How To Develop Ngorongoro As An Ecotourism Destination
Bachelor In Tourism
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In the third World Countries there is a need to develop and promote Tourism industry. Tourism Sector needs to be promoted to push economic development and increase the number of employments.

This research aims to find out whether eco-tourism sector at Ngorongoro Conservation area generates sustainable profit to local people. Qualitative research was used to analyze eco-tourism value that leads to better understanding of different supports methods being used by government to local people. And to assess the financial flow between local people and stakeholders.

Primary data was collected through open-ended questions, questionnaires delivered to almost 90 people in Ngorongoro area. And some few questionnaires were delivered to stakeholders as well.

The results showed that eco-tourism in Ngorongoro has to be developed to ensure sustainable growth of the tourism sector.

In the thesis some recommendations were given for the future.

Keywords
Tourism, Eco-tourism, sustainable, conservation, local community,
# Table of contents

1 Introduction.............................................................................................................................. 1  
1.1 Motivation of study................................................................................................................. 1  
1.2 Statement of purpose............................................................................................................. 1  
2 Methodology............................................................................................................................ 3  
2.1 Research aim and objectives................................................................................................. 3  
2.2 Tools and method.................................................................................................................. 3  
2.3 Reliability and validity.......................................................................................................... 3  
2.4 Researcher’s relation to the destination ............................................................................... 4  
3 Research Area  
3.1 Location, topography relief and population  
3.2 Conservation and tourism importance of Ngorongoro  
4 Ecotourism.................................................................................................................................. 8  
4.1 Community-based ecotourism: Concept and criticism......................................................... 8  
4.2 Ecotourism and the local participation.................................................................................. 9  
4.3 Encourage empowerment through community participation.......................................... 11  
5 Tanzania and world tourism.................................................................................................... 31  
5.1 Tanzania tourism’s sector.................................................................................................... 12  
5.2 Tanzania ecotourism........................................................................................................... 15  
5.3 Types of ecotourism in Tanzania......................................................................................... 17  
4.3.1 Community based tourism.............................................................................................. 17  
4.3.2 Cultural tourism.............................................................................................................. 18  
6 Results and discussion  
7 Conclusion  
References..................................................................................................................................... 31  
Appendices.................................................................................................................................. 31  
Appendix 1. Traditional report structure................................................................................... 28  
Appendix 2. Zipper thesis structure.......................................................................................... 30
1 INTRODUCTION

International tourism has been the backbone of many developed and developing countries and it was projected that “International tourist arrivals grew by 4.6% in the first half of 2014” according to the latest UNWTO World Tourism Barometer. (UNWTO, 2014). In the case of eco-tourism, it has given hope and livelihood to people of developing countries like Tanzania (Neil, 1999). For example, it is often the case that poor villagers in less developed countries (LDC) like Tanzania to have no choice but to exploit natural resources around them, such as trees, to make a living (Neil, 1999).

In such a complex situation, “ecotourism” is receiving more attention among conservationists as a means to promote both environmental preservation and income generation, especially in LDCs. (Neil, 1999)

1.1 Motivation of study

The traditional way of living of the people of Ngorongoro in Tanzania is endangered because their way of forest harvesting is now becoming unsustainable. The environmental non-governmental organization (NGO) Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS) has been helping villagers by working on these problems. As one alternative source of income, WCS suggested the introduction of ecotourism to villagers (WCS, 2010), and villagers are interested in developing ecotourism in Ngorongoro. Given the controversy over the effectiveness of ecotourism as a conservation project, however, ecotourism should not be blindly implemented in the village.

1.2 Statement of purpose

The aim of the research is to assess the possibility of developing ecotourism in Ngorongoro region located in Arusha, Tanzania. Developing ecotourism in a society takes both internal and external factors in the said community. To assess such factors the attitude and perception of the local has to be taken into consideration (Honey, 2008). Therefore, I will focus on the following objectives:
To study society’s ideas and goals of tourism and how they would like ecotourism to be developed

To search and to document the potential and existing ecotourism sites in Ngorongoro

Assessing how the society issues could affect ecotourism in this society.

This research is also to be based on people’s experience, understandings, perceptions and emotions of what ecotourism is about. Qualitative method of approach will be used to gather information from already written research; government’s files and documents will also be evaluated. Most of the materials will be gathered from schools library, journals, magazines and Internet, as well as the researchers own personal experience of the community in question. Questionnaire would also be sent out and the results would be coded to make sense out of the outcome. Choosing of respondonce would be carefully based on my understanding of key personalities who have in-depth knowledge of the importance of my research
2 Methodology

The study used primary data and existing value skills ascertain profitability of .

