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**ATLAS Africa, conference proceedings 2017**

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**Content**

<b>Introduction .....</b>	<b>6</b>
<i>René van der Duim.....</i>	<i>6</i>
<b>Variables attributed to delay in internship placement of tourism and hospitality undergraduate students in Kenya .....</b>	<b>8</b>
<i>George Ariya, Beatrice Imbaya.....</i>	<i>8</i>
<b>An analysis of sources of information and income of domestic tourists to National Parks in Tanzania. ....</b>	<b>28</b>
<i>Kezia Herman Martin Mkwizu .....</i>	<i>28</i>
<b>What is ATLAS .....</b>	<b>44</b>
<b>ATLAS Publication list.....</b>	<b>47</b>
<b>ATLAS Events .....</b>	<b>52</b>

## Introduction

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This Volume of ATLAS Review contains two papers presented at the 2017 ATLAS Africa conference at Moi University, Eldoret, Kenya. I would first like to thank Rita Nthiga and Beatrice Imbaya, both from Moi University Kenya for their editorial support to this Volume.

The 2017 conference focused on Africa's Tourism and Travel Competitiveness: Opportunities and challenges'. The theme was selected on the premise that despite exponential growth of tourism in terms of earnings and visitor numbers, Africa still trails other continents in terms of tourist arrivals and receipts. More than 100 participants from Africa and abroad celebrated the fact that ATLAS Africa, founded in 2000, is still a vibrant community of scholars promoting leisure and tourism studies on the African continent.

The growth of tourism in Africa has led to the development of a large number of graduate and post-graduate tourism programmes and an enormous increase in number of students. In the first paper George Ariya and Beatrice Imbaya however argue that due to the increase of Kenya's university and student numbers, there is a cut-throat competition in securing internship places for students. Their study sought to establish variables attributed to delay in securing internship places and found that university related factors were more attributive to delay in securing internship places than student related factors. Ariya and Imbaya therefore conclude that universities bare the greatest responsibility in securing internship places for their students, which is indeed a pre-condition for a healthy growth of tourism in Eastern Africa.

The development of tourism in Africa is also closely related to ICT developments and related evolution of social media. In the second paper Kezia Herman Martin Mkwizu of the Open University of Tanzania analyses sources of information and income of domestic tourists to National Parks in Tanzania. Findings indicated that television is still more often used as a source of information than social media. Results also showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists. However, there was no statistically significant relationship between social media as source of information and income groups of domestic tourists. The author therefore recommends that in promoting Udzungwa Mountains National Park to domestic tourists, television should still be used as the major source of information because the majority of the sampled domestic tourists gave higher percentage scores for television compared to social media.

The next ATLAS Africa conference in June 2019 in Kampala will address technology and social media in more detail as it focuses on the relation between tourism and innovation. The growth and development of the travel and tourism industry has been characterised by countless innovations. While innovation has become a buzzword, it is in many cases used without deeper reflection for anything that is moderately novel. Generally, the study of innovation in services and tourism in particular is still in its infancy and pioneering studies only appeared in the late 1990s. Given that many countries rely on tourism for their (economic) development, there is an urgent need to improve our understanding of innovativeness in this sector. This international conference therefore, aims, just as in 2017, at sharing knowledge, ideas and experiences among academicians, policy makers, entrepreneurs, governments, private sector organisations and general community interested in innovations travel and tourism. You are most welcome to join!

## **Variables attributed to delay in internship placement of tourism and hospitality undergraduate students in Kenya**

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### **Abstract**

Majority of undergraduate tourism and hospitality curricula at Kenya's higher institutions of learning provide students with opportunity to undertake two internships or industrial attachments during their four-year of study. This is based on the argument that tourism industry is labor intensive hence requires graduates with practical skills to meet the industry demand. As Kenya's university numbers increase coupled with increase in student numbers but in a shrinking or stagnated tourism and hospitality industry, there is a cut-throat competition in securing internship places for students. The number of students that miss out or delay in securing internship places has exacerbated, triggering the need to establish specific reasons for this delay. Anchored on experiential learning theory in nurturing high-impact educational practices, this study sought to establish variables attributed to delay in securing internship places using all one hundred and ten tourism, travel and hospitality management undergraduate students who delayed in securing internship places. The study employed simple random sampling in disseminating self-administered questionnaires to collect data from the respondents. Both descriptive and t-tests were used in data analysis. The study established that university related factors were more attributive to delay in securing internship places than student related factors and concludes that universities bare the greatest responsibility in securing internship places for their students. The study recommends that universities should play a central role in securing internship places by enhancing signing of internship Memorandum of Understanding with reputable and reliable tourism and hospitality organizations to guarantee students placement, carry out intensive students' orientation on industry expectations, requirements and feedback as well as encourage students to develop positive attitude towards work.



## Introduction

Tourism and hospitality education plays an imperative role in the successful development of good quality tourism industry (Guzeller, Yildiz, & Sonuc, 2009) and such qualifications at the University level are important (Wang, Ayres & Huyton, 2009). As a result, designing curriculum that meets the needs of industry has become a major preoccupation of tourism curriculum designers (Livanos, 2010; Morgan, 2004). Student internship (also known as industrial attachment) is considered a key component of the tourism education curriculum (Churchward & Riley, 2002; Morgan, 2004). There is a wide range of terminology describing the phenomenon of work experience outside institutions of learning as part of formal education including 'industrial attachment', 'internship', 'industrial training' among others. For the purpose of this study, the term internship has been adopted and used to mean industrial attachment. In broad terms, internship is regarded as a short-term practical work experience in which students receive training and gain experience in a specific field or career area to enable them apply classroom theory within the actual world of work and students may not earn money depending upon specific situations (Zopiatis, 2007).

Generally, internship has its early roots around 600BC in Greek, Roman, Chinese, and Vedic communities (Sides & Mrvica, 2007). During this early period, interns would learn a craft as an entry into skilled fields and entailed learning the skills needed to create a product or perform a service and conduct business (Sides & Mrvica, 2007). In Kenya, internship has a history dating back to 1924 when the Colonial Government established the first Native Industrial Training Depot (NITD) at Kabete to absorb and rehabilitate the demobilized African soldiers from the First World War (Government of Kenya (GoK), 2013). The training involved imparting basic practical skills for survival. In the early 1950s, Industrial Training Depots were upgraded to trade schools, which were converted into vocational technical secondary schools and later converted into secondary vocational schools by the early 1960s (GoK, 2013).

The first legislation governing industrial training in Kenya (the Industrial Training Ordinance No. 48 of 1959) commenced on 16th May 1960 and provided for the regulation of training of persons engaged in industry (GoK, 2013). This Ordinance became the Industrial Training Act after independence. In 1971, the Act was amended to establish the National Industrial Training Council (NITC). The Act also provided for the collection of industrial training levy and established a Fund from which the employers claim reimbursement for training under the Act. The Act was further amended in 2011 to establish the National Industrial Training Authority (NITA) and the National Industrial Training Board (NITB) as successor institutions to Directorate of Industrial Training (DIT) and NITC respectively to be the umbrella body in charge of industrial training and attachment in Kenya (Directorate of Industrial Training, 2007).

According to the Government of Kenya (2013), education training offered at institutional levels in Kenya experiences various weaknesses among them: lack of exposure to practical skills needed in industry; technological gap between machinery and equipment used in training institutions and those used in industry;

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lack of exposure to real work situation; and lack of labor market information. Internship is considered necessary to compliment the theoretical competencies gained in training institutions. Therefore, most universities and other training institutions in Kenya organize internship programs for their students to provide a smooth transition from the academic world to the working environment.

