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# **TOURISM: GOOD OR BAD?**

Impacts of Tourism in Tanzania



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## ABSTRACT

This thesis discusses the impacts of tourism, from economic, socio-cultural and physical environmental point of view. Tanzania was used in the case study because of the author's own internship in the country. The purpose was to research the impacts of tourism from the perspective of local people in different parts of Tanzania in all sectors mentioned above.

The theoretical part of the work is based on Tamara Rátz's book *The impacts of tourism* (2002) as well as on the theoretical models applied by her in the book. The most famous theoretical models used in this work are Doxey's Irridex, Butler's tourist area life cycle model and Butler's model of tourism development compared to the changes in local people's attitudes and behaviour. In addition to theory and the results of the research, the conclusions also include author's own experience and views on the destination country.

The research was conducted in the summer of 2009 in Tanzania by interviewing employees of the tourism industry using a questionnaire. The results showed that tourism was considered to be a positive issue. The tourism sector is also growing in Tanzania, although the tourism sector employees are required to do long days with poor salary. Tourism had induced an increase in prices and employment, but also the growth of crime. Along with the urbanization, slum areas have grown, but also infrastructure has improved. Tourism was also connected to pollution and hence to the effects of climate change.

This research is a cross-section of the impacts of tourism in Tanzania. From the researcher's point of view, these results should be used in the development of tourism in Tanzania. The results could also be used in further research on geographically limited target regions and on one sub-sector in order to gain more detailed information.

**Keywords** Tanzania, tourism impacts, economic impacts, socio-cultural impacts, physical environment impacts

**Pages** 79 pp. + appendices 4 pp.

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## TIIVISTELMÄ

Tämä opinnäytetyö käsittelee matkailun aiheuttamia taloudellisia ja sosio-kulttuurisia sekä fyysiseen ympäristöön kohdistuvia vaikutuksia. Tutkimusmaana käytetään Tansaniaa, jossa työharjoittelu suoritettiin. Työn tarkoituksena oli selvittää paikallisten näkökulmasta matkailun vaikutuksia eri puolilla Tansaniaa kaikilla edellä mainituilla osa-alueilla.

Työ pohjautuu teoriaosuudeltaan Tamara Rätzin kirjoittamaan kirjaan *The Impacts of Tourism* (2002) sekä hänen kirjassaan soveltamiinsa teorialleihin, joista tunnetuimmat ovat Doxeyn Irridex, Butlerin matkailualueen elinkaarimalli sekä Butlerin malli matkailun kehittymisestä verrattuna paikallisten asenteisiin ja käyttäytymiseen. Teorian ja tutkimustulosten lisäksi johtopäätöksissä tuodaan esille omia kokemuksia ja näkemyksiä kohde- maasta.

Tutkimus toteutettiin kesällä 2009 Tansaniassa haastattelemalla matkailualan työntekijöitä käyttäen apuna kyselylomaketta. Työn tuloksista selvisi, että yleisesti ottaen matkailu koettiin positiivisena asiana ja matkailuala on kasvava ala myös Tansaniassa, vaikka matkailualan työntekijät joutuvatkin tekemään pitkiä päiviä huonollakin palkalla. Matkailulla todettiin olevan vaikutuksia myös hintojen nousuun, työllisyyden ja myös rikollisuuden kasvuun. Kaupungistumisen myötä slummialueet ovat kasvaneet, mutta myös infrastruktuuri on parantunut. Matkailulla todettiin olevan myös vaikutuksia saastumiseen ja sen myötä myös ilmastonmuutokseen.

Tämän opinnäytetyön tutkimus on vain läpileikkaus matkailun vaikutuksiin Tansaniassa. Tutkijan näkökulmasta katsottuna tutkimustuloksia tulisi hyödyntää Tansanian matkailun kehittämisessä. Tutkimustuloksia voisi myös hyödyntää maantieteellisesti rajatussa osa-aluekohtaisessa jatkokäytöksessä tarkempien tietojen selvittämiseksi.

**Avainsanat** Tansania, matkailun vaikutukset, taloudelliset vaikutukset, sosio-kulttuuriset vaikutukset, ympäristölliset vaikutukset

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## CONTENTS

1	INTRODUCTION .....	1
2	IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN THE TARGET COUNTRY.....	2
2.1	Environments of tourism.....	2
2.2	Economic impacts of tourism.....	4
2.2.1	Characteristics of tourism from economic point of view .....	5
2.2.2	Tourism impacts from economic point of view.....	7
2.2.3	Economic development and tourism .....	8
2.2.4	Positive and negative impacts of tourism .....	10
2.3	The physical impacts of tourism .....	20
2.3.1	Theoretical models .....	21
2.3.2	Local and global environmental impacts.....	24
2.3.3	Indirect and direct environmental impacts .....	24
2.3.4	Reversible and irreversible environmental impacts.....	25
2.3.5	Positive and negative impacts of tourism in natural environment.....	25
2.3.6	Positive and negative impacts of tourism on the built environment .....	29
2.4	The socio-cultural impacts of tourism.....	31
2.4.1	Theoretical models .....	32
2.4.2	Characteristics of tourists .....	34
2.4.3	Characteristics of host residents .....	35
2.4.4	Tourist-host relationship.....	36
2.4.5	Characteristics of the development of tourism.....	37
2.4.6	Positive and negative socio cultural impacts.....	38
3	BASIC INFORMATION OF TANZANIA.....	45
3.1	Facts of geography .....	45
3.2	History of Tanzania.....	45
3.3	Facts of demography .....	46
3.4	Socio-economy facts .....	46
3.5	Tanzania as a tourism destination .....	47
4	SURVEY RESULTS.....	48
4.1	Towns, gender and nationality .....	48
4.2	Professions .....	51
4.3	Earned salary .....	52
4.4	Corruption .....	54
4.5	Tourism in Tanzania.....	55
4.6	Influence of tourism .....	58
4.7	Changes in tourism.....	60
4.8	Weather and climate change as part of tourism .....	63
5	CONCLUSIONS .....	66
6	EVALUATION .....	69
	SOURCES .....	70

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## Appendix 1 The questionnaire

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been part of people's lives from time immemorial, also in Tanzania. In the late 700s the East African coast was one of the most important trading areas creating networks to the Indian Ocean and having effects from Arabs, Indians and from Bantu-people gradually creating a Swahili culture in the East coast of Africa. Portuguese traders dominated the East African coast from the 16<sup>th</sup> century until the early 18<sup>th</sup> century and at the same time Arabs controlled the slave trade. Early 19<sup>th</sup> century the first missionaries arrived on the mainland. In the late 19<sup>th</sup> century the German East African Company controlled large portions of the Tanzania mainland, although the British held a sphere of the Zanzibar Archipelago, which explains that the other official language in Tanzania is English. Even today tourism plays an important role in Tanzania in many ways. (Fitzpatrick 2008, 19–27.)

In the welfare countries lives 20% of the world's population using 80% of the world's energy and natural resources while in the developing countries 80% of the world's population is living in extreme poverty (Hemmi 2005, 13). Tanzania is one of the poorest countries in the world and thus it is one of the developing countries. In these days tourism has been argued to be a form of new colonialism because of the facilities of traffic, information and free trade and also one of the main air polluters (Saukkonen 1999, 10, 14–15). Tourism is also one of the key factors for nature conservation and the preservation of ancient cultures. Is the “good bad” tourism a trump card for the developing countries or the loss of the game in Tanzania?

This thesis describes the impacts of tourism from the economic, socio-cultural and physical environmental point of view using Tamara Rátz's book *The Impacts of Tourism* as the main source. The empirical work of thesis was carried out in Tanzania by interviewing local people with questionnaire. The research was implemented in the year 2009 in several places in Tanzania.

## 2 IMPACTS OF TOURISM IN THE TARGET COUNTRY

Tourism is a complicated phenomenon but still it is one of the world's largest industries (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 15; Hall & Page 2006, 1). Tourism concerns tourists, which represent demand and tourist sectors which represent supply. Tourism is part of different situations and circumstances and it also achieves interaction with different environments: social-, cultural-, political-, natural-, economic and technological environment. Impacts of tourism can be positive or negative or both. (Figure 1) (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 16.)

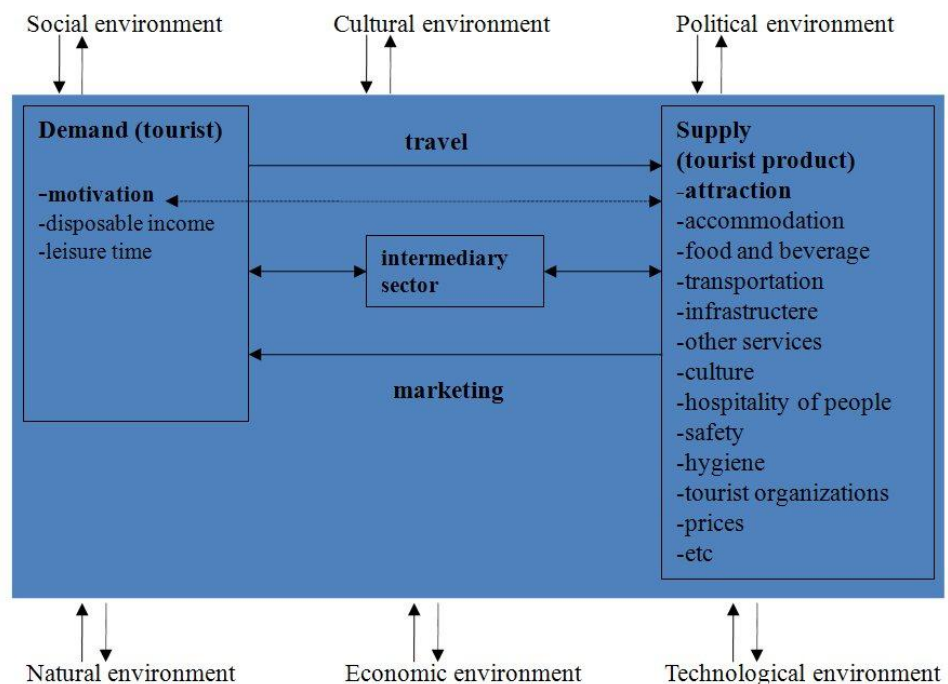


FIGURE 1 *The tourism system and its environments*

### 2.1 Environments of tourism

According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 17), the economic environment determines both the sending and receiving countries and the factors of volume of supply and demand of tourists. The relatively high quality of service sector is a requirement for tourism and just one single economic branch can create conditions to development of tourism. (Table 1)



TABLE 1 *Tourism and economic development*

<b>Economic stage</b>	<b>Some characteristics</b>	<b>Examples</b>
<b>Traditional Society</b> Traditional customs, long-established land-owning, aristocracy, majority employed in agriculture. Very low output per capita, poor health levels, great poverty. Impossible to improve without changing system.	<b>Undeveloped world</b> Economic and social conditions deny most forms of tourism, except perhaps domestic VFR. (visit friends and relatives)	Much of Africa, parts of Southern Asia.
<b>Preconditions for take-off</b> Innovation of ideas from outside the system. Leaders recognize the desirability of change.	<b>The developing world</b> From the take-off stage, economic and social conditions allow increasing amounts of domestic tourism (mainly VFR). International tourism is also possible in the drive to maturity. Inbound tourism is often support as a foreign exchange earner.	South and Central America parts of the Middle East, Asia and Africa.
<b>Take-off</b> Leaders in favour of change gain power and alter production methods and economic structure. Manufacturing and services expand.		
<b>Drive to maturity</b> Industrialization continues in all economic sectors with a switch from heavy manufacturing to sophisticated and diversified products.		Mexico and parts of South America
<b>High mass consumption</b> Economic at full producing large numbers of consumer products and services. New emphasis is satisfying cultural needs.	<b>The developed world</b> Major generators of international and domestic tourism.	North America, Western Europe, Japan, Australia, New Zealand

Economic factors and social factors together affect the length of stay of tourist, e.g. the attitudes of the local people in the target countries. Tourism can become an important phenomenon in the place where the conditions to travel exist and travelling itself is a value. The cultural environment is one of the most important attractions in tourism. Culture and tourism have really close connection, e.g. tourism uses culture as a way to be in the market. The political environment influences the opportunities to travel, for instance political instability has made some tourist transport dangerous or impossible or in some countries there are political forces such as visa-systems which influence the freedom to travel. The natural environment is one of the most important attractions of tourism. Natural resources influence the attractions of tourist supply, volume, location and nature of tourism development. Tourism is also an important factor in regional development. Technological environment creates the opportunities

to travel because the technological development makes it possible to travel longer distances in greater numbers. The spreading of the Internet and virtual reality create new possibilities but also bring challenges and changes to the work in the tourism system. For example, buying tickets more on the Internet affects the intermediary sector a lot: fewer people will buy package tours and at the same time tour operators are cooperating together, which affects decreasing of travel agencies because of the decreasing of the demand. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 16–19; Hemmi, Lehtinen & Vuoristo 1987, 13–18, 25–26.) So, tourism is based on the economic and social processes that are taking place in the environment of the society. The development of tourism in the target country insist physical and natural resources and will subsequently impact the economy, cultures and ecology of the destination (Holden 2000).

## 2.2 Economic impacts of tourism

Tourism is one of the most important sectors in the world economy. For instance 9.4% of global GDP was generated by tourism. Tourism is also one of the most important industries employing 235 million people in the year 2009 across the world, even though the majority of employees are unskilled. (Travel & Tourism economic impact Executive Summary 2010.) The number of international tourist arrivals in 2009 (Figure 2) is divided between continents as follows: Europe 52.2%, Asia/Pacific 20.6%, Americas 16.0%, Middle East 6.0% and Africa 5.2%. 48.5% of tourist receipts were from Europe, 23.9% from Asia/Pacific, 19.4% from Americas and 3.4% from Africa and Middle East. (Figure 3) (International tourism in the OIC countries 2010 Prospects and challenges.)

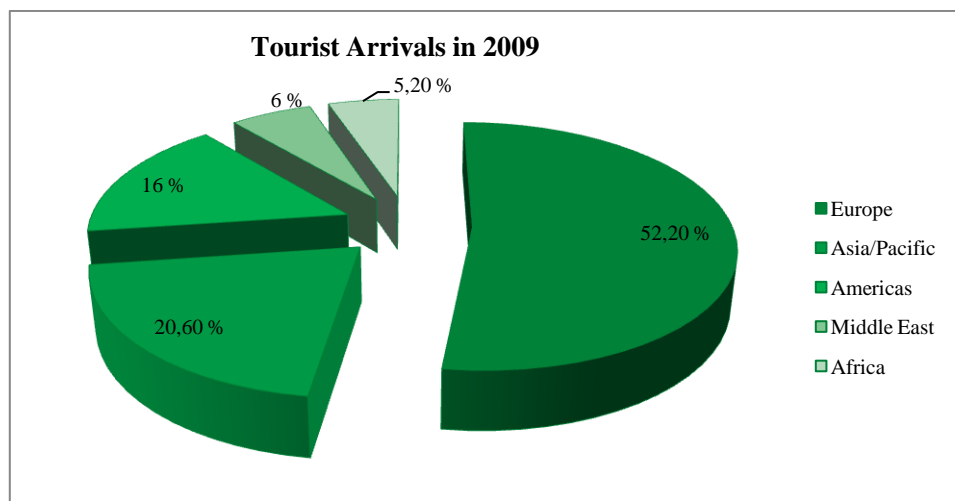


FIGURE 2 The distribution of tourist arrivals in 2009

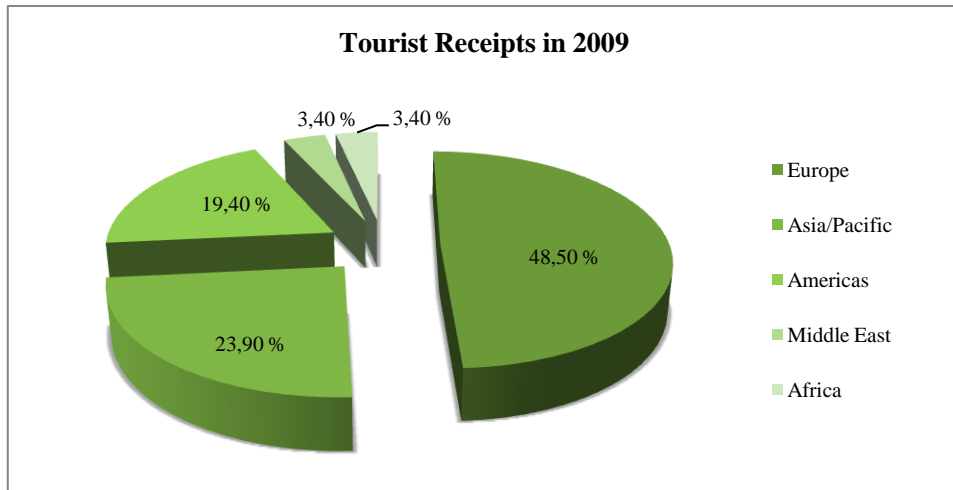


FIGURE 3 *The distribution of tourist receipts in 2009*

The important factors of tourism economy are how much the tourist expenditure is in the visited area, indirect and induced effects, and leakages of expenditure out of the local economy and displacement and opportunity costs which all cause the economic impacts of tourism (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill 1998, 130). Tourism increases via the consumer expenditure capital investments, government expenditure, foreign trade and the gross domestic product (GDP). The parts of the economic impacts of tourism are really difficult to measure because tourists' expenditure includes both direct and indirect impacts. For example, spending money directly or growing demand indirectly for products and services can create new jobs or encourage to new investments. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 44.)

In the developing countries tourism can create priority stage of other economic sectors especially if the country does not have any raw materials or other resources. For the same reason the country would maybe become dependent on foreign currency. (Des Chenes 2009, 41.) Nowadays the demand of tourists has increased for exotic destinations which cause more competitive to the tourist services in the developing countries because of growing supply (Williams 1998).

### 2.2.1 Characteristics of tourism from economic point of view

From economic point of view, tourism incorporates with several enterprises of different size and activity which are related to many other sectors and which are influenced by many different factors such as public safety and hygienic qualities. The tourism industry is not unambiguous because it can be understood as one uniform with its components or as separate and individual ones. (Hemmi, Lehtinen & Vuoristo 1982, 8–9.) Also cooperation with different tourism sectors is common. For example some transport companies are co-operating with travel insurance companies. The scope of the broad tourism industry has competition in tourism sector and has conflicts with other economic sectors. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 51.)

One of the most important factors of tourism is “invisible export”, because tourist product itself is an abstract service, which can only be conducted when the tourist is at the place of the production at a given time. The production cannot be stored. (Hall & Lew 2009, 30.) Tourists’ behaviour and attitudes affect the quality of the product. During the stay abroad tourist buys other products which could not be otherwise exported or marketable, e.g. souvenirs. (Hemmi et al. 1987, 91–92, 109.)

From point of view of Cooper et al. (1998, 72–73, 104), tourism is a seasonal activity which is caused by tourists’ various demands and which in turn are varied by leisure time, seasonal weather changes, fluctuation of exchange rates or natural disasters. Seasonality means that the tourism industry has to do a yearly profit during the tourist season and it causes difficulties in investments and employment. For example, a tourism company could have the same amount of staff and equipment around the year when the quality of the service will decrease or restrict the supply to a lower level than the demand. Another really common event in the tourism business is overbooking in high season. According to Stabler (1997, 182), to facilitate seasonality in tourism you have to spread seasonality over time with discount prices or widening the supply or targeting at new market segments.

The diversity of tourists’ motivations and needs are based on the characteristics of high price and income flexibility of tourist demand even though high quality might attract just a small segment of tourists who may become regularly returning tourists (Hemmi et al. 1987, 93). Tourism companies still try to get loyal tourist customers and the most popular way is to offer lower prices to the returning tourists. This is really common in hotel chains or airlines even at global level or establishing co-operation between different companies. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 50.)

According to Cooper et al. (1998, 204–205), in mass tourism the price competition is highest and the exchangeability of products is most prevailing and new tourism countries will accelerate that kind of competition. The financial situation affects tourist demand, e.g. the receiving country can become more desirable because of devaluation of a country’s national currency.

According to Hemmi et al. (1982, 13–14), the development of tourism demands for supplementary products and services since tourists need proper infrastructure, traffic network and shopping facilities. At least a minimal level of infrastructure is the prerequisite for tourism development and it should be in balance with the volume and expected rate of growth of tourist demand. If the products cannot satisfy the demands, they should be replaced with some other products or import from some other places even if it causes additional costs to the target country. (Saukkonen 1999, 22.)

### 2.2.2 Tourism impacts from economic point of view

From Theobald's (1998, 63) point of view the development of tourism causes changes in the economic characteristics and in economic structure in both sender and receiving countries. The economic impacts of tourism are different from socio-cultural and physical impacts even if they have really close connection to each other and can sometimes hardly to be separated depending on the case. The economic impacts of tourism do not include the benefits or costs of socio-cultural or physical environmental impacts affecting the target country even though those impacts should be considered when ascertaining the balance of impacts. According to Lundberg, Stavenga & Krishnamoorthy (1995, 4), the socio-cultural and physical environment can determine tourism development, which can lead to new investments in infrastructure, new buildings etc. The flow of income will determine the economic impacts of tourism in both sender and receiving countries even though the effect is more important on the receiving side because in sender countries it influences only the expenditure of the balance of payment. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 52–53.)

Tourism development is important in creating new job opportunities and generating income, e.g. foreign exchange and enhancing the general status of economy. The impacts of tourism are influencing both local and global in other words worldwide in specific countries. To clarify the economic impacts of tourism, both absolute and relative information should be considered, e.g. researching the number of arriving tourists and the total income of the tourism industry but also the average length of stay, average expenditure and so on. (Cooper et al. 1998, 81).

According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 54–55), tourism is an economic system (Figure 4) and in relationship with many other sectors. Most of the impacts are consequences of tourist expenditure can be classified in three categories: expenses incurred by personal consumption of tourists (1), the business organizations (5) and the travel expenditure of government and state offices (5). The tourist expenditure can be classified according to the type of service or product purchased, for instance, accommodation, food etc. The money spent by tourists on products and services will increase the commercial turnover (4). The background companies contribute improvement of trade through sales transactions, e.g. agriculture, trade and business services. To ensure the development of tourism, investments in the infrastructure have to be made. They can be made by private sector or governmental organizations depending on the volume of the investments and expectable yield. Tourism development also creates jobs both in the receiving and sending countries and these jobs can be classified in three categories: A. people who are working directly in tourism, B. people who are working in the background industries of tourism and C. people who are working in tourism-related government offices. (Hall & Lew 2009, 89, 109.)

