3
	Poor	30	35.7	35.7	100.0
	Total	84	100.0	100.0	

Safety on working area

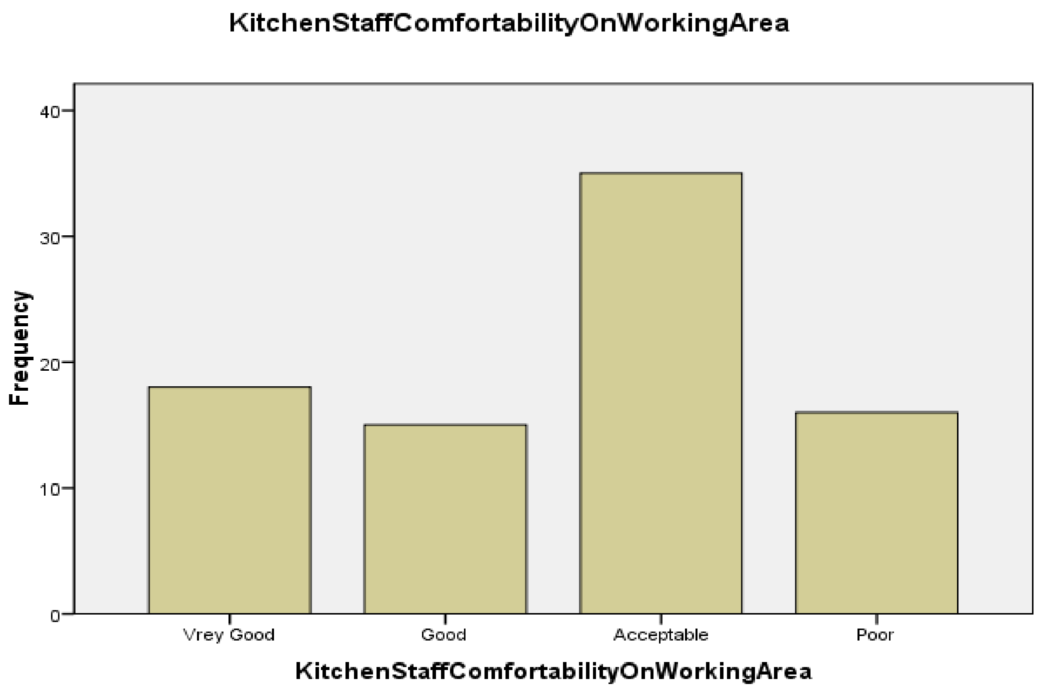
Also 38.10% of the respondents showed that safety of the working area in the kitchen is acceptable which enable them to perform their work securely with highly attention of being injured because of the poor level is about 31% as figure 5 shows bellow.

Figure 5

Kitchen staff Comfort ability on working area

Regardless of the poor level of acceptance degree of the Kitchen environment, workflow, still Kitchen staff had acceptable level of Comfort ability in the kitchen about 41.70% of the respondents as shown figure 6 below.

Figure: 6



Kitchen Staff performance

Kitchen staff performance showed that only 3.60% is poor and 1.20% is very poor, the rest 95.2% is performance seems to be very good, good and acceptable although there are some obstacles of doing work as shown in figure 6 below.

Figure: 6

Discussion of the study

Finding analysis

The study which purposely needed to check if there is no significant consideration of how proper hotel kitchens design in Hotels is practicing in Arusha City, the answer is no there is a considerations because the study found that only 40.50% of all respondents showed that hotel kitchen design are poor designed with respect to hotel kitchen standards, as a results the rest 59.50% are designed but to different levels of acceptance in the workflow, working sections), kitchen temperature, air ventilation and noise and light, and kitchen equipment.

Not only that but also the study found that good hotel kitchen design is significant influence the good performance of the kitchen staff in Arusha City, the answer is not influencing the performance because only 4.80% of the respondents shown that hotel kitchen staff have poor and very poor performance and the rest 95.20% performance were acceptable, good and very good. Hence there is a need for researchers to continue searching to know the reasons of what increase or motivate hotel kitchen staff performance.