To achieve this, the training institutions in Kenya were mandated to align their training curricula with the needs of the industry; train, assess, evaluate and certify trainees; assist employers to conduct Training Needs Assessment (TNA); collaborate with NITA in the setting of standards, accreditation and quality assurance on industrial training; establish partnerships with industry to optimize utilization of training equipment and machinery; ensure there is adequate infrastructure and facilities for industrial training; ensure all trainees and trainers proceeding on industrial attachment have appropriate insurance cover; and recognize Prior Learning and Continuous Education Development (GoK, 2013; Industrial Training Magazine, 2007). It was envisaged that the DTI would collaborate with training institutions and industry to place students in the industry. Education institutions would then be responsible for overseeing the interns by conducting on-site assessments in collaboration with on-the-job student supervisors while interns are required to maintain an up-to-date diary describing daily roles, activities and contributions during their internship practice (Industrial Training Magazine, 2007).

Despite the central role of internship in Kenya's education, student internship absorption rate by organizations has hardly been addressed specifically in the fragmented tourism industry. For example, very few tourism and hospitality institutions cooperate in this matter making it difficult to streamline tourism and hospitality internship in the country (Kamunzyu, 2010). Also Mayaka and Akama (2007) augments that due to the fragmented and multi-faceted nature of tourism businesses, industry needs in respect to training and education are divergent and not easily identifiable. There has also been a concern from the industry that students are 'damped' to them without proper communication on training institutions' expectations from the industry while students also complain of being exploited by the industry (Kamunzyu, 2010). Other concerns are the nature of work given to the students, their supervision during the attachment, and length of the internship period as well as the timing of the internship (Directorate of Industrial Training, 2007).

While the literature reviewed implies that tourism and hospitality internship as currently conducted in Kenya is facing challenges that may compromise internship as a meaningful learning experience, no documented literature has provided insight on such variables that could lead to delay in securing internship places, which category in terms of university, student or organizational-related attributes has the highest contributing factor and whether student gender influence such delay. Therefore, this study is based on the three unaddressed concerns. The study is grounded on the theory of Experiential Learning, which promotes high-impact educational practices in higher education (Kolb, 1984). This theory describes learning as a four-stage cycle of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. Based on this

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theory, we argue that experience plays a central role in the learning process. Therefore, by students delaying to secure internship places, their experiential learning process could be interrupted, further leading to low-impact tourism and hospitality educational practices at the university.

## **Literature Review**

### ***Internship Programs in Tourism and Hospitality Education***

The development of a country's human resource is crucial in achieving comparative advantage in the highly volatile and competitive global tourism industry. As such, the quality of tourism products in a given destination is not only related to the countries' natural resources, but also depends on the characteristics of the workers. Therefore, tourism and hospitality education plays an imperative role in the successful development of a good quality tourism industry (Guzeller, Yildiz, & Sonuc, 2009). Due to this demand, recent studies have asserted the growing importance of developing tourism curricula to meet the needs of industry as well as employability of graduates produced by the curricula (Churchward & Riley, 2002; Livanos, 2010; Major, 2004; Major & Evans, 2008). Embedded in many of these tourism and hospitality curricula are internship programs designed to equip interns with necessary practical skills to meet industry needs.

It has been argued that internship programs occupy a vital role in the education for students (Andrews & Higson, 2007; Cord, Bowrey & Clemets, 2010; GoK, 2013; Gunlu & Usta, 2009; Lam & Ching, 2007) and the universities and host organizations involved in the programs (Abu Bakar, Harun, Yusof, & Tahir, 2011; Beck & Halim, 2008). Internships have taken on an increasingly important role in education over the past decade. Researchers have argued that internship programs are beneficial to the students, the universities, as well as the host organizations involved in the programs (Abu Bakar, Harun, Yusof, & Tahir, 2011; Beard, 1998; Beck & Halim, 2008; Cook, Parker, & Pettijohn, 2004; Henry, Rehwaltdt, & Vineyard, 2001; Schambach & Dirks, 2002; Tackett, Wolf & Law, 2001).

From the students' perspective, it has been argued that internships play a pivotal role in preparing students for the tourism and hospitality business world. A general agreement is that practical experiential activities are necessary to give students first hand skill development and knowledge which they cannot get within the confines of the classroom (Bisoux, 2007; Gunlu & Usta, 2009) especially the complexities, problem analysis and solving involved in the real world (D'Abateet et al., 2009). Internship assists students to bridge the gap between theoretical-based zone and practical learning situation (Burnett, 2003; Harris & Zhao, 2004; Furco, 1996; Ku, 2008; Lam & Ching, 2007) and understanding of the theories of classroom learning with professional practice (Cook et al., 2004; Hyman-Parker, 1998; Kuh, 2008).

The students also gain experience and obtain career-related direction to networking with other students from various institutions at the organization providing the internship (Lubbers, 2008), and enabling graduates to develop their

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professional knowledge and professional and motivational skills (Beard, 1998). Mihail (2006) augmented that interns successfully develop their personal skills, particularly relating to information technology, time management, communication skills, teamwork, specialist knowledge and ability to prioritize tasks. Students also have the opportunity to experience an organizational culture and improve their job-related skills (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 2000; Harris & Zhao, 2004; Marhuenda, Martinez & Navas, 2004). Through internship, the young and potential employees may benefit as team players, as they work with older employees, who may be more experienced than them (Owusu-Mintah & Kissi, 2012) as well as socialize through training and teamwork assignments (Lubbers, 2008). Interns also improve in their use of technologies, ability to take criticism, and to see the bigger picture (Andrews & Higson, 2007; Beard, 1998; Hall, Higson, & Bullivant, 2009). Moreover, interns also have significant early career advantages which include less time to find a job, higher wages, greater job satisfaction (Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000) and starting salary determinant (Sandvig, Tyran, & Ross, 2005). According to Cannon and Arnold (1998), in times of economic recession when job opportunities are hard to come by, students increasingly relied on internships to differentiate themselves from their non-participating counterparts. In a study by Beggs, Ross, and Goodwin (2008) in the US, travel and tourism students expected to be provided with full-time employment at the completion of the internship.

Many students enroll into degree programs without having a clear understanding of the profession they are getting into. Participation in internship programs gives students a chance to know the profession and a possibility of making a final decision on whether they are in the right career path or not (Cord, Bowrey & Clemets, 2010; Toncar & Cudmore, 2000). In Kenya's Vision 2030, which is the country's development program from 2008 to 2030 towards achieving a global competitive and prosperous nation, the Social Pillar of the vision espouses that "Kenya intends to create a globally competitive human resource base to meet the requirements of a rapidly industrializing economy" (GoK, 2013). This should be achieved through life-long industrial training and attachment informed by relevant Labour Market Information. According to the vision, industrial training produces human resources with knowledge and skills that meet the needs of industry, equips interns with practical skills and exposure to real work situations, and also enables them to internalize relevant work ethics, values and upgrade their skills to enhance level of employability and productivity (GoK, 2013).

Some studies have also shown that subsequent academic performance of students who return from internship programs tends to be better than those who did not go for internship (English & Koeppen, 1993; Kwong & Lu, 1991; Lucas & Tan, 2007; Maletta, Anderson, & Angelini, 1990; Mandilaras, 2004; Surridge, 2009). Other studies (Cord et al., 2010), however, have found little evidence that internship programs help students to perform better in class. Moreover, most of the research on advantages of internship programs has been done in developed countries which have a larger industrial base and elaborate national policies on industrial attachment as opposed to developing countries (King, McKercher, & Waryszak, 2003; Litvin, 2005; Neill & Mulholland, 2003; Sangpikul, 2009).