2.1 Research aim and objectives

The contribution of Travel & Tourism to Gross Domestic Product is expected to decline from 7.6% in 2009 to 6.9% by 2019. Real GDP growth for Travel & Tourism economy is expected to be 4.9% in 2010 and to average 4.7% per annum over the coming 10 years (wttc 2009). Thus, the findings of the study is hoped would focus on the tourism potentials of Ngorongoro and also help improve the tourism industry so as to play its developmental role effectively and efficiently in the central Region.

2.2 Tools and method

Tools and techniques that will be employed in the research process are underlined in this section. In collecting data for a research, usually different tools and methods are used. For the purpose of this study, a qualitative research method where literature would be reviewed and a questionnaire dispatched to stakeholders at the Ngorongoro tourism destination. Such stakeholders include the residence, tour guides and local inhabitants as well as general overseers of the destination In terms of its competitors; the method used will strengthen the destination ahead of its rivals by way of knowing what they offer and how they do it so as to build upon it.

2.3 Reliability and validity

Literature reviews analyzes and interprets ideas and arguments. This requires the reviewer to combine, classify and then organize all the information they have collected in order to make connections between individual documents, explain any differences or similarities between authors and find new meaning from the literature as a whole (Cano, 2009). The reliability and validity of my thesis would be evaluated with the help of webropol, a computer based software.
The data analyzed for this research are those that are reliable and valid and has either related features or has similar framework linked to the study at hand.

Reliability refers to the consistency in reaching the same results when the measurement is made over and over again (Proctor 2005, 208). Reliability refers to the degree of consistency, which is assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on a different occasion. Simply put, reliability in this research study is how accurate the data collected and where they were collected. It is an established fact that all the data collected for my research are current and those from highly recognized bodies and institutions (Cano, 2009).

Validity on the other hand means truth interpreted as the extent to which an account accurately represents the social phenomena to which it refers (Brotherton 2007, 213). Validity in this context suggests that all the materials reviewed are those written for similar purpose either in Tanzania or elsewhere.

3 Research Area

3.1 Location, topography relief and population.

Ngorongoro is located in Arusha region, Tanzania, Eastern part of Africa with a very small population 174,278 according to 2012 population census (National Bureau Statistics Tanzania). The area was established in 1959 as a multiple land use area with wildlife coexisting and seminomadic Maasai pastoralists practising traditional livestock grazing.

The area is described as one of the best known natural landmarks of the World. Ngorongoro crater is perhaps one of the most spectacular natural wonders that exist. As well as being the largest intact caldera in the World. Ngorongoro is volcanic in origin as it was created during the same fracturing process that formed the Rift Valley.
almost 20 millions years ago. At its peak in size would have matched Mount Kilimanjaro, which is the highest Mountain in Africa as its current heights.

The Ngorongoro Conservation area is also a UNESCO World heritage site, and International biosphere reserve, covering almost 8,300 square km with altitudes ranging between 1,020 m to 3,577. Frequently referred to as the eighth wonders of the World. The area encompasses a blend of landscapes, archaeological sites, people and abundant wildlife which is unsurpassed in Africa. Also featuring volcanoes, grassland, waterfalls and forests. The conservation area is being administered by the Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority (NCAA) and an arm of the Tanzanian government. (Philip Brings & Chris McIntyre 20139)

Figure 1: Map Ngorongoro conservation area.
3.2 Conservation and tourism importance of Ngorongoro.

The Ngorongoro Conservation area covers an area of 8,288 km² is one of the most important wildlife areas in Africa. The famous Ngorongoro crater hosts a diverse assemblage of wild animals such as wildebeests, zebra, lions and rhinos. Beyond the crater rim, Maasai pastoralists herd their cattle across the plains sharing the endless plains also known as Serengeti with wild animals. Nearby lake-filled Empakaai crater and an active volcano of Oldonyo Lengai are nearby as well. The area is also significant in tracing the origin of mankind in the Olduvai Gorge and Laetoli that resulted in discoveries of fossil remains of Homo habilis and a 3.5 million-year old human footprints.

