

Analysis of the Relationship Between Tourism and Community Development in Terms of Education in Arusha Region, Tanzania

Mr. Musa Gidion Mitekaro Dr. Kassim Rashid Kiliza

Scholar, Directorate of Postgraduate Studies and Research, Kampala International University

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania. The study addressed the following specific objective: to examine the relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education in Arusha Region. The study employed the mixed research method, where both quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied. The population of the study was diverse; it included 500 respondents from the community (500 calculated by Slovin's formula and 100 added at the researcher's discretion to increase the validity and reliability of the findings). There were also 36 community leaders, who were important to the study because they were democratically chosen voices of the community, and lastly there were ten top officials. Since the study employed the mixed methods paradigm, the data analysed were both quantitative and qualitative, where the quantitative data were analysed by use of descriptive data analysis/statistical techniques by the aid of SPSS software version 21. The study results revealed a statistically significant positive linear relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education. Hence, the study recommends that central government, particularly the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, should unify efforts of improving the National Tourism Policy, which will maximise the challenge of obtaining trickle-down effects for the development of local communities.

Acknowledgment

I appreciate God for His goodness, guidance and mercy, health and strength to accomplish this work. The successful completion of this work has also been possible through the support I needed and received in generous measure from a number of people and institutions. I may not be able to mention all of them, but it is very necessary to name a few.

First of all my gratitude and thanks go to Dr. Kasim Rashid Kiliza, from Kampala International University my lead supervisor: for his assistance, he provided to me, his guidance, and advice to success completion of this work. I appreciate you.

Later, the Professors and Doctors of KIU, Dar es Salam Campus, including, Dr. T. W. Babynebonela, my supporting supervisor: for his contribution which cannot go unappreciated. Dr. Edward Kamya, You gently led me to understand the concepts of SPSS, and to apply the concepts in the light of this study. To you I say thanks a lot.

Keywords: Tourism, Community Development, Education, Arusha Region, Tanzania

1.1 Background of the study

According to UNWTO (2010), "Tourism includes the activities of persons travelling to and staying in place outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes." The difference between travel and tourism is this, tourism meets the three conditions that are involving the displacement from the usual environment, secondly, the travel must be for a purpose, other than being remunerated and thirdly, the duration should not be more than one consecutive year.

On the other hand, other scholars argue that, for tourism to be socially and economically productive, it should be practiced as a community based tourism (CBT). According to TDP (2002) Community Based Tourism is a sect of tourism that involves the local communities in the major issues relating to tourism in order to benefit the indigenous community members in promoting community development within their localities. Tourism is a dynamic and exchange process that involves both direct and reciprocal relationship between users and producers of the tourism product and interaction is the unique feature of tourism experience (Brida, G.J., Osti, L. and Faccioli, M., 2011). In the recent era, dramatic shift from manufacturing economic activities to service economic activities is noticeable. The service sector has remarkably grown globally whereby tourism has been experiencing tremendous changes making it to become the biggest element of the economies of the countries concerned. This remarkable growth directly contributes to local community development through the creation of new opportunities, challenges and realities (Yasin et al., 2011).

According to World Tourism Organization (1996), cited in Bauer (1996) points out that, the global fastest growing industry is tourism in both industrialized and non industrialized countries which were previously seen as disadvantageous are now becoming the hubs for both natural and cultural tourism. Therefore, community development within these countries depends much on tourism sector due to its speedy growth that is crosscutting

worldwide. For instance, the report by UNWTO (2014) cited in Singh, Dash and Vashko (2016) points out that, the International Tourism Market forecasts the international arrivals to increase about 1.6 billion in 2020.

Local communities have been a focus in social development because they are the main target of developing countries' socio-economic development. According to Godfrey and Clarke (2006), local communities form a basic element to modern tourism, as they are "the focal point for the supply of accommodation, catering, information, transport facilities and services. Their local natural environment, building institutions, their people, culture and history, all form core elements of what the tourists come to see; whether as towns, villages or cities, every community has tourism at one level or the other and are affected by the growth and development of the industry".

The study focused on Arusha Region, and Arusha was selected as a case study to enable the researcher collect data whose findings were generated for benefit of the entire country. That was done as assumption that the government executes equality in distribution of justice when allocating resources and services to all regions. Arusha Region being one of the leading tourist attractions in Tanzania with the famous Ngorongoro Crater, Olduvai Gorge historical site, Arusha national park, Mount Meru, and Manyara National Park, have the highest generation of revenue from the tourism sector. Moreover, there are game reserves amounting 13,663.7 square kilometers of the region. In such areas human settlements are prohibited, however tourist hunting and photographic safaris as well as training activities are undertaken. In addition, there is 40,738 square kilometers of game controlled areas. In these areas, tourist hunting is done and the local people have legal access to use wildlife under supervision of the government (URT 2016).

1.2 Statement of the problem

Although government ministries and other government departments in Kenya have been re-organized with a view to attaining agile, anticipatory, problem-solving bodies which can deliver value to the public, the factors contributing to such value and their sustenance have not been investigated. While studies done in other countries indicate a relationship between employees' proactiveness in government organizations and quality service delivery to the public (Morris & Kuratko, 2002; Windrum, 2008; Kreiser *et al.* 2002) there is little research to this effect in Kenya. The aim of this study therefore, was to explore and examine how employees' proactiveness of employees of government ministries of Kenya may influence delivery of perceived service quality to the public that they are intended to serve.