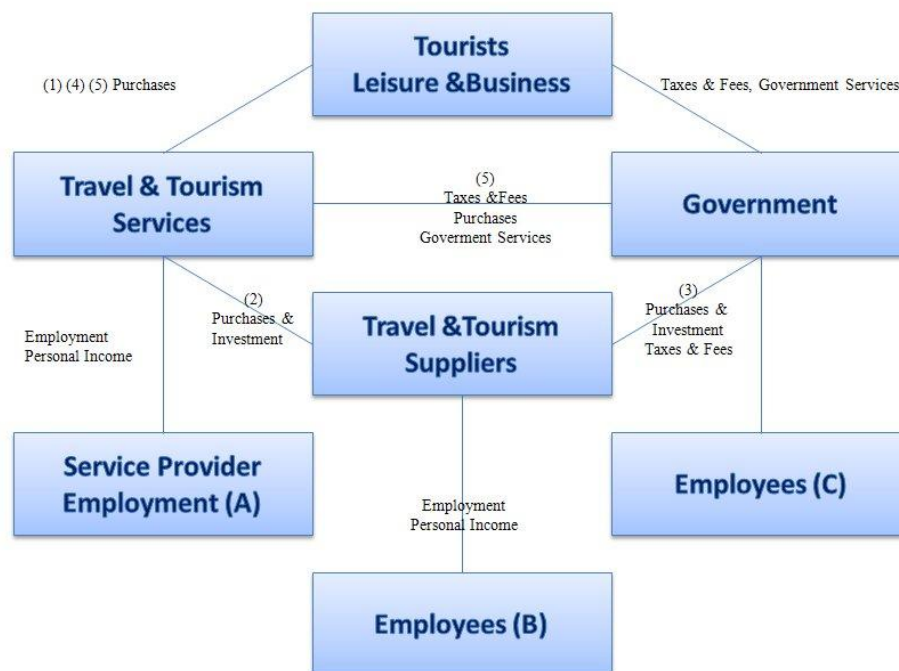


FIGURE 4 *Tourism is an economic system*

### 2.2.3 Economic development and tourism

According to Theobald (1998, 66), the development of tourism produces positive impacts such as economic growth, improving quality in the economic structure and life of those who are involved in the tourism industry. For regions with no other economic resources tourism might be the only option to launch or to contribute quickly and efficiently economic development. The purchasing power of tourism might increase the demand for the products and services and thereby can bring beneficial impacts to certain regions. In other words new job opportunities and the growth of tax revenues can benefit the society and hence may lead to a rise in living standard and decrease the need for central funds expended on solving social conflicts and unemployment. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 55.)

According to Sharpley (1999, 222–223), the impacts of tourism development are dependent on the economic characteristics and geographical situation in the target country. According the above the difference is biggest between welfare and developing countries. In the developing countries gross income per person, the distribution of assets and income, the limits of domestic market, developmental level of the local industry are low but unemployment rate, proportion of agricultural products in export structure, foreign ownership rate in the industry and service sector are high. Just few above mentioned problems appear in welfare countries and also at lower level. (Williams 1997)

Before tourism development the target country should have countrywide or internationally considerable attractive power with serving basis for the

products to be developed which would be competitive on the tourist market. If a country did not have attraction it should be provided in an artificial way because without it tourism cannot fulfill the role of serving as regional developer and the whole sector will be unable to develop. (Williams 1998). The status of infrastructure, proper public safety and security and the positive attitude of decision-makers towards tourism are all important factors to the development of tourism. The competitiveness of destinations which has established tourism is determined by the diversity, by the quality and price level of the available services, by the competency of the professional organization responsible for the development of tourism, by the geographical situation of the destination and by the nature and origin of financial investments. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 57.)

Dependency on the demand of tourism can be decreased in target country if the country is capable to fulfill the needs of different tourist types and is competitive in quality, price and quantity. Especially the developing countries cannot usually provide sufficient capacity for the crowds of tourists. (Sharpley 1999, 269–270.) Also the technical competence and activity of national or regional organizations play a significant role in the developing of tourism as planning and controlling the implementation, enhancing the collaboration with tourist enterprises and population. Without a unified development concept tourism will develop spontaneously but not deliberately, which may lead to negative impacts, e.g. the carrying capacities are not balanced with the number of tourists. (Hall & Lew 2009, 121.)

The official tourist offices are responsible for conducting marketing activities in target region because individual services do not replace regional marketing. According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 58), tourists usually choose the destination before services so it is important what kind of image the potential tourist can create of the target country because single settlements can seldom satisfy tourist needs and that is why the regional aspect is so important in tourist marketing. As Theobald's (1998, 328) states tourists are more motivated by what they are going to do on their holiday than by where they are going to do it.

The tourist investments in the infrastructure development such as accommodation, attractions, catering services, tour operation sector and improvement of public safety and security may lead to the success possibilities of tourism. But in the developing countries there is short supply of capital to provide tourist services at adequate level which causes everyday problems. The investments are more important for the state sector than for the private sector because certain tasks belong to the state sector such as transport, telecommunication, energy supply etc. (Williams 1998). If the required funds are not available in the target country investors from outside the region can be willing to invest if the region possesses marketable attractions, the political and economic situation is stable, the attitudes of the receiving country are positive and if there is profitable operation in the long term. But the greater the proportion of outside ownership in enterprises the greater the outflow of money from the local market is and the

less important the general economy stimulating impact of tourism will be. (Ryan 2003)

In the developing countries the most important achievement in the tourism development is to increase exchange income. (Ryan 2003). The development of tourism can stimulate the whole economic situation and may lead to the process of industrialization and the widening of services. The developing countries may become dependent on tourism and because of the dynamic phenomenon of tourism the changes occurring in sender country or in the receiving region can turn away tourists from the target country because tourists have lot of alternatives to choose. The developing countries can suffer from the choices tourists make. Any option of tourist attractions will promote globalization and hence individual destinations become more relevance both in their quality and in the services they provide. (Henderson 2007, 18.)

From Sharpley's (1999, 255) point of view, the tourist "ghettos" which are usually owned by foreign investors hiding tourists from the local people's life and keeping tourists in an artificially formed environment are really common in developing countries. Most of the income from the tourist ghettos is flowing abroad from the receiving country and the investments in the receiving country can contribute little to the economic development of the country. The pace of the investments in the tourist ghettos is usually really fast but at the same time the impacts of tourism development to the local people should be considered from international but also from the domestic point of view. (Vuoristo 2002, 158.) Tourism may decrease social discrepancy and may stop emigration by raising the income of inhabitants, municipalities and local enterprises and by its multiplier effects can produce positive influence on the economic improvement of the area. The untouched nature can also be an advantage in the developing countries so excess infrastructure or agriculture should not damage them. Tourism can also increase or decrease the regional disparities depending on the level of the differences. In the development of individual settlements the economy-stimulating and urbanizing impact of tourism play an important role, too. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 60–61.)

### 2.2.4 Positive and negative impacts of tourism

#### **Balance of payments**

International financial transactions with outside world and local inhabitants, enterprises and organizations in the economy of the target region determine the balance of payments (Lundberg et al. 1995, 38). Tourism has an important role as invisible export among the services in the balance of payment. The most common indicator of tourist performance is the amount of tourist receipts (balance of payments) in a number of countries. Tourism has a dual impact on the balance of payments: firstly, tourism has impacts within the country which is measured as income and secondly, it includes expenditure incurring as a result of passive tourism traffic. (Williams 1998)



From point of view of France (1997, 168) the impacts of tourism on the balance of payments can be distributed by their direct and indirect nature. The primary, direct impacts are determined by the inflow or outflow of money. In the case of secondary impacts tourists do not have to travel from one country to another, which is necessary in the case of primary impacts. Direct secondary impacts include, for example, costs of marketing activities performed abroad, fees or commissions paid for travel agents or income returned to foreign tourist investors while the indirect secondary impacts determine the income flown from tourism to other purchases of goods and services. The third category in the secondary impacts is induced impact which includes for example foreign employees, from supplier companies connected to tourism, using their salary abroad. The tertiary impacts mean the money movements which are not directly related to tourist expenditure, for instance, import products which are needed for travelling abroad. The secondary and tertiary impacts are difficult to determine because the impacts appear only in a number of sectors of the economy and it is hard to distinguish them from other impacts.

The balance of payments of tourism is one of the classifications of tourist data from the balance of payments. It compares the amount of foreign currency spent by inhabitants on tourist services abroad with the amount of money spent by foreigners in target country. The balance of tourism is important in the countries that have remarkable tourist arrival figures. For instance a small number of departures shows a surplus in the balance and contributes positively to the balance of payments. But still, none of the interpretations mentioned above cover the real financial impacts of tourism completely because they cannot fully reveal the secondary and tertiary impacts. (Cooper 2003)

According to Rátz & Puczkó (2002, 65), tourism can have positive impacts on the balance of payments, especially in the receiving countries where the government pays attention to tourism as a significant source of foreign exchange revenues with relatively small investments. Both private and state sectors are interested in high spending tourists who have a good financial background, demanding for services of similar quality and price level. In the list of tourism subsidized activities of the state fewer and fewer spending patterns of, e.g. self-catering seaside holidays are found. Still state organizations are supporting the efforts and investments of these products that are likely to make more profit than previously has been achieved.

In the countries where high black economy exists, it is hard to get real data about the actual financial impacts of tourism because the foreign currency used by tourists and the currency purchases by residents are not flown through official channels. That is the reason why every source provides different data and the actual situation can only be based on assumptions and estimations. (Bull 1995, 128–129.) The amounts spent on international transport are not listed as part of income from tourism because the travelers are registered in the country of departure. Therefore the country of destination cannot account for the amounts spent on transport as income.

Other effects of tourism are the state measures, e.g. limitations and restrictions, such as customs fees influence on the balance of payments. (Rätz & Puczko 2002, 66.)

### **Financial process in tourism**

Financial process is related to import and import intensity is an important part of the balance of payments, which all can affect the direction and the extent of financial matters. For example, in countries with high import intensity also the outflow of foreign currencies can be high. The import can be directly (goods and products are used directly by tourists) or indirectly (including all raw-materials) connected to tourism. The developing countries can have high dependency on high import because of the lack of technology, products, services which would be necessary to respond to the expectations of the quality of tourism. (Hall & Lew 2009, 120.) Among the import of raw materials also the managers will be imported because of the lack of the high knowledge in the target country but the lower skilled work can be done by less-skilled local people (Saukkonen 1999, 22–23). Also the geographical and climate characteristics are important to the target region (Hemmi et al. 1987, 116).

According to Des Chenes (2009, 40), tourism may cause a rise in prices especially in the areas that are involved in tourism because of the seasonal nature of tourism (the enterprises have just part of the year time to earn whole year profit). Tourists' ability to pay higher prices has negative impact to local people and the prices can even remain the same in the end of the tourism season, which is not fair to the local people. From the positive point of view tourism may raise the value of the target country, e.g. the growth of the demand can raise the price of the land and hence also raise the prices of the buildings in the area. This can lead to a situation where prices get higher than before and local people are selling their land and buildings. However, the buildings with higher prices are non-purchasable to other local people because of different backgrounds. (Saukkonen 1999, 55–56; Henderson 2007, 24.) The lower prices in a region, sight or settlement attract more tourists, especially shopping tourism than in other areas offering the same services with higher prices. But still it is dangerous to base tourism only on the price advantage because tourism is such a dynamic phenomenon and it can make established services become unutilized. The price and quality ratio of the services is more and more important to the decision making of tourists. (Hemmi et al. 1987, 42–43.)

The spending of tourists is an important part of the financial process and the purchasing power of certain national currencies influences on the amount of distribution of money spent. But if the purchasing power is low it is dangerous to base tourism on that. Inflation affects tourism as well because production and consumption cannot be done in advance thus avoiding the price-raising effect of inflation. Even today the tourism businesses try to sell the reservations and holidays as early as possible to avoid the enforcement of the impacts of inflation. The high inflation rate makes investors think twice because the rapid devaluation of money makes in-

investments impossible and increases the risk of investing their own capital. Inflation also has negative impacts on the willingness to travel. If domestic prices are rising more than the prices abroad the tourism flow will move to foreign countries. (Bull 1995, 136.)

According to Rátz & Puczkó (2002, 70), the investments are a part of the tourist cash flows especially in the developing countries where most of foreign capital is invested in tourism. The state usually supports foreign investors when the local resources are limited and there is no possibility to establish services. Of course, foreign investors would bring along their expertise and experience, necessary resources, enhancing the international image of the target country, attracting other potential investors, leading the target country to international markets, bringing the country to the world map and acquiring professional and management skills by training local employees (Saukkonen 1999, 23). Investments can also increase international inequality. The developed world is able to make investments of a large volume while in the developing countries the proportion of investments in tourism is lower than the world average. The investments from developed countries to foreign countries can reduce domestic investments hence reducing the multiplier effects as well. It is unfavorable for the home country but positive for the country receiving investments. The profits from investments can return to the home country or to international investors, creating the possibility of travelling for the inhabitants of the investors' home country but still creating other developed economies to the destination country. The invested money has multiplier effects on the economy of the mother country but in the worst case no perceivable impact on the receiving country. (Ryan 2003)

According to Sharpley & Telfer (2002), with a small amount of capital small tourism enterprises can be invested in, which might strengthen the business revival in places that had not prospered before. The cash flow and the distribution of costs and time are in close connection with each other. The major investments are usually in the beginning when the inflow of cash is low hence incentives are needed. The tourism industry is cyclical not just because of the seasonality but also because larger renovations and reconstructions are needed every few years.

Internationalization in the tourism industry leads to horizontal (connection between enterprises having the same type of activities) and vertical (integration refers to the connection between companies operating on different areas of tourism) globalization of services. Nowadays it is less important where a company is registered and where the headquarters are located. For example international companies can produce the income in one place and reinvest it in another side of the world and not necessarily in the tourism industry but for instance in telecommunications. (Shaw & Williams 2004, 11, 34.) Globalization also leads to the concentration of capital and to the expansion of the role of global companies in the enforcement of interests and in the determination of the process (Saukkonen 1999, 24). Private enterprises diversify of the tourism industry as their advantage is their small size and flexibility. However, they are restricted by local resources to

finance the overdue renovations and development. While the international companies see good opportunities in developing or reorganizing a company, these investors can come from the same profession, providing their management and expertise or from financial sector when the most important aspect is the rate of return. New successful tourism products can lead international companies to purchase smaller companies or make their existence impossible. The development of information technology has brought changes to the financial process simplifying international payment, e.g. by increasing the use of credit cards but at the same time involving technological investments in the tourist enterprises. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 72–73.)

### **Added value and tourism**

Gross Domestic Product, GDP, is a measure of the economy while the Gross National Product GNP describes the production of receipts including the inbound and revenue receipts. (Bull 1995, 124–125.) According to the above, in more developed countries the value of GNP exceeds the GDP, because companies can invest larger amounts of money abroad than enterprises from the less developed countries. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 73.)

According Hall & Lew (2009, 103–105), the GDP in the tourism industry includes the amount of domestic tourism spending on consumption, value of the investments in tourist purposes, the amount spent by foreign tourists on products and services and the outflow from another country's tourism industry to another. The contribution of tourism to the GDP in the countries with low domestic tourism and dependent on international tourism can influence on the relation of tourism to the GDP. For example, local conditions, general technological level and economic growth are connected to the country's social and political stability or instability. Attitudes and conventions effect equally to the population of the receiving region and to the behavior of tourists and to their willingness to travel and to the size of amounts for tourism investments. So if tourism exceeds 50% of the economy's total performance, tourism is more likely the main economic activity which indicates the dependence on tourism. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 73–74.)

The contribution of tourism to the GDP is restricted by several phenomena, for e.g. by the possibility to have a certain proportion of services free of charge, the black economy, expenses reported in a different country than where they were incurred, different utilization of central and private revenues, difficulties to express social expenses and profits in figures and the question of public property. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 74–75.)

### **Tourists' spending and distribution of revenues**

The composition of tourists' spending is distribution of revenues among the elements of supply. The primary benefits of tourists' spending become from all sub-sectors of the tourism industry (Figure 5). The utilization on certain levels cannot re-employ the entire spending because no economy is self-sufficient. It needs import in a certain form to a certain extent. Import

means the outflow of revenues and resources from the economy, and from the further utilization point of view the income flowing out can be considered lost too. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 75–76.)

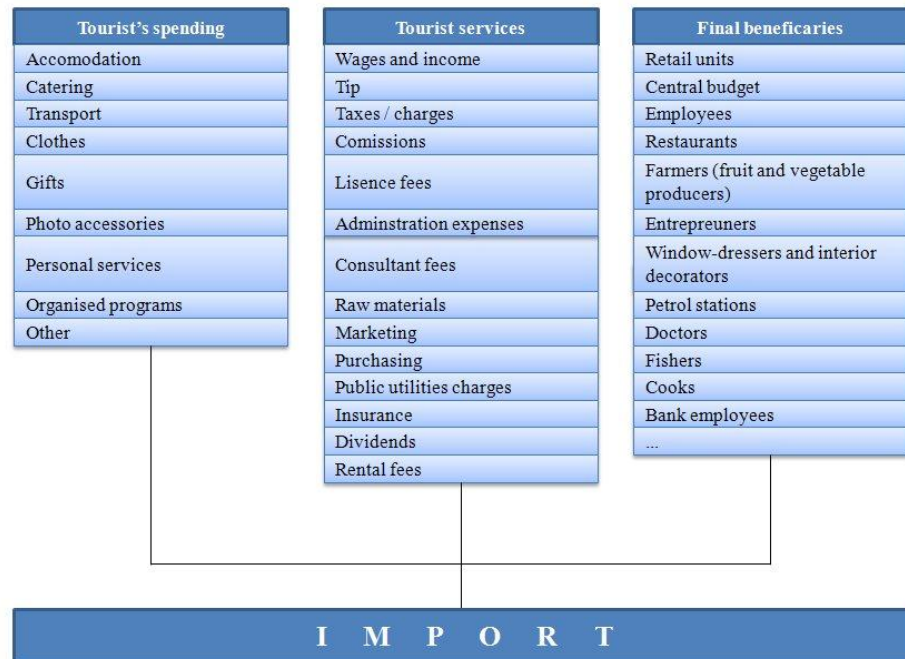


FIGURE 5 Schematic structure of spending

According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 76–77), the internal proportions of tourist spending can be different depending on the sending regions and different tourist activities. In other words, different types of tourists have different spending habits and different kind of tourism activities are generally differently valued by spent costs, e.g. golf tourism compared to self-catering tourism. Adventure tourism can afford higher charges but tourists pay trips in advance and not to the local enterprises because they want to reach the place before anyone else. Often the target country cannot provide spending possibilities and then there is a lack of established services and the tourists' spending in the region is rarely low. Familiar tourism places and services are provided often by international companies, thus the revenues outflow from the destination places abroad. In the determination of economic benefits and expenses according to the sub-sectors it should be concentrated on tourists' spending of different products in the target countries. Tourism is advantageous for some enterprises because people travel abroad and disadvantageous from the point of view of the balance of payments compared to tourists' spending before the journey in the departure country to the spending in receiving country. The expansion of the tourism industry, new tourist products, recreation programs and the diversification of service providers and product manufacturers have a positive impact on the growth of the economy. The economic impacts of tourism are simpler to trace from the primary circle compared to the secondary and tertiary circle when the multipliers have also been calculated. (Williams 1997)

### Multiplier effects

From point of view of Hall & Lew (2009, 103–104), tourists’ spending in the target country includes both income and leakage. The tourist (income) multiplier determines parts of total income generated in the economy. The multiplier model of tourism includes all the sectors affected by one unit of tourist expenditure and money flows to all financial sectors. According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 80–81), the tourist spending of 1000 US\$ will generate a total income of 2000 US\$ in the entire economy. (Figure 6)

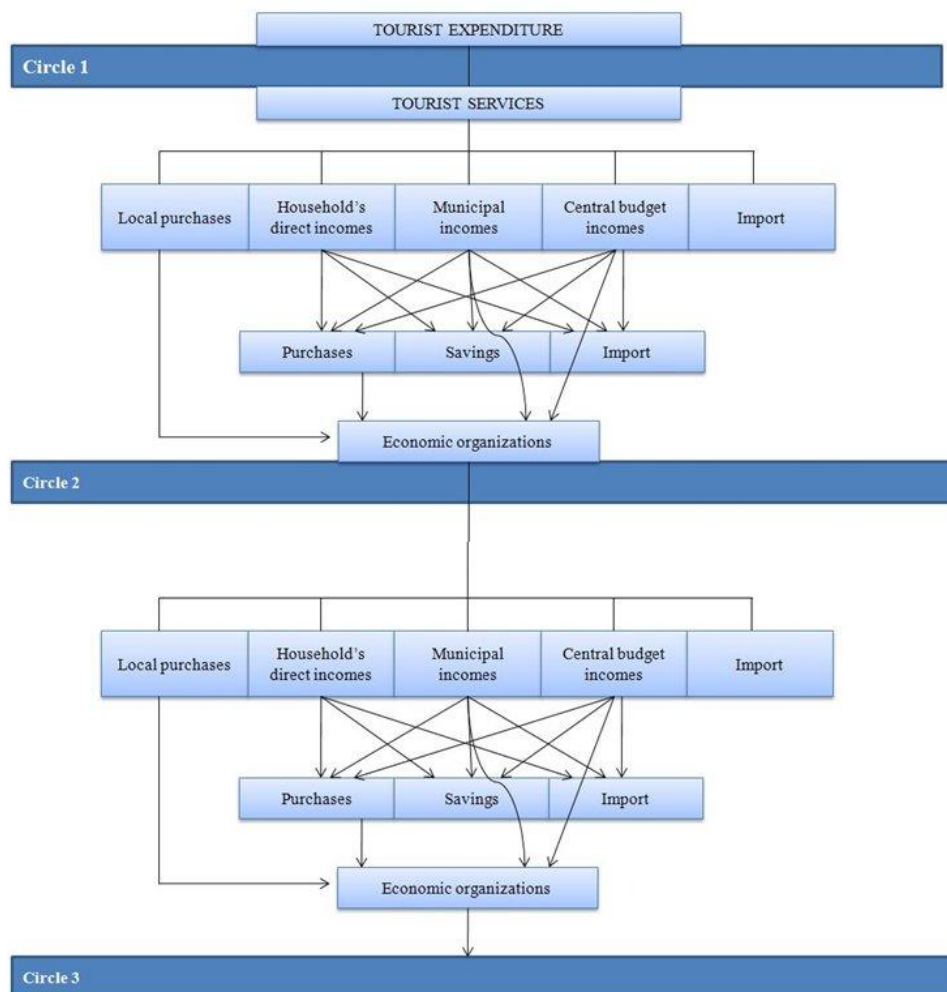


FIGURE 6 The simplified multiplier model

The leakage is part of the impacts of multipliers and can be found in the financial process, which means that less money gets back into economic circulation. The leakage can be a consequence of taxes, imports or savings. (Des Chenes 2009, 38–39.)