Conclusions of the study

Most kitchen of Arusha City hotels are not suitable to the minimum requirements of the hotel kitchen design as results kitchen staff use more time and energy during food preparations and delivering to the client.

There is highly need of:-

Government to prepare policy and manage it, for hotel kitchen design which will improve safety, Comfort ability, efficiency and performance of the kitchen staff.

Investors should reconsider the importance of external and internal design the hotel kitchen. They have to take into account that the design of the place should be reconsidered from the moment of thinking in the menus to be prepared in such a place such as (pizza – various menus-barbecues etc). As each type of those items have different requirements in design, arrangement of appliances and equipment to produce the foods and beverages according to the required level of performance and quality. Paying attention to the creative aspects of workers and qualifying the work environment to achieve the above mentioned satisfaction of workers, belonging to the work place, security for workers and reduce the risks of kitchens.

The study recommended to held vocational training workshops within the work environment to try to cope with the current work environment if they have any problems with the coordination of action to address the weaknesses in the case of his presence Vocational training (VT) is a platform that provides technical training to develop skilled workers. The developing skilled workers that will be part of the human capital development and hence similar environmental work conditions are provided (Bidina2012).

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Sub Theme: Meeting, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibition

ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE SERVICES IN TOURISM GROWTH IN NORTHERN TANZANIA

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the roles of conference services in tourism growth in the northern tourism circuit of Tanzania. In this paper descriptive research design was used to collect data from six natural tourist attractions, three five star hotels, and one conference center found in the northern tourism circuit of Tanzania. 48 employees in the study areas who were purposively selected were administered with a structured questionnaire. Interviews with top managers of the mentioned institutions were conducted to complement the responds from employees. Data were analyzed descriptively where results were summarized in frequency tables and charts. The results showed that 88% of the respondents said that when conference delegates finish up their meetings, they opt to go for tour in the attractions found in this area while only 12% of the respondents said that most delegates prefer to go around Arusha city after their meetings. With this findings, we can conclude that, many delegates when coming for conferences in this area, would also like to go visit the attractions, This suggests that there is a need for further conference marketing in order to have more tourists coming to visit the attractions found in the northern tourism circuit of Tanzania.

KEY WORDS; Conference services, Tourism growth

Introduction

The conference service industry is one of tourism industry's leading revenue generators for many destinations worldwide. According to International Conference and Convention Association, (ICCA) report, 2017, USA is the leading country worldwide in conference and convention, followed by Germany, UK and Spain. In African continent, South Africa is leading, followed by Rwanda, Egypt, Ethiopia, and Kenya, Tanzania is ranked 89th worldwide and 8th within Africa. This conference considered here are world and regional organized international conferences. City wise, Barcelona leads as a world's most hosted city, followed by Paris and Vienna, Dar es Salaam is ranked 358 worldwide and in Africa, Cape Town leads, followed by Johanesburg Kigali, Marrakesh and then Cairo and Dar es Salaam is ranked 15th. In Tanzania, Arusha International Conference Center, Julius Nyerere International Convention Center, Dar es salaam Hyatt hotel and Serena Dar es salaam hotel, Arusha Ngurdoto Moutain Lodge, Mt. Meru Hotel, and Four Points by Sheraton hotel have been and still are the strong forces behind development of conference tourism, coming out as the main host venues for most of the international events / conferences coming to Tanzania. However, the development, marketing and promotion of conference services as an aid to tourism product in Tanzania have been disparate. This has been primarily due to the fact that each facility presents into the market a conference product with little regard of the complimenting tourism activities. This has been entrenched further, by the lack of targeted efforts by the Tanzania Tourist Board on this sub-sector to co-ordinate the marketing and promotion of conference services to compliment tourism in Tanzania.