1.3 Objective of the study:

The objective of this study was to examine the relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania

1.4 Hypotheses

There is no relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania

2.1 Theoretical Review

2.1.2 Community-Based Tourism (CBT) Theory

Community based tourism is intended to benefit the entire community. Community based tourism was pioneered by Murphy (1985) termed as Murphy tourism. It emphasizes on community involvement in developing the tourism, however the management and control of tourism shows evidence that, CBT has not been achieved effectively. Hence it is a tourism sub-sector that, tries to involve all the members of the community in various decisions and issues relating to the sector. It involves interactions between the tourists and the local community that acts as the host applicable in both rural and regional areas (Marko and Jelena, 2014). Hamzah (2009) cited in Marko and Jelena (2014) states the following features for CBT that are; it aims to benefit the local communities, especially rural communities, indigenous or residents in small towns; it contributes to the well-being of the involved hosts, their culture and environment; tourists are hosted locally, Tourism scheme is managed locally, and finally the planning and decisions related to future prospect of the tourism involves the local community.

In both government and academia, it is broadly believed that, tourism is an effective driver of both social and economic development (Sharpley and Telfer, 2015). According to OECD (2016), Tourism tourist hubs benefit through creation of employment via (tour guide and travel retail) and local economic development as well as improving the wellbeing of the residents. However, social scientist criticizes the contribution of tourism due to the fact that, most of the players in the game are big corporations (Scheyvens, 2013). For example from the long time, Lea (1988) asserts that, there are global large companies just are operating worldwide using subsidiaries and this creates imbalance between first and third world countries as a result of leakage.

Tourism leakage refers to the estimation of the amount which is left in the local economy as a result of tourism. A number of scholars argue that, the number of economic benefits that are left with the local economy

and their impact on poverty alleviation has no enough literature (Blake et al. 2008). According to Choudhury and Goswami, (2013) tourism leakage refers to the difference between income generated from tourism and the actual amount that is left in the economy, which means total tourism earnings minus remaining amount in the local economy which is often in the hands of the giant firms.

Indeed leakage can be viewed in two different eyes that are international leakage which refers to the amount that is left in international borders by tourists which includes spending on airfare and travel agents.

Despite the fact, that, the literature point out multiple economic benefits from tourism, investigation show that, most of these benefits are unachievable (Hundt, 2006). This is so due to the fact that, most of the revenue generated from tourism is expatriated (leakage), and indeed it is believed that, most of the tourist companies that operate in developing countries are owned by developed countries. Besides, many hotels, restaurants, resorts, tour operators, car rentals, airlines, etc that are used by western tourists are operated by westerners. Moreover, to worsen the situations additional leakage of revenue is experienced as a result of expatriate workers, foreign infrastructure constructions crews, imports of food and beverage and loan interests (Hundt, 2006). Hence, the host countries don't benefit, instead the transnational corporations and the first world countries.

All the same, the job opportunities to the locals is debatable. The issue that arises is the type of jobs made to the natives, and even those who get to be employed might earn than working in other industries, however they may also be vulnerable to poor wages. For example in Carebbean, the 30% of jobs in tourism industry is composed by foreigners, however, 43% of the salaries is payable to foreigners (Hundt, 2006). This shows that, although the natives are 70% of the working population in the sector, they receive only, 57% of the total salaries and wages paid to the employees of the sector.

The question of whether the local communities within or adjacent to the tourism attraction areas are economically benefitting from the revenue generated by the tourism sector in Tanzania has been debated in various forms, including in the National Parliament.

Community based tourism model asserts that, the locals should be involved in tourism activities. A community participation approach has been emphasized as an integral for sustainable development of tourism. It is suggested that, the community involvement will reduce the negative effects that are related to tourism and increase the carrying capacity of the tourism. Participative tourism does not only mean to increase material resources, rather even the knowledge sharing and change of learning process into people's self-development (Connel, 1997). Community participation is the process of involving all stakeholders who benefits from the tourism. However, Taylor (1995) criticizes communitarians as romanticism that does not hold reality in it. In addition, participatory approach is considered as a time-consuming.

Community-based tourism (CBT) centres on the involvement of the host community in planning and maintenance of tourism development in order to develop a sustainable economic base (Hall, 1996). However, in most cases, Tourism planning is often done without host community involvement at the outset. Many tourism projects are prepared by professionals or managers without input from the host community. When these projects are made available for community input, usually not until the final stages of development, they often fail to get support as they do not meet community needs or values. In addition, many social groups within the host community often feel helpless and frustrated because they are unsure about how to get their concerns addressed at any point of the development process (Hall, 1996). Hence, their involvement is believed to bring more positive outcome.

Community-based tourism is often recognized as a perfect example of sustainable tourism development. The reason for this is mainly that local community participation in the development and practice of these projects is supposed to be high, and that the whole community benefits from the projects (Brohman, 1996; Hatton, 1999). Community development is at the heart of CBT. Most CBT projects are small-scale and they often include community owned and operated lodges and other facilities. This would provide positive economic benefits, such as income, for large parts of the community. Besides that, CBT is regarded as being less harmful to the socio-cultural environment because the local population is in control, and they decide which cultural traits they share with their guests. Finally, CBT projects would also have less negative impacts on the natural environment as compared to when locals are not involved. Community members are often best able to judge what is best for their natural surroundings. The small-scale character of CBT also means that small numbers of tourists visit at one time and therefore do not cause overcrowding of the socio-cultural and natural environment.

However, one of the issues regarding tourism is that communities are not involved; hence they have not been a part of the decision-making process in its development and also have not been beneficiaries of its social and economic benefits. Most of the tourism development projects have been designed without those communities' consent and have mostly disregarded the community's involvement and not benefited from community's immense knowledge and cooperation. Interestingly, there has been a shift in the general attitude of governments, development agencies and NGOs, and they are giving considerable emphasis to community-based tourism (CBT) as a primary development strategy to support poverty reduction, rural development, and

strengthen the social capital of the remote communities. A development model to direct the tourism planning towards communities and their interests, i.e. community-based tourism (CBT), has been planned and implemented in similar small towns and rural areas where economic activities based on primary resources have been dwindling and consequently economic hardship has been experienced. In addition, environmental concerns, subsidised agriculture, recreational needs, and sustainable development have become challenging issues in rural areas to make the social transition and diversify the economy. The EU's rural tourism policy is very firmly based on this process (Burton, 1995; Gannon, 1994).

