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EVALUATING LOCAL FOOD-TOURISM LINKAGES AS A STRATEGY FOR
PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT:
A CASE OF TANZANIA

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Graduate School of
Clemson University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy
Parks, Recreation, and Tourism Management

by
John Thomas Mgonja
May 2015

Accepted by:
Dr. Kenneth F. Backman, Committee Chair
Dr. Sheila J. Backman
Dr. Jeffrey C. Hallo
Dr. DeWayne D. Moore

ABSTRACT

Tanzania is one of sub-Saharan Africa's most popular and rapidly growing tourism destinations. Despite high economic growth stirred by fast tourism development, the level of poverty and unemployment is still very high. The rapid growth in tourism which translates into economic growth does not appear to have considerably improved local people's income and reduced poverty in the country. Involvement of local people in the ownership of tourism enterprises is viewed as an important tool for promoting sustainable tourism, improving local peoples' income and reducing financial leakage which is caused by importation of goods such as food and drinks from other countries. The main purpose of this study is therefore, to evaluate local food –tourism linkages as a strategy for promoting sustainable tourism, economic development and poverty alleviation in Tanzania. More specifically, the study investigated major challenges encountered by local food suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels). Correspondingly, the study investigated major challenges that hotel managers face in dealing with local food suppliers. The study also assessed perceptions of international tourists regarding local foods in Tanzania.

The research was conducted by survey from June to August, 2014. The study population consisted of international tourists departing from Kilimanjaro International Airport (n = 520, response rate = 88%), hotel managers (n = 226, response rate = 73.6%) and local food suppliers (n = 240, response rate = 79.5%). Data for hotel managers and

local food suppliers were collected from Arusha and Dar es Salaam cities. Research data were analysed by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS 6.2 for Windows.

The KIA survey results show that cognitive/perceptual (knowledge and beliefs) and affective (feelings) evaluations are two interdependent psychological constructs, which together play a key role in understanding individuals' overall perception about local foods. The cognitive/perceptual evaluations formed by individuals as a result of accumulated knowledge and beliefs about local foods influence individuals' overall perception about local foods. Likewise, the survey shows that the affective evaluation (feelings) that individuals have about local foods influence individuals' overall perception about local foods. Understanding cognitive/perceptual as well as affective evaluations of a consumer is therefore, extremely important in tourism because it assists in understanding how tourists perceive local foods or a destination as a whole. The results also show that many hotels where tourists stayed in did not provide many varieties of local foods or enough information about local foods. The results from hotel managers' as well as local food suppliers' surveys show that lack of operating capital, seasonality of local foods, lack of food handling skills, unstable prices of local foods, low quality and safety of local foods, lack of clear food specifications from hotels and poor road infrastructure constitutes some of the major challenges facing local food-tourism linkages in the country.

The results of this study assist in clarifying the overall international tourists' perception regarding local foods in Tanzania as well as major constraints facing local food-tourism linkages. The findings of this study may therefore, help practitioners in improving the image of the destination as well as food-tourism linkages in the country.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work and all it presents to my daughter, Irene and my lovely mother Leonara Reuben Mgonja for their love and support during the entire PhD Journey. The completion of this doctorate degree is just as much your accomplishment as it is mine.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Over the last two decades Tanzania has become one of the sub-Saharan Africa's most popular and rapidly growing tourist destinations. The country is endowed with abundant assets including spacious beaches, overflowing wildlife, extensive cultural and natural attractions and adventurous landscapes. In 2013 Tanzania was voted the best safari country in Africa (URT, 2013). Tanzania is home to the famous Serengeti National Park (widely known for its spectacular seasonal migrations of wildebeest), Mount Kilimanjaro (the highest free-standing mountain in the world at 5,895 meters/19,341 ft. ASL), Ngorongoro Crater (which is an extinct volcanic caldera with excellent game viewing from the crater rim), Selous Game Reserve (all World Heritage Sites), Saadani National Park (with its remarkable white beaches and coral reefs) (Boniface & Christopher, 2001).

Tanzania is applauded for possessing unmatched wildlife populations and wilderness scenery, with around 30% of the country's total land area set aside in exclusive state-protected areas (Brockington, Sachedina, & Scholfield, 2008; Nelson, 2012). In general, Tanzania is a fast growing global tourist destination. In 2011 international tourist arrivals were over 843,000 visitors and the corresponding receipts were US\$1.353 billion, which accounted for 13.2% of the country's gross domestic

product (GDP) (UNWTO, 2013a). In 2011 the tourism sector recorded a 4% growth in international tourist arrivals compared to 2010. In 2012 the number of international tourist arrivals reached 1.043 million with corresponding receipts of US\$1.564 billion (UNWTO, 2013a), which is a 15.59% rise over the previous year in terms of receipts. Despite this economic gain from tourism and outstanding natural and cultural landscapes, majority of Tanzanians are the poorest in the world, struggling to survive in the face of frequent famine and disease (Cooper, 2002; CIA Factbook, 2014).

The World Bank (2013) statistics shows that despite rapid economic growth, Tanzania's national poverty headcount rate fell by only 2.1% points from 35.6% in 2000 to 33.4% in 2007 (World Bank, 2013). This shows that indeed the poverty level in Tanzania is still very high. The World Bank defines poverty as living on less than US\$1.25 (PPP) per day. It is estimated that more than 15.3 million Tanzanians are poor earning less than \$1 USD per day (CIA Factbook, 2014; URT, 2010) and the rate of unemployment is estimated to be around 30% (URT, 2010).