Most of the TTB's efforts have been on high value holiday travelers neglecting the all-important meetings, incentive travel, conference and events/ exhibitions (M.I.C.E). The M.I.C.E segment is arguably the fastest growing global segment of the tourism market, growing at the rate of 8-10% per annum. (Allied Market research,2018)

Tanzania is predominantly a nature- based tourism destination with wildlife (concentrated in the northern part of the country) and beaches (along the Indian Ocean) accounting for over 85% of the international tourists visiting the country. Other attractions are based on the physical landscape of the country and the culture of the people. However, the emergence and constant growth of MICE travelers on the demand-side have shifted the perceptions on tourism marketing globally.

Conference service is fundamentally different from business tourism as it demands specialty infrastructure, marketing and support services from the conventional business tourism product. On the macro-perspective, conference service contributes a lot to the renewal, maintenance and (or) development of vital support services. Regardless of the type and size, the different aspects of conference services involve, require and develop a number of support services either directly or indirectly and thus have an instant impact and (or) multiplier effect

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

General objective of the study is to assess the role of international conference service in the growth of tourism in Tanzania.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

To assess how international conference services, contribute to the growth of tourism in Tanzania

To find ways to integrate international conference services to wildlife tourism and other tourism activities obtained in Tanzania.

To aid tourism marketing policy of the government.

LITERATURE REVIEW

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Conference

A conference can be defined as a formal meeting in which many people gather in order to talk (or "confer") about ideas or problems related to a particular topic such as (business or medicine) usually for several days (Merriam, 2000). is a participatory meeting designed for discussion, fact finding, problem solving and consultation. No tradition, continuity or periodicity is required to convene a conference. Although not generally limited in time, conferences are usually of short duration with specific objectives. Conferences are generally on a smaller scale than congresses (Pivac et al., 2016).

An event used by any organization to meet and exchange views, convey a message, open a debate or give publicity to some area of opinion on a specific issue and it lasts up to 3 days (Štetiš, 2011).

Conference Services

Conference services include all direct and indirect support services of the conference. Reference?

Direct Service includes stationery, catering, accommodation, electronic /electric equipment, venue staff and transport and communication.

Indirect service include tourists attractions, local areas, local community and entertainment

PERFOMANCE OF THE CONFERENCE AND CONVENTION TOURISM GLOBALLY

According to ICCA statistics report, 2018, demonstrate that, between 1963 and 2013, the number of international association meetings doubled every 10 years, and according to the convention industry council's 2016, Economic impact study, the meetings, conventions, exhibitions and incentive travel industry in the United states alone generated $ 325 billion in total direct spending, making it the 23th largest contributor to the gross national product

There has been 60% increase in the world's total number of association meetings series taking place regularly and which rotate between different countries (ICCA 2007). Subsequently, this has accelerated change and economic growth and more importantly the product development to embrace changing needs. The MICE sub-sector is one of the fastest growing sub-sectors within the tourism industry, which has embraced the state-of-the art technologies, contemporary marketing concepts as it is driven by tech-savvy and fast moving demand, which requires a matching supply.

Europe, North America and Asia take the lead in all the continents with the Europe having the largest market share and have remained stable over the last decade. Asia has the second largest market share with more than 18% of all meetings that take place.

Number of international Associations meetings per region (source ICCA statistic 2018)

Region	**2018 Relatives**
Europe	**52%**
Asia Pacific	**23%**
North America	**11%**
Latin America	**9%**
Africa	**2.5%**
Middle East	**1%**
Total	**95.5%**

More than three quarters of the meetings taking place in Africa have a worldwide rotation area. South Africa has been very popular in organizing meetings in Africa, followed by Egypt, Tunisia and Morocco. Tanzania takes the 8th position. Cape Town has always taken the lead in organizing international meetings in the past years. The ICC and Sand to in South Africa compete regionally and globally. Their settings can be formal or informal according to the needs and wants of the clients (Victoria Safaris, 2007).