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***Challenges facing internship programs***

Although tourism qualifications at the University level are important (Wang, Ayres & Huyton, 2009) and designing the curriculum to meet the needs of industry has become a major preoccupation of tourism curriculum designers (Morgan, 2004), internship challenges still persist. Previous studies have established that most students felt confused on who should arrange the internships (Gault, Redington & Schlager, 2000). In terms of internship duration, previous research among students also show that the most appropriate internship period should be six months to nine months instead of three months (Mihail, 2006).

In Kenya, the government has also acknowledged that there exists inadequate framework for coordination and supervision of industrial attachment (GoK, 2013). As a result, institutions tend to release students to industry at the same period for attachment thereby crowding the available places. This is further encouraged by the Kenya's public universities calendar where majority of public universities place their students for internship at the same period. Besides, many employers are also unwilling to offer places for attachment of trainees due to the un-coordinated manner in which the programme is conducted and the absence of incentives to participate (GoK, 2013).

Moreover, Mayaka and King (2010) also established that Kenya's hospitality and training institutions have expressed the view that there is a wide gap between industry and educator expectations. In addition, trainees who manage to secure attachment places are not effectively supervised due to inadequacy of supervisory staff and resources in training institutions. Further, the poor coordination often leads to placement of interns in industry without relevant training facilities and qualified trainers, as well as placement in unrelated areas of study. The result is that interns do not acquire the expected on-job-training during the attachment period (GoK, 2013).

Universities ought to be more responsible to ensure that internships are offering meaningful learning experiences for their students. According to Tackett et al. (2001), students feel that there should be careful examination of feedback from employers and interns followed by the modification of the internship programme accordingly. This may be achievable when the tourism (and hospitality) curriculum is prepared with competency-based training in focus (Owusu-Mintah & Kissi, 2012). The study therefore, sought to find out variables attributed to delayed internship placements by tourism and hospitality education students at higher institutions of learning in Kenya.

***Expectation of students during internship placements***

According to Clark (2003)'s argument, from a student perspective, one might argue that an internship is considered more worthwhile when a student is satisfied with his or her internship experience even though satisfaction does not equal to quality. Generally, when seeking an internship experience, students expect to complete complementary academic assignments (Ross & Elechi, 2002; Somerick, 2001), desire mentorship from an employee at the internship organization (Callanan &

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Benzing, 2004; Snyder, 1999), and want challenging opportunities in the internship setting (Swift & Russell, 1999). In addition, students engaging in internships expect the experience to be educational and enhance their job-specific skills within a chosen profession (PerettoStratta, 2004).

Other expectations of students besides the mentorship, education and challenging job opportunities in determining their satisfaction include: convenience of internship location; monetary or in-kind compensation; exposure and networking opportunities; timing of the internship; task completion; and feedback opportunities (Narayanan, Olk & Fukami, 2010; PerettoStratta, 2004; Rothman, 2007). Thus, students seeking internships expect the experience to be educational and to enhance their professional development. Moreover, the experiences should provide hands-on practical experience and skill development, interest in learning more about their field of study and networking with practitioners in the field. Despite the potential benefits derived from internship experiences, there are often students, institutional, and industrial-based challenges associated with the delay in securing student internship placements.

### ***Experiential Learning Theory and its application on internship at higher education***

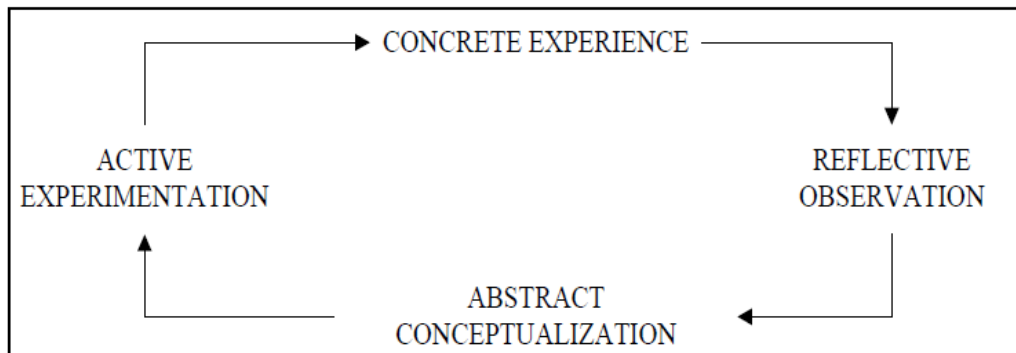
Higher institutions of learning internship programmes can be grounded in an Experiential Learning Theory, which fosters high-impact educational practices in higher education, to optimize the educational and developmental benefits derived from the experience. Two of the most common forms of experiential learning are the practicum and internship (Eyler, 1992). Internships are supervised discipline- and career-related work experiences that involve active learning (i.e. learn by doing), critical reflection, formulation of new attitudes, knowledge and skills, and professional development (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gavigan, 2010; O’Neil, 2010). One learning theory that may be applied to student internship programming is David A. Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning theory (ELT). This is further in line with Kuh’s (2008) use of experiential learning theory to propose strategies that foster high-impact educational practices in higher education, including high-impact internship and community-based learning experiences.

ELT draws on the work of prominent 20<sup>th</sup> century scholars who gave experience a central role in their theories of human learning and development-notably John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, Jean Piaget, William James, Carl Jung, Paulo Freire, Carl Rogers and others-to develop a dynamic, holistic model of the process of learning from experience and a multi-linear model of adult development (Kolb, 1984; Kolb & Kolb, 2007 a & b). ELT defines learning as “the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience and results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience” (Kolb 1984:41). Kolb used the term “experiential learning” to emphasize the central role that experience plays in the learning process.

The theory describes learning as a four-stage cycle consisting of concrete experience (CE-feeling dimension), reflective observation (RO-reflecting/watching dimension), abstract conceptualization (AC-thinking dimension) and active

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experimentation (AE-doing dimension) (Kolb, 1984). Each stage, also referred to as an adaptation of learning mode, provides the basis for the succeeding learning stage. Learners can enter the cycle at any stage but require the abilities represented by each stage in order for learning to be most effective (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton & Renn, 2010; Kolb, Boyatzis & Mainemelis, 2001) as demonstrated in the figure below.



**Figure 1:** Kolb's (1984) Cycle of Experiential Learning

The application of ELT to student internships in higher education supports the potential value of student internship programming and the assertion that purposive practice acquired through students' internship experiences can be highly educational and beneficial to their development. Internship courses are completely structured around experiential learning principles because they are mostly driven by individualized learner experiences (Bailey & Barber, 2015). The theory also supports the facilitation of student internship programmes that enables students to reflect on content from prior coursework in relation to the actual work experience to attain better workforce.

### **Research methodology**

The study adopted descriptive research design in the process of data collection and analysis. The target population for this study was tourism, travel and hospitality management undergraduate students at a public university level who delayed in securing internship places in the year 2015. All students who delayed were considered in the study totaling to one hundred and ten respondents.

Simple random sampling technique was employed in disseminating self-administered questionnaires to the respondents after completing their three-month internship programs in the year 2015. All the one hundred and ten issued questionnaires were fully completed and returned for analysis. Data was analyzed using descriptive (percentage frequency and mean) and inferential statistics (t-test). The results obtained were presented descriptively using tables and graphs.