There are three different kinds of expenditure multipliers: direct expenditure, which means that service fees are paid directly by tourists to service providers. Indirect expenditure includes e.g. the growth of work opportunities hence leading to the growth of personal incomes and induced spending refers to increasing income and then to total growth of the economy.

(Cooper et al. 1998, 132–133.) The multipliers are different in every country due to different tourist patterns, import propensity and composition or because the ownership structure of the economy. Production (output) multiplier, consumption / sales multiplier, employment multiplier and the budget multiplier (government revenue) should be taken into account. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 82–83.)

According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 83–84), to determine the impacts of one additional unit of tourist consumption multipliers have to be applied multipliers to define the additional income, employment, production and consumption. Other results can lead to wrong information. The multipliers are limited because of the inaccuracy originating from the applied data and statistics, which are based on future trends and do not follow economic and environmental changes.

### **Employment and tourism**

The most significant economic and social impact of tourism is the creation of workplaces. The tourism industry has been considered as a sector with good employment creation abilities but most of the work places are only seasonal, requiring a low education level and meaning a possibility mainly for women. (Hall & Lew 2009, 109.)

To consider the costs of creating tourist employment is not easy, especially in multinational companies such as hotel chains. The direct employment multiplier is the workplaces created as a consequence of the amounts spent by tourists while the indirect employment multiplier is the workplace which is created in the tourist sector, but is not connected to the tourist's expenses directly. (Williams 1998.) The induced employment multiplier is additional employment when the spending of the tourist employee's income makes it possible to create new job opportunities. Still the employment multiplier value is significantly lower than the value of income multiplier and sometimes the employment multipliers can lead to black economy employment, where the employees are not registered officially. Tourism employment and tourism quality improve the standards of service, which means that there are more employees per guests and employees should have "personal roles". Modern equipment and technologies can replace the workforce. However, a growing self employment tendency is to create new professions such as an animator. In developing countries self employment is really common as vendors, taxi drivers etc. because local people work rather alone, in order not to pay anyone salary. A major part of workforce in tourism belongs to the under-qualified and underpaid category (Vuoristo 2002, 88). According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 85–91), 64% employees working in accommodation and other services are semi-skilled labor compared to other economic sectors. Especially in accommodation services the daily operation needs just a few day in-house training to know everything that is expected. No high level education is needed. However, in the new professions, such as in animators and organizers require some special skills and the higher education is needed.

According to Williams (1998), high salaries are found only in tourist professions that require international competitiveness and high-standard knowledge such as airline pilots, chefs etc. In the developing countries a good education level is not needed in the professions mentioned above but at the same time it means that a good salary is not paid either.

A high staff turnover in tourism is a consequence of not very high salaries, seasonality (employers hire employees just for a given season not permanently) and high ratio of unskilled labor. Tourism can pull labor from permanent sectors, especially from agriculture to the seasonal jobs and at the same time cause migration among settlements. The workers with high-qualifications often have a permanent workplace having a holiday or a transfer to another region during the off-season. The tourism industry has full and part time jobs, which has been found especially in the well-developed countries. To have a part time job is a consequence of two main reasons: most of the tourist places need service twenty-four hours a day and employing part time labor part of the fixed variable costs can be made. There are certain segments that are interested in part time work, such as students or people who want a second job. (Ryan 2003) According to Kalmari & Kelola (2009, 8), tourism also increases the workforce of women, in the year 1992 50% of all employees in the tourism industry were women but in some regions it had risen to 70%. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 85–91.)

### **Income and expenses**

From point of view of Sharpley & Telfer (2002), tourism affects both generating incomes and expenses to the investments and hence has a significant impact on the state, regional and municipality budgets. On the state level it has a direct connection to tourism and an indirect connection to the development of tourism, such as educational, social legal and diplomatic duties.

To increase income from tourism primary sources are taxes, customs and other fees, of which direct taxation and customs have proved to be most significant. To clarify the importance of tourism for the target region all taxes and tax-like income should be taken into account. The changes in tourism can lead to a situation where tourism cannot exist in the target region anymore which should be taken into account too. In taxation the value-added tax, VAT, has to be taken into account. It is usually included in all products and services and plays a significant role in income of budget. The fees collected when going abroad, so called entry tax, e.g. at the airports, is part of the income and a tool to decrease expenses in foreign exchange. (Bull 1995, 212–214.)

According Elliot (1997), the expenses can be divided into direct, e.g. operational costs of national tourism organizations and into indirect expenses on publications or participation in professional exhibitions. At state level indirect expenses create the necessary basis of the infrastructure which is indirectly connected to the development of tourism. It is rare that the pri-



vate sector takes care of the infrastructure but nowadays it has become more common. Especially in places where there is liberal economic policy because of the growing popularity and concessions infrastructure is created. At the same time the responsibility of the development is not taken into account. In regions where the tourism industry is an important part of the economy investments in infrastructure are made in the interest of serving tourism directly and promoting the development of tourism. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 93.)

In the tourism industry the provided expenses appear in short term for the state while the indirect income appears in long term. State support can be divided into four main groups: 1) economic goals, e.g. creating workplaces, 2) political goals, e.g. improving the international reputation of the country, 3) environment protection goals and social policy goals, e.g. supporting recreation and travel activities. There are also different kinds of public tourist incentives to facilitate the development of tourism. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 94.)

The promotion of domestic tourism development need to be supported directly and indirectly inter alia socio-tourism, domestic marketing, tourist product development and research which increase scope of tasks of the state too. In less developed countries it is common that international tourism plays primary role and domestic tourism a secondary role because of low domestic demand, high domestic and more favorable foreign prices, exchange rates and price / value rates favorable to foreigners. But beside the above mentioned things, the domestic tourism income is a major part of the world's turnover and in the long run it produces more income to the economy and society than international tourism. (Elliot 1997)

### **Structure of economy and tourism**

The primary support of tourism development comes from the government and usually it is directed to regions that have no other significant economic factors or the regions' important activities are decreasing (Williams 1998).

The dependence on tourism usually appears in the developing countries because their economy is mono-cultural and the areas are relatively underdeveloped. From the point of view of developing region's population and their enterprises, it is rather dangerous to be dependent on tourism because international trends are changing quickly and the dependence on tourism can mean at the same time dependence on larger international enterprises. A good indicator of dependence on tourism is the proportion of people employed in tourism from the total number of employees. (Sharpley & Telfer 2002)

From point of view of Rátz & Puczkó's (2002, 96), support of the tourism industry should measure the potential costs and clarify if tourism is the only supportable economic activity in the target country. External impacts of tourist activities increase in proportion to the expense factors. The most

important expense factor is the degradation of natural and built environment. Termination or reduction of external investments affects directly the financial resources directly, e.g. local population and enterprises as public and local budgets. The calculation of economic impacts is usually connected to the correlating expenses of getting to the world market and staying there, and to the domestic market, and to the tourist development. (Sharpley & Telfer 2002)

The tourism industry regions that already possess a well-established network of relationships exhibit a wider range of professional knowledge. This will assist them also to the international market. The new tourism industries have to convince the markets first to be part of them. In the underdeveloped regions the local resources are rather limited and therefore it creates good opportunities to external investors. Otherwise it takes a long time to get to the international market all by themselves. (Figure 7) (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 96–98.)

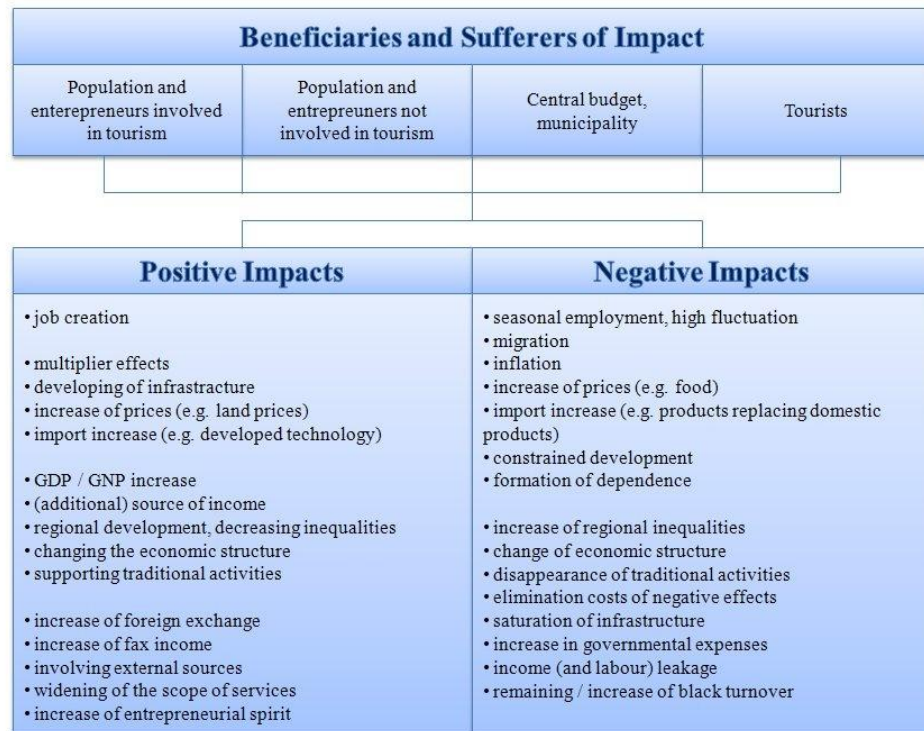


FIGURE 7 Summary of economic impacts of tourism

### 2.3 The physical impacts of tourism

Tourists consume the product in the tourist destinations, so the impacts of tourism are concentrated on the places visited by tourists (Davidson & Maitland 1997, 88). According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 167–175), the physical environment includes natural resources, flora and fauna, landscapes and built environment. Since ancient times nature has been the centre of life and respected because ancient cultures’ own existence was dependent on nature. This paradigm is a part of tourism, too. Highlighted

sustainable development ideas have contributed indirectly to the development of tourism. (Table 2)

TABLE 2 *Environmental issues and tourism*

<b>Era</b>	<b>Environmental questions</b>	<b>Tourism</b>
1950s	Enjoyment and use	Beginning of mass tourism
1960s	Appearance of social sensitivity, protests	Quick growth, development
1970s	First environment protection laws Highlight on visual, air and water pollution	Nature as attraction Growth and development Growing role of marketing
1980s	Direct appearance of environment damaging impacts and their influences: acid rains, global heating up, thinning ozone layer	First scientific impact studies World-wide business Technical development
1990s	Changes in the climate, global impacts, growing deserts, deforestation	Ecotourism Maintainable tourism

Tourism has both a direct and indirect relationship with its environment and some of the effects are local and others are directed from the outside of the target region. The strength and permanence of tourism impacts are affected by the form of travel, the type of tourism, the volume and concentration of visitors, the concentration in space and time, activities (characteristics and duration) and the scale of tourism development (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 173; Davidson & Maitland 1997, 90). It is not clear which changes of environment are caused by tourism and just a part of the impacts of tourism can be separated from the other effects of human activities. (Hemmi 2005, 41–43). It is also good to remember that the impacts of tourism and tourists are not equal and should be analyzed separately because of the complex phenomenon of tourism and the sub-sectors and their positive and negative impacts. It is still impossible to say for sure who or what the emitter is or to what extent are the polluters responsible for the impacts on the environment. The physical environment can be divided into two main groups: the natural environment, which includes the natural resources, the flora and fauna, and the forms of landscapes and the built environment, which includes everything that man established or constructed artificially in a given territory. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 213, 216, 171.)

### 2.3.1 Theoretical models

The interrelationship between tourism and the environment works in two different ways: the physical environment should protect the benefits of tourism because the physical elements of environment are major attractions for tourists but all these elements have to be protected from tourism and its negative impacts. So programmes have to be developed to prevent the negative impacts of tourism. (Hemmi et al. 1987, 281.) According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 173), there are three different kinds of tourist

groups: 1) those who advocate the conservation of the environment at any price, 2) those for whom nature is something that can be used and preserved at the same time and 3) those who exploit the environment for their own interests.

The analysis of tourism impacts on the natural environment and on the built environment should be concentrated on the emitters, the types, the way and the scope of pollution and on the indirect impacts (Cooper et al. 1998, 150–151, 155–156). The integrated tourism strategies such as development plans and standards can prevent a part of the negative impacts of tourism development. In other words, the attractions of the physical environment create a positive base for tourism development while the impact of tourism on its environment is usually negative. These observations apply to the built environment as well as the natural environment. But tourism has also positive impacts, such as raising awareness of the importance of environmental protection as well as supporting the international tourist trends like green tourism and ecotourism. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 174–176; Hemmi 2005, 42.)

### **Tourist destination life cycle model**

According to France (1997, 54–55), the Butler's model, Life Cycle of tourist destination (1980), (Figure 8, Cooper et al. 1998, 114.) describes the product cycle concept from a slowly increasing level (small number of tourists, lack of access, facilities and knowledge) to rapid growth. With rapid growth of the awareness also marketing and information dissemination will grow and lead to a stabilized level. Subsequently because of the number of tourists the rate of growth will decline when the level of carrying capacities is reached. The environmental capacity can be determined by several factors: natural resources (land scarcity, water quality, air quality), by physical plan (transportation, accommodation, other services), or by social factors (crowding, resentment by the local population). The attractiveness of the area and the actual number of tourists can decline subsequently relative to other areas, because of overuse and the impacts of visitors. (Butler 2005; Fennell 1999.)

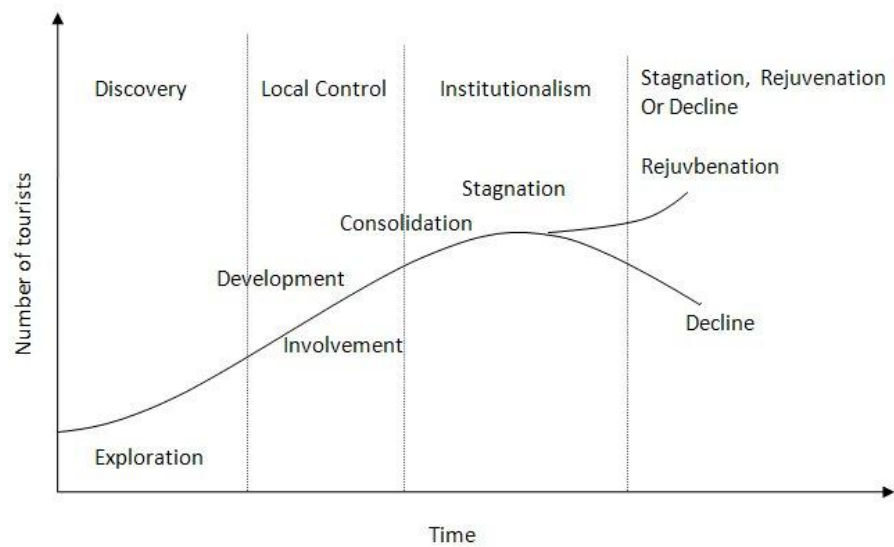


FIGURE 8 *Hypothetical tourist area life cycle*

### **Budowski's model**

According to Hall & Lew (2009, 194), the Budowski's model (1976) which is based on Butler's life cycle model, compares the development stages of tourism within a region and its environmental relations, taking into account the characteristics of both areas. The model includes following stages: 1. coexistence, 2. conflict and 3. symbiotic. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 176; Fennel 1999.)

The coexistence type of relationship resembles the stage of Butler's exploration and involvement. Coexistence characterises the early period of tourism development when visitors have not discovered the area. Tourism is not a tool to achieve the objectives of the environmental protection or conservation projects. The state of tourism is not static because of tourists' shorter or longer periods of stay. (Hall & Lew 2009, 194; Rátz & Puczko 2002, 176.)

The emergence of a conflict is the normal consequence of early coexistence stage, because tourism is unplanned and inappropriately controlled. A detrimental process may continue for years but nowadays the impacts can be perceived, such as erosion, accumulation of poisonous substances, destruction of habitats, changes in the structure and style of settlements. (Hall & Lew 2009, 149.) Tourists have a role to avoid conflicts, but still the typical reasons for the conflict between tourism and the environment are: lack of comprehensive operational mechanisms of the physical environment, lack of knowledge of the impacts of tourism activities on the physical environment, conflict between economic and environmental interests. However, nowadays you can be environmentally friendly and economically profitable at the same time, and it can be profitable to invest in environmental technologies for marketing / image reasons. The investments in sustainable development will return in long term because it will

decrease using energy at the same time. The carrying capacity of environmental elements varies from positive impacts to negative impacts and will emerge just in long term. The direct impacts can be more easily perceived than the indirect ones, so it is important to understand the cause and effect relationship to avoid the indirect impacts. The lack of co-operation can achieve the conflict. Voluntary activities, changing consumers' expectations and the research of tourism have special role to eliminate conflict situations. The science can convince politicians so that has an important role in this issue. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 176–179.)

The symbiotic relationship can be the optimal situation in which organisations and responsible participants are governed by common interests. Environmental conservation can be supportive and beneficial when tourist trips are organized to ensure that tourists receive their benefits. (Hall & Lew 2009, 194.) From the physical environment point of view the symbiotic relationship is protection of environment or recreation of natural or original conditions whereas from the tourism point of view the physical environment is a resource, an attraction. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 179.)

### 2.3.2 Local and global environmental impacts

Both natural and built environments are affected by local and global impacts, such as mass tourism and acid rains. At local level the tourism services are major sources of local pollution and contribute directly to the global process, whereas the global impacts are dynamic and it take years to eliminate them or to adapt to them. The impacts at local and global level can be distributed in four different substances: 1) global-global (depletion of the ozone layer), 2) global-local (exhausting of energy resources and substituting them with local raw materials and energy resources), 3) local-global (a country dumping pollutant into the sea, so that the pollution of environment does not only take place at the site of usage, but also long distances away) and 4) local-local (crowding and congestion in target region). (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 180–183, 215.)

### 2.3.3 Indirect and direct environmental impacts

The direct impacts of tourism are, for example increasing littering. It is linked to the indirect impacts like increasing waste treatment, but it is hard to make a difference between indirect and direct problems. (Duffy 2002, 53). A common rule is that direct impacts can be perceived earlier than the indirect ones. It is also hard to separate tourism and other polluters from each other especially, if there are a lot of other different services and industrial activities in a target region. Usually in that case the environmental impacts of tourism are just based on assumptions. The impacts of tourism are usually compared to the economic indicators to understand the cause of environmental changes, but that assumed value is just theoretical value. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 183–184.)

According to Rátz & Puczko (2002, 184–185), in the classification of indirect-direct environmental impacts of tourism there are more differences between natural and built environment than in the classification local-global. There are more direct impacts in the natural environment such as dripstones and trees than in the built environment like roads and buildings. The impacts on the built environment can be perceived usually in long term and are more complex than the impacts on natural environment. For example architectural impacts can be indirect and caused by 1) bringing satisfaction to tourists, 2) investing in the new constructions of tourism or 3) following a new trend or fashion.

### 2.3.4 Reversible and irreversible environmental impacts

Reversible impacts (billboards) can be restored to the original conditions or similar to the original, while irreversible impacts (extinction of species) are impossible to restore. However, even reversible impacts will be restored after many years, e.g. tourists trampling of vegetation (Williams 1998). There are also quasi reversible impacts, which mean the restoration can be possible, but not in practice, because of high elimination costs. The demolition of buildings to the initial conditions or close to that is too expensive. It is not easy to restore tourism impacts on natural environment neither on built environment. The affecting tourism factors are concrete form, expansion and size of tourism and the carrying capacity of environment which will vary between the target regions but the impacts of tourism can be similar in all areas. But still the geographic conditions can substantially influence the volume of impacts as well as the techniques can affect the management of the impacts. The resistance of an area and its characteristics is one of the major factors that determine the tourism impacts, e.g. urban regions can tolerate the traffic better than forest regions can. (Hemmi 2005, 43.) The limited area and limited economic opportunities can complicate appropriate waste treatment capacity but it can make it simpler to organize collection. So, the geographic size and conditions can both be benefits or disadvantages. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 185–186, 209–210.)

### 2.3.5 Positive and negative impacts of tourism in natural environment

The impacts of tourism are usually categorized as positive and negative impacts based on their positive or negative characteristics. The negative impacts are more obvious because they are usually direct impacts and thus easier to perceive than the positive ones. It is paid more attention to negative impacts especially if those are caused by tourists but if local people act similar way that is not so significant problem. Positive impacts on physical environment caused by tourism are less taken into account and the impacts are not associated usually with tourism because the positive impacts are mainly indirect ones. Tourism is supported and developed because of the favorable economic impacts, e.g. environmental protection cannot be possible without gathered taxes by tourism. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 186–187; Boers & Bosh 1994, 18–19.)

### **Impacts on air**

The main impacts on air are increasing ozone depletion and the enrichment of chemical elements in the atmosphere. The obvious impacts of tourism are air pollution such as transportation, (60% of the world's reserves of fossil fuels are consumed by tourism) and all heating and air conditionings systems in catering and accommodation establishments. All this may cause increasing global warming. (Boers & Bosh 1994, 30; Hemmi 2005, 62.) A less obvious impact is the unpleasant smell in transportation and accommodation establishments. The noise impacts from transportation, catering, attractions and so on, are in connection with impacts on air. Noise impacts usually disturb the locals' everyday life and may force some animal species to leave their habitat. (Williams 1998.) Tourists usually do not consider noise pollution to be a significant problem because it is usually caused by their entertainment activities. The solutions to avoid noise pollution from public road traffic can be isolating walls. There are very few positive impacts on air quality. For example cars are expelled from shopping centres because of tourism, but that is an indirect impact and can only be perceived in very limited areas. Because of the positive economic impacts of tourism, technology can also be developed to decrease negative emissions. (Rätz & Puczkó 2002, 187–188.)

### **Impacts on geology**

Littering has most damaging consequences to the quality of geological environment. Uncollected waste which is not attractive and it can produce poison to the soil. Still there are many places with litter because the litter bins are hardly ever emptied. If the resorts do not commit to the requirements of cleanliness then not only tourism should be blamed for pollution. An indirect impact on the geological environment is acid rain which is caused by heavy metals emitted into the air by transport. (Rätz & Puczkó 2002, 189–190.)