South Africa is greatly affected by the meetings and events industry, which has a tremendously powerful impact on the country's economy. Whilst leisure is an important component, operators are developing a more diverse offering, driven by business tourism and conferencing. According to the South African National Convention Bureau, South Africa hosts about one million delegates at business events every year, supporting over 250,000 jobs directly and indirectly in this sub-sector alone. It is apparent that more and more corporate are investing in events business, whether it is a business meeting, trade exhibition, gala dinner, an incentive drive or a conference.

Tanzania's International conference growth within the business of tourism sector has been driven by growing international recognition of a tourism industry second to none in terms of diversity and quality of experiences. According to experts, Tanzania is emerging as an African leader in the rapidly growing meetings, conferences and events industry, Despite the facts that Tanzania is endowed with diversity of natural attractions, so little efforts have been made to encourage International conference that would complement the tourism sector.

The Tanzania tourism policy revised in 2017, does not speak much on how to develop conference tourism in the country, however, through the Tanzania’s Tourist Board (TTB) the country is in the process of diversifying its tourism potentials, targeting to bank heavily in business travel, conferences and exhibitions in its efforts to reach 2020 targets of attracting 2 million tourists. International conference is taking place in the cities of Arusha, or Geneva of Africa, Dar es Salaam, and very little in Zanzibar. The International conference would have done even better than now, due to existence of the tourist attractions in the country, and still there is a great room for improvement

THE ROLE OF INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE SERVICES IN THE GROWTH OF TOURISM

International Conference service has a significant growth potential and its major economic impacts of the sector are its contribution to the increasing number of tourists, hence leading to employment and income, direct influence of infrastructure development to support the market, facilitation of technological transfer, education and training (Dwyer and Forsyth, 1997; Dwyer, Mellor, et al., 2000)

International Conference service helps as well as improving the image of the destination (Oppermann & Chon, 1997)

Realizing the potential growth of the conference sector, the government of Tanzania is reviewing the tourism strategy and introduce conference tourism as one of the standalone product alongside other main tourism products with the aim of broadening the tourism product base which would lead to increased tourism revenue, generate more employment and stimulate the growth of other services and infrastructure (TTB 2018).

Boosting the tourism sector of a country

International conference facilities, according to ICCA 2018, will boost tourism sector of the country since it will increase conference tourism business in the country, as the conference delegates will have to visit the fast and diversity attractions available in the country

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE FACILITIES IN TANZANIA

The need for hospitality facilities in the conference industry is crucial. This necessitates accommodation arrangements for not only night-resting but also for secluded recess for conference participants and guest speakers during the day. This translates into increased demand for accommodation and meals, which necessitate an increase, supply of the raw materials required to produce these especially the meals. (Odunga et al, 2009) In Tanzania, conference facilities exist in large cities. They include hotels, lodges and conference centers.

City such as Dar es Salaam and Arusha have large Conference centers, the Julius Nyerere International conference center in Dar es Salaam, and The Arusha International Conference center (AICC) which can accommodate from 25 seating participants to 1,350 located in Arusha City. Hotels and lodges existing may not accommodate more than 300 hundred seating participants at once each.

THE NEED FOR GOOD CONFERENCE SERVICES

The international conference service field, by definition, is a service industry. Its task is to create shareholder wealth by servicing and satisfying guests. Industry segments include, among others: conference halls, hotels, restaurants, private clubs, managed food service, event planning, tourism related businesses, and travel providers. More often than not, the product purchased is either intangible or the perceived quality of the product purchased is impacted by the service quality and methods in which it was received.

Langhorn (2004) noted that in hospitality, quality service and good experience is the determinant of the value for money. It encourages customers' loyalty numerous examples illustrate that it is important that the international conference services develop customer loyalty, as opposed to relying solely on pricing strategies

Role of international conference services in building tourism image of Tanzania

As Keller (1993), said that building image of destination is strategically, a marketing management must be done to create brand and market the image of the country because precisely, it is the image that the consumer will be affected to choose. So far the image of the country internationally is the best among regional countries.