The table below shows other tourist attraction sites that are bordering Ngorongoro:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attractions</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mount Kilimanjaro National park</td>
<td>Africa’s highest Mountain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serengeti National park</td>
<td>Is a vast treeless plain with millions of animals, and as the largest National park in Tanzania.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Olduvai Gorge</td>
<td>This is an archaeological site situated on a series of fault line.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lake Manyara National park</td>
<td>The park is host to a thousand of Flamingos and diverse bird life, and also is a home of World largest Baboons.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mafia Island</td>
<td>Is a desirable location for deep fishing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pemba Island</td>
<td>Is the Northern most Island in Zanzibar, and it is also a major World clove producer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selous Game Reserve</td>
<td>The largest game reserve in Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lake Victoria</td>
<td>Is the largest freshwater in Africa and is bordered by Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4 Ecotourism

Tourism is widely considered to be one of the fast growing industries in the world, and ecotourism is believed to be its fastest growing subsector, though the definition of the term ecotourism has not been clear to date (Buckley, 2009). However, Weaver questioned this belief as “very surprising, and equally suspect” because of the lack of consensus over the definitions and quantitative evidence (David Weaver, 2013). Since ecotourism is a relatively new notion, there is no agreed definition of eco-tourism (David Weaver, 2013). There are many definitions available, and there are considerable differences among them. The diagram by Buckley (2009) shown in Figure 1.0 is helpful for understanding what constitutes ecotourism. In a broad sense, most of the definition of ecotourism may fall somewhere within four circles in the figure. (Buckley, 2009)

![Ecotourism Framework](image)

Figure 2: An Ecotourism Framework (Source: Buckley 1994)

Even though this diagram, however, does not cover the entire picture of ecotourism because this diagram focuses on ecotourism as a “good.” For those who consider ecotourism as a means of development, significant participation of the local community in the operation of tourism is often required as a condition for ecotourism. Such ecotourism is called community-based ecotourism (CBET). Generally, the words ecotourism and CBET are not distinguished clearly, which makes the discussion of the definition of ecotourism more complicated.
Shibasaki and Nagata, by investigating definitions of ecotourism, pointed out that the definitions tend to be influenced by the character of organizations, which make the definitions (Shoka, 2006). For example, conservationists such as environmental NGOs tend to make more restrictive definitions, requiring sustainable management of the tourism as one the components of ecotourism. On the other hand, in industry and government sectors, ecotourism is often treated as the synonym of “nature-based tourism” (Buckley, 2008). Given the difficulties inherent in defining ecotourism, Buckley (2008) claimed that “[a] precise definition of ecotourism is perhaps unnecessary unless the term is to be used in legal or administrative documents, such as planning and development control instruments or grant guidelines for funding agencies” (Buckley 2008, p. 264).

Since it is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss which definition is more appropriate for ecotourism, this thesis defines ecotourism as follows (Weaver 2009)

The primary attraction is nature-based, with cultural features constituting a secondary component;

- The physical and social impacts on the visited area are small; and

- Notable economic participation by local residents must be made.

4.1 Community-based ecotourism: Concept and criticise

CBET has become a popular means of biodiversity conservation, especially in less developed countries, although it has also received criticism (Kiss, 2004). It is widely believed that CBET is a very effective way of achieving dual goals of conservation of natural resources and local development because CBET gives an effective incentive of nature conservation for local community while simultaneously providing an economic benefit (e.g. Wunder 2008, Salafsky et al. 2001). Kiss (2004), however, cast a doubt on this belief as “much of the information available about CBET is anecdotal and subjective, lacks quantitative data and analysis, and appears in non-peer-reviewed sources, such as project reports, workshop proceedings, and in-house publications and websites” (Kiss 2004, p. 232-233). Taylor et al. (2003) argue, “The feasibility and compatibility of these two goals are controversial” (Taylor et al. 2003, p. 979).
In theory, the linkage of nature preservation and local development is considered as follows: CBET’s main attraction is usually to appreciate natural/cultural resources in their undisturbed form. Therefore, if tourism earnings were high enough, local people would deliberately take care of those resources so that their tourism income would be continuous. At the same time, it is hoped that tourism employment would divert local people from environmentally destructive activities.

Although this linkage has many benefits, for this linkage to happen, “tourism benefits must be sufficiently high and widespread to out-compete basic livelihoods” (Kiss 2004, p. 234), which is uncommon (Kiss, 2004). Aside from being unlikely, there are some questions left unanswered. First, it is not clear whether higher income obtained from CBET leads local people to invest their money in biodiversity conservation. In some cases, people invest on other activities, such as enlarging agricultural fields, which can threaten biodiversity. Secondly, even though local people have an incentive to participate in preservation activities, such positive effect on biodiversity conservation might be offset by the increase of demographic pressure caused by outsiders attracted by the economic success of CBET (Kiss, 2004).