## **Results and discussion**

### ***Socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents***

A total of 110 respondents completed and returned the questionnaires. Majority (55.5%) were female while 44.5% were male. This higher female number could lead to the contribution of women in the tourism workforce as supported by UNWTO (2008), which estimates that 60-70% of all people employed in the tourism sector are women. Moreover, 43.6% were undertaking degree in Tourism management, 33.6% Hospitality management and 22.7% Travel operations management. In terms of their admission criteria, majority (82.2%) were government sponsored while the rest (17.8%) were privately-sponsored. Based on previous work experience, only 26% had previous work experience before joining the degree programs. The rest (74%) had no previous work experience.

### ***Respondents' internship placement information awareness***

The respondents' awareness on the relevant and potential tourism and hospitality organizations, which could provide internship programs, was further sought. Majority (84.8%) of the respondents were aware while only 13.3% were not aware. The rest (1.9%) were within non-response category. The respondents were further asked how they secured their internship placements. Again majority (60.2%) independently applied and were accepted for internship, 19.4% obtained through friends, 17.6% through relatives, and only 0.9% were through the university placement program. 1.9% were within non-response category.

Student orientation during admission at the university plays a vital role in entrenching learning expectations of any particular program at higher institution of learning. Where orientation is properly done, especially at the departmental level, majority of the students would be aware about the expectation of their respective programs including the level of the study when the internship would be offered and the potential relevant organizations to secure internship. The emphasis during orientation that practical experiential activities are necessary to give students first hand skill development and knowledge which they cannot get within the confines of the lecture halls as suggested by Bisoux, (2007) and Posner (2008) could enrich this awareness level. Based on this, this study could argue that the students had better understanding on the organizations to seek placements.

It is also imperative to note that previous research indicates that there seemed to be a gap between tourism and hospitality management high education providers and the expectations of the industry and the divergent training needs due to fragmented and multi-faceted nature of tourism industry (Amoah & Baum, 1997; Mayaka & Akama, 2007). This could lead to delay in securing placement despite students' knowing the relevant organizations as well as appropriately applying for such placements. In Kenya where close to all public universities churn out students to internship placement almost at the same months (May-August), networking becomes key player in securing an internship placement. In addition, due to the seasonality of Kenya's tourism industry means that the internship period begins

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during low season; thus many tourism and hospitality businesses may not be active in business hence low absorption of interns.

However, in terms of internship placement responsibility, majority (73.6%) were aware that the university was responsible for their placement while 26.4% were aware that it was students' responsibility. All the respondents with previous work experience were aware that it was students' responsibility to seek internship placements. There was a significant difference between respondents' previous work experience and placement awareness ( $\chi^2=108.320$ ,  $df=1$ ,  $p=0.03$ ). During the time of this study, the university did not have in place the industrial attachment policy as a guideline framework for students' placement. Therefore, it was difficult to establish who was responsible for seeking attachment place between the student and the university. The Kenya government has acknowledged that there is lack of adequate framework to coordinate and supervise internship (GoK, 2013). Other studies have also established that most students are confused on who should arrange the internships (Gault et al., 2000).

The respondents who applied for internship placements used conflicting application documents and testimonials. 54.5% of the interns attached curriculum vitae during application, 13.6% insurance cover, 15.5% copy of national identification (ID), 2.7% copy of school identification document (SID), 5.5% certificate of good conduct, 1.9% passport size photo, 6.4% copies of certificates, 5.5% transcripts, 5.5% university admission letter, and 5.5% food handlers' certificate as summarized in Table 1 below.

**Table 1:** Table showing internship application documents used by interns while seeking placements

<b>Internship application documents</b>	<b>% Said Yes</b>
Curriculum vitae	54.5
Copy of ID	15.5
Insurance cover	13.6
Copies of certificates	6.4
Certificate of good conduct	5.5
Copies of transcripts	5.5
University admission letter	5.5
Food handler's certificate	5.5
Copy of SID	2.7
Passport size photo	1.9

N=110

The standard requirement for internship application is very imperative as it acts as an ice breaker between the job applicant and the organization. In many instances in public universities in Kenya, students hardly get opportunity to be trained on job application requirement and processes. Even though there are university courses like human resource management and communication skills mostly taught within tourism and hospitality curricula, high number of students involved, the attitude towards communication skills courses as common university courses and

insufficient practical aspects of such courses could render the courses less useful to tourism and hospitality students.

### ***Attributive variables contributing to delayed internship placements***

Analysis of the variables that attributed to delayed internship placements was done by frequencies and indexing the indicators through arithmetic mean ( $M$ ) (henceforth referred to as mean) ratings. Internship placement ownership was ranked highest ( $M=0.94$ ;  $SD =0.25$ ) by the respondents. This was followed by delayed insurance cover ( $M=0.92$ ;  $SD =0.28$ ) while the variables that were least rated were wrong interview scheduling ( $M=0.62$ ;  $SD= 0.49$ ) and internship fee payment ( $M=0.46$ ;  $SD= 0.50$ ) as summarized in Table 2 below.

**Table 2:** Table showing attributive variables contributing to delayed internship placement

Attributes	% said		
	yes	Mean	Std Dev
Internship placement ownership	93.6	0.94	0.25
Delayed insurance cover	91.8	0.92	0.28
Internship securing process information	88.2	0.88	0.32
Information on potential organizations for internship	80.9	0.81	0.40
Internship placement funding	77.3	0.77	0.42
University reputation in employment market	76.4	0.76	0.43
Timing of internship	75.5	0.75	0.43
Information on academic prerequisites	74.5	0.75	0.44
Interns' compensation during internship	73.6	0.74	0.44
High volume of work during internship	71.8	0.72	0.45
Low volume of work	70.9	0.71	0.46
Internship relevance	69.1	0.69	0.46
Sexual harassment during internship	67.3	0.67	0.47
Convenience of internship location	66.4	0.66	0.48
No/delayed response from the industry	64.5	0.65	0.48
Wrong interview scheduling	61.8	0.62	0.49
Internships fee payment	52.7	0.46	0.50

N=110

The attributive variables were categorized into university, student and organization-related. The university-related attributive variables included internship placement ownership, delayed insurance cover, internship securing process information, information on potential organizations for internship, internship placement funding, university reputation in employment market, timing of internship, and information on academic prerequisites. Moreover, student-related variables included intern's compensation during internship, high volume of work during internship, low volume of work, internship relevance, sexual harassment during internship, and convenience of internship location. Finally, the organization-related variables included no/delayed response from the industry, wrong interview scheduling, and internship fee payment. An evaluation of the three attributive variable categories was conducted using one sample t-test to establish whether there was statistically significant difference in the mean scores. The results showed that there was significance in mean score differences between university-related attributive variables [ $M=0.82$ ,  $SD=0.20$ ;  $t(109)=42.121$ ,  $p<0.001$ ] student-related attributive variables [ $M=0.70$ ,  $SD=0.25$ ;  $t(109)=29.439$ ,  $p<0.001$ ] and organizational-related attributive variables [ $M=0.58$ ,  $SD=0.35$ ;  $t(109)=17.136$ ,  $p<0.001$ ].

Further analysis based on independent samples t-test was done to compare the mean scores of gender against attributive variables that lead to delayed internship placement. The results of the independent-samples t-test (Table 3) showed that there was only significant difference in the scores of male ( $M=0.76$ ,  $SD=0.43$ ) and female [ $M=0.85$ ,  $SD=0.36$ ;  $t(108) = -1.29$ ,  $p=0.011$ ] on information on potential organizations for internship; male ( $M=0.61$ ,  $SD=0.49$ ) and female [ $M=0.70$ ,  $SD=0.46$ ;  $t(108) = -1.02$ ,  $p=0.050$ ] on convenience of internship location; male ( $M=0.69$ ,  $SD=0.47$ ) and female [ $M=0.61$ ,  $SD=0.49$ ;  $t(108) = 0.95$ ,  $p=0.052$ ] on no/delayed response from the industry; and male ( $M=0.49$ ,  $SD=0.47$ ) and female [ $M=0.72$ ,  $SD=0.45$ ;  $t(108) = -2.53$ ,  $p=0.001$ ] on wrong interview scheduling as summarized in Table 3 below.