Justification for the Study and Research Background

Despite the economic benefits of tourism, there are associated costs including foreign exchange leakage, import leakage (resulting from importing materials such as food, drinks and skilled labor), promotion and development, and the opportunity costs of the resources involved in its expansion. Regrettably, the economic gain obtained from

increased tourist arrivals may be offset by losses both in terms of revenue leakage and failure to involve the local people in meaningful tourism activities that would help in increasing their income and improve their well-being (Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003). Recent studies conducted in the country show that, while national policy makers extol the potential of tourism, local communities including those living alongside leading tourism sites argue that they do not see the benefits of tourism (Nelson, 2012; TMNRT, 2005). Also, the rate of poverty and unemployment has been high over the years signaling that the revenue generated through tourism does not reach the local communities. Similarly, findings from another recent study conducted in Tanzania indicated that while positive perceptions of growth in tourism as a means to reduce poverty are strong, local communities are not currently accessing the tourism markets to increase their earnings (Slocum, 2010) and for that reason, rapid growth in tourism which translates into economic growth does not appear to have considerably improved local people's income and reduced poverty in the country. This situation threatens; sustainability of the tourism industry in the country, conservation initiatives and poses potential threats to the security of tourists visiting local and remote areas in the country.

In general, tourism is a complex industry, which is driven by the private sector and often by large international companies, which may have little or no interest in ensuring that poverty is alleviated among the locals (Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003). Thus, it is upon the government to put in place tourism policies and strategies that will promote local economic growth. Recent studies on tourism leakages and value chain indicate that

“low income countries’ tourism is characterized by relatively modest indirect effects and higher levels of leakages, and that in Sub-Saharan Africa tourist spending has the largest share of leakages” (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010:419). The Tanzania Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism (TMNRT) estimates that 76% of the leisure market utilizes organized tours when traveling to Tanzania, and that a majority of their expenditures occur outside the country (TMNRT, 2005). On average, it is estimated that about 55% of tourism expenditures remains outside the destination country, rising to 75% in specific cases such as in Gambia and Commonwealth Caribbean, but as little as 25% for large economies such as India (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin, 2000; Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003). The value chain study conducted by Tourism confederation of Tanzania (2009) revealed that over 60% of all the revenue generated through tourism, goes outside the country through various routes such as airport taxes fuel surcharges (6.7%), foreign operators (15%), foreign airlines (20%) and expert salaries and food and drinks imports (over 17.3%). This study shows that only 40% is retained in the country.

Tourism and Poverty Reduction in Tanzania

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO, 2013a) promotes tourism as a poverty alleviation strategy for developing countries because of its potential to create employment, contribute to the national balance of payments, provide capital for investments in road infrastructure, help to create inter-sectoral linkages within the economy, and produce multiplier effects (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Studies indicates

that “tourism’s role in Tanzania’s economic revival over the past two decades is unquestionably important in development, since the country, despite its considerable natural resource wealth and stable political climate, remains one of the poorest countries in Africa” (Nelson, 2012:359). The government of Tanzania place considerable emphasis on opening up more economic opportunities from tourism at both the national and local scale, echoing the earlier call of former president “Benjamin, W. Mkapa” for “a heightened onslaught on poverty, using the weapon of tourism” (URT, 2002; 2010). It is clear therefore, that the question of economic growth and poverty reduction lies at the heart of the Tanzanian economic expansion through tourism (TMNRT, 2005). This objective can be achieved if the local people play a key role (involvement) in the ownership of tourism enterprises. Involvement of local people in the ownership of tourism enterprises is viewed as an important tool to improve local people’s income and most importantly contribute to the reduction of tourism leakages that are associated with importing goods such as food and beverages required in the hotel industry.

Tourism, Financial Leakage and Multiplier Effects

There is a clear relationship between local economic effect (poverty reduction) and tourism import leakages. Literature show that the economic contribution entering the local economy is the “local contribution” and is typically measured as an average amount per tourist, and as a percentage of the total tourism spending that stays in the local economy (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010). Local economic effects of tourism are therefore, determined by the share of tourism spending in the local economy as well as

the amount of the resulting other economic activities (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010). The amount not retained in the local economy is “leakage.” Multiplier effects are limited by leakages, which reduce the positive economic impacts of tourism (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010). Tourism multipliers effects refer to the total increase in output, labor earnings, and employment through inter-industry linkages in a region as a result of tourism expenditures (Fletcher, Snee, Witt & Moutinho, 1989). A study conducted by Stynes (1997) on economic impacts of tourism shows that the economic impacts of tourism in the local destination can be increased by selling local products and by helping local people retain ownership of businesses that serve tourists. Stynes (1997) shows further that food- tourism linkage is particularly high in impacts because the labor used, business ownership and the products sold are usually local. Therefore, increasing involvement of local communities in the tourism value chain can reduce tourism import leakages (leakages due to importation of goods required by tourism industry) and contribute to the development of local economy, poverty reduction and sustainable tourism promotion.

Local Food Definition and Its Rationale

In relation to local food, there is extensive variability about the precise meaning of “local” food. Allen & Hinrichs (2007) show that the term local food can be viewed in two different perspectives. Such perspectives include that of tourists in one side and that of food producers and restaurateurs on the other side, all adopting a range of definitions in accordance with their own interests. Allen & Hinrichs (2007) contends that tourists

tend to associate local food with particular specialty products (foods and drinks that are associated with the area), while food producers, cafe and restaurant owners prefer a geographical definition, where “local” refers to products from within a defined local area such as the county, region or even country. Such a diversity of opinions illustrates how the concept of “local” is socially constructed according to a person’s beliefs and circumstances (Allen & Hinrichs, 2007). The interest of this research is on the locally produced foods, thus, the study will use the second definition (i.e., products produced within Tanzania). A locally produced food is considered to be a broad term which encompasses all local foods (specialty cuisines) and non-specialty cuisines produced within a particular region.