Another type of linkage is that an interested party, such as a government or an environmental NGO, helps a local community to develop and maintain ecotourism as a means of supporting biodiversity conservation until it becomes economically self-sustainable (e.g. Alexander 2000). This linkage would be successful if the projected ecotourism actually becomes profitable and the local community invests in preservation activities. If it took a long time or failed to be profitable, however, it would be that developing ecotourism itself is a conservation project. In such a case, it might be that the budget used on ecotourism could have been used more effectively by spending on a more direct conservation project.

4.2 Ecotourism and the local participation

The literature review will elaborate around ecotourism and local community participation. Within the topic of ecotourism, the history of ecotourism is studied to get the feel of the changes of the field and also answer why there is much focus on nature. The
definition of ecotourism is also explored to draw out the important elements in the
ecotourism concept. Here, local community participation is identified as one of the
important aspects. This is also the plan for developing an operational definition of eco-
tourism for this thesis. The business of ecotourism looks into the current situation and
environment of the ecotourism industry. It puts the definition of ecotourism into the
practical idea, which is also important in setting up the framework in the thesis. Eco-
tourism success is discussed deeply after the assessment of its history, definition and
current trends. And this is what is going to be discussed in this thesis.

The second topic of this literature review is local community participation. This topic
is one of the important elements in the ecotourism concept. The concept of local
community participation is assessed while clarifying the definition of ‘community’ and
‘participation’. The theory of local community participation is also critically reviewed to
clarify the topic further before moving on to relate it to the ecotourism industry. Local
community participation successes are explored later and these successes are linked to
the success of ecotourism.

![Figure 3: Tanzanian national parks and game reserves (Source: Tanzania Tourism Board)](image-url)
4.3 Encourage empowerment through community participation

These programs are able to provide a source of economic income for a number of individuals in the NCA and they therefore encourage empowerment through community participation by providing individuals with greater economic flexibility. Revenue from these programs has also supported the construction of kindergartens within CBs, as well as the sponsoring a few individuals to obtain a post-secondary education. Given the circumstances of limited land use in the NCA and the prohibition of farming, increased income also allows resident pastoralists the ability to purchase items for sustenance, providing for greater food security in this area. Communities can begin to decrease their reliance on the NCAA for basic services, allowing for community empowerment.

Unfortunately, these programs also have some aspects that also empower communities. Some villages are unable to participate in these programs because of their distance from major tourist routes. Therefore, these communities are at a disadvantage simply based on their location. Additionally, due to the increased presence of tourists in the campsites and walking safaris, local people are discouraged from visiting certain areas that had previously been accessible. The management plan prohibits the stripping of acacia trees for rope-making to preserve the aesthetic value of these areas for tourists. Therefore, these programs limit the behavior of resident pastoralists.

These programs also marginalize certain groups and individuals who are unable to participate as frequently as others. For example, women rarely participate in the walking safaris and campsites programs. Also, certain villages involved in the CB programs must reorganize if a significant portion of the village departs for a CB for an extended period of time. Only a small portion of villagers can participate in the CB programs at one time and some villages do not participate at all. It has been estimated that approximately 1000 Maasai residents benefit from the CB programs per year, which comprises only about 2 percent of the NCA residents. Only a few dozen men are employed as guides or campsite staff. Therefore, the ecotourism activities in the NCA do not provide a substantial means of community empowerment, although certain individuals do benefit.
5 Tanzania and world tourism

Tourism is one of the most important sectors of the Tanzanian economy, earning over USD 500 million annually and accounting for 15 percent of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011). Almost 28 percent of the land is set-aside as national parks and game reserves. (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011) As a result, many tourism attractions in this country are nature-based. However, communities located in areas that support tourism attractions are not always included in the planning or implementation of projects, nor do they benefit from traditional tourism activities. Therefore, due to the community focus of ecotourism as defined on the international scale, the term ecotourism when used in Tanzania has become equated with any type of tourism that focuses on community involvement and development. The Tanzanian government has thus believed ecotourism as “a purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the culture and natural history of the environment taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem, while producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to the local people” (Kenneth McCormick, 1994). This is a fairly encompassing definition of ecotourism, which allows for projects with a variety of interests and objectives to be considered as ecotourism projects. The broad scope of this definition is reflected in the diversity of projects considered as ecotourism in Tanzania, creating a situation in which certain projects and activities that are not considered ecotourism from the global standpoint have that classification in Tanzania. (Kenneth McCormick, 1994)