**Table 3:** Table showing attributive variables to the delay in internship placement based on gender

Variables	Sex	Mean	Std Dev	t	df	Sig.																																																																																																																																																												
Internship placement ownership	Male	0.94	0.24	0.09	108	0.854																																																																																																																																																												
	Female	0.93	0.25				Delayed insurance cover	Male	0.94	0.24	0.70	108	0.158	Female	0.90	0.30	Internship securing process information	Male	0.90	0.31	0.47	108	0.350	Female	0.87	0.34	Information on potential organizations for internship	Male	0.76	0.43	-1.29	108	0.011*	Female	0.85	0.36	Internship placement funding	Male	0.80	0.41	0.52	108	0.299	Female	0.75	0.43	University reputation in employment market	Male	0.73	0.45	-0.64	108	0.210	Female	0.79	0.41	Timing of internship	Male	0.71	0.46	-0.87	108	0.087	Female	0.79	0.41	Information on academic prerequisites	Male	0.78	0.42	0.64	108	0.194	Female	0.72	0.45	Interns' compensation during internship	Male	0.73	0.45	-0.04	108	0.944	Female	0.74	0.44	High volume of work during internship	Male	0.67	0.47	-0.93	108	0.072	Female	0.75	0.43	Low volume of work	Male	0.67	0.47	-0.73	108	0.154	Female	0.74	0.44	Internship relevance	Male	0.69	0.47	0.06	108	0.905	Female	0.69	0.47	Sexual harassment during internship	Male	0.71	0.46	0.83	108	0.096	Female	0.64	0.48	Convenience of internship location	Male	0.61	0.49	-1.02	108	0.050*	Female	0.70	0.46	No/delayed response from the industry	Male	0.69	0.47	0.95	108	0.052*	Female	0.61	0.49	Wrong interview scheduling	Male	0.49	0.47	-2.53	108	0.001*	Female	0.72	0.45	Internships fee payment	Male	0.55	0.50	0.44	108
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Internship placement ownership plays an integral part in securing placements. In a condition where the students are not properly advised on whether the university would be in charge on internship or the student themselves. Confusion would arise among the students and time would be wasted in the process of securing an internship program. Tourism literature has also established that there are instances where there exists vague understanding of what constitutes a student internship (McKnight, 2013) and also university administrative challenges (Sattler, 2011). Under Kenya's internship policy, every student proceeding for internship placement must be insured and many tourism organizations expect a copy of student insurance cover while applying for internship. Therefore, delaying in processing student insurance cover by the university could delay securing of internship place as this could attract legal complication to the employer (Moorman, 2004).

There are other variables that could make internship placement complex from university perspective including insufficient information, funding of internship, timing, university reputation and academic requirements before the student is ready for internship. Some of these findings concur with previous challenges established in tourism education like institutional challenges regarding course approval, lack of interest by involved stakeholders and satisfactory schedule to all parties who are involved in the internship experience (Schmutte, 1986), insufficient funding to carry out internship experiences (Sattler, 2011; Schmutte, 1086), and difficulty in balancing the number of internship opportunities available with the number of students who are interested. The seasonality of tourism industry in Kenya and the calendar of internships as set by the university also affects students placement. While tourism industry activities in Kenya are intense during August to December, majority of universities have set their internships between April to August leading to poor balancing of labor supply and industry labor needs. Previous studies have also established that internship timing influence placement and satisfaction of students (Narayanan, Olk & Fukami, 2010; Peretto Stratta, 2004; Rothman, 2007).

Moreover, majority of students (especially government sponsored) lack financial capability to meet the costs of internship programs. Until recently, the government of Kenya through Higher Education Loans Board (HELB) was sponsoring students during internship programs. Kenya's tourism industry is mainly nature-based and the facilities and organizations where most of the tourism and hospitality students seek employment sometimes are located inaccessible rural areas using public transport. This makes it difficult for the students to access such destinations and accommodation in terms of availability and cost. Studies have established that students get satisfied with internship experience when it is at convenience location (Narayanan, Olk & Fukami, 2010; Peretto Stratta, 2004; Rothman, 2007).

Students also have their own share in internship placements where some would seek places that compensate them while others feared overload. Although satisfaction does not equal quality, from a student perspective one might argue that an internship is considered more worthwhile when a student is satisfied with his or her internship experience (Clark, 2003). Studies have established that

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students are satisfied with internship experience if there is monetary or in-kind compensation and convenience (Narayanan, Olk & Fukami, 2010; Peretto Stratta, 2004; Rothman, 2007).

### **Conclusion and recommendations**

The study addresses the variables attributed to delayed internship placement within the context of public universities in Kenya and the findings of this study could help in internship policy formulation at public university level to ensure timely placement of students. The study established that public university related variables were the major cause of the delay followed by student specific variables and then industry variables. Student gender also influenced variables attributive to placement delay. Ownership of the internship placement was the most reason why students delayed for internship placements.

Students therefore need to be aware whether it is their responsibility to seek internship places or the university could do that on their behalf. At national level, the government through NITA should be responsible in facilitating internship placement for students. In some instances, university placement coordinators play the role of seeking places and placing students appropriately. Where this role is vague as established in this study, majority of students could continue to delay in securing internship places thus affecting their experiential learning process.

In terms of administration processes, university should avail internship documents like insurance cover in time to enable students attach such documents in their applications where it is mandatory that students must apply for internship placement. This is because organizations will be quick to dismiss students whose applications lack basic requirements like insurance cover in a competitive recruitment and selection process.

Students should also be aware that in the current competitive internship market, it is difficult to secure internship programs that remunerate them. Emphasis should be made to students on the central role internship programs play in their learning process rather than monetary gains. In addition, due to the nature of tourism and hospitality organizations and their location, the government, through Higher Education Loans Board, should re-consider reinstating internship placement grants to needy students as this will help them meet financial obligations like rent for accommodation and transport fee.

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## **An analysis of sources of information and income of domestic tourists to National Parks in Tanzania.**

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### **Abstract**

Past literature has documented on various sources of information for national parks used by tourists in travel and tourism. However, updated research on best sources of information for national parks to tourists is crucial in order for the tourism industry in Africa to stay competitive by providing information about national parks to attract tourists. In Tanzania, there are limited studies on sources of information for national parks related to tourism by domestic tourists who contribute 40.5% of visitors to national parks. Although domestic tourism is an alternative engine for economic development, there is inadequate literature on sources of information and income groups for domestic tourists visiting national parks. Tourism stakeholders use various sources of information including social media and television to provide information about national parks. Inadequate research on sources of information and income groups for domestic tourists is a challenge in tourism for purposes of increasing domestic tourist arrivals. Therefore, this study aimed at analyzing the relationship of sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks. The first specific objective was to identify sources of information used by domestic tourists and profile the income groups of domestic tourists. The second objective established the relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists. The third objective established the relationship between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists. Economics of Information Theory is used as the theoretical framework in this paper. The study area was Udzungwa Mountains National Park in Tanzania which is endowed with mountain fauna and flora biodiversity as well as waterfalls. Quantitative data collection approach was applied and semi structured survey questionnaires were given to a total sample size of 107 domestic tourists. Data analysis was done using descriptive statistics and Pearson Chi-square test. Findings indicated that television is used more as a source of information than social media. Majority of respondents are categorized as having monthly income above TZS 300,000. Results also showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists ( $p=0.027$ ). However, there was no statistically significant relationship between social media as source of information and income groups of domestic tourists ( $p=0.521$ ). These results suggest that most domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park use television more, and social media less. Hence this study can conclude that there is a relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park. The outcome of this study is valuable to policy and decision makers in the tourism sector to

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maintain the use of television as the major source of information about Udzungwa Mountains National Park.