A community participation approach has long been advocated as an integral part of sustainable tourism development. It is envisaged that the approach can increase a community's carrying capacity by reducing tourism's negative impacts while enhancing its positive effects (Haywood, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Murphy, 1985). According to Connell (1997: 250), participation is "not only about achieving the more efficient and more equitable distribution of material resources: it is also about the sharing of knowledge and the transformation of the process of learning itself in the service of people's self-development". Arnstein (1969) states that the purpose of participation is power redistribution, thereby enabling society to fairly redistribute benefits and costs. In the context of tourism planning, Haywood (1988: 106) defines community participation as "a process of involving all [stakeholders] (local government officials, local citizens, architects, developers, business people, and planners) in such way that decision-making is shared".

While CBT is very popular for sustainable tourism development, it has been both positively and negatively reviewed (Goodwin, 2011). This theory has its challenges, as some studies, for instance, find that the revenues gained from CBT are relatively small (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin, 2006) and sometimes very little revenue is granted which does not meet the communities' needs. CBT projects can also fail because of a lack of access to markets and poor governance. Other researchers have also found limitations to participation of the local community, such as lack of knowledge and resources, and that some local communities do not always operate as one group (Koch, 1997; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Timothy, 1999). While there are challenges, some of the ways forward are to train the local community how to participate in tourism planning and development, and for the government to grant more revenue for the economic development of local communities.

2.1.2 Collective Action Theory

According to Olson (1965) the founder of collective action theory and Hardin (1968), the logic of collective action theory entails three kinds of groups, which are: *Privileged groups* (members of this group would gain more from a public good than it would cost them to provide it unilaterally); *Latent groups* (any member of this group could withhold his contribution to the public good without causing a noticeable reduction in its supply); and *Intermediate groups* (if any member of this group withholds his contribution, it will cause a noticeable decrease in supply of the good, or a noticeable rise in cost to other contributors). Collective action theory has been employed in various empirical studies, for example, in Tanzania (Kyessi, 2005; Babyenebonela, 2010).

Tourism normally develops in a confined territorial area where diverse organizations shall have to congregate efforts in order to enhance its potentiality. This industry tends to be described as encompassing a large number of small independent companies free from any conglomerate. Even those who do not consider being tourist-dependent shall act in a manner that will shape its development since they are part of the socioeconomic dimension of the tourism destination image. The various perceptions of social and economic benefits linked to tourism may be influenced by the degree of "the residents' tourist education".

Resources integrated in the tourist product generally assume a dimension of common good where, due to economics rules, its use by a party reduces its availability for the others, although it is hard to exclude somebody from its consumption. In the tourism sector, these resources are transversal and used in an interdependent manner by multiple groups. Indeed, one of the main characteristics of these resources is the distribution in a varied manner of its ownership, private, state, associative and free, before and after the tourist development (Healy, 1994). This leads to a multiplicity of actors that with potentially diverse management perspectives manage great part of the constituent resources of the tourist product.

Furthermore, no single organization or individual can exert direct control over the destination's development process." (Jamal and Getz, 1995: 193). Thus, the tourism sector is made up of a multiplicity of small organisations that only contribute separately for a global good, assuming for its development the characteristics of public and social goods whose benefits could be shared by numerous actors (Saxena, 2000). This theory is relevant to the study because it appears that the local communities are neither in the privileged or latent groups but in the intermediate group. If this group chose to withhold their natural resources as well as labour, the tourism sector would come to a standstill. The dynamics of a regional tourist destination results mainly from the collective thought and the need for cooperation to create a structure between multiple partners. This led to a coherent and integrated product that became attractive to the tourist and produced a value-added to the territory. As such, these movements must be also understood as sustained policies for territorial development.

The tourism sector could be taken as a space where organisations for the defense of collective interests

abound. They generally develop their activity collecting heterogeneous resources mainly originating from their associates, whose activity materializes towards common objectives, including its members' remuneration. Here, this remuneration assumes a very ample dimension, whether it is the direct Production of goods or services for their fruition, or influencing other actors' Behaviour to their own benefit (Knoke, 1988). In the tourism sector, great part of this remuneration simultaneously implies the creation of a more appealing and coherent tourism product that in turn, will have the influence to modify the image and behaviour of the potential users of this product.

In fact, external investors may have very opposing perceptions of the shelter Community, what will imply different perceptions of norms, values and even the patterns of resources' use. It may also imply the lack of perception of the collective interest in the use of common resources, and it does not promote the efficient accomplishment of the common interest as a whole (Olson, 1965). This problem will be further compounded by the multiple shapes of ownership of tourist resources that may have in itself diverse forms of control and management, which may need to be integrated.

With the elaboration of the tourist product and the need to integrate multiple Complementary experiences with a joint value, the collective action translates into a higher cooperation level, surpassing a mere intraregional dimension. This only Integrates actors of a region, usually administratively limited. One has to assume an interregional dimension with other regions or destinations, whose characteristics are concordant and complementary with the first one. In this manner, the collective action reaches a new dimension better understood by the eyes of the tourist. It is also a more robust competitor with other destinations in as much as coherent unit with uniform values. Therefore the study contends that the local communities ought to be involved significantly in socio-economic development because of the tourism sector.