Untreated waste water is also a problem especially in smaller tourism companies. Because of economic reasons, local community uses a so-called interceptor container system but the problem is the wastewater often running off the interceptors into the soil. The wastewater does not pollute only the soil, but also the surface and sub-surface of water affecting then the flora and fauna because most toxins and pollutants infiltrate into the soil through the water. A good example of that is caused by road transportation like washing cars and changing the oil. (Boers & Bosh 1994, 33; Hemmi 2005, 44–47.)

Erosion caused by tourism is typical especially in mountain areas having negative impacts especially in the places with thin soil surface (Boers & Bosh 1994, 31). The erosion process will continue because of wind and rain. It can threaten animals and plants. Caves and mountains are major tourist attractions, which are affected by the building of routes and lights construction. Large numbers of visitors cause erosion, e.g. touching stalactites. (Hemmi 2005, 54–57.)



The impacts of tourism to the geological environment are big but they can also contribute to the prevention or the elimination of geological destruction by technological improvements and with measures to protect against erosion. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 190–191.)

### **Impacts on water**

From Hemmi's (2005, 45) point of view, the most pollution is caused by cruise liners and their waste dump. The contaminate quality of water and the water news itself very slowly. According to Rátz & Puczkó (2002, 191), the organic substances especially phosphorous cause eutrophication in the water. The enrichment of organic substances increases the quantity of algae, which has negative impacts to tourism when the conditions of safe swimming are not be guaranteed anymore.

Sewage treatment is important to the environment, but also to the local community. Triple treatment is needed i.e., physical, chemical and biological, to achieve the adequate cleanliness level. The problem of sewage treatment is significant in the areas of mass tourism where tourism is concentrated to the space and time and also the pressure of the environment is concentrated to the same place because of attractions. Seasonality different pressure makes it difficult to define the optimum capacity of sewage treatment between tourism seasonality and locals' needs. (Williams 1998.)

A big problem is also sun lotion. Tourists use several hundreds of bottles during the high season and it is not water soluble. Sun lotion decreases water's oxygen and affects flora and fauna. Of course, water transport and leisure boats pollute the water. (Hemmi 2005, 45; Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 192.)

### **Impacts on natural resources**

The over-exploitation of natural resources can be connected to tourism. This appears in transportation using fuel or in attractions, accommodations and establishments of catering which are heated by coal, oil or gas, not by the renewable resources. The fresh water is also threatened and it is in close connection with sewage system so it is really important to save water, not to waste it but to use water in responsible way. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 193). According to Holden (2000), the impacts of tourism's development occur too often as prohibition of local people's access to the water resources. At the same time 100 luxury hotel guests for 55 days will use 15 000 cubic meters of water whilst the same amount of water will be used by 100 nomads or by 100 rural farmers in three years and by 100 urban families in two years.

### **Impacts on vegetation and wild life**

The first impacts of tourism can cause the greatest damage to the least resistant species because those species die out while the most resistant ones

can adapt and breed. Man should learn much more about nature when creating tourism products in nature. The impacts on the vegetation and wild life can be classified in two categories: non-consuming, which means impacts on the environment without any loss of plants or animal species, and consuming, which includes tourism activities, such as hunting and fishing. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 194–195.)

Tourism can directly or indirectly contribute to the protection of valuable nature areas and animal species by protecting nature in national parks. Those areas are usually protected from tourists but the designation can make the place more attractive and increase tourism supply. Animal species are protected from inhabitants, too, even if today inhabitants present the animals as tourism attractions rather than letting them be poached. Tourism can damage animals' wild life by generating different changes in reactions, e.g. in the natural reproduction process or in the nutrition process. Usually tourism attractions are unique from some point of view but also because they are vulnerable. (Boers & Bosh 1994, 28.) The funds for the operation of the target area are usually collected from entry fees. National parks have also negative consequences. Over-population of elephants in Africa causes harvest problems for local people and causes conflicts between tourists, locals and nature protection. Protected animals find the area too small and this may be only solved by a resettlement of the inhabitants. (Kalmari & Kelola 2009, 7.) National parks have positive impacts on the environment but at the same time negative impacts on the local community and on tourists because of limiting the allowed activities in the region and the number of tourists. The local community understands the value of natural environment, because the environment is an attraction for tourism. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 194–196.)

Positive impacts of tourism increase the value of built environment and improve the quality of the natural environment. Well-being cities are important both for tourists and for people not involved in tourism at all. The revenues of tourism can contribute the maintenance of public areas via taxes and the fees of services operated by the municipality. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 196; Theobald 1998, 75.)

The consuming factors of the nature are fishing and hunting especially if these are not organized and managed. The perceived impacts of environment will be affected by the volume and the nature of activities. The public and new roads and the animal accidents have increased. However, increased public transport does not necessarily mean the growth of tourism traffic. The tourism development usually overtakes agricultural areas which can cause the meadows and groves to disappear. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 197–198.) All this can cause ecological disturbance, first changes in the composition of flora and then changes in the fauna. The result of the process can be a disappearance of some plants and animal species and some other unforeseeable consequences in long term. The disappearance of natural land can increase the threat of erosion. Animals change their habitat for many different reasons such as disturbances of tourists, hunting

and not finding food. After animals' departure the tourism area may lose its attraction and basis. (Williams 1998.)

Collecting souvenirs is an impact of tourism and can damage the environment in the target country. The impact can be direct, collecting protected plants or hunting by tourists or it can be indirect when local community or enterprises start to collect and sell protected or rare species to earn their livelihood and to respond to tourists' demand. (Shaw & Williams 2004, 27–28.) Tourism services are consuming in other ways too, e.g. using packing materials or raw materials for catering. The others not so common impacts of tourism are causing forest fires, collecting wood illegally, which is done by local people who collect wood for their normal subsistence. This is usually called “subsistence crime”. The visual tourism impacts can increase the value of the environment. A plantation of typical flowers and plants offers positive impacts both to the local people and tourists. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 200–201.) So, when the development of tourism is planned and led by highly skilled people with revaluation thoughts most of the negative impacts can be avoided. (Saukkonen 1999, 31).

### 2.3.6 Positive and negative impacts of tourism on the built environment

According to Vuoristo (2002, 202), the built environment is the tourism region and the dwindling resources as the natural environment. From Vuoristo's (2002, 202) point of view, especially the historical and cultural attractions should be protected from mass tourism.

#### **Impacts on land and on destruction**

Tourism can cause changes in a destination's land use patterns, e.g. growing building areas for commercial, communal or developmental purposes. The growth of built areas will decrease the available natural land. The built environment can also cause visual pollution, especially in the places of second homes or holiday resorts. The most popular destinations are 1) coasts, 2) mountain areas, 3) the agglomeration of large cities and 4) the vicinity of natural wonders. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 202–204.) From point of view of Hemmi et al. (1987, 281), the landscape destruction has close connection to visual pollution which both are related to the natural and built environment, e.g. increasing site cover may cause visual damage.

#### **Impacts on the infrastructure**

The infrastructure including water and sewage network, energy supply, telecommunication services and road network is the basis for the tourism industry. The adequate service capacity can also contribute to the decrease of tourism's negative impacts and at the same time the development of tourism can cause the development of the infrastructure. Tourism is not the only one reason to investment in infrastructure because also local people demand it after understanding the physical, social and economic impacts. Consequently the government should invest in infrastructure of the target country as well as take part in the costs to eliminate environ-

mental damages. This can also motivate the private enterprises. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 204–205.) The infrastructure can pollute the visual landscape with cables, telephone and electricity wires and so on. The development of infrastructural centers, e.g. transportation can cause aesthetics problems and exceeding of carrying capacity. (Hemmi 2005, 58–59.)

The seasonality of tourism due to economic and climatic reasons has impacts on the infrastructure of the country. Lower seasonal demand means better usage of infrastructure and lower peak capacities (Boers & Bosh 1994, 28). The high season increases the usage of raw materials which increases the need for local and imported raw materials from other regions / countries thereby increasing demands for the infrastructure. Expanding the tourist season both in time and in space can be done by offering new products and running a new promotional campaign. However, the out-of-tourist-seasons the restoring of the damages are also necessary for regeneration of nature and to the buildings. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 204–205, 210, 215.)

### **Visual impacts**

The built environment and the visual impacts of tourism have a close connection to each other. They have the clearest balance between negative and positive impacts of tourism (Williams 1998). Tourism gives new functions by changing the built environment. For example a building that is out of use and has lost its original function can be re-built to satisfy tourists' needs. It is profitable from economic and cultural point of view to find new functions to old. Old buildings, old ports and industrial districts in central areas of settlement can cause serious problems too. To attract and retain the tourists the environment should be well kept including the styles, the colors and maintenance of the houses and the gardens. Tourists' behavior in protecting the environment sets standards for the local community increasing their sensitivity and willingness to act for the environment, especially in the places where tourism is the main source of livelihood. Environmental protection can cause conflicts between local people and second home owners, because environment protection may not be an important issue to the foreigners. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 205–207.)

Willful vandalism, visits of mass tourism or environment pollutions (acid rain) damage attractions especially in cultural and in historical sites (Boers & Bosh 1994, 18). Also vibrations caused by public road and air traffic have negative impacts on the built environment. Changing the whole settlement can cause visual pollution, e.g. if the buildings do not suite the environment, which is usually based on the architectural norms of a certain area. The billboards and advertisements can damage areas with their colors and size because they do not fit in the landscape. Components of the built and natural environment are closely connected, because e.g. really high buildings can affect not only in a visual way but also the micro-weather in a negative way. Accordingly, piers and ports can disturb natural water flows. (Rátz & Puczkó 2002, 208–211.)

## 2.4 The socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Tourism is a social phenomenon which consists of travellers, hosts and employees. People are travelling to get to know other societies in the world; travellers are giving and getting impacts. The impacts affect the tourists less than the residents of the destinations. When the differences are bigger between the resident and the tourist more social-cultural changes are expected. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 114; Lundberg 1990, 246.) The social and cultural impacts appear in the residents' quality of life, labour division, individual value systems, behaviour patterns, family relationships and the structure of social organizations, community life styles, safety, moral principles, creative expression and traditional ceremonies. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 116; Hall & Brown 2006.) The cultural environment of the target country has an impact on tourists' interests to travel and potential travellers have an impact on tourism demand in the host country. Growing awareness and globalisation have led to the development of new tourism types like ecotourism, cultural tourism or heritage tourism. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 117–119.)

Classification of social impacts (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 117.)

### Population impacts

- Population change
- Influx or outflow of temporary workers
- Presence of seasonal (leisure) residents
- Relocation of individuals and families
- Changes in age, gender, racial or ethnic composition
- Urbanisation of population

### Transformation of labour market

- Generation of new jobs
- Increase in the number of seasonal jobs
- Economic diversification
- Enhanced economic inequities
- Change in employment equity of minority groups
- Change in occupational opportunities

### Changes in community characteristics and structure

- Emergence of new social classes
- Change of the economic focus of the community
- Presence of seasonal (leisure) residents
- Conflicts between local residents and outsiders
- Transformation of political, social, religious, moral value system
- Emergence of dissimilarity in religious practices
- Change in community infrastructure
- Changes in land acquisition and disposal

### Impacts at individual and family level

- Disruption of daily living and movement patterns
- Alteration in family structure
- Disruption in social networks
- Changes in perceptions of public health and safety

- Changes in leisure time opportunities
- Transformation of consumer habits

Impacts on natural and cultural resources

- Increased protection of resources
- Destruction, damaging of resources
- Congestion, overloading, pollution
- Commercialisation
- Transformation of traditions, habits

2.4.1 Theoretical models

The famous models of the impacts of tourism are Doxey's Irridex model and Butler's model which both describe the attitudes and behaviour of local residents towards tourism (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 131.)

Doxey's Irridex model (Figure 9) shows how attitudes change towards tourism in a host area as the industry develops. Doxey assumed that tourism causes pressure on local society and as the numbers of tourists grow the pressure on the local community grows as well, and local residents' feelings towards tourists become more negative. The model is not unambiguous because it depends on both the host communities' and the visitors' characteristics. The model assumes that the change is unidirectional and the residents' attitudes face four different phases, which are *euphoria*, *apathy*, *irritation* and *antagonism*. The development of tourism is determined by several factors: economic, social, cultural, natural and psychological. The Irridex model can help local people achieve the expectations of the development of tourism and the carrying capacity of the destination even if it should not be taken as a definitive description of host-visitor relationships. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 131–132; Williams 1998.)

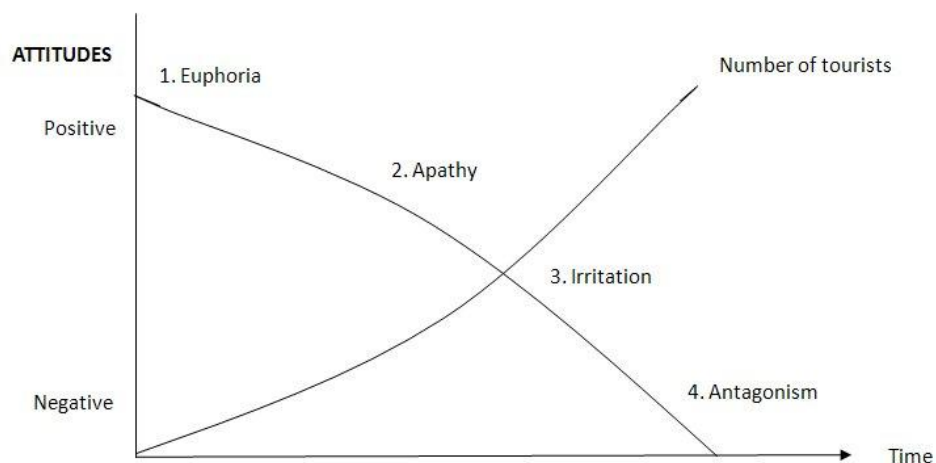


FIGURE 9 Doxey's Irridex

In the euphoria stage the development is in the initial phase: the number of tourists is small, tourism industry is undeveloped and the relationship be-

tween tourist and host is traditional. Tourists respect and appreciate the resident's values and nature regions. In this period the lack of planning and control is common because local people do not understand the tourists' demands. The volume of services may grow so they have to plan and control development if they do not want the negative impacts to occur. In apathy stage tourism is wider and coming more formal and commercial and contacts become more important. At this stage it is important to do marketing plan to improve quality of services and to respond market demands effectively in order to increase the number of tourists. The irritation stage is like saturation point when local people's perception and attitudes towards tourism become more negative: the good capacity of infrastructure makes possible the growth of tourism but the overtaking of social capacity in the destination will affect negatively to social impacts. In the antagonistic stage the peak of the number of tourist is the highest and the local residents have to tolerate the presence of tourists in the destination. In this stage the host community will point out openly feelings against tourists and blame tourists for all problems in the society. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 132–133; Ryan 2003.)

Butler's model (Figure 10) represents local residents' attitudes and behaviour which can be positive or negative towards tourism. The behaviour can be active or passive. For example local people can take part in the tourism development, resist or accept it or oppose it passively. The combination of all those four forms of "attitude-behaviour" can exist in the local society at the same time because of the continuous change in the attitudes and behaviour and in the development and impacts of tourism. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 134–135; Ryan 2003.)

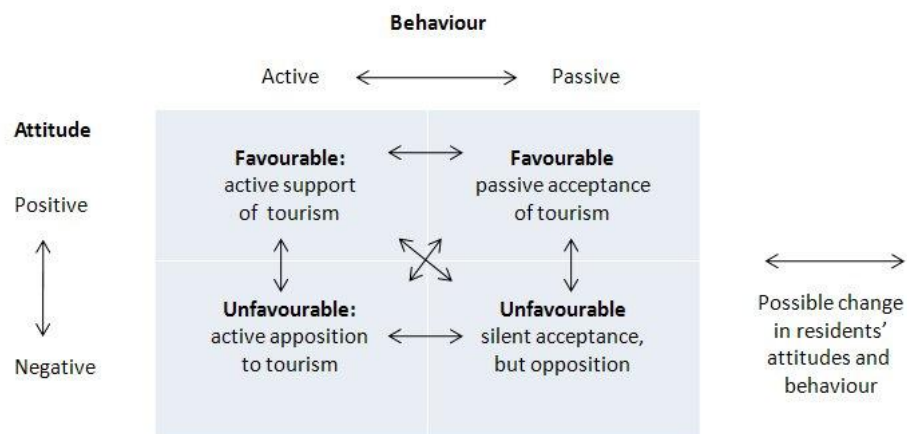


FIGURE 10 *Butler's Model: Host's attitudes and behaviour as a response to tourism development*

Doxey's theory assumes that residents' attitude towards tourists is the same in the same destination and can change consistently from euphoria to antagonism stage. Whereas Butler's model describes the attitudes and behaviour are different inside the groups in the target region. For example people of different professions within the same destination can have different attitudes at same time which also might cause social tension be-

tween different groups. Companies of tourism, developers or decision makers usually see the impacts of tourism much more positive than other local residents who are maybe not aware of all benefits of tourism for the destination. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 135; Ryan 2003.)

#### 2.4.2 Characteristics of tourists

The most important factors affecting the impacts of tourism are the number of tourists, their type, their average length of stay, their motivations, their activities, their behaviour, their expenditure and their socio-economic characteristics, like gender, marital status, education, profession, residence or average income. (Figure 11) (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 120–121; Fennell 1999.)

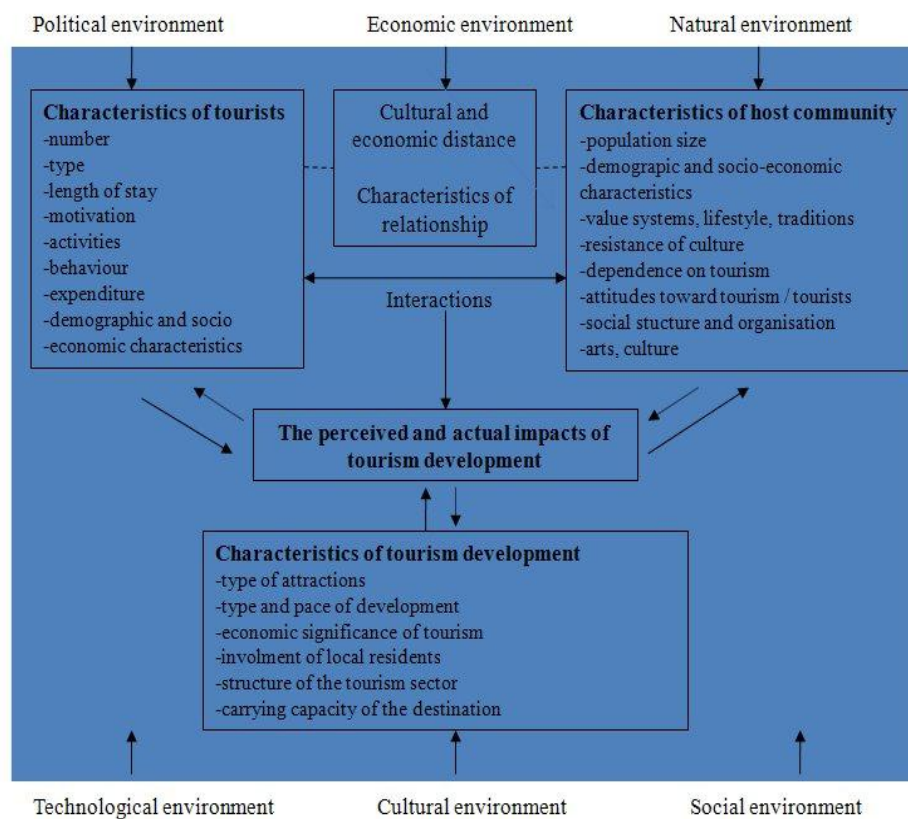


FIGURE 11 *The socio-cultural impacts of tourism within the framework of wider social change*

The number of tourists: the absolute number and the relative number compared to the number of local residents have a remarkable effect on the target country. Also the uncertainty about tourist carrying capacity is one of the principal problems. The problems have appeared in the theoretical models of Irridex and Host's attitudes and behaviour. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 121; Singh, Timothy & Dowling 2003.) Large numbers of tourists in a small place of resident can easily be distinguished from the members of the community, whereas in a big place tourists can be merged with the crowd. In big cities tourists are using the same services with residents but in small places it is hard to offer daily needs to tourists without infrastruc-



ture and service development. (Davidson & Maitland 1997, 86, 45.) Tourist types are different: some of them try to adapt to the local lifestyle and use the same services with residents, but some of them are like the mass tourists who arrive in mass numbers, need familiar services and expect the residents to adapt to the tourists' own lifestyle and habits. The impacts are weaker with tourist types who try to adapt to residents' culture but significantly stronger in mass tourism. (Cooper et al. 1998, 192.) The length of stay of tourists and the type of activities tourists take part in during their stay influence on their relationship with local people. The impact is different if the tourist is a first time visitor or a returning guest, because the relationship between resident and returning guest can develop positive cultural impacts, because they already understand each other's values and culture. From Sharpley's (1999, 166) point of view, tourists' motivations are based on their socio-economic characteristics like their age, marital status, education, profession, their everyday life. Tourist demand also influences the activities in a destination. The demand of tourists in a destination affects the supply of the tourist industry and indirectly influence on the changes in residents' quality of life. Tourists' behaviour affects local residents' attitudes towards tourists because tourists' behaviour expresses their own cultural background and usually tourists even behave differently from their everyday life. (Cooper et al. 1998, 176.)

### 2.4.3 Characteristics of host residents

The socio-cultural impacts appear in quality of life of the host community, which some might be dominant. The demographic and socio-economic characteristics determine how residents adapt tourism and the differences between hosts and guests. To take part in the tourism development local society needs available workforce with qualifications, knowledge, skills, financial resources, initiative, land and motivation. It is important that the initiative, capital and labour are local, so the benefits are bigger for the local people than if the factors are external when the socio-cultural impacts of tourism would be negative. The most popular tourism attractions are the local residents' lifestyle; value systems and traditions and that is why tourists can change local people's lifestyle, which can lead to family or community conflicts. The more the values consist between tourists and local residents the less there are changes and possibilities to the conflicts. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 123–124.)

Social and economic characteristics are both part of the structure of the local community. Tourism's scope and its nature are influenced by support or lack of support for different forms of tourism. The local organizations can effect to the protection of the nature and cultural values, so they can improve positive impacts and prevent negative impacts of tourism. The local economic structure determines if the community is able to take part in tourism at all and if it is possible it depends on extent and areas. An important factor is if tourism is dominant industry or if it is one of several industries in the destination. Hospitality is traditional value in culture, so tourists should be aware of local culture and its habits in order to preserve positive attitudes of local people. The local arts, crafts and immaterial cul-

ture are precious but vulnerable resources. The ability of local people to resist tourist's effects determines whether the impacts are positive or negative. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 124.)