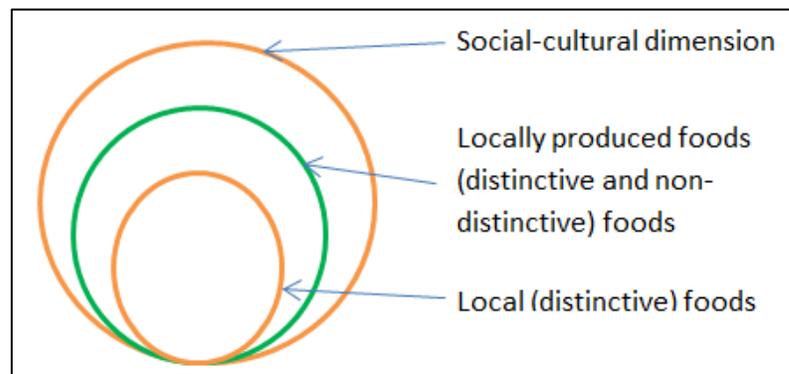


Figure 1:1 Relationships between local foods and locally produced foods

Research has shown that food consumption is broadly recognized to be an essential part of the tourism experience (Boniface, 2003; Hall & Sharples, 2008). Locally distinctive food can be important both as a tourism attraction in itself and in helping to shape the image of a destination (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Du Rand & Heath, 2006; Hall et

al., 2003). A number of scholars have recently stressed the potential for local food experiences to contribute considerably to sustainable development, help maintain regional identities and support agricultural diversification (Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Knowd, 2006; Sims, 2009). Further studies indicates that “in recent years, attempts to improve the economic and environmental sustainability of both tourism and agriculture have been linked to the development of “alternative” food networks and a renewed enthusiasm for food products that are perceived to be traditional and local” (Sims, 2009; 321). Likewise, “local foods are conceptualized as ‘authentic’ products that symbolize the place, and culture of the destination” (Sims, 2009:321). Similarly, local foods are perceived to have the “potential to enhance the visitor experience by connecting consumers to the region and its perceived culture and heritage” (Sims, 2009:321). More specifically, it is recognized that the kind of foods and drinks on offer for tourists can have major implications for the economic, cultural and environmental sustainability of tourism destinations, with researchers arguing that a focus on locally sourced products can result in benefits for both hosts and guests (Boniface, 2003; Clark & Chabrel, 2007, Sims, 2009). It is argued that local food supply can enhance sustainable tourism through encouraging sustainable agricultural practices, supporting local businesses and building a “brand” that can benefit the region by attracting more visitors and investment. In this way, developing a thriving “local” food industry that can generate outstanding benefits for hosts and guests (Sims, 2009).

Furthermore, food imports constitute a particular problem in many destinations especially in developing countries, where hotels are typically serving high-quality foods to upscale tourists (Gössling et al., 2011). Such tourists often, at least in the perception of hotel managers, expect the foodstuffs they know from home (Pattullo, 2005). In such locations, a large share of the food is often imported by air, including food items such as soft drinks, dairy products and even vegetables (Gössling & Schumacher, 2010). The transportation of foodstuffs can imply considerable Green House Gases (GHG) emissions and represents an extreme situation especially when the foodstuffs are outsourced from countries far away from the importing destination (Gössling et al., 2011). Food production and consumption have a range of sustainability implications, including their contribution to global emissions of GHGs since some foodstuffs entail higher GHG emissions than others, managing their use [and transportation] in tourism-related contexts could make a substantial contribution to climate change mitigation (Gössling et al., 2011). By applying food management practices and making more informed choices about the purchasing, transportation, preparation and presentation of their food; foodservice providers could contribute to a more sustainable system of food production and consumption. In doing so, they may assist in mitigating global GHG emissions (Gössling et al., 2011). For this potential strategy to succeed however there must be a positive support from tourism destination governments, foodservice providers and tourists in general towards consumption of more climatically sustainable foodstuffs. This will require getting insight into stakeholder's theory which suggests that any organization should be run for the benefit of its stakeholders. According to Clarkson (1995), the

stakeholder concept contains three fundamental factors: (1) the organization; (2) the other actors; and (3) the nature of the company-actor relationships. Frederick et al., (1992) argue that although each researcher defines the concept differently, they do as a rule reflect the same principle to a greater or lesser extent: the company should take into consideration the needs, interests and influences of peoples and groups who either impact on or may be impacted by its policies and operations.

A clear insight on food and beverages value chain is required to understand the contribution of locally produced foods in tourism, tourism revenue leakages and how local people can be meaningfully and effectively involved in the tourism industry. A “value chain” describes the full range of activities required to bring a product or service from conception, through the different phases of production (involving a combination of physical transformation and the input of various producer services), delivery to final consumers and final disposal after use (Kaplinsky & Morris 2001). Value chain analysis is well suited to understanding how poor people in rural areas of developing countries can engage, or improve their terms of engagement with, domestic, regional or international trade (Mitchell, Keane & Coles, 2009). The value chain analysis perspective is useful because of its ability to identify the activities providing higher value and how economic revenues flow within the productive chain (Giuliani, 2005). Value chain analysis focuses on the nature of the relationships among the various actors involved in the chain, and on their implications for development such as sustainability and competitiveness (Giuliani, 2005; Humphrey & Schmitz, 2002).