3.1 Methodology and Design

The study employed the mixed research method, where both quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied. The key advantage of the mixed approach is that it capitalises on the strength of both quantitative and qualitative methods while minimising the weaknesses as well (Creswell, 2013). The study also employed a mixed method approach and was able to get in-depth data from TANAPA leadership, community and community leaders respectively by using both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, that is to say, the survey (questionnaire), and interviews within Arusha Region. A documentary analysis was also done because data from these categories are expected to be evidence-based, where respondents will be requested to produce documents to verify their statements where possible.

Quantitatively, the study employed the correlation research design to establish if there was a significant relationship between tourism sector performance activities and community development in Arusha Region, Tanzania. Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990) argue that correlation studies are concerned with determining the relationships among two or more variables. Hence, the study intends to establish how the tourism sector is related to community development in terms of education, health, and infrastructure and per-capita income.

3.2 Target Population

Arusha Region has five major attractions namely Arusha National Park and Mount Meru, Ngorongoro Conservation area (Crater), Manyara National Park, Olduvai Gorge (Historical site) and Tarangire National Park. There are 5 selected villages adjacent to Arusha National Park and Mount Meru. The villages are Ngurudoto (n=4,877); Ngongongare (n=4,000); Njeku (n=4,315) and Sakita (n=5,050) and Ngarenanyuki (n=9082). (WEO, 2016). There are 5 selected villages around and within Ngorongoro Conservation Area and Oldvai Gorge. These are Tloma (n=12,000); Bashay (n=4,450); Mbulumbulu (n=7634); Mbuga Nyekundu (n=10,500); and Oldeani (n=5,600). (WEOb, 2016).

The study selected 5 villages around and within Manyara National Park. These are Endamarariiek (n=4,600); Bassodawish (n=3,520); Kibaoni (n=4,700); Endabash (n=1,500) and Chemchem (n=3,750). Lastly, there were 3 selected villages around and within Tarangire National Park. These were Kakoi (N=4200); Vilima Vitatu (N=5392) and Qash (N= 6771). Therefore, the target population is 101941 for all 18 villages around and within selected National Parks as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Population Distribution by National Parks

S/N	National Parks	Village	Population Total
1.	Arusha National Park	Ngurudoto	4,877
		Ngongongare	4,000
		Njeku	4,315
		Sakita	5,050
		Ngarenanyuki	9,082
2.	Ngorongoro National Park and Olduvai Gorge	Tloma	12,000
		Bashay	4,450
		Mbulumbu	7,634
		Mbuga Nyekundu	10,500
		Oldeani	5,600
3.	Manyara National Park	Endamarariiek	4,600
		Bassodawish	3,520
		Kibaoni	4,700
		Endabash	1500
		Chemchem	3,750
4.	Tarangire National Park	Kakoi	4,200
		Vilima Vitatu	5,392
		Qash	6,771

(Population and Housing Census, 2012)

The population of the study was diverse; it included 500 respondents from the community (500 calculated by Slovin's formula and 100 added at the researcher's discretion to increase the validity and reliability of the findings). There were also 36 community leaders, who were important to the study because they were democratically chosen voices of the community, and lastly there were ten top officials, who were important to cross-check with the views from the rest of the respondents as shown in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: The target population and the sample sizes

S/N	Category	Total target	Sample size
1	Community Members	101,941	400 (randomly sampled) + 104 which were added to increase the strength of validity and reliability of the study = 504
2	Community Leaders	36	36 (Purposively sampled from the community members)
3	TANAPA	10	10 (Purposively sampled)
Grand total		101,951	550

Source: Field data, 2016

3.3 Sampling Procedures

The study employed three sampling techniques: the purposive sampling technique, and stratified and simple random techniques.

Purposive sampling was used to select village leaders and TANAPA officials. A total of 36 village leaders were selected, who were either the village chair person or village executive officer. These leaders were selected because they occupy the top management positions in their respective villages. Further more ten officials from TANAPA high management were interviewed because they are familiar with the tourism activities in the community. The selection of the community members living within or around the national parks was based on the stratified sampling technique, where the respondents were selected according to their villages. Therefore, due to the heterogeneity of the population from which the sample was derived, a stratified sampling technique was considered to be the most appropriate technique. After obtaining a list from each village, the simple random technique was then adopted in such a way that samples of the same size had equal chances of being selected (Amin 2005).

3.4 Sampling Size

In this study, the sample size was calculated from the target population using Slovin's formula to determine the minimum sample size. The margin error of 0.05 or confidence level of 95% was chosen because it gives the study average validity (Prudence 2016). Below are the sample size calculations using Slovin's formula:

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

Where:

n = sample size
 N = Population
 e^2 = Level of significance

Calculation of Sample Size

101,941 divides to $1+10,1941$ (0.05 sq2)

$N = 101941$ (See appendix I)

$e^2 = 0.05$

$n = 101941 / (1 + 101941 \cdot 0.05^2)$

$n = 101941 / (1 + 101941 \cdot 0.0025)$

$n = 101941 / (254.8525)$

$n = 400$

By the use of the above formula, the study used the total number of respondents to reach 400. This standard sample size was confirmed by online formulae that give the same answer (Raosoft, 2016). In order to increase the reliability and validity of the findings, the researcher added 104 respondents above the standard sample size to reach 504. These were evenly distributed among the selected communities around the national parks.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

This study employed questionnaires, interviews and documentary analysis. The questionnaires were used to collect data to describe study variables quantitatively, while interviews were employed with key respondents to gain detailed qualitative information about the study variables. The researcher also made documentary analysis from the secondary data obtained from the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, TANAPA and other institutions have effect on local community development. The research instruments that were employed in this study included the following:

3.6 Data Analysis

Since the study employed the mixed methods paradigm, the data analysed were both quantitative and qualitative, where the quantitative data were analysed by use of descriptive data analysis/statistical techniques by the aid of SPSS software version 21. Data were analysed based on the objective, whereas the demographic characteristics of the respondents were analysed by use of frequencies and percentages. Further, since the study had mono-variant and bi-variant variables, the mono-variant descriptive analysis tested single variables by using units of mean and standard deviation.