### 2.4.4 Tourist-host relationship

Tourism is an economic activity and social phenomenon that can promote understanding between different cultural societies. The main contexts are: 1. commercial context, (the tourist buys a product or a service from the resident) 2. impersonal context, (the tourist and the resident are at the same place, but not in direct contact) and 3. personal context (the tourist and the resident are changing ideas which can contribute to mutual understanding). The relationships 1 and 2 are more common between tourists and local residents than the third context. (Reisinger & Turner 2003, 38). More common are relationships without direct personal contact, based on commercial relationships. They often reinforce the existing stereotypes of tourists and hosts. Tourists returning to the same place or spending more time in the same destination can create personal relationships especially when the host country is not so developed or it is not a destination of mass tourism. In small-scale tourism tourists are treated like quests by residents in the destination, but a relationship becomes commercial with the development of tourism and with the growth of visitors. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 124–126.)

Socio-cultural impacts take place without personal interaction between hosts and guests and can modify local people's behaviour and attitudes. The situations, expectations, and aims are different in a tourist-host relationship and usually relationships are temporary. Meeting local people is a fascinating or unique experience from the tourists' view but to the host it is one of the superficial meetings during the tourist season. (Hemmi et al. 1982, 69–71.) The tourist-host encounters are restricted in time and space: tourists do not have time to create relationships because tourists are busy completing their pre-planned programme. Tourist services and places are concentrated on certain areas in a destination and tourists barely leave the tourist districts. Tourists' contacts with local people are restricted to the residents working in tourism and being on the borderline between two different cultures. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 126.)

At typical tourist-host relationship is unfair and unbalanced, because the tourist spends his holiday while the resident works. Different incomes can cause problems between hosts and tourists, because tourists usually spend more money on holiday than at home. The residents are not aware that the tourist may have saved money and worked hard for the trip. For these reasons residents may feel inferior towards tourists' superiority, which motivate residents to copy tourists' behaviour and lead to exploitation of tourists. The cultural and economic distance between tourists and local people determines the relationship. If the distance is significant the social impacts are also very strong and the exchange of values is more intensive. The conflicts are most common when tourists from welfare countries visit destinations in developing countries. Impacts of tourism depend on economic

and cultural distance, on the type of tourists and their behaviour. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 127–128.)

#### 2.4.5 Characteristics of the development of tourism

The type of the development of tourism (the speed and extension of the development) determines the socio-cultural impacts in the destination. Other determining factors are the characteristics of the destination and the main tourism attractions and also how the local people can take part in the development of tourism and how they can control and influence the changes. (Table 3) (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 128–129; Vuoristo 2002, 32.)

TABLE 3 *Types of tourist development*

<b>Extent of change</b>	<b>Characteristics of development</b>	<b>Impacts on the life of the community</b>
Quick pace of development	Buying up estates and their development from outer source Appearance of holiday home owners from outside Floating in of manpower Appearance of services from outside Floating out of profit from the community	Quick transformation of local norms Development of new power and economic system Transformation of social structure
Slow pace of development	Local development Few holiday home owners Local services Integration of people coming from outside into the traditional structure of power	Slow transformation of norms Stable structure of power Spreading local economy
Casual development	Development of weekend and event tourism Minimal local seasonal development	Firm norms Increase of individual mobility within the power and economic structure Unimportant general change in the local economy

From the point of view of Sharpley & Telfer (2002), the speed of development has an impact on how much residents have time to adapt to the changes. If the developing is too fast local people have no chance to adapt to the changes, so the different cultures may cause huge conflicts and socio-cultural impacts will be mainly negative. The consequence of rapid development may be that the local community is not able to supply tourist demand, but tourism development needs external investors and labour force. The rapid development of tourism might be against the long-term interests of the residents' society. After development the dependence on

tourism may grow, which makes the destination vulnerable to any negative changes in the demand.

According to Davidson & Maitland (1997, 86–87), the social and psychological factors have a main role to determine the development of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism in the destination. The carrying capacities, e.g. economic carrying capacity affect the local people's environment or indirectly the quality of local people's life. If the number of tourists overtakes any type of carrying capacity level the impacts are negative which also affect local residents' attitudes towards tourism. To achieve balance of impacts the residents have to understand the carrying capacity levels of the destination. The economic and cultural differences between tourists and local people affect the social and psychological carrying capacities. The development of tourism can decrease the distance between tourists' and local people's cultures. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 131.)

### 2.4.6 Positive and negative socio cultural impacts

#### **Population impacts**

According to Hemmi et al. (1987, 71–72), the destination's population may change, in number, distribution and demographic characteristics because of the development of tourism. Tourism causes an increase in the supply of jobs, the general improvement of living standards and business opportunities, which attract immigrants and seasonal workers but may hinder local people's life and work opportunities. The conflicts of work or even ethnic conflicts between seasonal workers and local residents may cause trouble. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 135–136.)

#### **Employment and qualification impacts**

The best-known positive impacts of tourism are employment creation and the transformation of the occupational structure. They lead to the improvement of living standards and may affect positively to the residents' self esteem and mood. Tourism creates jobs in regions suffer from unemployment and it also creates new type of jobs. Tourism may encourage people to study a new profession, languages or to learn old skills and old traditions. (Riley, Ladkin & Szivas 2002)

Seasonal jobs have also negative characteristics, e.g. good qualifications are not needed and jobs are poorly paid. There may be negative impacts on traditional livelihood, such as causing unemployment in agriculture. (Henderson 2007, 73). Because of that the local community has to import food-stuffs, which they produced earlier by themselves and part of the profit from tourism flows out of the local economy. (Hall & Page 2006, 101.)

#### **Changes in the community's structure and characteristics**

The development of tourism causes changes in the social stratification of the local society. A previously worthless property may become valuable

and people who have a lowly occupation may become part of a commercial service, which may change the resident's social and economic position. (Rätz & Puczko 2002, 138.)

Tourists' interests in local, natural and cultural values increase local community's pride. Local people pay great attention to preservation of the natural environment and their cultural values. Local community learn to appreciate what they have and they also want to satisfy tourists' expectations. (Davidson & Maitland 1997, 85.)

Tourism may change the image of an unknown region or tourists' interests may change locals' attitudes or behaviour towards the destination's resources as tourists raise reputation of the destination. It would be optimal if the developing of tourism were done together with residents and tourists: tourists would make aware of a destination and the residents would create own positive internal picture. (Rätz & Puczko 2002, 138; Sharpley 2009.)

### **Impacts on the quality of life**

Determining factors of quality of life are mental, economic and environmental. The development of tourism causes pressure on the local community because as the number of tourists grows, local residents have to compete with the limited resources. Tourism development causes urbanisation, which brings both advantages and disadvantages and may not meet local people's expectations and the destination's environment does not change in the way locals would like. The development can cause local people's interest to be part of tourism and also improve the local community's mood and quality of life. (Cooper 2003)

From point of view of Sharpley & Telfer (2002), the development of tourism may cause higher prices, which can be resulted from increased income. If increased income can compensate for the negative impacts also the living standards of the local people may rise. Increased prices have also negative impacts on local people who are not directly involved in tourism, but can benefit from tourism indirectly like increasing taxes. Because of the development of tourism and higher prices and increasing supply and limited resources increase foreign owners of tourist companies, because they are willing to pay higher prices and local people want to sell their land or house to them who offers most. This may be a positive change in short term but in the long run it has a negative impact. The local people may not afford the increasing prices, so they move to another place and the proportion of seasonal residents and holiday-owners may rise (Davidson & Maitland 1997, 77). Foreign owners contribute less to the maintenance of local services, because they even pay their taxes to another country (Shaw & Williams 2004, 33).

Pollution and environmental destruction, e.g. vandalism and littering usually follows tourism and worsens local people's quality of life. These problems may be results of the inadequate local infrastructure or tourists'

careless behaviour. A positive impact of tourism development is when the residents consciously try to improve the environment to make it attractive, e.g. by planting flowers or providing waste collection. The development of infrastructure and communal and commercial services usually funded by the income from tourism, improve locals' quality of life. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 138–140.)

### **Impacts on religious life**

An important motivation of tourist demand is religion: people visiting the holy places of their own religion or other tourists attracted to religious sites. The expectations of pilgrims and ordinary tourists are different and because of that tourists may disturb pilgrims' spiritual experience. By religious attractions tourism can benefit from tourists' entrance fees and donations to the maintenance or restoration of holy places. (Sharpley 1999, 292–293.)

### **Impact on infrastructure**

The development of infrastructure can be both a precondition and a consequence of the development of tourism: the destination must have a minimal infrastructure to start tourism development. On the other hand income from tourism and tourists' increasing expectations contribute to infrastructural development, too. The pressure increases on the local government to expand and improve the infrastructure. This may include the development of transportation, the enhancement of energy supply, the expansion of the sewage system, the improvement of the communication facilities and the development of social institutions such as schools. But also tourists' additional demand can help local services to survive. It can also replace local services, a souvenir shop can replace a cobbler's, because the tourists' needs are different from locals' needs and it is much more profitable to improve tourists' services. The new services should become popular among the locals, as well to generate regular income around the year to locals not just in the tourist seasons. If these services are just created for tourists, which is common in developing countries, then the hostility towards tourists may increase. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 141–142.)

### **Impacts on the individual and family characteristics**

Tourism improves employment for young people and women and increases economic independence and social mobility and that may change family relationships and situations (Davidson & Maitland 1997, 82). In addition, the disruption to the normal rhythm of life of people working in tourism may lead to the transformation of traditional social relationships because of the unsystematic rhythm of work. All this may change individual value system: local society becomes more open with the outside world and locals' tolerance towards difference may also grow, which causes family members might be pushed into the background and tourists' demand takes priority. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 142–143; Sharpley 1999, 284–285.)

### **Demonstration effect**

The demonstration effect means copying tourist's habits and trying to adopt their lifestyle, which may cause changes in local values, customs and norms (Sharpley 1999, 289). The imitation of tourists' behaviour can be a consequence of envy and inferiority complex. So more significant economic and cultural difference is between locals and tourists, more likely the demonstration effect will be. However, the globalisation of the world, the development of telecommunication and urbanisation may influence on the results, too. The demonstration effect is stronger on the societies which are more open, have a less resistant value system or which are in closer connection with tourists. The new and traditional value systems may lead to social conflicts with families and within the society or the community's cohesive power may decrease and the society's institutional structure may gradually disintegrate. (Hall & Lew 2009, 176–177.) While the developing countries try to achieve tourists' living standards it can contribute migrations from regions to the tourist areas. (Theobald 1998, 72). But the tourists' living standard is usually just an illusion, so the immigrants often become disenchanted. It might increase the demand of imported products and services which can lead to profit leakage. The positive impacts are the change in women's and young people's position, the encouragement of local people to study, the acquisition of higher qualification. Negative impacts may become stronger if unemployment is high in the area. It seems to be impossible to achieve the tourists' finance legally so it leads to exploitation of tourists and to the dual price system (officially or unofficially local people pay less for the same products or services) and the number of petty crimes against tourists grows. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 143–144.)

### **Deviance and tourism**

Tourism development and the interaction between tourists and local residents may cause deviant phenomena such as alcoholism, drug abuse, gambling, crime and prostitution. Tourism and both organised (involved in stealing cars, gambling, the drug trade and prostitution) and individual crime (pick-pocketing, breaking into cars and burgling private holiday homes) are increasing hand in hand. (Williams 1998) Criminals are interested in tourists' valuables. The criminals consider tourists as "easy targets" because they are not familiar with the destination and usually behave more carelessly. (Theobald 1998, 71–72.) So, the relationship between tourism and crime is influenced by the density of the population in the tourist season and by the economic distance between local residents and tourists. Also local people may become victims and a higher crime rate increases locals' feeling of vulnerability, irrespective of whether they are personally exposed to crime or not. Tourism has positive impacts if it improves the security of people and ensures public safety. The increasing and diversification of prostitution is one of the negative impacts of tourism, which also causes spreading of AIDS. The development of tourism creates an environment that attracts prostitutes and their guests. In some countries,

e.g. in Southeast Asia there is little or no tradition of women's employment, so prostitution is often the only economic activity for young, unqualified women from the countryside. (Clift & Carter 2000, 5–12, 34.) Gambling is considered to be a negative impact of tourism: most casinos are important tourist attractions, but gambling does also attract organised crime and drug trade. It has also a moral dilemma, how fair it is to “rob” tourists in this way. Still, casinos produce huge income and jobs for the destination and its residents. Local authorities should regulate the unfavourable impacts of tourism so that casinos can play an important role of the development of the destination. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 144–146.)

### **Impacts on languages**

To the destination's residents tourists can cause changes in the use of the language and in language skills. Locals may try to adapt tourists' languages thinking their languages are superior. The changes have positive and negative impacts at the same time: positive when residents learn new languages and can be in contact with tourists, negative when the tourists' language becomes the main language and the local language is pushed aside. One of the most positive impacts of tourism is the encouragement to learn foreign languages. (Sharpley 1999, 291–292.) It is important for people working in tourism to speak international languages. Tourists can arouse desire to learn foreign languages among the residents who do not work in tourism but who would like to communicate with tourists. (Rátz & Puczko 2002 146–147.)

### **Impacts on arts and crafts**

Tourism can cause transformation of local arts and crafts, but it also can revive forgotten or dying traditional handicraft techniques and strengthen the cultural identity of the host community. Folk art is an important tourist attraction, because it represents uniqueness of the culture of the community. (Ryan 2003) When original objects, such as religious or spiritual objects are transformed for tourists, like sizes, shapes, material and colours, objects lose their original importance and become souvenirs or trinkets. Usually tourists do not know well enough local community's culture, history or religion to understand the real value or symbolism of certain objects. Tourists can hurt the hosts' feelings inadvertently. (Rátz & Puczko 2002, 147-148; Vuoristo 2002, 91.)

### **Impacts in immaterial culture**

The impacts on the immaterial forms of culture can be positive or negative depending on the strength of the tourists' culture and the nature of the relationship between the two cultures. One of the most negative impacts is when the host community's traditional celebrations, customs, religious rituals are changed and lose their own original significance and become tourist products. At the beginning of development of tourism tourists are honoured to take part in the traditional celebrations of the community. However, tourism develops and the demand increases, which causes that the tradition becomes a tourist attraction and the original meaning is lost



and it becomes staged reality. (Williams 1998.) Tourists usually look for typical stereotypes' experiences in certain area such as bull fighting in Spain. Tourism can cause positive impacts when forgotten events and customs are revived because of the tourists' interests or the efforts of locals who want to improve the attractions of the region. This is the way how they can save or pass on traditional values to young people. The artificial events may help locals to prevent tourists to disturb them in their everyday life. Tourism is also an important factor in increasing the demand for local cultural programmes and services, e.g. paying entrance fees to the museums, so tourists contribute institutions to make local cultural life richer. (Rätz & Puczko 2002, 148–149.)

**Impacts of tourism in developing countries**

From Saukkonen's (1999, 10) point of view, tourism is often criticized for its similarity to colonial times. The growth of international tourism in developing countries brings out the same exploiting process that was typical in colonial times. The assumption is that the developing countries cannot develop their own economy and obtain "hard" currency alone without development of tourism. Local people from developing countries have to offer their indigenous natural and cultural resources for sale to attract tourists. International companies have all trumps in their hands, because they have the finances to develop of tourism and the host country desperately needs tourist income. So during the development of tourism the economic interests may take the most important role in development and social and environmental aspects can have a second role. Also short term economic profit diverts attention from the community's long term interests. This colonialist system influences international tourism in an economic and social way, because the residents of the developing countries take part in tourism as employees never as tourists. (Lundberg 1990, 236–237, 243.) Still, we have to remember the overall balance of tourism impacts. It is often positive even in developing countries and usually tourism can be a really important factor in economic modernization. Economic advantages may outweigh other kinds of disadvantages. ((Table 4) Rätz & Puczko 2002, 151–152)) (Hemmi et al. 1987, 262–263.)

TABLE 4 Summary of socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Positive	Negative
<b>Population impacts</b>	
Growth of the population (immigration and no emigration)	
Influx of seasonal labour from outside (positive if it satisfies a need for labour, negative if it takes work away from locals)	
Presence of holiday home owners (positive if they take part in the life of the community; negative if they do not)	
Changes in age, gender, racial or ethnic composition due to immigration	
Urbanisation of the population	
<b>Transformation of labour market</b>	
Generation of new jobs	Increase in the number of seasonal

	jobs
New types of occupational opportunities in the tourism sector	Unqualified jobs
Revaluation of education and language skills	Lack of labour in the traditional sectors
Economic diversification due to tourism as supplementary activity	Widening economic gulf within the society
Development of underdeveloped regions	
<b>Changes in community characteristics and structure</b>	
The importance of the service sector	Growth of the proportion of seasonal residents
Revitalization of social, cultural life	Conflicts with holiday home owners
Increase of the value of real estate	Decreasing availability of real estate
Development of infrastructure	Increase in real estate prices
Increasing shopping opportunities	Rise in prices, inflation
Improvement of the destination's image	Losing cultural identify
Increasing of the community's pride in their settlement	Weakening of moral standards, transformation of value systems
Decrease in prejudice, disappearance of stereotypes, growth of tolerance	Conflicts related to religion
	Overdependence on tourism
	Congestion
	Traffic problems
Transformation of social conflicts (rise of people with resources useful for tourism, fall of people working in traditional economic sectors)	
<b>Impacts at individual and family level</b>	
Increase in social mobility (especially for women and young people)	Disruption to social networks
Increased leisure opportunities	Disruption to the rhythm of life for people working in tourism
Improvement of living standards	Increased perception of risk (due to increased crime)
Learning languages, education	Increasing xenophobia
Income from tourism	Commercialization of hospitality
Improvement of attitude toward work, politeness, improving manners	Development or growth of deviant behavior (alcoholism, prostitution, gambling, drug abuse, vandalism)
	Suppression of local language
Demonstration effect	
Change of family structure	
Change of consumption patterns	
Change of housing conditions	
<b>Impacts on natural and cultural resources</b>	
Protection of areas of outstanding natural beauty	Disappearance of local customs, traditions
Revitalization of local art, crafts, cultural events	Commercialization of culture
Revitalization of traditional architecture	Pollution, littering

### 3 BASIC INFORMATION OF TANZANIA

#### 3.1 Facts of geography

The United Republic of Tanzania is East Africa's largest country (approximately 945,000 square kilometers) and is located in Eastern Africa just below the Equator. Tanzania is bordered by Kenya and Uganda in the north, Rwanda, Burundi and the Democratic Republic of the Congo in the west, Zambia, Malawi and Mozambique in the south and in the east by the Indian Ocean. (Tanzania 2009.)

The northern part of Tanzania is mountainous and two third is high plateau covered with savanna, bush land and thickets while one third in the south is grassland, savanna, The coast area is known for mangrove swamps and coral reefs. In Tanzania there are three great lakes Victoria (the largest lake in Africa), Tanganyika and Malawi. Significant mountains are Kilimanjaro (the highest peak in Africa) and Meru. Tanzania has numerous national parks, the best known of which are Ngorongoro, Serengeti and Selous and numerous islands, the greatest of which are Zanzibar, Pemba and Mafia. (Fitzpatrick 2008, 73; The World Bank 2009.)

Tanzania has a tropical climate. The hottest period extends between November and February 25–31 °C while the coldest period occurs between May and August 15–20 °C. Tanzania has two main rain seasons, short rains from October to December and long rains from March to May. (Watson 2007, 7.)

Tanzania's fauna is famous for being both numerous and various. It includes 430 wild animal species such as hippos, rhinos and elephants. Tanzania has over 1000 species of birds, kingfishers, hornbills and flamingos and over 60 000 insect species, approximately 25 different types of reptiles or amphibians, 100 species of snakes and plenty of fish species. (Fitzpatrick 2008, 73–74.)

#### 3.2 History of Tanzania

The migrations of Bantu-speaking tribes from western Africa began around 1000 BC, but Tanzania's prehistoric discoveries are over two million years old. The coast trade with the Arabs started in the first century and the Arabs established their own residential sites on the coast. The arrival of the Portuguese weakened the Arab position at the end of the 1400s. In the 1800s the Arabs and the Indians opened trade routes to the inland in order to get slaves and ivory for purchase. (Fitzpatrick 2008, 19–20.)

The continental part of Tanzania was a German colony, a part of German East Africa during the years 1885–1919. After World War One Tanzania became under British control as the League of Nations mandate territory and was named Tanganyika. Tanganyika became independent in 1961 and

was declared a republic in 1962. Zanzibar became independent in 1963 and established the Tanzanian federation with Tanzania in 1964. The Prime Minister of Tanganyika, even before independence was Julius Nyerere, president from 1962 to 1985. The current president is Jakaya Kikwete. (The United Republic of Tanzania National Website 2011.)

### 3.3 Facts of demography

Tanzania's population is divided into more than 120 ethnic groups. The most famous groups are Hayat, Sukumat and Chagga. Most of the tribes belong to the bantu-nation. Swahili is a widely spoken language in the state and English is the administrative, economic and academic language. In Zanzibar Arabic language is widely spoken. But also every ethnic group has their own ethnic language. Literacy rate is 80.2% of the population. (Maatiedosto Tansania 2011)

The population is very unevenly distributed in different parts of the country. Favorable climate and soil areas are more densely populated, while the poor soil and dry areas, such as inner parts of the country are sparsely populated. The most part of the population still live in rural areas and are engaged in farming and animal husbandry. (Tansania 2009.)

On the mainland about 45% of the population are Christians, 35% Muslims and 20% belong to natural religions. In Zanzibar 99% of the population are Muslims. (Maatiedosto Tansania 2011)

Tanzania's annual population growth is 3%. Now there are 44 million people in the country and the population is expected to be 110 million inhabitants in the year 2050. Population growth creates enormous pressure on food supply, educational and health care systems. Tanzania's HIV incidence is 8.8% of the adult population, so it concerns about 1.6 million people. (Taloukasvu ja velkahelpotukset vauhdittaneet Tansanian kehitystä 2010)

### 3.4 Socio-economy facts

Tanzania is one of the world's 25 poorest countries (Watson 2007, 19). About half of Tanzania's population lives below the poverty line. In 2009, the GDP was approximately USD 550.54 (Tanzania GDP per Capita at current prices in US dollars 2010). The development of Tanzania's economy has grown clearly faster in recent years than the democratic progress. The improved economic situation has not resulted in the reduction of poverty and for instance infant mortality has increased recently (Perustietoja Tansaniasta 2005).

Tanzania is still strongly dependent on international aid. Since in the early years of independence lasted receiving of gifts and loans has led to a situation in which the ODA covers a significant part of the state budget. (Kotilainen & Kaitila 2002, 211.)