Research conducted by Giuliani (2005) shows that types of value chain interventions at destination level that can enhance benefits for sustainable pro-poor tourism development may include:

- *Volume Increase* (More demand, more sales of tourism packages, food & beverages, crafts).
- *Upgrade processes* (Better coordination and communication within, and between Stakeholders (such as artisans and farmers)).
- *Upgrade products* (Providing better quality service, products related to market demand).
- *Add value* (through the diversification of product and service offers, sustainable development, reduction of transaction costs through technology and clusters development).
- *Reduce barriers to entry* (Through micro-credit, entrepreneurship development and facilitating access to technology).
- *Strengthen Innovation* (Through public-private partnerships, private cooperation and investments in research).
- *Increase Local Linkages* (By fiscal stimulus packages to enhance private sector buy from local suppliers and invest in local work force).

Problem Statement

The economic, environmental and social impacts of local food in tourism have been widely studied and found to include: tourism experience enhancement (Boniface, 2003; Hall & Sharples, 2008), shaping destination image (Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Du Rand & Heath, 2006; Hall et al., 2003), contributing to agricultural development, maintaining regional identity and agricultural diversification (Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Knowd, 2006; Sims, 2009) and supporting local business (Sims, 2009). Several extensive literature reviews on local food value chain, use and its impacts in tourism have been conducted (see for example. Anderson, 2011; Boniface, 2003; Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Kaplinsky & Morris, 2001; Steck et al., 2010).

A close examination of these studies indicate that nearly all studies on local food focused on the economic, environmental and social-cultural impacts of locally produced foods. Relatively, few studies have been conducted on local food-tourism linkage constraints particularly major constraints that hotel managers face when dealing with local food suppliers. Similarly, few studies have documented major constraints affecting local people's business ownership and development in food and beverages production and supply as related to tourism industry in the country. This will be important to address in Tanzania since the country promotes tourism and in general tourism utilizes the local resources and thus the benefits obtained from tourism should equally transcend to the community. In doing so, tourism will be meaningful to the community and sustainable in practice. Besides, involvement of local people in local food supply chain can provide a

boost to rural destinations looking to develop a sustainable domestic tourism industry in the country.

Research Objectives

The main objective of this study is therefore to evaluate local food-tourism linkages in tourists' hotels in Tanzania as a strategy for promoting sustainable tourism, economic development and poverty alleviation. Specifically the study aims to:

1. Analyze major constraints facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers and evaluates potential solutions to these challenges.
2. Analyze the main reasons compelling hotel managers to import food and beverage in their hotels which consequently leads to revenue leakages.
3. Analyze the willingness of hotel managers to empower local people to meet their requirements as far as food supply is concerned.
4. Analyze major constraints encountered by local suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels) and evaluates potential solutions to these challenges.
5. Evaluate the perceptions of international tourists concerning consumption of locally produced foods in tourist hotels in the country, consequently ascertaining their demands.

The Research Questions

Following the research objectives above, the research questions of this study are formulated as follows:

1. What are the perceptions of international tourists concerning consumption of locally produced foods in tourist hotels in the country?
2. What are the major constraints facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?
3. What are the main reasons compelling hotel managers to import foods in their hotels which consequently lead to revenue leakages?
4. Are hotel managers willing to empower local people so that they can be able to meet their requirements as far as food supply is concerned?
5. What are the major constraints encountered by local suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels) and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?

Tourism in many developing countries is viewed as one of the major pillars of the economy. In general tourism has many forms and occurs in diverse environments such as urban, sub-urban and rural areas. It also involves many sectors and actors both locally and internationally. Due to its pervasiveness and diversity, tourism has been viewed as a tool that can have a direct positive impact to the poor and it has been at the center of many sustainable development discourses in academic literatures. This research draws mainly from Triple Bottom Line (TBL) theory, multiplier effects theory, stakeholder

theory and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) theory as a lens to evaluate food-tourism linkages particularly locally produced foods as means of attaining economic development, fighting poverty and promoting sustainable tourism development.

Chapter Summary

This section presents the summary of the research background and justification. Tanzania is endowed with abundant assets including spacious beaches, overflowing wildlife, extensive cultural and natural attractions and adventurous landscapes. While national policy makers extol the potential of tourism, local communities including those living alongside leading tourism sites do not see the benefits of tourism. Similarly, the rate of poverty and unemployment has been high over the years signaling that the revenue generated through tourism does not reach the local communities. Equally, while positive perceptions of growth in tourism as a means to reduce poverty are strong, local communities are not currently accessing the tourism markets to increase their earnings. Therefore, the rapid growth in tourism does not appear to have considerably improved local people's livelihood. Local food in this study refers to food products produced from within a defined local area such as the county, region or even country. Local food supply can enhance sustainable tourism through encouraging sustainable agricultural practices, supporting local businesses and building a "brand" that can benefit the region by attracting more visitors and investment in the local destination.