## **Introduction**

Sources of information on tourist attractions are used for travel and tourism (Mungai, 2011; Mkwizu, 2018). Currently there are over 1.2 billion people who travelled worldwide for tourism purposes and another 6 billion traveled domestically (UNWTO, 2017). Countries around the world use different types of media like television, radio, and social media to inform tourists on available attractions at destinations (Mungai, 2011; Spencer, 2013; Kronenberg *et al.*, 2015; Everett *et al.*, 2016; Ogutu *et al.*, 2017a; Ogutu *et al.*, 2017b; Stone & Stone, 2017). In addition, the youth travel market is growing fast within the sub-Saharan Africa (Hartman *et al.*, 2014). The increase in tourists and travellers creates the need to use various sources of information on attractions such as national parks (Yapparova, 2013; Mkwizu, 2017). There are multiple attractions in Tanzania (Mkwizu, 2017; Mkumbo, 2017), and in Tanzania domestic tourists contribute 40.5% of visitors to national parks (Mkwizu, 2016b).

On the other hand, domestic tourists visiting protected areas in Botswana is low due to various reasons including the culture of leisure and travel (Stone & Stone, 2017). Although domestic tourism is an alternative engine for economic development (Callixte, 2013; Mkwizu, 2016b), there is still inadequate literature and data for tourism (Mkwizu, 2015; UNCTAD 2016; MacFeely, 2016). Similarly Stone and Stone (2017) mentioned that domestic tourism is less researched in developing nations.

The absence of recent data on sources of information and income groups for domestic tourism is a challenge for purposes of increasing domestic tourist arrivals. Furthermore, there is not enough research on the percentage of different income groups in relation to various sources of information that are used to provide information on national parks. To address the knowledge gap, therefore, this study aimed at analyzing the relationship of sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks. The specific objectives of this paper are to identify sources of information used by domestic tourists and profile the income groups of domestic tourists, to establish the relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists, and to establish the relationship between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists.

## **Definition of concepts**

### ***Sources of Information***

In tourism, a study on sources of information investigated on the best media for advertising local tourism to Russian tourists (Yapparova, 2013). For instance, Everett *et al* (2016) mentioned that social media is deployed for promoting regional tourism. Everett *et al* (2016) also argues that in tourism, social media provides

traceability between consumers and producers. Travellers can access and book tourism products through social media (Fountoulaki *et al.*, 2015). Ogutu *et al* (2017a) and Ogutu *et al* (2017b) mentioned that social media is an effective channel for promoting domestic tourism. Social media is a worldwide marketing tool in tourism (Ogutu *et al.*, 2017a). Inversini and Maseiro (2014) were interested on the use of social media for sales purposes. For purposes of this paper, the scope of sources of information is television and social media.

### **Income Groups**

Income is one of the characteristics used in tourism studies and reports (Mariki *et al.*, 2011; Mkwizu & Matama, 2017; WTTC, 2017). In 2016, the travel and tourism economic impact for the world recorded a total contribution of travel and tourism to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was USD 7,613.3 billion which is equivalent to 10.2% of GDP (WTTC, 2017). In Tanzania, travel and tourism had a total contribution to GDP of USD 5.9 billion which is 13.3% of GDP for 2016 and expected to increase by 4.1% in 2017 (WTTC, 2017). For 2017, Tanzania is expected to attract 1.4 million international tourist arrivals (WTTC, 2017). In this paper, income groups will consist of the first group which has “no income”, the second group with “income below Tanzania Shillings 300,000”, and the third group with “income above Tanzania Shillings 300,000”.

### **Theoretical review**

Theoretical framework of this paper is guided by economics of information theory which is based on the informative view concerning information to consumers. In Bagwell (2005), the originator and subsequent developers of economic of information theory are Stigler (1961), Telser (1964) and Nelson (1974). In 1961, Stigler focused on advertising and price dispersion while Telser (1964) developed the theory further by investigating advertising and competition (Bagwell, 2005). Telser (1964) was mostly concerned with the compatibility of advertising in relation to competition (Bagwell, 2005). The economics of information theory received criticism for utilizing the price dispersion only and therefore Telser (1964) introduced the concept of competition and Nelson (1974) added the concept of experienced goods.

Previous studies mentioned economics of information theory (Ghatak & Guinnane, 1999; Bagwell, 2005; Kronenberg *et al.*, 2015). Media in tourism facilitates information to consumers on existing attractions and therefore this paper is guided by the informative view from economics of information theory and argues that there is a statistically significant relationship between media and income of domestic tourists visiting national parks. The developed hypothesis for this study is

H<sub>1</sub> There is a statistically significant relationship between sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks.

### **Empirical literature review**

Several studies have conducted research on television in the tourism industry (Glover, 2010; Spencer, 2013; Mkwizu, 2016a; Mkwizu, 2016c; Ashrafi, 2017).

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Glover (2010) was keen on investigating television programmes with tourism themes. Glover (2010) argued that television programmes with specific themes provide better impact on destination image. Spencer (2013) focused on intra-destination television advertising and study findings showed that for the sampled respondents (5.3%) watched TV channels on attractions. A similar study revealed that information influences consumers' attitude towards Bangladesh National television (Ashrafi, 2017).

Mungai (2011) stated that there is indeed low marketing communication for local tourists. A recent study indicated that the sampled respondents mentioned that there is lack of information about national parks (Stone & Stone, 2017). Equally Stone and Stone (2017) noted that domestic tourism has limited research. In order to stay competitive in tourism and travel, this paper provides current information on sources of information for domestic tourists visiting national parks.

Mountinho (2016) mentioned that due to economic growth, the middle class in developing markets is expanding. However, there are limited studies on income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks. Anderson (2010) stated that disposable income is one of the factors which influence demand for domestic tourism in Tanzania.

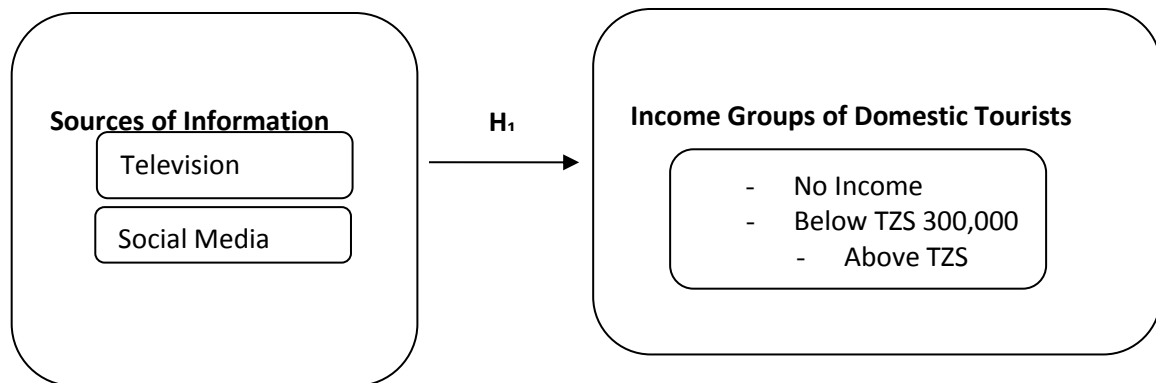
The results of the study between 1994 and 1999 revealed that the majority of the respondents (32.7%) were earning average annual income of above Tanzania Shillings (TZS) 100,000 (Anderson, 2010). Further results showed that 19% of respondents were earning income between TZS 100,000 and TZS 250,000 and 21.7% were earning income between TZS 250,000 and TZS 500,000 (Anderson, 2010). Other articles that investigated domestic tourists did not reflect information about the income groups of domestic tourists (Mariki *et al.*, 2011; Stone & Stone, 2017).