Tanzania's main industries are agriculture, which produces 50% of GDP, the industrial sector which is about 15% of GDP and tourism, which is expected to grow significantly in the future. Agricultural commodities make up more than half of Tanzania's exports. The most important export products are coffee, cotton, tobacco and tea. (Perustietoja Tansaniasta 2005.)

### 3.5 Tanzania as a tourism destination

Tourism is Tanzania's second largest economy sector but measured by the foreign sources it is already the biggest. In 2008, it imported nearly three times more currency than agriculture and tourism receipts have increased during the 2000s. In 2008 the country had about 770 000 tourists, who brought about one billion U.S. dollars. In the final years of the decade the global economic slowdown decreases the revenue growth of tourism. (Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey 2008.)

The number of visitors has increased after the service offering has been diversified and popular tourist roads have been paved. Tanzania attracts tourists by the Unesco World Heritage sites and other natural attractions and by a diverse culture. Ngorongoro and Serengeti national parks are popular tourist destinations because of wild animals. Zanzibar has rich flow of tourists, and a lot of new hotels and resorts have been built there. In addition the island is sold with diving, fishing and sailing holidays. (Perustietoja Tansaniasta 2005.)

## 4 SURVEY RESULTS

The research was carried out from May to September in the year 2009 around Tanzania. The research included 120 questionnaires, but some of them were never returned and some of them were so amiss that they cannot be used. The total number of acceptable replies was 93. The questionnaire was both qualitative and quantitative research. The questionnaire consisted of 19 questions, but also most of the people were interviewed while the respondents filled in the questionnaire. A few questionnaires were left in some places and were gathered later. All collected information was used to these results. Bahari Beach and Zanzibar results may give a misleading picture of those towns, because in Bahari Beach just three foreigners were interviewed and two persons in Zanzibar.

### 4.1 Towns, gender and nationality

Figures 12 and 13 illustrate the distribution of the places where the survey were carried out and also the distribution between women and men in different cities. Most of the respondents were local people of Tanzania, but also five foreigners who now have an enterprise of their own in Tanzania were interviewed.

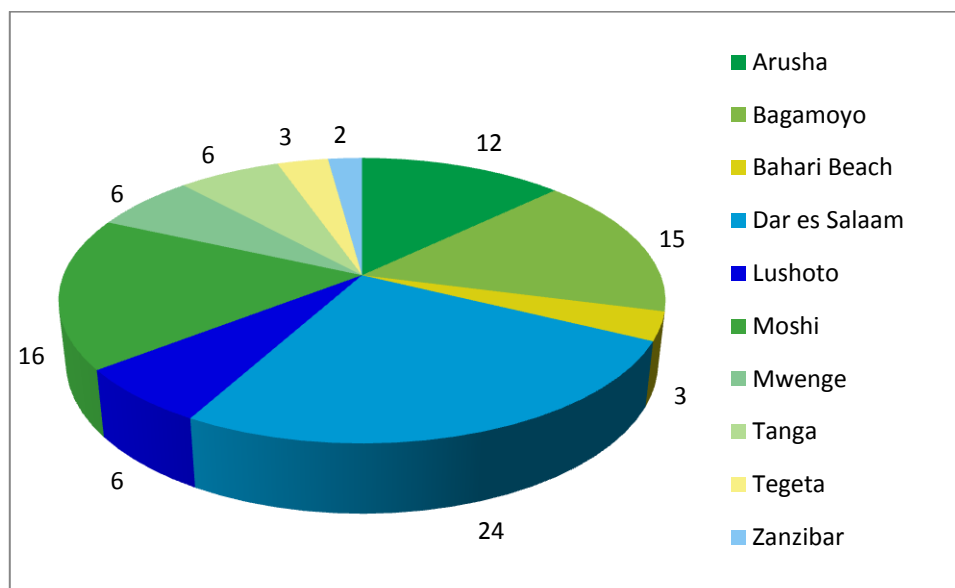


FIGURE 12 *Distribution of the towns*

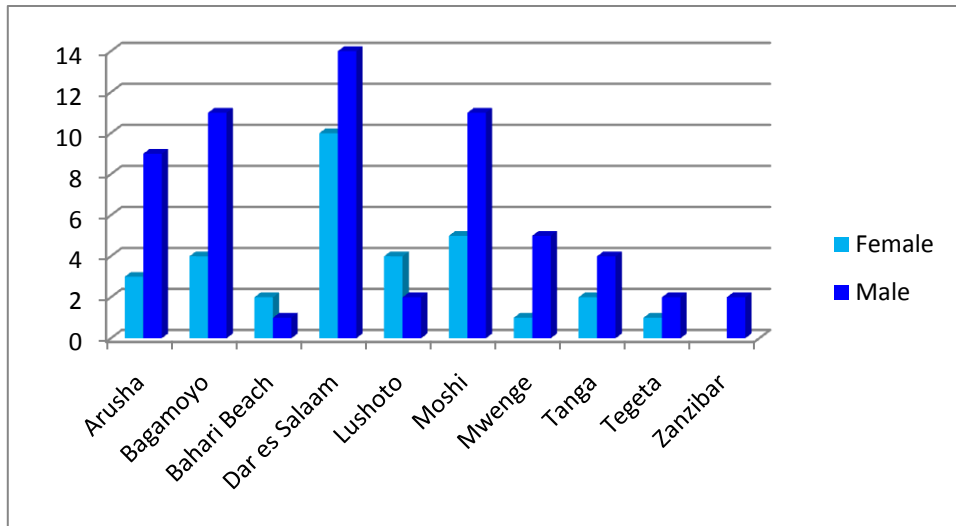


FIGURE 13 *Distribution of females and males in towns*

From all respondents 65.6% were males and 34.4% females. (Figure 14)

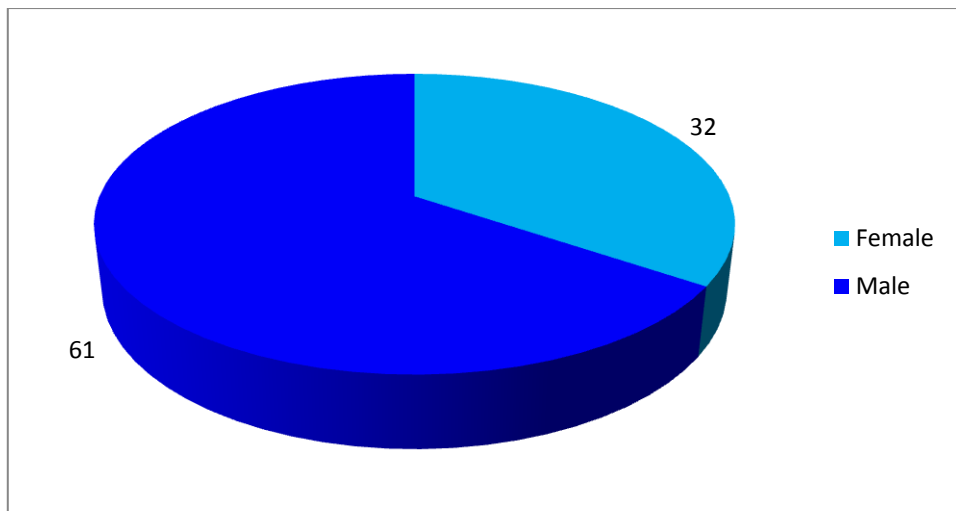


FIGURE 14 *Total distribution of females and males*

From all respondents 94.6% were local people. (Figure 15)

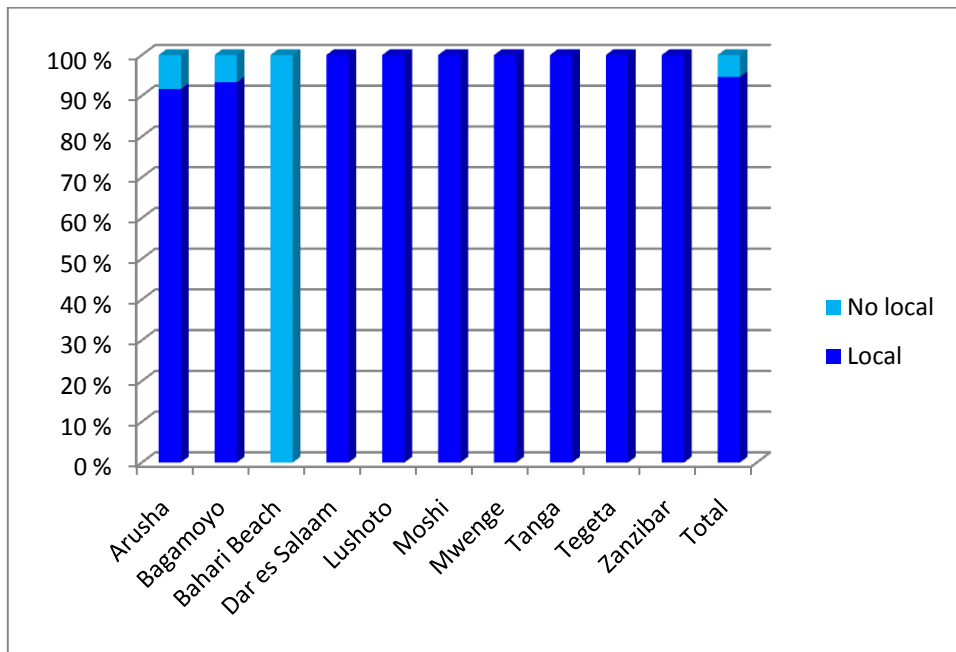


FIGURE 15 *Distribution between local and no local*

The most common age of respondents was between 26-40 even 61.3%, women 18.3% and men 43%. The second most common age was between 15-25 26.9%. (Figure 16)

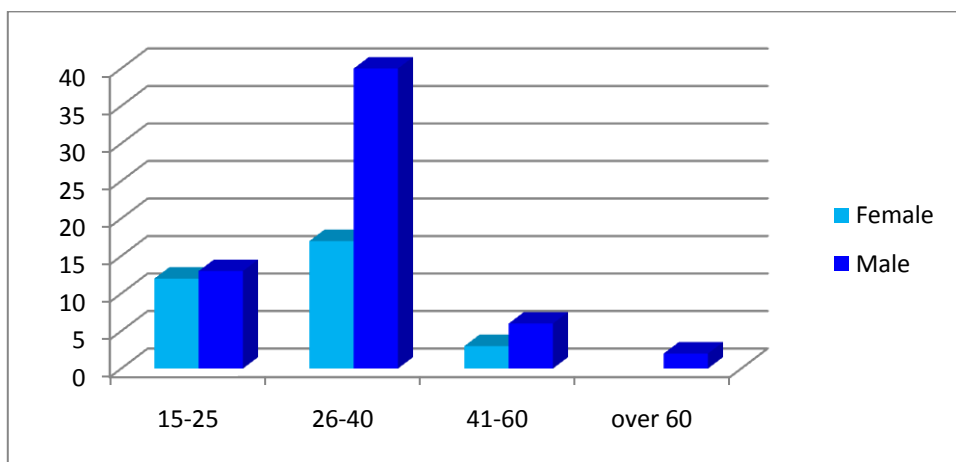


FIGURE 16 *Age distribution of respondents*



4.2 Professions

Figure 17 shows the distribution of professions in towns. The most common professions of respondents were receptionist, tour guide, manager/owners and travel agency assistant.

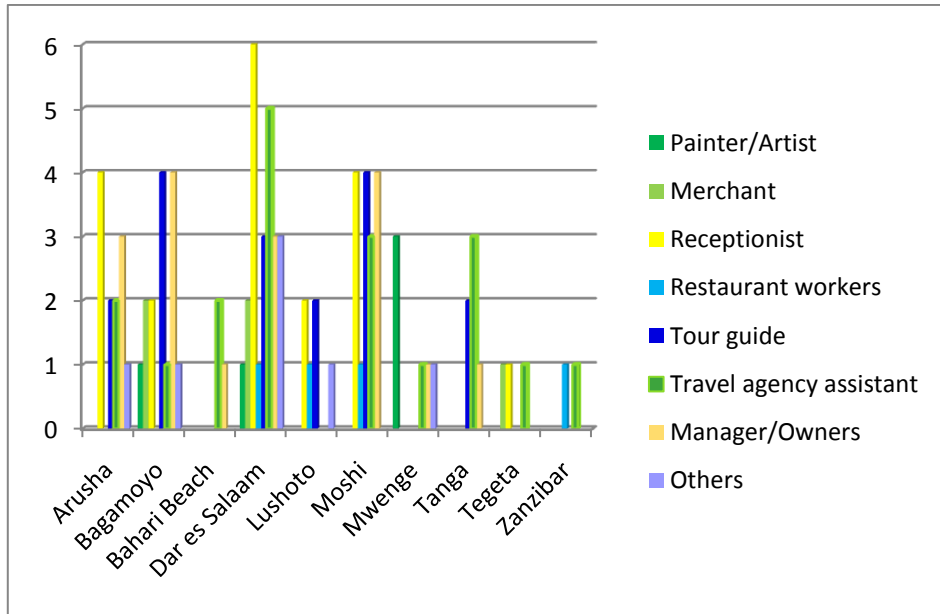


FIGURE 17 Distribution of professions in towns

Figure 18 illustrates the distribution of working time used in a week in towns. Most time is spent in professions in Moshi, Mwenge, Dar es Salaam and Bagamoyo.

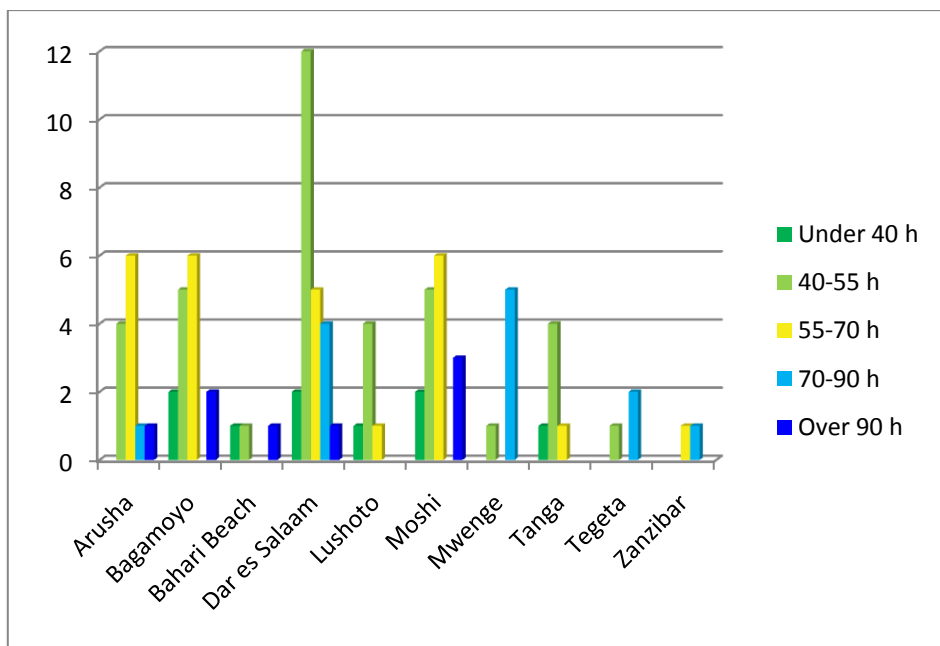


FIGURE 18 Distribution of work hours in a week

Figure 19 shows the distribution of used working time in professions. Most time was spent in professions like painter or artist, receptionist and manager or owners.

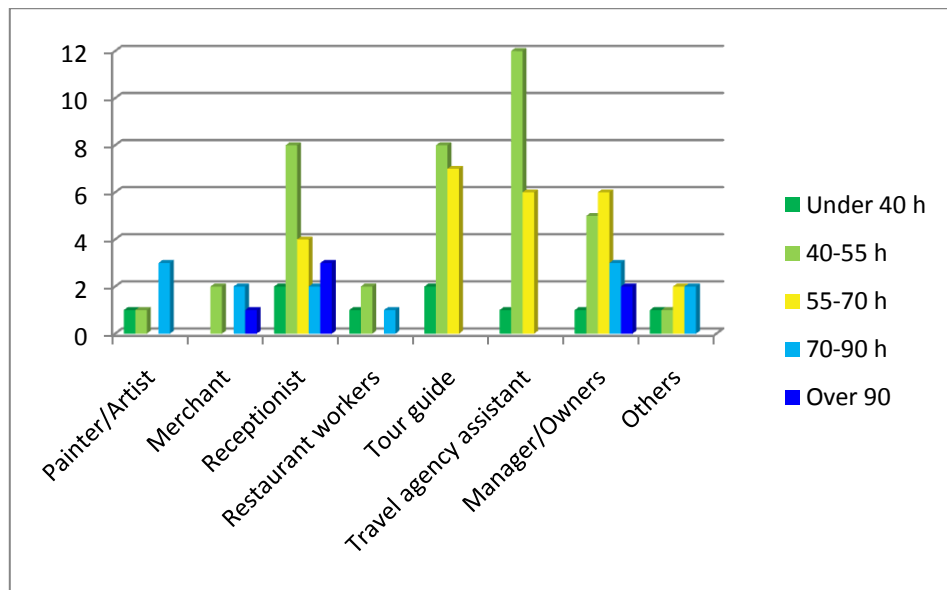


FIGURE 19 Distribution of used time in professions

### 4.3 Earned salary

Most of the respondents earned a salary between 100 000 – 150 000 Tanzanian shillings, 55 to 83 in Euros. It is common that males earn much more than females. (Figure 20)

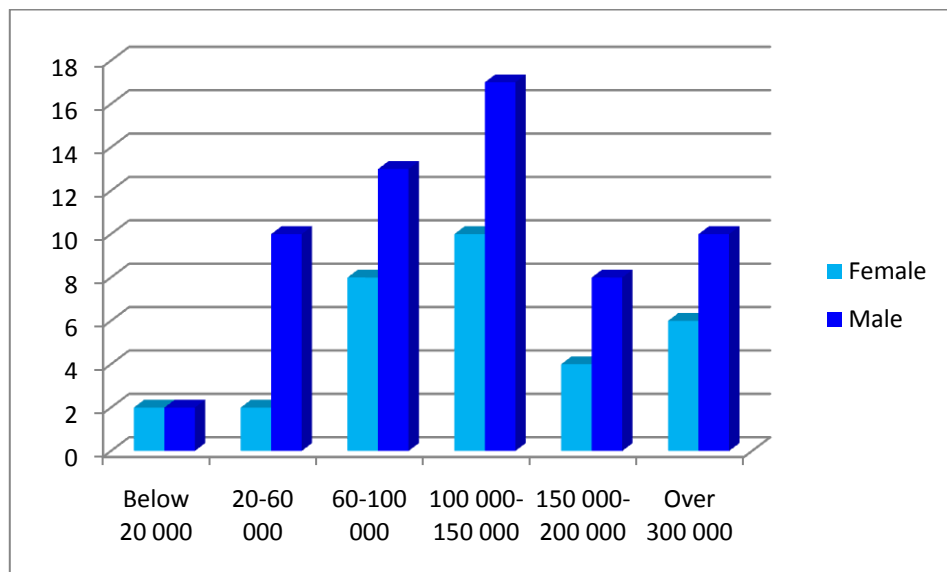


FIGURE 20 Salary distribution of respondents

The places where the best salaries are were paid Dar es Salaam, Arusha and Moshi. The result of Bahari Beach is not realistic because only immigrants were interviewed and also the result of Zanzibar is misleading because were interviewed only two persons there. (Figure 21)

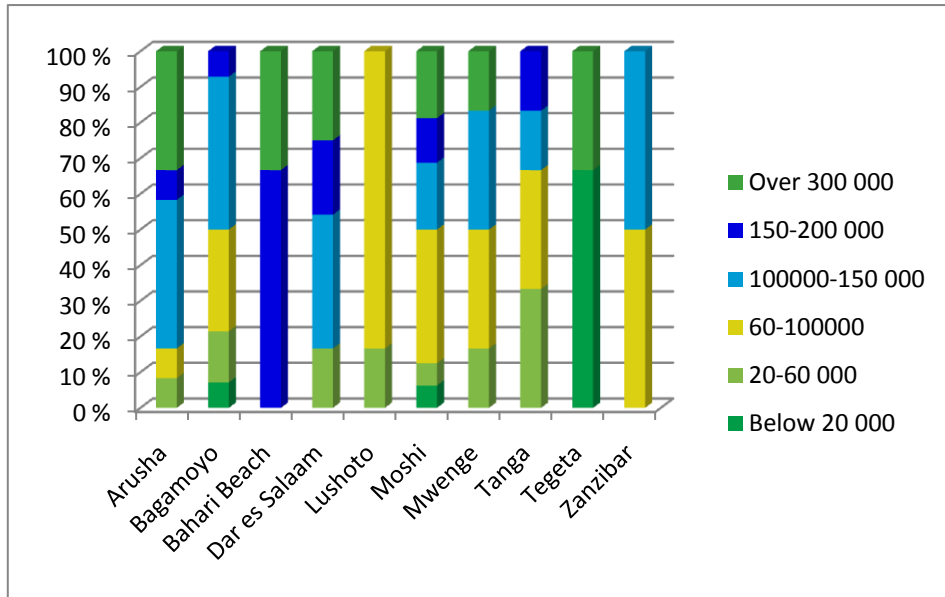


FIGURE 21 Salary distribution in towns

Figure 22 shows the distribution of earned salaries in professions. In professions like manager, travel agency assistant and receptionist people had the highest salaries. In professions like painter or artist, merchant and tour guide the salaries were lower.