5.1 Tanzania tourism’s sector

In the years following independence, tourism was not seen as a priority sector for development because of Tanzania’s emphasis on self-reliance. During the 1960s and the early 1970s, the government focused only on wildlife conservation and put little emphasis on utilization and promotion of tourism sites. For example, the College of African Wildlife Management, one of two on the continent, was founded in Mweka, Tanzania in 1963 (Kenneth McCormick, 1994). Promotion and marketing of tourism within and outside the country did not begin until the Tanzania Tourist Corporation was established in 1971. However, this momentum was interrupted by extensive drought in

12
1974, the war with Uganda’s Idi Amin from 1978 to 1979, and the economic crisis that lasted from the late 1970s until the mid 1990s. These events caused stagnation in the tourism industry, which was exacerbated by the closing of the border with Kenya in 1977. Prior to this border closing, most tourists had entered Tanzania via Nairobi, Kenya. However, since the economic liberalizations of the mid-1980s, the government has made efforts to encourage both foreign aid and investment throughout the country, aiming to set Tanzania apart from Kenya. This government impetus was followed by a large boost in infrastructure development, funded by the World Bank and fifteen other donors in 1994, leading to an explosion of the tourism industry from the mid-1990s until today (Kenneth McCormick, 1994).

Recently, Tanzania has become a major tourist destination, attracting visitors from around the globe. In 2011, over 2 million international tourists visited Tanzania. In 2010, tourism accounted for about 60 percent of all exports of goods and services and in 2011, earnings from tourism contributed 16.5 percent to national GDP. Most tourists who come to Tanzania participate in traditional, large-scale tourism activities, including visits to national parks, safari hunting, and visits to heritage sites, scuba diving, and snorkeling. Advertisements cite Tanzania as “the finest safari destination in all of Africa with incredible concentrations of wildlife. It is remote and peaceful, but more importantly, it is the true Africa, undamaged and unspoilt” (Shoka, 2006). Advertisements like these, which are reminiscent of the colonial ideas about African wildlife, have drawn an increasing number of visitors to Tanzania, causing policymakers to become concerned about potential impacts on the environment, culture, and economy of the communities involved in tourism.

Policies relating to tourism were drafted in the early 1990s, on the eve of the upsurge of the Tanzanian tourism sector. The Ministry of Tourism, Natural Resources, and the Environment (now the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism) was created in 1991 in order to promote “sustainable conservation of natural and cultural resources and development of sustainable tourism.” This agency created the National Tourism Policy in the same year. This policy, revised in 1999, emphasizes promotion of private sector investment and environmental protection in order to maximize tourism’s contribution to the country’s development. The policy also “seeks to assist in efforts to promote the economy and livelihood of the people, essentially poverty alleviation, through encouraging the development of sustainable and quality tourism that is cultur-
ally and socially acceptable, ecologically friendly, environmentally sustainable, and economically viable.” In addition to this tourism policy, other developments have encouraged investment in and promotion of tourism throughout Tanzania. Private investment was encouraged through the Tanzania Investment Act of 1997, which created the Tanzania Investment Center (TIC), designated “to coordinate, encourage, promote and facilitate investment in Tanzania and to advise the Government on investment related matters.” The TIC approved 229 tourism projects in 2000. There are now extensive guidelines for engaging in tourism activities, and tourist agents are required to obtain licenses, which can only be obtained after various conditions are met. These policies and guidelines aim to minimize the negative impacts and maximize the benefits of tourism that are experienced by the relevant actors in tourism activities (Neil, 1999).

The tourism industry has both positive and negative effects on the actors involved due to its size. The government is able to collect much revenue through taxes and through National park fees. Tourism also provides for increased sales of various goods and services, such as agricultural products and handicrafts, diversification of local economies, and creation of an inlet for foreign exchange. Official data indicate that there were 709,000 people employed in the Tanzanian tourism sector in 2010, which was about 7.2 percent of the labor force in this year. Although this percentage of employees seems miniscule, this sector was able to contribute 16.5 percent to national GDP, indicating that slight changes in the tourism sector could cause significant changes in the national economy. Tourism also affects the composition of the labor force, by creating job opportunities which are less labor intensive and small-scale in comparison to other non-agricultural activities, and by supporting livelihood activities such as livestock keeping, crop farming, harvesting, and small enterprise. However, although there is much potential for positive impacts on the national economy, it can be difficult for stakeholders to ensure that all involved benefit.