However, Mariki *et al.*, (2011) noted that low income is one of the constraining factors of domestic tourism in Tanzania. Therefore, this paper aims to provide current data by profiling the income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks. Furthermore, this paper establishes the relationship between sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks.

### **Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework in Figure 1 adopts the informative view which focuses on information to consumers. Also in Figure 1, the independent variable is sources of information (television and social media as indicators), and the dependent variable is income groups of domestic tourists (no income, below TZS 300,000 and above TZS 300,000 as indicators).

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**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework**

The hypothesis  $H_1$  shown in Figure 1 tested whether there is a statistically significant relationship between sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists. Therefore, the hypothesis testing establishes whether the relationship of sources of information has an effect on income groups of domestic tourists visiting national parks.

### **Methodology**

The study area for this paper is Udzungwa Mountains National Park located in Morogoro region of Tanzania (See Figure 2).



**Figure 2:** Map showing location of Udzungwa Mountains National Park in Tanzania



Source: Adopted and Customized from TANAPA (2015)

Udzungwa Mountains National Park was selected for this study due to its tourism potential with plate 1 showing Udzungwa Mountains. The study adopted a cross-sectional descriptive research design and quantitative approach. Sources of information and income groups were adopted and customized from studies by Mungai (2011) and Anderson (2010). In sources of information, this study focused on television and social media for analysis purposes. The income groups were monthly income in Tanzanian shillings (TZS) for “no income”, “income below TZS 300,000” and “income above TZS 300,000”.

**Figure 3:** View of Udzungwa Mountains with forests at Udzungwa Mountains National Park in Tanzania



**Source:** Photo by Researcher (2018)

The scope of this study is domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park in December 2014, and therefore, the unit of analysis is domestic tourists. To ensure validity of the items of semi structured questionnaires, a pilot study was done before data collection. A sample size of 107 domestic tourists at Udzungwa Mountains National Park were given questionnaires through a simple random sampling approach to provide primary data on sources of information and income groups.

The fully completed 100 questionnaires were collected from domestic tourists and subjected to quantitative data analysis. The remaining 7 questionnaires were deemed insufficient for data analysis due to incomplete answers. SPSS version 20 assisted the quantitative analysis process of the collected data using descriptive analysis for objective 1 while Pearson Chi-square test, and Phi and Cramer's V were used for objectives 2 and 3. The use of Phi and Cramer's V was to establish the strength of the statistically significant relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable in terms of its effects. Pallant (2011) mentioned that the strength rate of 0.10 to 0.29 is considered as small to moderate effect between two variables.

## **Results & discussion**

### ***Results & Discussion for Objective 1***

The descriptive findings in frequencies and percentages in Table 1 reveal that the majority of respondents who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park were males (68%), aged between 25 to 36 years old (46%), with monthly income (78%) and education levels for college (41%) and University (31%).

**Table 1: Sample profile (n=100)**

Variable	Frequencies (n)	Percentage (%)
Age:		
<18	1	1
18-25	33	33
26-35	46	46
36-45	9	9
46-55	9	9
56-65	-	-
65-100	2	2
Gender:		
Male	68	68
Female	32	32
Income:		
No Income	22	22
< 300,000 TZS	29	29
>300,000 TZS	49	49
Highest Education:		
Primary	5	5
Secondary	23	23
College	41	41
University	31	31

Source: Field data (2018)

The results suggest that the domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park were males, young adults, earn income and educated. The finding of the majority of respondents between 26 to 35 years is similar to the study by Mariki *et al* (2011). However, the results on gender and education of this study differ from Mariki *et al* (2011). The study by Mariki *et al* (2011) showed distribution of males (62.9%), secondary education (37.9%), college (29.3%) and university education (16.4%). This further suggests that there is geographical location differences whereby Mariki *et al* (2011) conducted the study in northern national parks and this study was done in one of the southern national parks yields different results.

The distribution of income groups in Table 1 for the sampled respondents indicated that “no income” (22%), “monthly income below TZS 300,000” (29%), and “monthly income above TZS 300,000” (49%). This suggests that a majority of domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park have monthly income, making it possible for them to visit and enjoy national parks. These results differ from Anderson (2010).

Sources of information distribution in frequencies and percentages for Table 2 and Table 3 reveal that the respondents use TV (46%) and social media (31%) to source information about Udzungwa Mountains National Park. Results show that a higher percentage of domestic tourists use television more than social media as a source of information. This is explained by the sample of the study which is domestic tourists as opposed to international tourists. The results are in line with

Spencer (2013) that television is used worldwide to inform tourist attractions to tourists.

**Table 2:** Television as a source of information about national parks

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Not Television	54	54.0	54.0	54.0
Television	46	46.0	46.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data (2018)

**Table 3:** Social Media as a source of information about national parks

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Not Social Media	69	69.0	69.0	69.0
Social Media	31	31.0	31.0	100.0
Total	100	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data (2018)

This study also analyzed sources of information and income groups' distribution using cross-tabulation in Table 4 and Table 5. For Table 4, the results reveal that the income per month distribution for respondents relative to sources of information distribution was: "no income" (22%) - television 14%; "below TZS 300,000" (29%) - television 16%; "above TZS 300,000" (49%) - television 16%. For Table 5, the results reveal that the income per month distribution for respondents relative to sources of information distribution was: "no income" (22%) - social media 9%, "below TZS 300,000" (29%) - social media 8%, "above TZS 300,000" (49%) - social media 14%.

The results in Table 4 and Table 5 suggest that a higher percentage for the income groups of domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park use television more than social media as a source of information. This is explained by the fact that television is still widely used around the world and also in Tanzania. The results complement Spencer (2013) which found that television is still used to inform tourists about attractions.

**Table 4:** Income (TZS) per Month \* Television as a source of information about national parks. Television Cross-tabulation

		Television as a source of information about national parks		Total
		Not Television	Television	
Income (TZS) per Month	No income	8	14	22
	Below 300,000	13	16	29
	Above 300,000	33	16	49
Total		54	46	100

Source: Field data (2018)

**Table 5:** Income (TZS) per Month \* Social Media as a source of information about national parks. Social Media Cross-tabulation

		Social Media as a source of information about national parks		Total
		Not Social Media	Social Media	
Income (TZS) per Month	No income	13	9	22
	Below 300,000	21	8	29
	Above 300,000	35	14	49
Total		69	31	100

Source: Field data (2018)

### Results & Discussion for Objective 2 and Objective 3

Table 6 shows the Chi-square test results of this study at significance level of 0.05. The results show that the relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists is statistically significant ( $p=0.027$ ). This suggests that there is a statistically significant relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa Mountains National Park. Furthermore, the statistically significant value indicates

that television as a source of information is dependent on income groups of domestic tourists.

Table 7 show the relationship between social media and income groups of domestic tourists is not statistically significant ( $p=0.521$ ). This suggests that there is no statistically significant relationship between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists visiting Udzungwa Mountains National Park. Therefore, this insignificant result means that social media as a source of information is not dependent on income groups of domestic tourists.