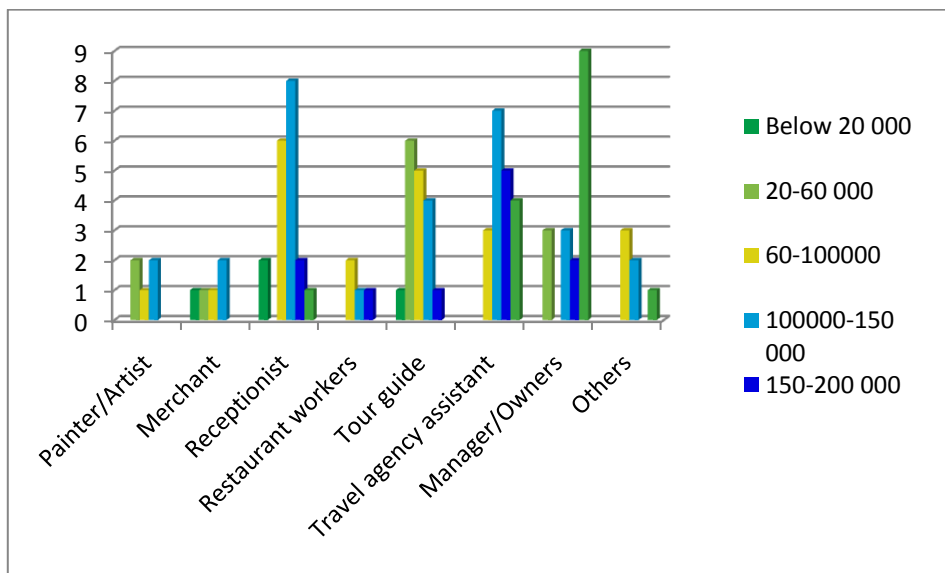


FIGURE 22 Distribution of earned salaries in professions

4.4 Corruption

Figures 23 and 24 present corruption in Tanzania. 20 people out of 93 said that there was no corruption in Tanzania and 73 of respondents admitted the corruption in Tanzania. The largest number of people saying no corruption come from small places like Bagamoyo, Lushoto, Mwenge and Tanga.

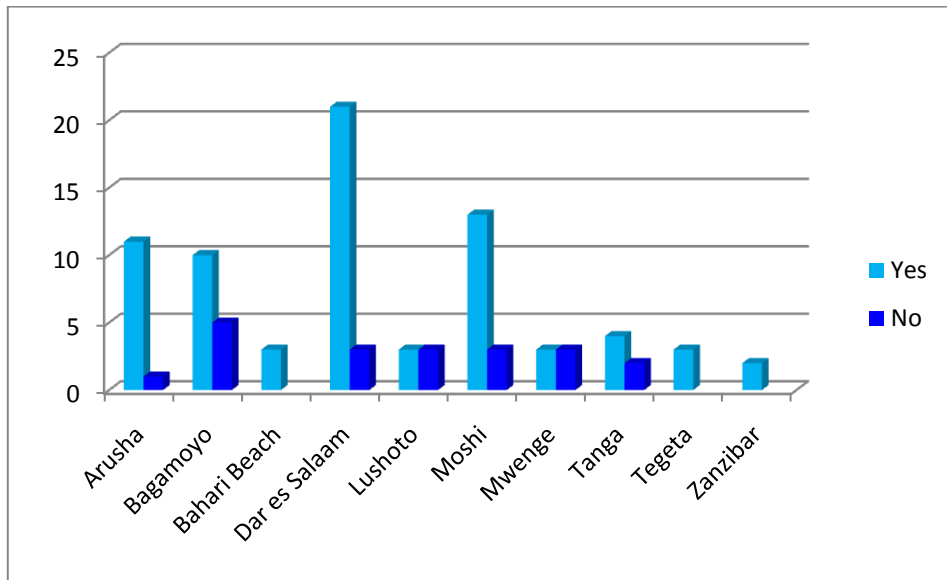


FIGURE 23 Corruption in Tanzania

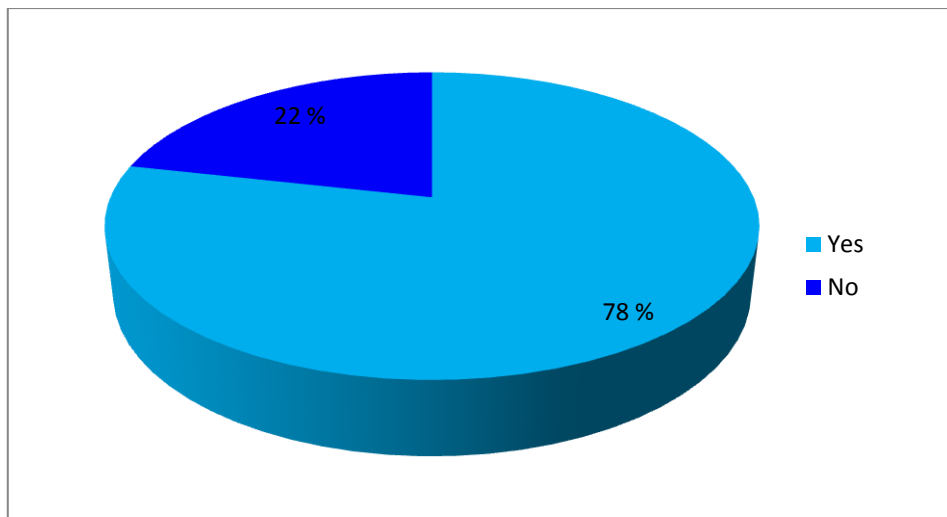


FIGURE 24 Distribution of corruption in Tanzania

Corruption starts from the investors when they look for the project to start. All the government officials start to look for some bribes. Corruption appears mostly in the government sectors, e.g. in hospitals, schools, police stations, work places, in system of leadership. For example *there are few nurses and many patients, you want to have service fast you have to pay for it or the police may they pay very less salary so they take corruption for the small salary of the government.* Corruption occurs from low level

to high level and because of that *the government services are not up to the standard*. So no one can achieve anything without giving bribes to the government officials. *Sometimes there is no way to avoid it but is also according to the need*. It is like *they can buy human rights*. But it *simplifies and saves time, although it is a big problem in all sectors in Tanzania, because it is happening even in court*. In court your money gives you rights and at the hospital your money will get you the service. *Government officials are greedy sharks. There is no justice in this country at all*.

True is also *taxes are not collected 100% so the government cannot provide free education and health care*. *Corruption is the most effective in our economy; some of our top leaders in the government are spending our income national out of use for their benefits so locals do not get any benefits from revenue earned so poor people will not get the same quality of services than the riches ones*.

Corruption is a secret too and many respondents were too afraid to explain or even to admit corruption. In some places especially in Bagamoyo the answer was: *There is no corruption in our country because we live in peace and love!*

#### 4.5 Tourism in Tanzania

Figures 25 and 26 show that 86% of the respondents considered that tourism was increased in Tanzania and those who answered yes (Figure 27) 32.5% were of the view that tourism had increased 30%. 58.75% of the respondents thought that tourism had increased between 30-60% and 8.8% of the respondents thought that tourism had increased over 60% in past few years.

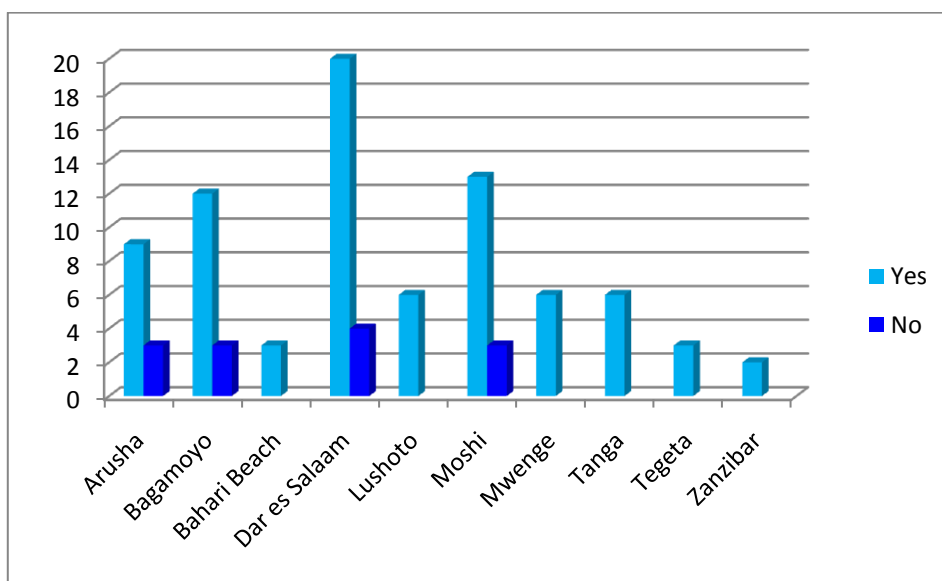


FIGURE 25 Increase of tourism

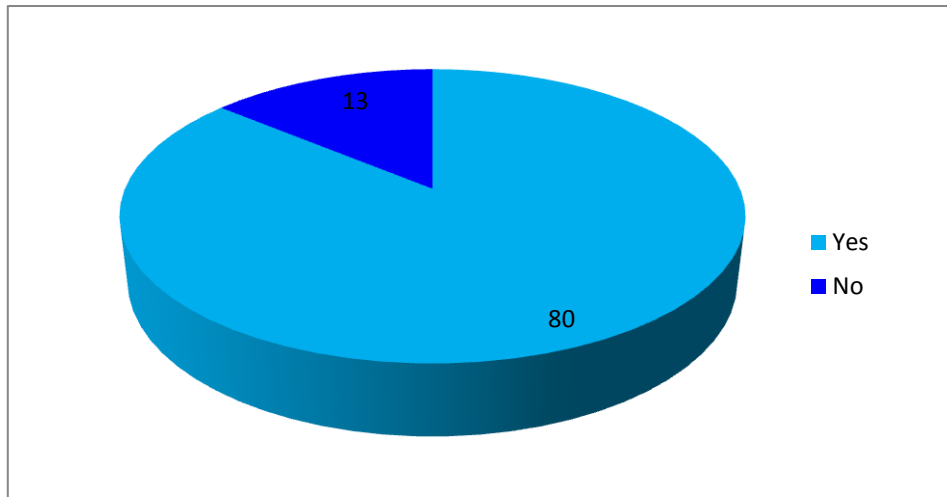


FIGURE 26 Total distribution of increase of tourism

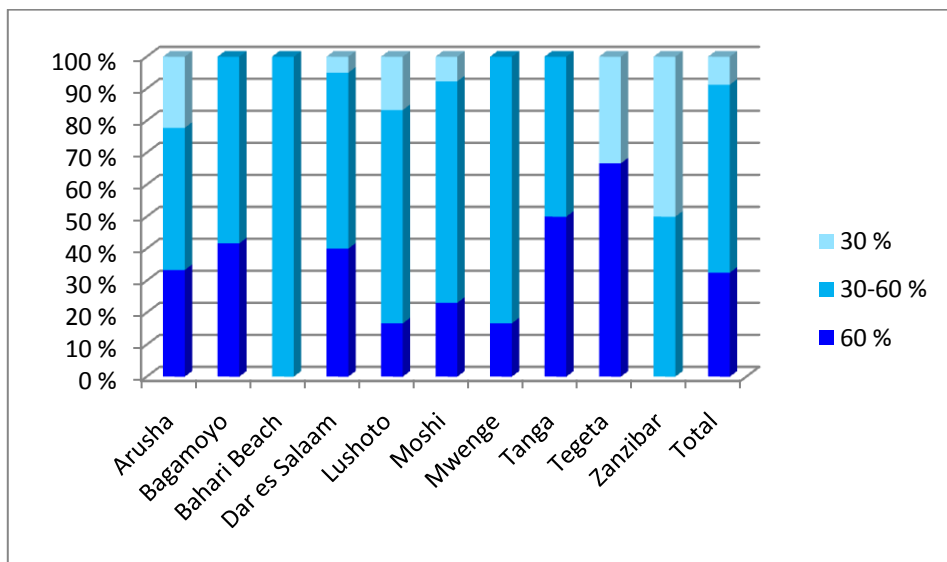


FIGURE 27 Distribution of increase of tourism in towns

Figure 28 shows the number of tourists in different towns. The greatest number of tourists was in Arusha, Moshi and Dar es Salaam. The over 5000 customer groups were mostly in flight reservation's companies.

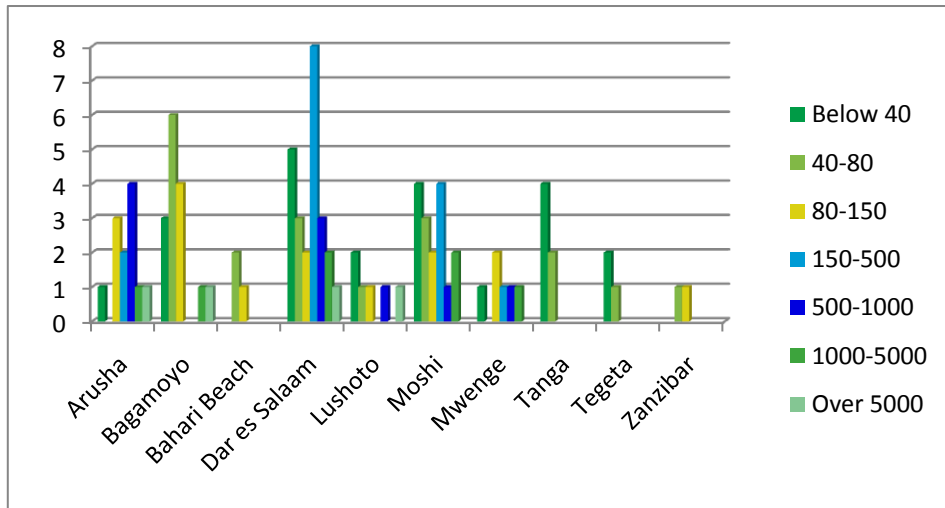


FIGURE 28 Distribution of amount of customers in month

Table 5 presents the most famous tourism countries from where tourists came to Tanzania. The most important countries were the United Kingdom, the United States and Germany. The most important African countries were Kenya, South Africa and Uganda.

TABLE 5 Distribution of countries tourists coming from to Tanzania

Arusha	Bagamoyo	Bahari Beach	Dar es Salaam	Lushoto	Moshi
UK	Germany	UK	USA	USA	UK
USA	USA	USA	UK	Germany	USA
France	Sweden	Finland	Germany	UK	Germany
Spain	Italy	Danmark	Italy	Italy	Canada
Italy / Australia	UK / Kenya	Germany	Sweden / Japan	France	Italy / France

Mwenge	Tanga	Tegeta	Zanzibar	From other African countries
USA	UK	UK	Sweden	Kenya
Germany	Germany	USA	USA	South Africa
Italy	Italy	Kenya	Germany	Uganda
UK	Israel	Canada	Kenya	Nigeria
Sweden	Denmark	Tanzania	Uganda	Ghana

4.6 Influence of tourism

Figure 29 shows that 83 respondents answered that the influence of tourism had been positive and ten respondents answered that the influence of tourism had been negative. Places with the most negative influence of tourism were Bahari Beach (one third said the influence of tourism was negative), Lushoto (two sixth said the influence of tourism was negative) and Moshi (three sixteenth said the influence of tourism was negative). (Figure 30)

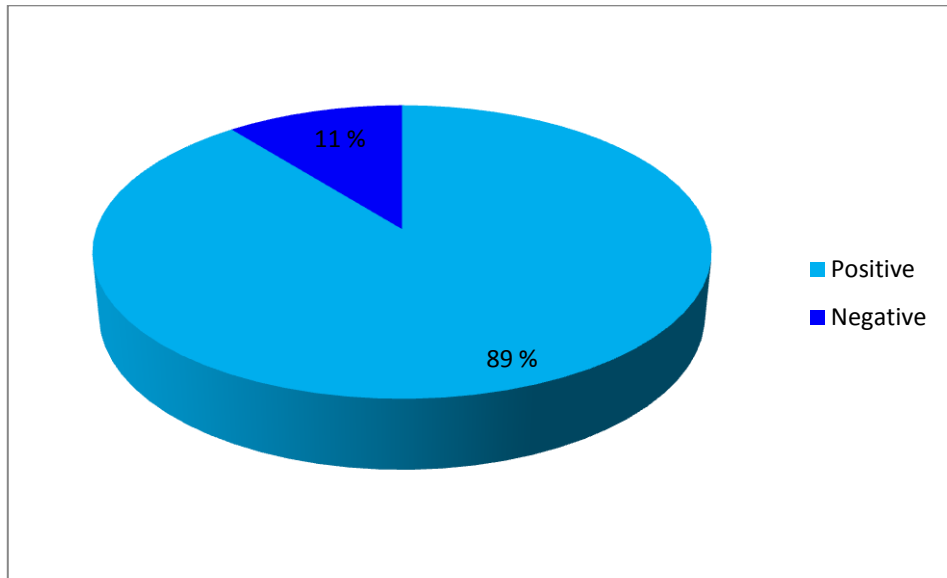


FIGURE 29 Distribution of the main impact of tourism

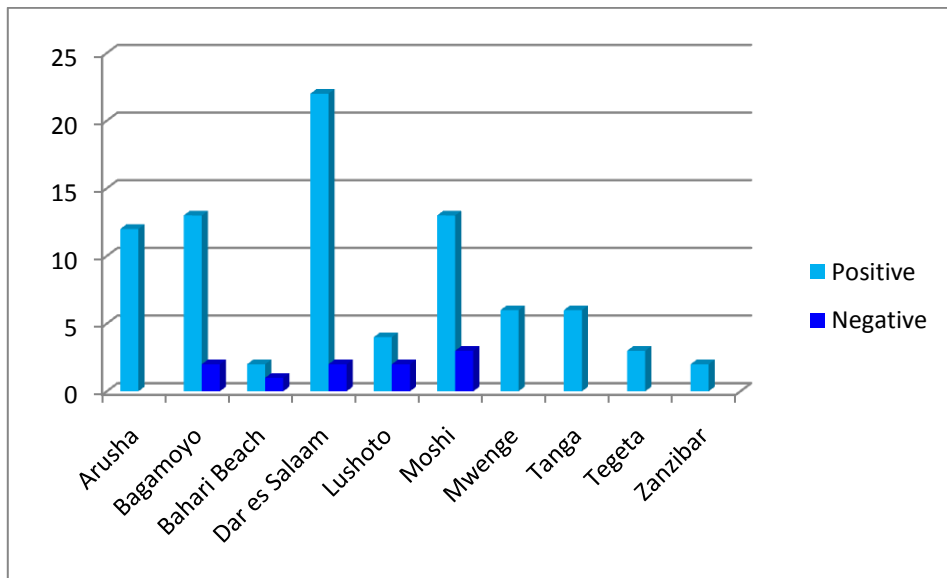


FIGURE 30 Main impact of tourism in towns



Most of respondents thought that tourism was a good thing because it increases Tanzania's economy. The GDP rises and VAT is paid and it brings taxes to the government. So *tourism brings necessary capital in the country to develop*. The respondents had also noticed that the economic crises had affected the tourism season in Tanzania, because the country received fewer tourists these days. So it is *the major problem affecting our national economy because the lack of tourists received year to year*. But still, the government is boosting support and investments in all sectors of tourism, because the government gets a lot of money from tourism. Tourism brings income to Tanzania by foreign currency and increased work opportunities especially in the tourism industry. Travel agencies, hotels, gift shops, national parks give work to people who would otherwise be unable to earn their living. So tourism decreases poverty because it helps *to take care of street children, getting them education, food, shelter and clothes*. Tourism promotes development of infrastructure such as roads, airports, social services, health care and telecommunication facilities. Tourism promotes conservation of wildlife and settlement of cultural sites, e.g. in Kilimanjaro and Bagamoyo.

Tourism also makes Tanzania known at international level, promotes international respect, creates the image of Tanzania and increases market ability to local and agricultural products.

Tourism improves the standard of living of the indigenous people. It improves language skills and brings individual possibilities. Tourism also increases cultural interaction by creating friendships between locals and foreigners by bringing facilities to learn new cultures and foreign countries and by learning each others' characters and behavior and cuisine. *When we talk to tourists we get very valuable ideas as most of them are from developed countries: we have a lot to learn from them*. Tourism is also good, because most locals can teach things of nature which are unknown in welfare countries.

Negative influence of tourism appear in bad behavior, e.g. increasing robbery, living in slums, drug abuse, prostitution, spread of diseases like HIV, increasing attraction to terrorism, immoral habits, seasonal employment, e.g. *in our country tourism depends on period so that during the high season tourism is good, but during low season tourism is bad, because most people haven't a job*. Negative impacts of tourism are also disappearing of the culture, especially of the traditions of the local people when tourism is changing cultural traditions to commercial products, e.g. the Masai culture in Tanzania. Tourism commercializes foreign people's cultures which are not typical in Tanzania, e.g. Chinese culture in Tanzania. Another negative effect is that the society of Tanzania tries to copy from tourists, e.g. clothes and hair styles. Tourism may increase racial interaction and bring more international exposure. Western inhabitants bring scientific initiative, but also great exposure of their own habits and customs.

Tourism exploits Tanzania's natural resources and causing pollution and littering in the country especially, *when tourism volume is too large, it de-*

*structs our environment. Also human activities cause several destructions of some natural forests. So tourism plays a part in destroying natural habitats and local cultures. Illegal poaching is a problem and when people hunt wild animals some animals may become extinct.*

4.7 Changes in tourism

Table 6 and Figure 31 represent the estimations of respondents about the effects of tourism on a scale of one to five, (1=totally disagree, 2=disagree, 3=partly agree, 4=agree, 5=totally agree). These numbers are just indicative.