Although there are many potential benefits from tourism in Tanzania, there are also numerous negative effects. These impacts include large-scale transfer of tourism revenue out of Tanzania, environmental degradation, cultural degradation, and exclusion of local businesses, inhabitants, and products. Local people have often been unable to participate in tourism activities because of a lack of transportation or communication, lack of customers, lack of capital, seasonality of business, and cultural distortion. Tan-
zania is beginning to alter some of its tourism policies and to diversify its tourism activities in order to maximize the benefits received from tourism (Tourism M. o., 2002).

A recent change in traditional tourism activities has been an increased focus on sustainability. The mandate of TANAPA, according to its policies written in 1994, is; to manage and regulate the use of areas designated as National Parks by such means and measures to preserve the country’s heritage, encompassing natural and cultural resources, both tangible and intangible resource values, including the fauna and flora, wildlife habitat, natural process, wilderness quality, and scenery therein and to provide for human benefit and enjoyment of the same in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for future generations. These policies reference the management policies of US national parks and (Tourism, 2013) were written with consultation from IUCN and the Frankfurt Zoological Society. The language of sustainable development is apparent here, as the benefit and enjoyment of future generations is mentioned as motivation for managing national parks effectively. TANAPA imposes limits of acceptable use and development that limit the number of people, vehicles, and facilities that can be within a certain park at one time. National parks each have a Community Conservation Service (CCS) component, which deals with outreach to local communities in order to ensure that some of the benefits of conservation are shared in an appropriate manner. Therefore, through these types of mandates and policy changes, Tanzania’s nature-based tourism industry is beginning to embrace a number of the international principles of ecotourism.

5.2 Tanzania ecotourism

Due to the economic, political, cultural, and environmental circumstances in Tanzania, the country is well suited for the implementation of the international concept of ecotourism. Tanzania is a relatively politically and socially stable country, with fewer conflicts than other countries in the region (Kiss, 2004). Additionally, Tanzania has a comparative advantage in terms of the outstanding wildlife and natural resources found in the country. Tanzania also draws tourists interested in viewing traditional cultures, providing an opportunity to combine traditional nature-based tourism activities with cross-cultural exchanges that can benefit local communities (Kiss, 2004). The main
example of this is found with Maasai pastoralists in Northern Tanzania. Through these types of tourism, Tanzanians can potentially harness foreign investment and revenue from international tourists in order to use tourism as a tool to promote high rates of macroeconomic growth (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

Despite these potentials, the implementation of ecotourism in Tanzania may be difficult for various reasons. Since Tanzanian ecotourism activities may be linked to traditional safaris and hunting, it can potentially have negative environmental impacts. Additionally, local Tanzanians can be taken advantage of both in terms of exploitation of culture as an attraction, and in terms of withholding revenues from the local communities involved. Some studies have confirmed that inhabitants of villages containing a tourist attraction do not receive as many of the benefits from tourism as other Tanzanians and foreigners, especially in terms of employment (Kenneth McCormick, 1994). Unfortunately, many Tanzanians lack prerequisite skills or training to be employed in the tourism sector. The Multi-Environmental Society (MESO), a Tanzanian NGO, has cited additional weaknesses as “the lack of management skills and education in the tourism sector in the local communities and a lack of initiative and efforts from the community to [initiate] the project” (Honey, 2008). In light of these concerns, it may be difficult to have full local community participation in tourism activities.

Even if local communities are interested in implementing ecotourism activities in their areas, the government may hinder these efforts. The Tanzanian government often levies high taxes on private investment, which tend to hamper the ability of local tour operators to compete in the international wildlife tourism market. Communities also encounter barriers with the government when attempting to participate in tourism activities because of legislation, which prohibits tourism activities from taking place on their lands as opposed to National Parks and Game Reserves. However, the national government does include many of the principles of international ecotourism in their policies.

The main focus of Tanzanian policy on ecotourism is “the continued existence of [natural] attractions (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011)” The National Tourism Policy states that “the tourist industry depends on the proper conservation and sustainable management of the environment,” as stated in the National tourism policy. This policy also stipulates that “it is imperative for communities living within or around [tourism] areas to be fully involved in the development and management of these attractions and
in addition, to get a share of the income generated from tourist activities within their areas.” Other national policy documents support ecotourism in Tanzania, including the National Environmental Policy (2010), the Wildlife Policy of Tanzania (2009), and The National Policies for National Parks in Tanzania (2009). It is important to note, however, that community participation and empowerment discussed in the international standard of ecotourism are not included in the Tanzanian government’s definition of ecotourism (WCS, 2010). The specific ramifications of this omission will be discussed in subsequent chapters, but it appears that despite this omission, many ecotourism projects in Tanzania do take these issues into consideration.