4.1 Study Findings

The data hereby discussed emerged from the first research question which had the aim of examining the relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania. Table 4.1, therefore, shows the Means and Standard Deviations showing the contribution of tourism to local community development in terms of education. A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the levels and extent to which tourism has contributed to community development in terms of education (Key: 1.25–1.99 = Very poor: 2.00–2.74 = Poor: 2.75–3.49 = Fair: 3.50–4.24 = Satisfactory: 4.25–5.00 = Very satisfactory).

The data indicated that tourism activities on average have made a fair contribution to community development in terms of education. Factors such as classrooms built through tourism activities, schools built, bursaries for primary and secondary school children, access to both primary and secondary schools, resourcing schools by building libraries, laboratories, and other scholastic materials, bursaries and programmes for teacher professional development, co-curricular activities such as games and sports, among others, were examined and found to be fair with the mean range between 2.75–3.49.

Considering the gap between the scales from fair, to satisfactory and very satisfactory, it is evident that tourism has made very little real contribution [emphasis supplied] in terms of education to the development of the local communities where the tourism sites are located. Therefore, a lot of effort is still needed to improve the education from being fair to satisfactory or very satisfactory respectively. Similarly, factors such as parents being able to pay their children's school fees, provision of human, physical and financial resources among others were found to be poor, with a mean range of 2.44 - 2.71. This implies that a lot of effort is still needed to improve on those items. Table 4.7 presents these findings graphically.

Table 4.1 Means and Standard Deviations Showing the Contribution of Tourism to Local Community Development in Terms of Education

Items on Education	Mean	SD	Interpretation
In the last 5 years more than 5 Classes have been built in schools	3.4782	1.29363	Fair
In the last 5 years more than 50 Primary School Pupils Received Bursaries	3.0437	1.33096	Fair
In the last 5 years more than 50 Secondary School Students have Received Bursaries	2.9087	1.24511	Fair
Access to both Primary & Secondary school has improved	2.8611	1.19665	Fair
In the last 5 years more than 5 Laboratories have been built in schools	2.8552	1.21163	Fair
In the last 5 years more than 5 Teachers have Received Bursaries for Professional development	2.8194	1.23932	Fair
In the last 5 years several batches of apparatus & chemicals have been delivered	2.8115	1.24614	Fair
In the last 5 years schools sports & games have been sponsored	2.7798	1.23771	Fair
Wildlife tourism has contributed significantly to education	2.7659	1.22950	Fair
Parents are able to pay their children's school fees	2.7163	1.25039	Poor
In the last 5 years more than 5 head teachers have received bursaries for leadership seminars	2.6925	1.07874	Poor
Schools have been well equipped with physical, human & financial resources	2.6786	1.22103	Poor
In the last 5 years computers have been given to Schools	2.4444	1.11598	Poor

Key: 1.25–1.99 = Very poor: 2.00–2.74 = Poor: 2.75–3.49 = Fair: 3.50–4.24 = Satisfactory: 4.25–5.00 = Very satisfactory

Source: Primary Data, 2017

4.1.2 Contribution of Tourism to Local Community Development

Table 4.2 indicates that the dependent variable of the study was community development, which was measured by examining elements such as education, health, infrastructure, and people's per-capita income. Questions to establish the level/ extent of community development such as the availability of banks; the availability and quality of roads, the average per-capita income; the level of school access at both primary and secondary levels, the availability of food; both for home consumption and for sale, the availability and quality of residential and commercial houses, the availability and quality of commercial markets; the availability of medical services and hospitals, among others, were investigated. It was observed, however, that all these determinants of community development were rated poor, with the average means ranging from 2.23 to 2.63. This implies that the communities where tourism sites are located are still undeveloped and effort is needed on educational issues, health issues, and infrastructural issues, and efforts should be put into factors that would improve people's monthly income. Table 10.1 in the next page presents the findings graphically.

Table 4.2 Means and Standard Deviations showing the level of Local Community Development in the area of study

	Mean	SD	Interpretation
The community has enough quality banks for saving.	2.6310	2.96412	Poor
The quality of roads in the community is good enough.	2.6131	2.66094	Poor
Employment opportunities are available in the community.	2.5258	1.34184	Poor
On average, the per capita income for community members is good enough.	2.4980	2.60142	Poor
Information communication technology has improved in the community.	2.4841	1.77114	Poor
All school going children go to school in this community.	2.4603	1.26837	Poor
The quality of secondary schools in the community is good enough.	2.4583	1.34883	Poor
The community has enough food for home consumption.	2.4187	1.49663	Poor
The quality of primary schools in the community is good enough.	2.4167	1.27719	Poor
The quality of Commercial houses in the community is good enough	2.3829	1.22360	Poor
The quality of residential houses in the community are good enough	2.3790	1.29889	Poor
The quality of commercial markets in the community is good enough	2.3591	1.25639	Poor
The quality of medical services is good enough in the community	2.3532	1.22850	Poor
The quality of hospitals in the community is good enough	2.2341	1.24237	Poor

Key: 1.25–1.99 = Very poor: 2.00–2.74 = Poor: 2.75–3.49 = Fair: 3.50–4.24 = Satisfactory: 4.25–5.00 = Very satisfactory

Source: Field data, 2016

4.2 Correlation Analyses

4.2.1 Relationship between Tourism and Local Community Development in Terms of Education

The relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania was measured using wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and Historical sites. The correlation results of the relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education in Arusha Region is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Correlation Analyses for Tourism and Community Development in Terms of Education