Structure of the Dissertation

The introduction chapter provides an overview of the study including justifications for the study and the research background. The introduction chapter also covers issues related to; tourism and poverty reduction in Tanzania, financial leakages, linkages and multiplier effects in tourism, the rationale of local foods in the tourism industry. Problem statement, research objectives and research questions are also covered in this chapter. The second chapter provides a comprehensive literature review covering theories and concepts relevant to this study. The third chapter covers issues related to the methodology used in this study including; the study site, data collection technique, sample size, development of research instrument and data analysis. The descriptive study results are presented and discussed in the fourth chapter, while the inferential study results are presented and discussed in the fifth chapter. The last chapter presents the study discussions, conclusions, implications, limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Tourism in many developing countries is viewed as one of the major pillars of the economy. In general tourism has many forms and occurs in diverse environments such as urban, sub-urban and rural areas. It also involves many sectors and actors both locally and internationally. Due to its pervasiveness and diversity, tourism has been viewed as a tool that can have a direct positive impact to the poor and it has been at the center of many sustainable development discourses in academic literatures. This research draws mainly from Triple Bottom Line (TBL) theory, Multiplier Effects theory, Stakeholder theory and Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) theory as a lens to evaluate food-tourism linkages particularly locally produced foods as means of attaining economic development, fighting poverty and promoting sustainable tourism development.

Food-Tourism Supply Chain Management

In recent years, there has been a huge increase in tourism demands, and the corresponding rise of tourist flows world-wide (Carrubbo, Tartaglione, Di Nauta & Bilotta, 2012; Yang & Wall, 2008), which has led the tourism industry to operate under a highly competitive environment. In many places the tourism industry has been employing technological measures to solve problems related to increasing demands (Song, 2012).

Many scholars suggest that one of the strategies that the tourism industry could use to increase competitiveness and meet customer demands is effective use of Tourism Supply Chain management (TSCM) (Song, 2012; Zhang, Song & Huang, 2009), a concept originating from Supply Chain Management (SCM).

The concept of SCM first emerged in the manufacturing industry to manage intra- and inter-enterprise business processes efficiently (Coyle, Bardi & Langley, 2003). The use of SCM is well established in manufacturing circles and has attracted considerable academic attention from manufacturing operations researchers from developed countries; however, in the wider services industry such as tourism, and especially in the area of food supply chains, the area is not as yet mature neither in terms of practitioner adoption nor academic attention (Kathawatha and Abadou, 2003; Song, 2012). The research on Tourism Supply Chain management (TSCM) has focused on distribution and marketing activities (Song, 2012; Zhang, Song & Huang, 2009). However, supply chain management principles can provide useful insights for solving constraints facing different suppliers involved in the distribution of locally produced foods in the hotel industry particularly in developing countries.

Supply chain management is defined as the systemic, strategic coordination of the traditional business functions and the tactics across these business functions within a particular company and across businesses within the supply chain, for the purposes of improving the long-term performance of the individual companies and the supply chain

as a whole (Mentzer et al., 2001, p. 18). In relation to tourism, “TSCM can be referred to as a set of approaches utilized to efficiently manage the operations of the tourism supply chain within a specific tourism destination to meet tourist needs from the targeted source markets and accomplish the business objectives of different enterprises within the tourism supply chain” (Song, 2012:2). In their report, Tapper and Font (2004) define a TSC as a chain that “comprises the suppliers of all the goods and services that go into the delivery of tourism products to consumers.” Thus, it can be argued that TSCM requires individual companies to get rid of individualism and take a more positive stance towards more cooperating with other stakeholders in the industry. This approach is important because tourism industry in essence is a combination of many industries interlinked together. One of such interlinked systems is food supply chains. Similarly, it is contended that “companies do not operate in isolation, but are closely linked to their competitive environments and to the dynamic chains and networks of different types of actors” (Forsman-Hugg, et al., 2013:32). The fact that companies do not operate in isolation justifies the importance of effective supply chain management, where efforts are made to bring suppliers and customers together in a business process (Omta et al., 2001; Tan, 2001)

Food supply chain management (FSCM) is a complex and multifaceted system due to the diverse characteristics of agricultural products. FSCM in totality refers to “the system and inter-connections of organizations, people, activities, technologies, information and resources involved in production and distribution of a food product, it

encompasses many different disciplines and logistical steps from sourcing the right raw material and ingredients through to on-time delivery to the consumer” (Institute of Food Science & Technology (IFST), 2013:1). FSCM is characterized by inter-organizational coordination or relationship management where success hinges on how each company in a supply chain coordinates and combines its business partners and integrates its information flows to gain a competitive advantage and to optimize its business performance (Clare, Reid & Shadbolt, 2005). Some scholars suggest that one of the functions of the effective food supply chain management is to break down barriers which exist between each of the links in the supply chain (Fearne, 1996). It is also suggested that “Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) could be integrated as a more visible part of the effective supply chain management and that paying more attention to responsible practices from the supply chain point of view companies in the food chain could increase trust throughout the entire chain” (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2007:4). It is also argued that one of the basic functions of SCM, particularly food supply chain management, is that competitive advantage is derived from companies managing and enhancing the total performance of the supply chain, for the purpose of delivering improved value to food customers (Fearne & Hughes, 1999). Similarly, it is contended that “for a food product or an ingredient to be produced in a responsible way, the entire supply chain must take account of the impacts of its actions on society – economic, social and environmental” (Forsman-Hugg et al., 2013:32). Moreover, Katajajuuri et al. (2005) have maintained that a substantial share of total environmental impacts in the food supply chain frequently

results from unplanned agricultural production and not the manufacturing process of the final food products.