5.3 Types of ecotourism in Tanzania

Many of the environmental Non Governmental organizations (NGOs) working in Tanzania have chosen to include ecotourism in their area of activities. These organizations include international groups such as world wildlife fund (WWF), which was involved in “linking sustainable fishing, handicrafts, small-scale industries, and ecotourism,”(www.wwf.org.uk, 2012) through the creation of Tanzania’s first marine park on Mafia Island, as well as local NGOs like the Multi-Environmental Society (MESO). Their ecotourism activities include negotiating agreements between local communities and private tour operators as well as small enterprises for Ngorongoro locals who make handicrafts. Although many of these initiatives allow for these smaller organizations to work directly with communities in tourism activities, members of these organizations still ensure that local communities are not benefiting as much as they could be from tourism in Tanzania (Honey, 2008). Therefore, finding alternative ways of including local communities in tourism activities is necessary.

5.3.1 Community based tourism

The organizational structure of Tanzanian villages lends itself to joint ventures between tourism operators and communities that can be mutually beneficial. According to Tanzania ecotourism organizations tourist agents can establish activities on village lands after directly signing an agreement with the Village Council (Kenneth McCormick,
1994). No involvement with the national government is required, and investors are increasingly choosing this model for their projects. A portion of the revenues from the projects goes to the local communities in exchange for the use of their land. In addition, activities such as walking, horse riding, and night game drives, which are prohibited or restricted in the national parks, can be carried out on community lands. Therefore, these types of projects directly incentivize locals to conserve the environment. Some projects also insist on including locals in tourism through employment and education. However, these projects do not focus on the cultures of the communities involved, unlike other types of Tanzanian ecotourism (National Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

5.3.2 Cultural tourism

Cultural tourism is emerging as an important ecotourism activity in Tanzania. This activity does not require specialized skills on the part of community members. In these projects, community members lead visitors on tours to demonstrate the lifestyles practiced in the community (Buckley, 2009). Many of these programs use the revenue for community development projects, which can promote empowerment of local communities. Some of these tours directly promote conservation, by funding conservation projects with the revenue from tourism, while others indirectly promote conservation of natural resources by emphasizing local uses of the land on these tours. If run effectively, these projects channel revenue directly to local communities, lessen environmental impact, because most of the tours are day-long walking tours, and provide an avenue for intimate cross-cultural exchange with the local inhabitants (Kiss, 2004).

6 Results and discussion

This chapter will analyse the questionnaires in details.

6.1 Questionnaires respondents
Table below shows the number and percentages of respondents according to Village, sex, age and occupation.

Table 2: Respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Village</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ngorongoro</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.65 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arusha</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.88 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senai</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.94 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arash</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.29 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malambo</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.24 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nayobi</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.71 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>48.3 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>51.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age groups</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12–18 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19–30 years</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31.8 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31–45 years</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>36.4 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 and above</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26.5 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>37.6 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enterpreneur</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24.7 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>23.5 %</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The attitude of respondents towards tourism development in their society.

A larger number of respondents had a very positive attitude towards tourism development in Ngorongoro area. The Village, age, sex and occupation did not affect their willingness to have tourists in their community.

Would you like to have local tourist in your community?
Figure 4: Number of respondents is 88. Willingness to receive local tourists.

Would you like to have foreign tourist in your community?

Figure 5: Number of respondents is 83. Willingness to receive foreign tourists.
If yes would you mind if a tourist would observe your attraction sites especially heritage sites?

Figure 7: Number of respondents is 84. Willingness to allow tourists observe attraction sites especially heritage sites.

Do you have any of your own resources (materials and/or financial) to initiate tourism activities?
Would you be ready to accommodate tourists in your home?

Figure 8: Number of respondents: 88. Own resources to initiate tourism activities.

Would you be ready to volunteer in tourism development activities?

Figure 9: Number of respondents: 90. Readiness to accommodate tourists in their homes.
Figure 10: Number of respondents: 85. Willingness to volunteer.

Do you have specific skill(s) or knowledge that you could utilize in tourism?
Figure 11: Number of respondents: 85. Special skills or knowledge related to tourism.

If yes what knowledge or skills

- Handicrafts: 17.95%
- Music: 7.60%
- Historical knowledge of the area: 12.82%
- Identification of birds and animals: 10.26%
- Acting as a professional guide: 28.21%
- Other: 23.08%
Figure 12: Number of respondents: 39. Knowledge and skills.