**Table 6:** Chi-Square Test results for Television and Income of domestic tourists

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)</b>
Television	Pearson Chi-square	7.251	0.027

Source: Field data (2018)

**Table 7:** Chi-Square Test results for Social Media and Income of domestic tourists

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Test</b>	<b>Value</b>	<b>Asymp.Sig. (2-sided)</b>
Social media	Pearson Chi-square	1.303	0.521

Source: Field data (2018)

After the analysis of the variables by Chi-square test, this study also used Phi and Cramer's V to determine the strength of the relationship between television and income groups of domestic tourists; and strength of the relationship between social media and income groups of domestic tourists. In Table 8, the Phi and Cramer's V results are shown.

**Table 8:** Phi and Cramer's V symmetric analysis

Variables	Test	Value	Approx. Sig.
Television	Phi	0.269	0.027
	Cramer's V	0.269	0.027
Social Media	Phi	0.114	0.521
	Cramer's V	0.114	0.521

Source: Field data (2018)

In the results analysis of Phi and Cramer's V value, the strength rate of 0.10 to 0.29 is considered as small to moderate effect between two variables (Pallant, 2011). This shows that the Phi and Cramer's V value (0.269) indicated the strength between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists as small to moderate effect. This means that television as a source of information has a small to moderate effect on income groups of domestic tourists and it is statistically significant ( $p=0.027$ ).

Therefore, the results support the informative view from the economics of information theory which puts emphasis on information to consumers. In Table 8, the Phi and Cramer's V value (0.114) indicated the strength between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists has a small to moderate effect. This means that social media as a source of information has a small to moderate effect on income groups of domestic tourists but it is not statistically significant ( $p=0.521$ ) hence do not support the informative view of economics of information theory.

In addition, on the theoretical implications, this study shows that the relationship results between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists is statistically significant and supports the informative view theory. This is in line with the study by Spencer (2013) that television is still widely used to inform tourists of attractions within destinations. However, the relationship results between social media and income groups of domestic tourists are not statistically significant hence does not support the informative view theory and this is explained by the sample of respondents being domestic tourists as opposed to international tourists.

### Conclusion and recommendations

The aim of this paper was to analyze the relationship of sources of information and income groups of domestic tourists. The specific objectives of this study were: to

identify sources of information used by domestic tourists and profile the income groups of domestic tourists, to establish the relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists, and to establish the relationship between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists.

In reference to objective 1, this study concluded that domestic tourists who visited Udzungwa Mountains National Park have higher percentage score of using television as a source of information and earn monthly income. The results imply that all income groups of domestic tourists use television more than social media to source information about Udzungwa Mountains National Park.

For objectives 2, this study can conclude that the relationship between television as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists is statistically significant, and has a small to moderate effect meaning that television is dependent on income groups of domestic tourists hence support the informative view theory.

On the other hand, for objective 3, the relationship between social media as a source of information and income groups of domestic tourists has a small to moderate effect but not statistically significant meaning that social media is not dependent on income groups of domestic tourists.

The outcome of this study is valuable to policy and decision makers in the tourism sector to maintain the use of television as the major source of information.

This study recommends that in promoting Udzungwa Mountains National Park to domestic tourists, television should still be used as the major source of information because the majority of the sampled domestic tourists gave higher percentage scores for television compared to social media.

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## What is ATLAS

September 2018



The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure.

ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. It currently has 175 members in 60 countries worldwide.

### What are the objectives of ATLAS?

- To promote the teaching of tourism, leisure and related subjects.
- To encourage academic exchange between member institutions.
- To promote links between professional bodies in tourism, leisure and associated subjects and to liaise on educational issues, curriculum development and professional recognition of courses.
- To promote transnational research which helps to underpin the development of appropriate curricula for transnational education.

### What does ATLAS do?

ATLAS promotes links between member institutions through regular meetings, publications and information exchange. The main activities of ATLAS currently are:

- Organising conferences on issues in tourism and leisure education and research. International conferences have been held in Canterbury, UK (September 2016) and in Viana do Castelo, Portugal (2017). The annual conference in 2018 will be organised in Copenhagen, Denmark. Regional conferences are also held in Africa, Latin America and the Asia-Pacific region.
- Information services and publications, including the ATLAS website and members' portal, the annual ATLAS Reflections, Facebook and LinkedIn.
- Running international courses, such as the ATLAS Winter University in Europe and the Summer Course in Asia.
- Organisation of and participation in transnational research projects, for example on cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, and information technology. ATLAS is participating in two major European projects. The Next Tourism Generation Alliance (NTG) for implementing a new strategic blueprint approach to sectoral cooperation on skills and the INCOME Tourism project to develop soft skills into higher education curricula and to strongly cooperate with businesses.
- Research publications and reports.

**What are the benefits of the ATLAS membership?**

- Regular mailings of information, updates on ATLAS conferences, meetings, projects, publications and other activities.
- Access to the members' portal on Internet with exclusive access code.
- Participation in the ATLAS information lists for everyone within ATLAS member institutions, as well as for the different Special Interest Groups.
- The annual ATLAS international conference, which provides an opportunity to network with other members.
- Conferences organised by regional sections.
- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
- Members have access to research information gathered through ATLAS
- International projects.
- ATLAS members are listed on the ATLAS website, giving teachers and students easy access to information about member institutions via Internet.
- Distribution of information about member events, programmes, projects and products via the ATLAS mailing list and ATLAS website.
- ATLAS members are entitled to substantial discounts on ATLAS conference fees and selected ATLAS publications.
- Contacts and lobbying through ATLAS links with other international organisations.
- Opportunity for students to take part in an established academic and research network.

**ATLAS Special Interest Groups**

Members of ATLAS can form and join Special Interest Groups related to specific education and research topics or for specific geographical areas. Special Interest Groups run research programmes and can organise special events and publications related to their area of interest. The current Special Interest Groups are:

- Cultural Tourism Research Group
- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Cities and National Capital Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Events Research Group
- Dark Tourism Research Group
- Heritage Tourism and Education Research Group
- Space, place, mobilities in Tourism Research Group

**ATLAS Regional Sections**

ATLAS is also represented at regional and local level by sections such as ATLAS Europe, ATLAS Asia-Pacific, ATLAS Africa and ATLAS Latin Americas. The regional sections of ATLAS have developed their own programme of activities and publications to respond more closely to the specific needs of members located in these regions and those with related research interests. Membership of ATLAS regional sections and Special Interest Groups of ATLAS is open to all ATLAS members at no extra costs.

**The ATLAS publication series**

As a networking organisation, one of the main tasks of ATLAS is to disseminate information on developments in tourism and leisure as widely as possible. The ATLAS publication series contains volumes of selected papers from ATLAS conferences and reports from ATLAS research projects. The ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review gives ATLAS members and participants of the ATLAS conferences and meetings a platform to publish the papers they have presented. The editing will be carried out by an editorial board / field editors. All publications can be found and ordered in the online ATLAS bookshop at: [shop.atlas-euro.org](http://shop.atlas-euro.org).

**Join ATLAS**

ATLAS membership is open to bona-fide educational institutions and professional bodies with educational, research or professional interests in tourism, leisure and related areas. If your institution is interested, complete the application form on the ATLAS homepage at [www.atlas-euro.org](http://www.atlas-euro.org).

**How much does the ATLAS membership cost?**

Since 2016 the annual institutional membership fee for ATLAS is € 325. For organisations located in countries in Central and Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia and Latin America the fee is € 200 per year.

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