Sustainable Tourism Overview

Sustainable tourism is considered as tourism that attempts to make as low impacts on the environment and local cultures as possible, while helping to generate employment, increase income and thereby reducing poverty to the local people, which is the central tenet of Triple Botom Line (TBL) theory. According to Bramwell & Lane (1993), the concept of sustainable tourism seems to have emerged first in the Alpine lands of Europe during the late 1970s, although discussion quickly followed in international circles and in North America. Conversely, many scholars (Hunter, 1997; Lane, 1994; Sharpley, 2000; Tao & Wall, 2009) argue that the concept of sustainable tourism originates from another highly contested concept - sustainable development, a concept that emerged in the late 1980s from the Brundtland Commission. These scholars contend that the term “sustainable development” was coined in the paper ‘Our Common Future’ released by the Brundtland Commission in 1987. According to this commission; “sustainable development is defined as the kind of development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987:37). Within the framework of sustainable development, Hunter (1997:864) argues that “sustainable tourism must be regarded as an adaptive paradigm capable of addressing widely different situations, and articulating different goals in terms of the utilization of

natural resources”. Hunter (1997:864) argues further that “it is extremely difficult to imagine the formulation and implementation of any approach to sustainable tourism in the absence of strong local (including regional) authority planning and development control, and without the involvement of local communities in the planning process to some degree”. Hunter (1997:859) cautions that “perhaps the most appropriate way to perceive sustainable tourism is not as a narrowly-defined concept reliant on a search for balance, but rather as an over-arching paradigm within which several different development pathways may be legitimized according to circumstances”. Focusing on the differences in resource use between developed and developing countries, Munt (1992) argues that different interpretations of sustainable tourism may be appropriate for developed and developing countries. Munt (1992, as cited in Hunter, 1997:859) suggests that in “indebted developing countries an economic imperative might be emphasized, in opposition to other (stronger) interpretations of sustainable tourism based upon a ‘quintessentially Western environmentalism’”. In relation to management and policy, Lane (1994) points out that “the term ‘sustainable tourism’ has come to represent and encompass a set of principles, policy prescriptions, and management methods which chart a path for tourism development such that a destination area’s environmental resource base (including natural, built, and cultural features) is protected for future development” (Lane, 1994, as cited in Hunter, 1997:850).

Focusing on the operationalization of the concept of sustainable tourism, Sharpley (2000:1) makes the case that “despite the significant attention paid by tourism academics

and practitioners to sustainable tourism development in recent years, there has been a consistent failure within the tourism literature to relate the concept to the theory of its parental paradigm, sustainable development". Thus, "tourism development remains embedded in early modernization theory whilst the principles of sustainable tourism overlook the characteristics of the production and consumption of tourism" (Sharpley, 2000:1). Similar views were given earlier by Hunter (1995:1) in a study that focused on the need to re-conceptualize sustainable tourism development. Hunter argues specifically that, "recent years have witnessed the emergence of a dominant paradigm of sustainable tourism development, one which appears to chart a responsible course, balancing the requirements of tourism development with the protection of the environment". Hunter argues further that, "the predominant paradigm is too tourism-centric, parochial and, therefore, inherently flawed, and that it effectively condones planning, management and policy approaches which fail to operationalize sustainable tourism in a manner consistent with the general aims and requirements of sustainable development (Hunter, 1995:1). Similarly, Tao & Wall (2009) point out that sustainable development and its derivative, sustainable tourism, have both conceptual and practical deficiencies that have frustrated their application. In view of this, they propose a sustainable livelihoods approach and argue that sustainable livelihood is more practical, especially in developing countries in which communities and individuals sustain themselves by multiple activities rather than discrete jobs.

Sustainable Tourism Frameworks, Models and Theories/Platforms

The general concern of sustainability is that “aggregate human impacts threaten the survival of humans and the ecosystem services on which they depend” (Persha, Agrawal, & Chhatre, 2011, as cited in Buckley, 2012:529). Thus, as sustainable tourism concept has developed, it has extended beyond an analysis of the impacts of tourism's operations, to propose practical steps which need be taken by the industry, host populations, planners and tourists (Inskeep, 1991). A study conducted by Clarke (1997) on framework of approaches to sustainable tourism proposed that the concept of sustainable tourism exists in four positions. According to Clarke, the first position places sustainable tourism in a dichotomous position to mass tourism, whereby sustainable tourism is considered to be a small scale tourism and mass tourism operating on a large, unsustainable scale. The second position advocates that a continuum of tourism exists between sustainable tourism and mass tourism. Thus, sustainable tourism is defined by the scale. The third position replaces the second position by posing that mass tourism could be made more sustainable and the idea of sustainability is a goal for attainment rather than a possession applicable only to small-scale tourism. The fourth position (latest) considers sustainable tourism to be the goal that is applicable to all tourism ventures, regardless of scale. Hardy, Beeton & Pearson (2002) argue that the fourth position recognizes that a precise definition of sustainable tourism is less important than the journey towards it. Despite the debate surrounding the definition of sustainable tourism, many authors have tended to define sustainable tourism in broader terms, transferring the principles of sustainable development into the context of tourism needs

(Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Ding & Pigram, 1995; Hunter, 1997; Muller, 1994; Sadler, 1993 as cited by Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002).