Would you like to receive training to improve your existing knowledge/skills, or to receive training to develop a new skill?

![Bar chart showing the percentage of respondents who would like to receive training.]

Figure 13: Number of respondents: 79. Willingness to receive training.

How much do you respect the natural resources (especially forest) surrounding your community?
7 Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to find out the possibilities of developing ecotourism in Ngorongoro. The research could bring the people from Ngorongoro live in harmony within their environment. I was able to conduct the interview as well as giving out the questionnaires to 90 people have responded to the questionnaires. I believe the ecotourism in Ngorongoro is not yet fully exploited to benefit the sector as well as the local. If well exploited the ecotourism will bring the positive impact in environmental, social, culture and economic well being of the Ngorongoro and the local communities. This will also be a good tool to eradicate poverty to the local communities in Ngorongoro. Some problems were found during the interviews.

7.1 Language barrier

Many tourists comes from different parts of the world, they speak in different languages while the locals have minimal knowledge of international languages. This hinders communication as well as interaction between locals and tourists. Also the gov-
ernment could establish schools or language centres for the locals. This will generate income since the locals would work as tour guides.

7.2 **High competition between stockholders and locals**

Lodges, hotel and curious center are located along the road, which makes it easy for tourist to visit than that of visit the Maasai bomas. And these hotels and lodges have personal that are well educated and have more entrepreneurship skills and business minded than that of the Maasai bomas. Because of the competition the Maasai forced to lower the entrance fee. The usual is 20000-50000 Tanzania shillings that is 10-25€. This makes the variation of the entrance fee to the all Maasai bomas and this make the competition even bigger. The solution to this all entrance fees should be standardize and make a fixed amount as an entrance fee. As well as all other stockholders should level this to Maasai so as they can get some money for they’re self-keeping and help them in the living.

These are some of the challenges that make the ecotourism setback but with some of my solution we can make the ecotourism to be seen as one of the direct method of protect Ngorongoro environment authentic and also make the local people happy at the same time. The development process is big step, which needs sustainable efforts to those involved but Ngorongoro can be developed as ecotourism destination. Ngorongoro conservation area has a very potential ecotourism development the area has so many attractions

As a conclusion, ecotourism is not something local communities or development organizations can blindly implement as an effective way of biodiversity conservation and local development. Whether ecotourism is going to be successful is entirely case-by-case. Therefore, region-specific assessment of potential impact of ecotourism on the community, in terms of economic, environmental, and socio-cultural effects, should be conducted before introducing ecotourism. It is also important for all stakeholders to be informed of all potential benefits and risks before the implementation.
References


UNWTO. (2014). *International tourism up by 5% in the first half of the year.* World Tourism Organization.

WCS. (2010).


Appendices

Appendix 1. Traditional report structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cover page, abstract, table of contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– general introduction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
- objectives, (research) problem setting, delimitation
- concepts.

**Theoretical part**
- theoretical and previous practical and experiential information
- establishing a research space among earlier studies, theories and models, with reference to professional literature and other sources.

**Empirical part**
- target of research
- objective, problems, development task
- methodological choices\(^1\) or project plan\(^2\) with justification
- description of implementation or working methods
- data and types of analysis used\(^1\)
- results\(^1\) or product\(^2\)
- summary.

**Discussion**
- consideration of results
- trustworthiness of the research\(^1\)
- ethical viewpoints
- conclusions and suggestions for development or further work
- an evaluation of the thesis process and one’s own learning.

**References**

**Appendices**
- questionnaire/interview forms and analysis results\(^1\)
- the product (if possible to include in the report)\(^2\)

\(^1\) A research oriented thesis, including quantitative or qualitative research.

\(^2\) A product-oriented, practice-based thesis, involving a product development or planning task, event, publication, multimedia product or the like.
# Appendix 2. Zipper thesis structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cover page, abstract, table of contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- delimitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- presentation of commissioning company</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- process description.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Topic A to be studied and developed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- previous research or experiential information (theoretical part)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- a description of the phenomenon as part of the target studied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- results/product and suggestions for development.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Topic B to be studied and developed</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- previous research or experiential information (theoretical part)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- a description of the phenomenon as part of the target studied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- results/product and suggestions for development. [Followed by C, D… if needed.]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discussion</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- trustworthiness/usability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- summary and conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- an evaluation of one’s own learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>References</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Appendices</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>