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Education	1				
2 Wildlife	.130*	1			
3 Physical features	.036**	.196*	1		
4 Cultural tourism	.124**	.284*	.289*	1	
5 Historical sites	.189*	.356**	.223*	.230*	1

** p< 0.01 level (2-tailed), * p< 0.05 level (2-tailed), Source: Primary Data

As shown in Table 4.3, there is a statistically significant positive correlation between education and wildlife ($r = .130$, $p < 0.05$). The correlation between physical features and education was also positive and statistically significant ($r = .036$, $p < 0.05$). There was also statistically significant positive correlation between cultural tourism and education ($r = .189$, $p < 0.05$) and historical site and education ($r = .124$, $p > 0.05$) respectively. The implication is that education has a statistically significant and positive relationship with all the tourism and community development. According to Cooper and Schindler (2003) multicollinearity problem occurs if the correlation coefficient between any two independent variables is greater than $r = 0.8$. As is evident from the results in Table 4.3, although the correlation coefficients are statistically significant at one percent level, the problem of multicollinearity does not exist since none of these coefficients is greater than $r = 0.8$.

4.2 Hypotheses Testing

4.2.1 Regression Analysis and Hypotheses Testing

The study was based on the premise that tourism (independent variable) had a significant relationship with local community development (dependent variable). The hypotheses were tested at 95 percent confidence level ($\alpha = 0.05$). The following sections discuss the results for the hypothesis test. The aggregate mean scores were computed for the independent and dependent variables and used in the regression runs. The results of the regression analyses were used to test the respective hypothesis. The objective of the study was to establish the relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education. The study had postulated that the relationship between tourism (wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and Historical sites) and local community development in terms of education was not statistically significant. The indicators of tourism mean scores were used to test the first hypothesis. Respondents had been asked to indicate the extent to which tourism had affected local community development in terms of education. To establish the relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education, the following hypothesis was tested.

H₀₁: *There is no relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education in Arusha Region, Tanzania.*

The aggregate mean score of local community development in terms of education (dependent variable) were regressed on the aggregate mean score of tourism (Independent variable) and the relevant results presented in Table 10.4.

Table 4.4 Regression Results for Tourism and Local Community Development in Terms of Education

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.295(a)	.087	.007	.83871

a Predictors: (Constant), Tourism

b Dependent Variable: Community development in terms of education

ANOVA(b)						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.210	1	3.210	4.564	.033(a)
	Residual	353.121	502	.703		
	Total	356.331	503			

a Predictors: (Constant), Tourism

b Dependent Variable: Community development in terms of education

Coefficients(a)						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	2.681	.117		22.912	.000
	Tourism	.083	.039	.295	2.136	.033

a Dependent Variable: Community development in terms of education

- Level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$

Source: Primary Data, 2016

The study results revealed a statistically significant positive linear relationship between tourism (wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and Historical sites) and local community development in terms of education ($\beta = .295$, p-value = 0.033). The relationship was statistically significant because the p-value is less than the set value of 0.05 (p – value = 0.033). The regression results also showed that tourism had explanatory power on community development in terms of education in that it accounted for 8.7 percent of its variability (R square = 0.087) hence the study rejected hypothesis H_{01} . This shows that the contribution of tourism to local community development in terms of education is relatively low.

Arising from the results in Table 4.4, the resulting simple linear regression model that can be used to predict the level of local community development in terms of education for a one standard deviation improvement in tourism can be expressed as:

$$CDE = 2.681 + 0.295T + \epsilon$$

Where:

CDE is the local community development in terms of education

T = Tourism

2.681 is the constant or an estimate of the expected increase in local community development in terms of health corresponding to an increase in tourism. ϵ is the error term- random variation due to other unmeasured factors.

The standardized beta coefficient 0.295 represents the expected improvement in community development in terms of education for a unit standard deviation improvement in tourism. This means that, holding other factors constant, a one standard deviation improvement in tourism would raise the level of local community development in terms of education by a factor of approximately 0.295 of a standard deviation.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The study results revealed a statistically significant positive linear relationship between tourism (wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and Historical sites) and community development in terms of education ($\beta = .295$, p-value = 0.033). The regression results also showed that tourism had explanatory power on community development in terms of education in that it accounted for 8.7 percent of its variability (R square = 0.087) hence the study rejected hypothesis H_{01} . This study results concurs with Manuel (2013) who did a study on rapid assessment of tourism impacts through community participation, a pilot study in Cuba for projecting new strategies of management. The purpose of this study was to develop a methodology to identify how tourism affects social organization in communities, in order to consider different policy implications and management options, at the same time, to conduct comparative studies to monitor vulnerabilities and the effectiveness of social and health-promoting policies. This project brings together researchers and community representatives

from Cárdenas and Caibarién, two coastal communities in Cuba, to examine how the expansion of tourism in these communities directly and/or in- directly affects them. In relation to the general objective a conceptual framework is elaborated to explain pathways that link the impacts of tourism and the policies that influence them across their lifespan. A consensus is developed on indicators and research/measurement protocols based on a comprehensive re-view of existing evidence on these issues. A preliminary agreement is also promoted according to the policy implications and policy options of insights that can be gained regarding the impacts of tourism on local communities among policy-makers, researchers and community leaders. The study found out that people achieve a higher educational and professional level through special courses that provide them with higher training in areas of tourism services. On the other hand, many university professional seek jobs in the tourist sector, “even washing dishes”, in order to make more money.