TABLE 6 *Estimated scale of tourism effects from 1 to 5*

	Arusha	Bagamoyo	Bahari Beach	Dar es Salaam	Lushoto	Moshi	Mwenge	Tanga	Tegeta	Zanzibar	Average
Prices has increased	3,75	3,93	4,33	3,58	3,83	3,63	3,17	4	3	4	3,72
Crime has increased	2,92	3,2	3	3,13	3,17	2,81	3,17	3,33	3	3	3,07
Employment has increased	3,33	2,87	4	2,96	3,83	3,56	2,5	3,5	2	5	3,36
Living in slums has increased	3,17	3,07	2,67	3,29	2,67	3,13	2,83	2,67	4	2,5	3,00
Infrastructure has improved	3,67	3,6	3,67	3,63	3,67	3,63	3,67	4	4,33	5	3,89
1. System of sewers	2,83	2,67	3	2,54	2,67	3,94	3	3,17	2,33	4	3,01
2. Telecommunications	3,67	4,2	4	3,75	4,5	4,13	4,17	4,33	3,67	5	4,14
3. Traffic connections	3,58	3,47	3,33	3,13	3,83	3,94	3,67	3,67	3,67	5	3,73
4. Electricity/energy	2,83	2,8	4	2,88	3,17	3,06	3	2,83	4	5	3,36
Poaching has increased	3,08	3,67	3	2,67	2,67	3,06	2,83	3,5	3,67	4	3,21
Pollution has increased	3,25	3,8	3,67	3,17	3	3,69	3,17	3,67	3	2	3,24
Security of living environment has increased	3,42	3,4	3	3,04	4,17	3,25	3,33	3,83	4	4,5	3,59
Urbanization has increased	3,67	3,73	3,67	3,54	3,17	3,94	3,67	4	4,33	5	3,87

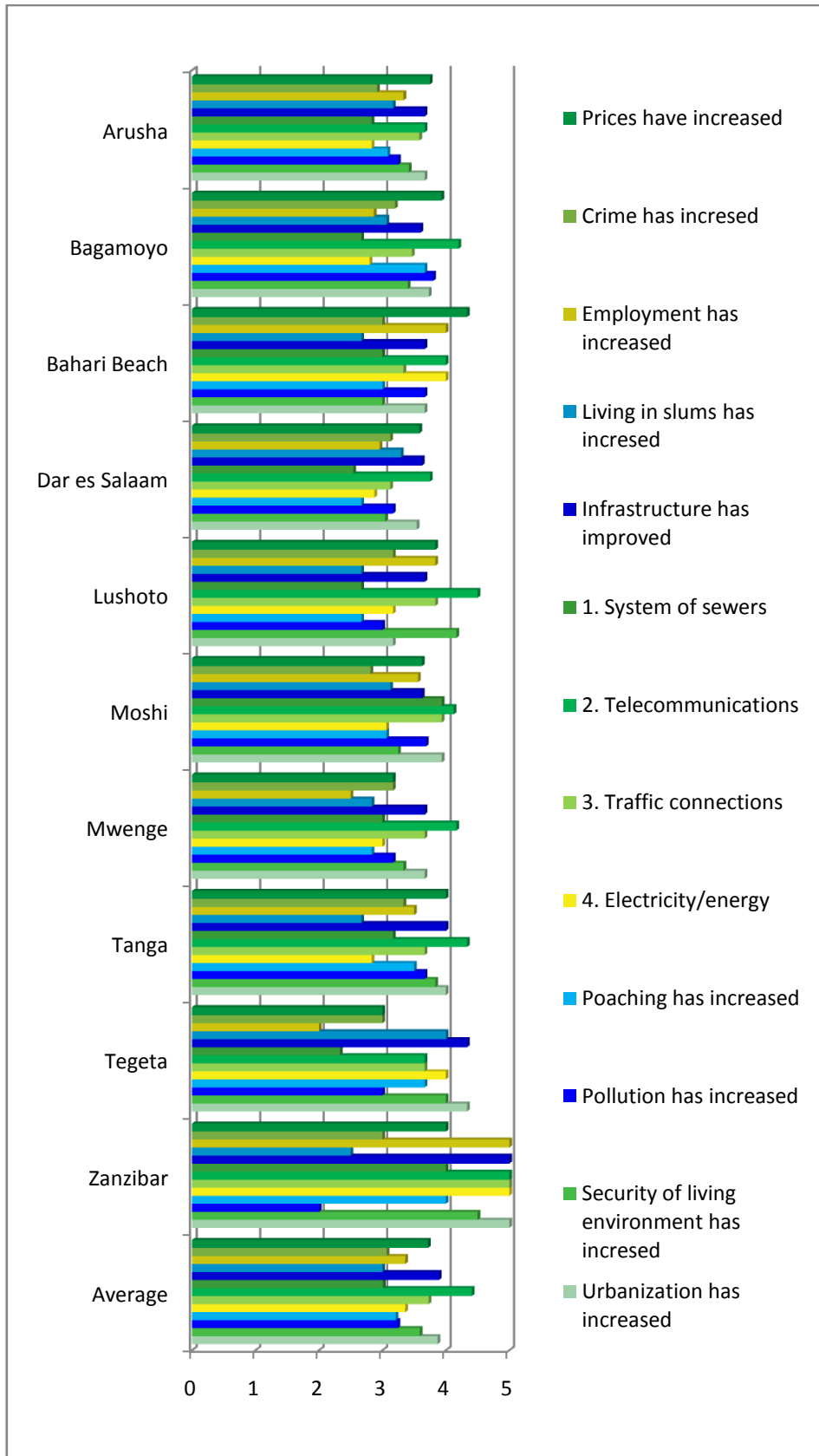


FIGURE 31 *Estimated scale of tourism effects*

Prices had risen mostly in Bahari Beach 4.33, Tanga 4 and Zanzibar 4, the average being 3.72 in these places. Crime had also risen in Tanga 3.33, Bagamoyo 3.2, Mwenge and Lushoto 3.07, the average was 3.07. Employment had risen in Zanzibar 5 and Bahari Beach 4, but was at low level in Tegeta 2, the average was 3.36. Living in slums had increased in Tegeta 4 and in Dar es Salaam 3.29 but in Zanzibar living in slums had the lowest estimate 2.5 and the average was 3. Infrastructure had improved well everywhere in Tanzania, especially in Zanzibar 5 and Tanga 4 and, average 3.89. Sewage System had not improved so much in Tanzania. The best result was in Zanzibar number 4, Moshi 3.94 and Tanga 3.17. The result of sewage system was really low in Dar es Salaam 2.54 and the average in the whole country was 3.01. Telecommunication possibilities were really good in the whole country and the average was proving this which was 4.4. The highest result of telecommunication possibilities was in Zanzibar number 5 and lowest in Tegeta and in Arusha number 3.67. Traffic connections were middle level in whole country, the average was 3.73. The deviation of traffic connections between Zanzibar (5) and Dar es Salaam (3.13) was 1.87. Electricity/energy had improved in Zanzibar to level 5 and it was lowest in Bagamoyo 2.8 and the average in the whole country was 3.36. Poaching had increased and the average in the whole country was 3.21 and poaching was in the highest level in Bagamoyo and Tegeta 3.67 and in the lowest level in Dar es Salaam and Lushoto 2.67. The average of pollution was 3.24 and it was in the lowest level in Zanzibar 2 and in the highest level in Moshi 3.69. Security had increased in Zanzibar to 4.5 and it was in the lowest level in Bahari Beach just number 3. The average of the urbanization had increased even to the level 3.87 in Tanzania and it is highest in Zanzibar 5 and lowest in Lushoto 3.17.

Ecological improvement is minimal even if tourism has increased. However, technology has improved and new hotels and restaurants have been built even inside the national parks. For example, *roads are getting better and they are going to build harbor and airport to Bagamoyo*. Government supports all tourism sectors to be developed. Some respondents said that there should be recycling of water and using solar power, while some respondents said there was no cycling, everything goes to the ocean and local people burn all garbage.

Indirectly way tourism causes unplanned urban and rural development, water pollution, soil degradation and erosion, especially in *the places that are not over utilized* and also *deforestation in the area where the hotel is built and there is no replanting*. For example natural coastal beaches are destroyed and in the National Parks natural habitats are harassed by the roads. Increasing infrastructure and facilities of construction such as roads/trails, toilets, hotels/lodges, campsites etc. disturb animals as does deforestation in the animal regions, *the animals will sometimes shift the place to another so sometimes tourists will not see those animals they expect*. The locals are fishing using dynamite. The destruction of the ecosystem causes loss of natural habitats and landscapes and removes animals from their natural environment.

4.8 Weather and climate change as part of tourism

Figure 32 shows that 78 of respondents answered yes to the question: Have you noticed climate change in Tanzania? Many of them, however, associated climate change with the seasonal weather variety.

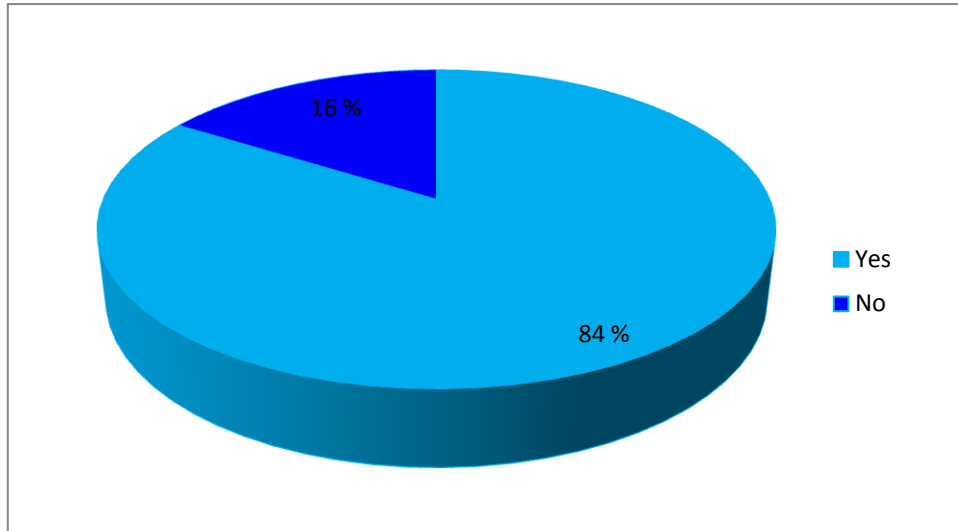


FIGURE 32 Distribution of estimate of climate changes

Most of the respondents who noticed changes in climate were found in Dar es Salaam and Moshi. Least of respondents answering positive were found in Zanzibar and in Bahari Beach. The largest number of the respondents who answered negative to the question was found in Dar es Salaam, Mwenge and Arusha. (Figure33)

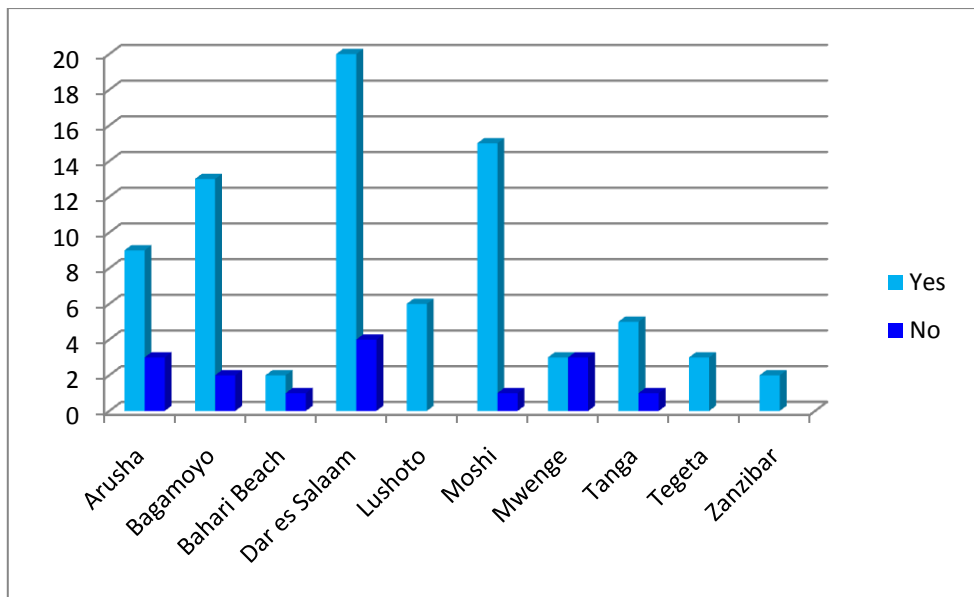


FIGURE 33 Estimate of climate change in towns

When asked about climate change, the respondents were confusing climate change with the seasonal changes of weather. For example *we have rain season during the months of March to May, short rain season in November to January and dry season. And the seasonal effect increases floods.*

The climate change in Tanzania is due to deforestation and decreasing vegetation. Global warming has an impact also in Tanzania as the snow of top of Mt. Kilimanjaro is melting and there are also other changes like delayed rains, decreased duration of rainfalls and the temperature has risen drastically. On the whole unpredictable weather usually causes desertification and also more illnesses. *It happens when the nature resources are being destroyed either by fire or poaching, for instance forest fire leads to climatic changes and sometimes can cause the declining of the ice on mountain.*

*The weather has changed like long seasonal of drought, short heavy rains, which causes shortage of food and most rivers have dry up. The coastline is receding, which means decreasing of beach sports. Some damage in the coral formation has been found as well. Climate changes may also cause extinction of some animal species. Most people in our country depend farming and pastures and the climate change affect rain falls, for example our area of Kilimanjaro we don't get enough rain this year but also the longer sunshine affect the crops, so we expect to have famine now.*

Many respondents said that there was less rain compared to the past few years and it was really cold. For example in Arusha *it has been very cold in June-July for the last two years, in Lushoto the rain season is coming longer and colder.* In the dry season the temperature has risen more near the regions of Dar es Salaam and for instance in Bagamoyo *there is less rain in the past years or like in Dar es Salaam the rain fall has been very little of past ten years. Some regions were very cold but have changed and now they are very hot.*

*Not much at the moment but in the future it definitely will for example Mount Kilimanjaro has hardly any ice left on it. Climate change will reduce the number of tourists. Climate changes do not influence tourism because tourists come to Tanzania depending on their own climatic factors. Maybe Europe an climatic change can cause fluctuation of changes in the numbers of tourist in Tanzania. Does not influence tourism because some of tourism likes rain season and some likes dry season. Climate changes make tourists come more because they like cold weather so because of the climate change the high season has changes too. The problem when it is too hot, people are not comfortable and drying water springs in safaris and Mr. Kilimanjaro. Its affect a little bit to the tourists but more to the people who lives here, most of depend on the rainfalls for their cash and food crops. The climate change in our country is not very significant so there is no influence of tourism. But the truth is more suitable climate, more tourists.*

*During the rainy season we get less tourists than in the dry season because the rain season affects the transport ability and the infrastructure such as roads, airports and so on. So, during the rainy season some tourism attractions cannot operate, because of to the rough road. During the rainy season the number of tourists decreases because if there is too much rain the tourist cannot hike to the mountain, which many of them like during the dry season. Seasonality and climate change destroy infrastructure, decreases tourism business in a certain period of time, causes death of wild life and plants. The lack of water and pasture makes part of wild animals die which will influence the lack of wild animals which in turn affects safari tourism. The lack of rainfalls makes animals look for water in inner bushes, which causes animals' disappearance and then it is hard to see animals during the safaris. To lose the nature of the place especially in the national parks often are too dry to the animals so animals will shift to other country/place so the tourist may fail to see animals. Green environment is matter on tourism business, no green no business.*

## 5 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impacts of tourism in Tanzania from the perspective of local people. The analysis of the research was facilitated by the author's own experiences and views of Tanzania. Author's own experiences give perhaps more real picture of tourism and its impacts in Tanzania. The sample of the research was relatively small taking into account the wide target area. Therefore, the results represent only a cross-section of Tanzania's tourism and its impacts.

The research results of the tourism industry have been found generally a growing business area in Tanzania. The tourism sector has been argued to possess new forms of colonialism, which means that the welfare states and individuals invest in less successful countries, when the biggest cash drain flows to foreign countries. This kind of relationship can be described as abuse or dependency on ratio, depending on the point of view. From the point of view of successful countries the relationship can be exploitation, because in developing countries raw materials and labor force are cheap. The relationship can be dependency from Tanzania's point of view, because local people do not necessarily have other options than to work for the tourism industry in order to earn money for living. This dependence relationship is well described in the results about the length of working time compared to local people's poor wages. Dependency ratios may also be contributed by the wide and powerful corruption of Tanzania's government. Tourism growth may also affect the dependence growth of tourism if there is no development in other economic areas. This in turn may increase the importance of foreign enterprises in Tanzania, for example the U.S. hotel chain Holiday Inn in Tanzania may grow due to increase demand.

The tourists arriving in Tanzania were mostly from the United States, Great Britain, and Germany, which is partly because of the history of colonial times and the widespread use of English. Stereotypes of tourists from the above mentioned countries are strongly related to mass tourism and to the stereotypes adoring luxury. The customers waiting for luxury increase the demand and hence increase the supply. Then tourism may become the most important and the only element in the country's economy and even drive up ahead the industries and conditions of local people. Foreign investors may also help the local circumstances by investing their resources in the developing countries.

Analyzing the impacts of tourism may not result in simple conclusions, because tourism is a complex phenomenon. Even though the majority of economic benefits of tourism would flow abroad something will always remain in the destination country, although the amount would be negligible. That may still provide an opportunity to survive for the local families. Thus tourism may help people to stay in rural areas, women's employment in the industries of hotel or restaurant, as well as keeping alive the local culture. Even today women have less work outside home than men and according to the results women are paid less than men. The profit brought



by tourism and foreign investments can contribute to urbanization and thus improve the infrastructure, e.g. by improving the telecommunications and the expansion of sewerage and electrical networks. The infrastructure has been improved, especially in the major tourist destinations such as the capital of Dar es Salaam and the northern cities of Arusha and Moshi in Tanzania. This often leads to an increase of the slums around the city when local people move into the neighborhood in the hope of getting a job. With the profits from tourism, which reach the local population, education and health services can be improved. The growth of the economy is really insufficient in Tanzania because of the rapid growth of population.

The growth of tourism can also affect the various carrying capacities and their overflowing. This is particularly clearly visible in the environmental changes, such as littering, erosion and poaching which may lead to the extinction of animals. The seasonality is one of the most significant phenomena in tourism, which is primarily caused by tourists' stay for the summer holiday periods in Tanzania. That mostly occurs in the southern hemisphere in the winter season. The seasonality is a burden especially for carrying capacities of tourist areas. The highest seasonal number of tourists is reflected in the growing need of workers. The tourist season also increases crime which is ironically based on the increasing number of tourists to be robbed. A good solution for carrying capacities not being exceeded is lengthen the tourist season by attracting tourists from different countries, mainly from the southern hemisphere as well as offering cheaper prices for the northern hemisphere winter tourists. Also the environment should be protected from possible pollution such as using newer cars and become more familiar with solar energy and recycling. To take environmental issues seriously and to eliminate possible pollution are very difficult issues in developing countries. For example in Tanzania, where 30% of the population is undernourished, the improvement of the living conditions is going ahead of the protection of environment in both local and state level. Tourism can also contribute to nature conservation, because efforts are made to be the environmental regions comfortable and well-preserved for tourists.

Tourism is one of the biggest factors of climate change because of the vehicles, airplanes. The welfare states account of climate change about 80% of the all polluters and Africa's responsibility is less than 5%. Still it is predicted that about 80% of the impacts of climate change will appear in Africa, which means that over the decades a new travel trend could be climate refugees from Africa, because of increasing drought and growing unsuitable environmental conditions. Due to poverty in Africa people cannot afford technology, which they can be used to prevent some of the changes, such as rising water level or create irrigation systems in areas which become parched. This can be seen in northern Tanzania, on the top of Kilimanjaro-mountain, the snow mass is decreasing because of the rising temperature. That means the melting waters from the top of the mountain are decreasing, which will cause drought and in decades famine in the villages on the foothills of the mountain.

Tourism is one of the most important factors in increasing globalization, which is enabled by developed transport and communication links and which in turn leads to growing awareness of the world and humanity as one entity. From the tourism point of view, globalization means the reduction of diversity on the Earth. In Tanzania this can be seen in foreign hotel chains dominating the environment particularly in the capital, Dar es Salaam. Westerner food culture has also begun to overwhelm the market in Tanzania. For example the price of a Coca Cola- bottle is cheaper than bottled spring water from Mount Kilimanjaro in Tanzania. Globalization is also a benefit for the local people because of improved transport and communication systems from rural regions to cities because of increasing demand of tourism in faraway lands. Globalization may also harm tourists. For example local people's awareness of western people's ability to pay has led to the fact that Tanzanians have created their own price list for tourists. For tourists the high prices are not a problem, but it may provide livelihood for the entire village in Tanzania.

In the development of tourism globalization and what kind of image is created from the target country should be taken into account. Tanzania is well known, at least for now, for its original attractions, e.g. Africa's highest mountain, Mount Kilimanjaro, numerous national parks and indigenous culture, of which a good example is the Masai tribe. In the future a more cohesive picture of Tanzania in both national and regional side should be created and the development of tourism should be led to a more sustainable direction from economic, socio-cultural and environmental point of view.

This study is only an indicative view of tourism and its impacts in Tanzania. So it would be better to concentrate on sub-division at a time in a certain place in further studies, which should be more detailed and thus provide more accurate information about the area. The purpose of this study was to highlight the good and bad impacts of tourism in Tanzania in an honest way. Personally I hope that this should inspire and help people to keep in mind the ethical issues both in the business world and as a traveling tourist. Is tourism a good or a bad thing –everyone can decide it by themselves!

## 6 EVALUATION

This research has only scratched the surface of the subject it does not cover all areas evenly and the sample itself is very small compared to the scope of the target region. Thus in retrospect it would have been better to focus on one aspect at a time in a given area in order to receive more detailed information. However this research gives a good picture of the present-day situation of tourism in Tanzania and also good tendencies of the direction in which to develop.

The visit in Tanzania has brought the author a personal picture of tourism in that country. The empirical part of the research was conducted in Tanzania by interviewing local people using a questionnaire. The study was laborious and time-consuming because of the cultural differences, language barriers and lack of confidence. Gathering the survey data were the most interesting moments in my life since the local people shared their life stories with me.

Doing this research has been rewarding and has opened perspectives to tourism. Initially it was difficult to gather the data, because in Finland there are very few books on the impacts of tourism and English material was also really difficult to find. The research is really wide, since the subject was really difficult to limit but hopefully it is a rewarding reading experience to the reader.

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THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Taulukko1

Questionnaire

1. In which town do you work?

- Dar es Salaam
- Tegeta
- Moshi
- Arusha
- Zanzibar


2. The gender

- Female
- Male


3. Age

- 15-25
- 26-40
- 41-60
- Over 60


4. Are you Local

- Yes
- No


5. How long have you stayed here and where are you from?

--

6. What do you do for work?

--

7. How many hours do you work in a day? And how many days in a week?

--

8. How much do you earn in month?

- Below 20 000
- 20-60 000
- 60-100 000
- 100 000-150 000
- 150 000-200 000
- Over 300 000


Sivu 1





Taulukko1

9. Has tourism increased in the past few years?

Yes	<input type="text"/>
No	<input type="text"/>

10. How much tourism has increased?

< 30 %	<input type="text"/>
30-60 %	<input type="text"/>
> 60 %	<input type="text"/>

11. How many customers do you have in month?

12. Name five countries from where you get tourists most.

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>
4	<input type="text"/>
5	<input type="text"/>

13. What do you think about the influence of tourism upon your country.

Positive influence	<input type="text"/>
Negative influence	<input type="text"/>

14. Why tourism is good or bad thing?

Taulukko1

15. Which ecologic changes of tourism in your country do You know?

16. Is there any corruption in your country and how does it appear?

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

17. Estimate in scale 1-5 how well things below appear in your country.

Prizes has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Crime has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Employment has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Living in slums has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Infrastructure has improved	<input type="checkbox"/>
1. System of sewers	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Telcommunications	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Traffic connections	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Electricity / energy	<input type="checkbox"/>
Poaching has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pollution has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Security of living environment has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>
Urbanization has increased	<input type="checkbox"/>

Taulukko1

18. Are there any climate changes in Your country and how does it appear?

Yes  
No


--

19. How do the climate changes influence on tourism?

--