A further review of tourism literature shows that as far as approaches to tourism development are concerned, there are two basic models; the first one being that of Oppermann (1993) and the second one being that of Jafari (1990) (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002). According to Oppermann (1993), tourism development is well understood within two major paradigms namely; diffusion paradigm and dependency paradigm. Within diffusion paradigm there are two basic theories. The first theory is development theory which is based on the notion of un-linear changes from less developed to developed (Oppermann, 1993). Development theory suggests that host communities would benefit positively from tourism as it would advance development in their society. The second theory from diffusion paradigm is diffusion theory. This theory is based on the concept of trickle-down or multiplier effect from more developed to less developed areas (Browett, 1979; Myrdal, 1959, cited in Oppermann, 1993).

The second paradigm of tourism development is the dependency paradigm, which arose out of the dissatisfaction with the diffusion paradigm (Oppermann, 1993). Some scholars argue that capitalism is actually the core of this paradigm and that it is the source of underdevelopment at the periphery (Browett, 1982; Frank, 1969 as cited by Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002) as it creates dependency at the tourism enclaves such as resorts and islands where tourism is a sole activity. Oppermann (1993) studied tourism

development paradigms with respect to their spatio-temporal implications in the third World. Hardy, Beeton & Pearson (2002) contend that although not specifically mentioning the development of sustainable tourism, Oppermann's paradigms provided an insight into how economic factors directly affected tourism thinking and illustrates how dissatisfaction with these paradigms led to a new one which incorporated the environment with economics.

Conversely, Jafari (1990) on a research and scholarship study addressed the shifts in attitudes towards tourism in a historical context and came up with four theories (platforms); 1) Advocacy platform, 2) Cautionary platform, 3) Adaptancy platform and 4) Knowledge-based platform. According to Jafari, these platforms are essential in understanding tourism and could provide important information in explaining the present diverse views on tourism. More specifically, Jafari argues that the *Advocacy* platform is built on the economic benefits of tourism and its ability to offer a viable economic alternative to developing countries, whilst generating foreign exchange. The advocacy platform also emphasizes the noneconomic attributes; that tourism preserves cultures, revives traditions of the past and promotes cultural performances whilst having few environmental impacts (Jafari, 1990). Jafari argues that this platform was popular following the Second World War when many newly independent countries suddenly began to stretch their economic muscles and appeared to match with economic development models existed at that time. Similarly, this theory can be associated with the notion of multipliers where tourism expenditures are recirculated through the local

economy creating both short and long term benefits to the local people. Hardy, Beeton & Pearson (2002) contends that the advocacy platform could be seen to be related to the development and diffusionist paradigms discussed by Oppermann (1993).

According to Jafari (1990) the second platform is *Cautionary theory*. This theory replaces the advocacy theory that prevailed in the 1960s. The cautionary platform advocates for a high degree of public sector intervention and emerged from academics, social scientists and their respective associations, such public agencies as those involved in nature and culture and even the general media that experienced the impacts of tourism such as disruption to the host community, seasonal jobs and environmental impacts such as destruction of nature and scenic formations as well as commoditizing people and their culture (Jafari, 1990). Hardy, Beeton & Pearson (2002) posits that the cautionary platform of tourism research could be said to be related to the Oppermann's dependency paradigm and that it is most likely that the concept of sustainable tourism was developed from this approach. This theory also marked a time when an increase in focus on sociocultural issues, such as involvement of the local community, became evident. Jafari (1990:35) posits that "since the polarized debate between the advocacy and cautionary platforms has been mainly concerned with the impacts of tourism, then one could argue that some forms or types of tourism would have fewer impacts than others. Therefore gradually, attention has been drawn to alternative forms of touristic development". He argues that this prospect fostered the information of a third position-the adaptancy platform.

Adaptancy theory appeared in the early 1980s consisted of articulated recommendations for modes of tourism which would produce more positive outcomes for host communities and the environment (Jafari, 1990). According to Jafari, this platform emerged by favoring those forms of tourism which are responsive to the host communities and their social-cultural, man-made, and natural environments, and at the same time provide tourists with new choices and rewarding experiences. Thus, adaptancy platform advocates forms of tourism that involves the local community and encourages community ownership in tourism developments (Ceballos- Lascurain, 1996; Murphy, 1985; Wight, 1993 as cited by Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002) arguing that these forms of tourism are community centered, employ local resources, are relatively easy to manage, are not destructive, benefit hosts and guests alike, and even improve communication between them. Hardy, Beeton & Pearson (2002) points out that adaptancy platform could be considered a reaction to Oppermanns' (1993) dependency paradigm as it recognized a need for all stakeholders to be able to benefit from tourism.

Knowledge-based platform/theory attempts to understand how tourism works as a system, including its structures and functions. Jafari (1990) argues that the “knowledge based platform is one where tourism impacts have been accepted by proponents and the emphasis is on understanding how they occur” (Jafari, 1990:35). Knowledge- based platform is a synthesis of other platforms discussed above. It aims at positioning itself on a scientific foundation and, at the same time, maintaining bridges with other platforms (Jafari, 1990). Therefore, it appears that when the historical context and notably the

theories of Clarke (1997), Jafari (1990) and Oppermann (1993) are combined, it is possible to understand the context in which sustainable tourism developed (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002).