5.2 Conclusion

The first objective of the study was to establish the relationship between tourism (wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and Historical sites) and local community development in terms of education. The study had postulated that the relationship between tourism (wildlife, physical features, cultural tourism and historical sites) and local community development in terms of education was not statistically significant. To establish this relationship, the researcher first examined the level/extent of education development in Arusha Region. The study examining factors such as the availability of schools (both primary and secondary), acquisition of bursaries from tourism, level of school access, availability of scholarly materials such as libraries, laboratories, professional and competent human resources, and computers to support learning, to mention a few. The study results revealed a statistically significant positive linear relationship between tourism and community development in terms of education ($\beta = .295$, $p\text{-value} = 0.033$). The relationship was statistically significant because the $p\text{-value}$ is less than the set value of 0.05 ($p\text{-value} = 0.033$). The findings established that the level of all these educational requirements was rated fair or poor. It was observed that education in the area of study on average is fair, which implies a big gap in the development of education in the area. The study therefore concludes that there was a statistically significant relationship between tourism and local community development in terms of education.

5.3 Recommendation

Based on the above conclusion of the findings of the study, the following recommendations are made.

The central government, particularly the Ministry of Tourism and Natural Resources, should unify efforts of improving the National Tourism Policy, which will maximise the challenge of obtaining trickle-down effects for the development of local communities.

The researcher also recommends that in order to improve the development of local communities in areas of the tourism attraction, development policies must be studied and implemented effectively in response to the needs of stakeholders, particularly the local community. Tourism should not be seen as an autonomous field, but as part of a wider comprehensive effort towards achieving the general goals of humanity. Its development should be related to its capacity in delivering general welfare, which requires careful planning for the local communities

References

- Adobayo, K.A., Iweka, C.O.A. (2014): Optimizing the Sustainability of Tourism Infrastructure in Nigeria through Design for Deconstruction Framework, *American Journal of Tourism Management*, 3(1A), pp. 13-19
- Adam, B., Arbache, S.J. and Sinclair, T.M. and Teles, V. (2008) Tourism and Poverty Relief, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35, 107-126
- Adekunle, Daniel Owolabi. (2005): Draft Tourism Satellite Account for South Africa. National Accounts: Statistics South Africa.
- Agarwal, S. (1997): The resort cycle and seaside tourism: An assessment of its applicability and validity. *Tourism Management* 18 (2), 65-73.
- Akama, J. S. (2002): The role of government in the development of tourism in Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4 (1), 1-3.
- Ahlin, C. (2000): Dynamics of Corruption and Distribution of Power. Mimeo. University of Chicago.
- Archer, B., Cooper, C., Ruhanen, L (2005): The positive and negative impacts of tourism in Global Tourism, Elsevier, online (<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/jec-11-2013-0033>)
- Aref, F., Gill, S. S., & Farshid, A. (2010): Tourism development in local Communities: As a Community development approach. *Journal of American Science*, 6, 155-161.
- Arnstein, S. R. (1969): A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal of the American Institute of Planners* 35 (4), 216-224.

- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Razavieh, A. (2002). *Introduction to research in education*, 6th edition. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Ashley, C. (2006): How can governments boost the local economic impacts of tourism? Options and tools. London: Overseas Development Institute and SNV East and Southern Africa.
- Bardhan, P. and D. Mookherjee (2003): Poverty Alleviation Effort of West Bengal Panchayats. <http://econ.bu.edu/dilipm/wkpap.htm/epwsumm.pdf>
- Bardhan, Pranab. (2002): Decentralization of Governance and Development. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 16(4): 185-205.
- Barankay, I. and B. Lockwood. (2007): Decentralization and the Productive Efficiency of Government: Evidence from Swiss Cantons. *Journal of Public Economics*. 91 (5 6). pp. 1197–1218.
- Faguet, J. and F. Sánchez. (2006): Decentralization and Access to Social Services in Colombia. Center for Latin American Studies Working Paper Series. Berkeley, CA: University of California.
- Fornasari, F., S. Webb, and H. Zou. (2000): The Macroeconomic Impact of Decentralized Spending and Deficits: International Evidence. *Annals of Economics and Finance*. 1 (2). pp. 403–433.
- Habibi, N. et al. (2003): Decentralization and Human Development in Argentina. *Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*. 4 (1) pp. 73–101.
- Haley, A.J., Snaith, T. and Miller, G. (2005): The social impacts of tourism: a case study of Bath, UK, *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32 (3), 647-668
- Haywood, K. M. (1988): Responsible and responsive tourism planning in the community. *Tourism Management*, 9 (2), 105-108.
- Manor, J., (1999): *The Political Economy of Democratic Decentralization*, Washington D.C.: The World Bank.
- Mitchell, J. and Ashley, C. (2007): Can tourism offer pro-poor pathways to prosperity? Briefing Paper No. 22 (June). London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI).
- Mitchell, J. and Ashley, C. (2009): Value chain analysis and poverty reduction at scale. Briefing Paper No. 49 (March). London: Overseas Development Institute (ODI).
- Mitchell, J., & Muckosy, P. (2008). *A misguided quest: Community-based tourism in Latin America*. London: Overseas Development Institute.
- Mohammad, N. H., Mast, A. S. & Abdullah, A. (2013). Regional Tourism Development in Southeast Asia. *Transnational Corporations Review*, 5 (2).
- Mutayoba, V. and Mbwete, R. (2013) Is Booming Tourism pro-poor? A Micro-economic Impact Analysis, *Kivukoni Journal*, 1 (2), 104-112
- Muriu, A. R. (2012). Decentralization, citizen participation and local public service delivery. (Masters), Universitätsverlag Potsdam.
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2006). *Research in Education: Evidence Based Inquiry*, 6th edition. Boston: Pearson.
- McKinnon, R. (1997). EMU as a Device for Collective Fiscal Retrenchment. *American Economic Review*. 87 (2). pp. 227–229.
- McLure Jr., C. (1995). Comment on the Dangers of Decentralization by Prud'homme. *World Bank Research Observer*. 10 (2). pp. 221–226.
- Oates, W. (1985). Searching for Leviathan: An Empirical Study. *American Economic Review*, 75:748-57.
- Oates, J. F. (1999). *Myth and reality in the rain forest: How conservation strategies are failing in West Africa*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Oates, W. 1993. Decentralization and Economic Development. *National Tax Journal*. 46. pp. 237–243.
- Olson, M. (1965) *The Logic of Collective Action*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press
- Olivia, R. B. (2012). *Tourism: Latin America's Travel Boom and Challenges*. Americas Quarterly.
- Oliver, R and Gervase, M. (1963), *History of East Africa*, London, Oxford University Press, Amen House E.C.4
- Ouma, J.B.P.M (1969): Evolution of Tourism in East Africa (1900-1969), East Africa University Social Sciences Council Conferences, Nairobi.
- Olson, M. (2002). *The Logic of Collective Action: Public Goods and Theory of Groups*. Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Phillips, J. (2008). Female Sex Tourism In Barbados: A Postcolonial Perspective. *Brown Journal of World Affairs*, 2, 201-212.
- Polit, D. F., & Hungler, B. P. (1997): *Essentials of Nursing Research: Methods, Appraisal and Utilization*. New York: Lippincott.
- Pretty, J. (1995): Participatory learning for sustainable agriculture. *World Development* 23 (8), 1247-1263.
- Ramos, A. M. (2012). *The Use of Mayan Rain Forest for Ecotourism Development: An Empowerment Approach to Local Communities*. Unpublished PhD Thesis: School of Business, James Cook University, Townsville.