THEORETICAL LITERATURE REVIEW

Dependency theory

Dependency theory is a sociological theory which holds that economic events in history have encouraged developing countries to depend upon the support of more advanced nations. This theory originates from Hans Singer, 1949. It is a theory that applies to development of conference tourism which depends much on outside world or more developed countries in its growth. The attractions, the crafts, cultural arts and all tourism products are purchased mostly by foreigners. The delegates coming for conference will purchase souvenirs, which will increase the economic of the residents, leading to tourism economy growth in the area henceforth, tourism is a dependent factor in its growth. This theory therefore informs the study.

Modernization theory

Modernization refers to a model of a progressive transition from a 'pre-modern' or 'traditional' to a 'modern' society. Modernization theory originated from the ideas of German sociologist Max Weber (1864–1920), which provided the basis for the modernization paradigm developed by Harvard sociologist Talcott Parsons (1902–1979). The theory looks at the internal factors of a country while assuming that with assistance, "traditional" countries can be brought to development in the same manner more developed countries have been. This theory is related to conference tourism development in a sense that, modern facilities in the conference halls, hotels services, infrastructure and superstructure are aspects to attract more conferences and meetings in a certain area.

Globalization theory

Globalization is the process of interaction and integration among people, companies, and governments worldwide. **Globalization** has grown due to advances in transportation and communication technology. With the increased global interactions comes the growth of international trade, ideas, and culture a **theory** that uses a global mechanism of greater integration with particular emphasis on the sphere of economic transactions. This theory was established by Roland Robertson 1992. This theory has been catalyzed by the ICT revolution, making the world a village. It has enabled more interactions of people of different cultures, interactions of ideas and technologies. It applies to conference tourism since people of different countries and culture meets to discuss ideas, to solve problems and share innovations.

Social Exchange Theory

Gursoy et al 2002. explain social exchange theory as "a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals and groups in an interaction situation". According to this paradigm in a society people always seek and follow something valuable. It means that the perceived value of the outcome is one of the main dimensions for determining the residents' perception toward tourism.

Andereck et al. (2005) explains that "stakeholders' attitudes toward and support for tourism in their community will be influenced by their evaluations of the actual and perceived outcomes tourism has in their community". In other words, cost and benefits determined qualities of an action in a social interaction, because people evaluate a specific situation and after that decided based on their perceptions. From a tourism standpoint, social exchange means that if perception of local community is based on benefit from an exchange they evaluate it positively, and therefore they help to promote and develop tourism; conversely if their perception is based on costs, their evaluation is negative. Accordingly, residents who have personal benefit or dependency on the industry tend to have more positive perception of impacts. Explain how this theory informs the study.

CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

Customer satisfaction is a measure of how products and services supplied by a company meet or surpass *customer* expectation. Customer satisfaction is a part of customer loyalty and repeat customers. Also it is the indication for value for money. If the conference delegates receive a good customer service, they will always recommend and even come back as loyal customer. It creates a good image of destination too. This is important because, with the aspects of globalization, it is easy to have customers from every part of the world, through recommendations from a satisfied customer.

Modern facilities also play a big role to increase international conference services quality. The clients will always appreciate up to dates facilities which can increase efficiency or can make a comfortable life. Modern conference facilities, modern hospitality facilities and in general modern facilities in all tourism aspects will always attract customers, make them loyal, increase turnover and enhance growth. Tourism large market share will always be reached, and increase social engagement and high revenues from tourism will be harnessed Tourism activities is another factor that may add values to the international conference services. This is because; the delegates will

have time to visit the attractions, hence increasing the number of tourists. The theories of social exchange, modernization and globalization will apply here in good and modern facilities, good customer care, and destination image creation.