- Ranis, G., Stewart, F., & Ramirez, A. (2000): Economic growth and human development. *World Development* 28 (2): 197–219.
- Rezeanu O.M., (2011), Implications of economic and social services quality of Romanian tourism, University Publishing House, Bucharest
- Ritchie, J. R. B., & Crouch, G. I. (2000): The competitive destination: A sustainability Perspective; *Tourism Management*, 21(1), 1-7.
- Rondinelli, D. A. (1978). National Investment Planning and Equity Policy in Developing Countries: The Challenge of Decentralised Administration. *Policy Sciences*, 10, 1, 45-74.
- Sharpley, Richard and Telfer, David J., (2002) *Tourism and development*, Channel View Publications.
- Seetanah, B. (2011). Assessing the dynamic economic impact of tourism for island Economies: *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(1), 291–308.
- Sekaran (2003) 'research methods for business: A skill building approach' John Wiley and Sons
- Santos, B. (2005). *Democratizar a Democracia. Os Caminhos da Democracia Participativa*. Rio de Janeiro: Civilização Brasileira.
www.4shared.com/document/Zh7aTB_Z/SANTOS_Boaventura_de_S_org_D.html
- Sabatini, C. 2003. Decentralization and Political Parties. *Journal of Democracy*. 14 (2). pp. 138–150.
- Seabright, P. (1996). Accountability and Decentralization in Government: An Incomplete Contracts Model. *European Economic Review*. 40 (1). pp. 61–89.
- Spenceley, A., Habyalimana, S., Tusabe, R., & Mariza, D. (2010). Benefits to the Poor from Gorrilla Tourism in Rwanda. *Development Southern Africa*, 27 (5), 647-662.
- Sulle, E. (2007). The contribution of tourism to local communities (Tanzania unpublished report). Arusha: Sand County Foundation.
- Sulle, E. (2008). Wildlife-based revenue transparency performance in Longido and Simanjiro Districts. Hakikazi Catalyst report. Retrieved from <http://www.hakikazi.org/papers/Wildlife-Base-Revenue.pdf>.
- Tanzanian Tourists Board (2010). The Tanzanian Cultural Tourism Program: Visit the People. on-line at <http://www.tanzaniaculturaltourism.com> [Accessed 11/10/2016].
- Tang et al. (1990) "Attractiveness as a tourist destination; a comparative study of Thailand and selected countries". *Socio-Econ Planning* 24 (3)
- Taillant, D. (1994). Decentralization: Local and Regional Government Development. A Literature Review. Unpublished.
- Tanzi, V. (1995). *Taxation in an Integrating World*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Thiessen, U. (2003). Fiscal Decentralization and Economic Growth in High-Income OECD Countries. *Fiscal Studies*. 24 (3). pp. 237–274.
- Treisman, D. (2000). Decentralization and Inflation: Commitment, Collective Action, or Continuity. *American Political Science Review*. 94 (4). pp. 837–857.
- URT, (2014). The International Visitors Exit Survey Report. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism.
- Wade, R. (1998). The Asian Debt-and-Development Crisis of 1997: Causes and Consequences. *World Development*. 26 (8). pp. 1535–1553.
- Vaughan, D.R., Farr, H. and Slee, R.W. (2000) Estimating and interpreting the local economic benefits of visitor spending: An explanation, *Leisure Studies*, 19 (2), 95-118
- World Economic Forum., (2007a). The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report 2007. Geneva, Switzerland. Available from <http://www.weforum.org/en/initiatives/gcp/TravelandTourismReport/index.htm>.
- World Economic Forum., (2007b). The World Economic Forum's First Ever Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Report. Geneva, Switzerland. Press Release available
- Yang, X. and Hung, K. (2014) Poverty alleviation via tourism cooperatives in China: the study of Yahu, *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26 (6), 879-906: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-02-2013-0085>
- Zaei, E. and Zaei, E. (2013) The Impacts of Tourism Industry on Host Community, *European Journal of Tourism Hospitality and Research*, 1 (2), 12-21: www.ae-journals.org
- Zax, J. (1989). Is There a Leviathan in Your Neighborhood? *The American Economic Review*. 79 (3). pp. 560–567.