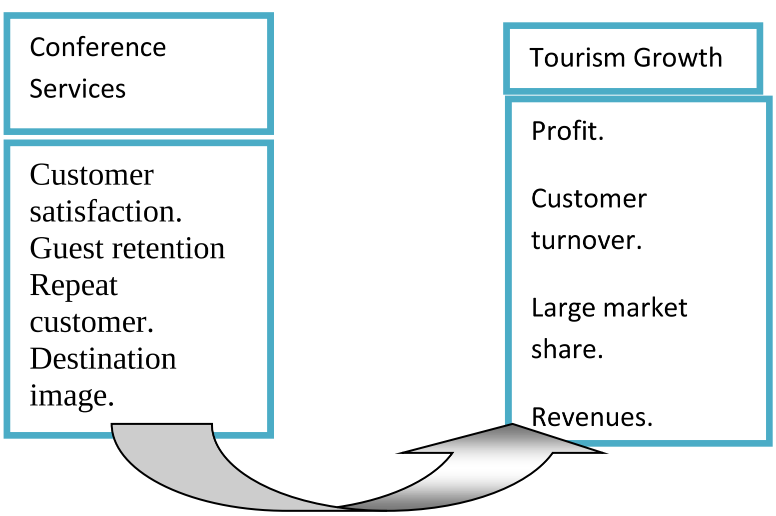

Fig. 3. Role of international Conference services in tourism growth, researcher's creation.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in the Tanzania Tourism Northern circuit which include regions of Arusha,Kilimanjaro and Manyara because it is the womb of tourism in Tanzania as most of tourist attractions are found in this circuit. Attractions found in these regions include famous Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (NCAA), Serengeti, Tarangire , Lake Manyara Arusha and Mkomazi National Parks and the highest mountain in Africa, the Kilimanjaro mountain.

Fig.2 THE NORTHERN TANZANIA TOURISM CIRCUIT,

(adopted from Siyabona Safari l.t.d)

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study used descriptive research design whereby both qualitative and quantitative data collected. Descriptive studies are usually the best research design for collection information that demonstrate relationships and describe the world as it exists. A descriptive study is one that provides descriptions of phenomena or characteristics associated with the research population, giving an estimate of the population that have certain defined characteristics while also making discoveries on the associations among different variables

(Cooper and Schindler, 2003) The researcher used descriptive research design so as to accommodate both quantitative and qualitative data

POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The researcher obtained the information from Three five stars hotels with conference facilities which included Mount Meru Hotel, Arusha Four Points hotel, and Gran Melia hotel, and the Arusha International Conference Center (AICC),six natural attractions which included National Parks of Arusha, Lake Manyara, Tarangire, Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority, Serengeti National Park and Kilimanjaro National Park.

SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Purposive sampling procedures was used to select samples.This is a non probability sampling method characterized by a deliberate effort to gain representative samples by including groups or typical areas in a sample. The research used this method to select respondents from one International Conference Center and selected three five stars hotels which offer international Conference services and a selected six tourist attractions found in the northern tourism circuit of Tanzania and officials from Tanzania Tourist Board. The researchers selected key leaders and staff to respond to the questions. The reason for applying this procedures is because only institutions with international conference facilities and few tourism attractions were eligible to respond. So this procedure was important to be used to get the needed information from these specific institutions.

SAMPLE SIZE

The sample size of 35 respondents was obtained as follows, (3) three managers , (3) marketing officers and (3) conference managers and three (3) public relations officers from the three five stars hotels, namely Mt. Meru Hotel, Gran Melia , and Four Points Arusha Hotel, (6) six park wardens, (6) six Tourism officers and six (6) public relations officers of six National Parks of Lake Manyara , Arusha , Tarangire , Serengeti, Kilimanjaro and the Ngorngoro Conservation Area Authority. (1) one director , (1) marketing and conference officer and (1) Public relations of the Arusha International Conference Center. (1) one manager, one (1) zonal tourism coordinator of Tanzania Tourist Board, making a total of 35 respondents.

DATA COLLECTION METHODS

QUESTIONNAIRES

In this study both open ended and closed ended questions questionnaires were used. The researchers asked the respondents questions related to the role of international conference services in the growth of tourism. Questionnaires were distributed to the respondents, according to the functions of their institutions and their titles in that particular institution nature and geography of the areas where many respondents were obtained. The researchers also used liaison office of Tanzania Tourist Board, obtained in Arusha.

INTERVIEW

Interview was used to top leaders of the institutions, i.e the managers and park wardens. The aim was to obtain detailed information concerning the role of international conferences on tourism growth in Tanzania.

DOCUMENTARY REVIEWS

The documents were obtained from Tanzania Tourist Board (T.T.B), Tanzania Tourism Report and also from Tourism Institutions like TANAPA and NCAA. These documents helped the researcher to formulate a good platform for discussing the results in relation to what others have found in the area of good international conference service delivery in hotels and conference halls. A variety of journal articles, relevant websites, books and presentations were reviewed. The researchers used this type of data collection tool because it consumes less time and money.

Data Analysis, Interpretation and Presentation

The researchers analyzed data both qualitatively and quantitatively. Data was presented by using frequency tables, charts and percentage so as to simplify interpretation of the findings. For qualitative information collected, the information was presented in form of contents analysis. For quantitative information collected, the researcher used and run SPSS and present result through statistical descriptions, graphs and interpret them in relation to the topic, the role of international conference service in the growth of tourism in Tanzania

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

88% of the respondents agreed that good services and modern facilities is vital to attract more meetings and conference in the country. They also agreed that most of the conference delegates opt to go for tour in the attractions found in the area, after the conference, while 12% respondents said that most delegates prefer to go around the city for shopping and have fun in different entertainments areas. Modern facilities also are another factor for international conference tourism growth in the area.

It became evident through this study that , international conference services contributes a lot to the growth of the tourism. Good services and facilities were the reoccuring themes in literature and interviews as well. With the rapid development of the M.I.C.E traveler markets globally, the development of facilities, good services, marketing and promotion of conference tourism in Tanzania needs to be equally enhanced to bridge competition from emerging destinations. Best conference facilities and services, good hospitality services all may make a bridge between marketing and promotion and tourism growth.

Aspects that differed in this study from previous research were that it is not only marketing and branding of international conference that matters, but also good facilities and good services complemented by after conference activities. After conference activities include visiting attractions available in the area of conference. In Tanzania there is availability of wildlife tourism and other tourism attractions such as cultural tourism and beautiful scenery which may become vital to the conference tourism growth. The after conference activities provide good experience to the delegates, leading to the creation of good image of the country. Furthermore, with the availability of peace and tranquility in the country it could be an added advantage in the conference tourism growth.

The study has revealed that, international conference services is not in favor of the tourism private sector in Tanzania, it is regarded as government’s responsibility, and that private tourism sector deals with holiday tourism only. Tourism sector in Tanzania in large part is operated by private companies. These companies promote and market tourism in favor of their interests, therefore It is time now for the government to market Tanzania as a conference tourism destination, as a complement to holiday tourism. To forge conference tourism operator companies, which will promote conference tourism accommodation, conventions and meetings.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of the study was to assess the role of international conference service in the growth of tourism in Tanzania, the case of northern Tanzania Tourism circuit. To achieve maximum growth of tourism in Tanzania, services of international conference in terms of facilities and hospitality needs to be improved, and also to enhance marketing and promotions of international conference. With the rapid development of the M.I.C.E traveler markets globally, the development, marketing and promotion of conference tourism in Tanzania needs to be equally enhanced to bridge competition from emerging destinations

In order to improve regional rankings, we need to develop cohesive and symbiotic relationships with the market-side partners. Building bridges and creating professional and respectful relationships within the meetings industry and with our key meetings industry partners not only makes business sense, it makes common sense. Professional, respectful and mutually beneficial relationships are what are lacking within the Tanzania meeting industry.

Forging of such symbiotic relationships locally and internationally can grow this unique tourism sub sector by leaps and jumps. A bidding team should be established priory. Further, the establishment of a fully-fledged and government supported conventional bureau would be the best intervention in the promotion of conference tourism in Tanzania.

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