Regarding the objectives of sustainable tourism, Cater (1993) identifies three key objectives for sustainable tourism: meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term; satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists; and safeguarding the natural environment in order to achieve both of the preceding aims. Thus, sustainable tourism is a concept conditioned by social context, in order for it to be met, all stakeholders must be identified and their subjective needs met (Jafari, 1990). Many scholars argue that indeed participation of all stakeholders is required if there is to be any talk of a sustainable process in tourism (Bramwell & Lane, 2000; Liu, 2003; Padin, 2012). Despite the apparent rise of a community vision within the academic literature, the importance of incorporating local communities into planning for sustainable tourism has only partially been given significant attention in much of the academic literature (Jafari, 1990; Tosun, 2000; Tosun & Timothy, 2003). The knowledge-based approach to tourism, advocated by Jafari (1990), is evident of integrated approaches to sustainable tourism, which was later advocated by Butler (1998), and Bramwell & Lane (2000). Existing studies indicate that much attention on sustainability has been given to economic and environmental aspects and less attention has been given to the community impact. Based upon this, it is proposed here that any practical sustainable tourism must address the local community to

the same extent as the economy and the environment. This may be achieved through processes such as stakeholder involvement (Jafari, 1990), particularly local people who are perceived to be recipients but not players of tourism.

According to Bramwell & Lane (1993), one of the main objectives of sustainable tourism includes ensuring that tourism development brings a positive experience for local people, tourism companies and the tourists themselves. Sustainable tourism is a positive approach intended to reduce the tensions and friction created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and the host communities (Bramwell & Lane, 1993). One way of achieving sustainable tourism is through engaging host communities in tourism related businesses such as those related with the supply of locally produced foods and beverages particularly those produced from an environmental friendly manner. Bramwell & Lane (1993), argue further that sustainable tourism aims to increase visitor satisfaction and that satisfied visitors are usually also visitors who become concerned and caring for the places they visit. They often provide long-term and repeat business which consequently may promote the sustainable tourism.

In an attempt to test sustainable business model proposed by Wagner & Svensson (2010), Dos Santos (2011) concluded that a business can voluntarily decide to be sustainable and it can use this approach to drive innovation, build its brand image and increase efficiencies and cost savings within the business. The findings from Dos Santos (2011) study contrasts the view that sustainable business practices are often statutory

expensive because of the need to meet government legalization requirements. Dos Santos research yields significant information which allows for many conclusions to be drawn. Most notably is the concept of cost reduction in the process of achieving sustainability in business. It is interesting however, to note that the focus of this paper was mainly on the environment protection.

Rebollo & Baidal (2003) were interested in measuring sustainability in a mass tourist destination in Torrevieja, Spain. In this study they concluded that “the definition of a system of indicators helps to show more precisely what sustainable tourist development means and aids in the interpretation of the evolution of tourist destinations according to sustainability principles” (Rebollo & Baidal, 2003:200). They further argued that “such indicators can also easily be integrated with other approaches and instruments for the planning and management of sustainable tourism, such as Strategic environmental assessments, town planning, and environmental management systems for tourist destinations” (Rebollo & Baidal, 2003:200). Commenting on the weakness of these indicator, Rebollo & Baidal (2003:200) argue that “to be more effective the sustainability indicators need a large amount of information as well as improvements in terms of their reliability; for example, a higher degree of scientific-technical elaboration to enhance their scientific consistency, their representativeness, their comparability, and finally, their political and social acceptance”.

Ashley & Roe (2002) examined six case studies to analyze strategies for sustainable 'pro-poor tourism in Southern Africa. This study proposed three important strategies for poverty reduction. The first strategy involved increased communication between the poor and the government, private sector and tourists. Second strategy involves attitudinal changes with regard to the role of poor communities and the need for consultative decisions. The third strategy involves developing pro-poor partnerships with the private sector. In all six case studies the authors noted positive impacts on skills, education and health through training, funding for schools and clinics, and investment in health care. Physical improvements in roads, water and other infrastructure was also achieved as a result of public, private and community investments. Ashley & Roe (2002) elaborates further that less tangible but strongly emphasized impacts include enhanced access to information, increased communications and contact with the 'outside world'. They also noted that in all six case studies identification of new market opportunities for poor producers was highly important and challenging task.

Triple Bottom Line (TBL) Theory in Tourism

The TBL theory is consistent with the sustainable development concept that emerged in the late 1980s (WCED, 1987). The term TBL was originally coined by Elkington (1997; 2004), who suggests that “developing this comprehensive approach to sustainable development and environmental protection will be a central governance challenge—and, even more critically, a market challenge—in the 21st century”

(Elkington, 2004:16). TBL theory was developed as a framework to guide companies to pay more attention to the community wellbeing and to the environment, which was degrading very fast. Around 1990's, there was a general feeling from the public that "firms were responsible for more than just creating economic value and, in 1997; the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) emerged as a new tool for measuring organizational performance" (Hubbard, 2009:179). Researchers suggest that "TBL is based on the idea that a firm should measure its performance in relation to stakeholders including local communities and governments, not just those stakeholders with whom it has direct, transactional relationships (such as employees, suppliers and customers)" (Hubbard, 2009:180). It is conceptualized that the TBL addresses fundamental issues related to sociocultural and environmental bottom lines in order to put these dimensions on a more equal footing with the traditional economic benchmark (Elkington, 1994), which for many years has been the main focus of many firms. Thus, TBL put more responsibility to the management in terms of striking the balance between economic gains, minimizing environment and community impacts. Hubbard (2009) posits that;

The TBL is an unsettling concept for many organizations because it implies that the firm's responsibilities are much wider than simply those related to the economic aspects of producing products and services that customers want, to regulatory standards, at a profit. The TBL adds social and environmental measures of performance to the economic measures typically used in most organizations. Environmental performance generally refers to the amount of resources a firm uses in its operations (e.g. energy, land, water) and the by-products its activities create (e.g. waste, air emissions, chemical residues etc.). Social performance generally refers to the impact a firm (and its suppliers) has on the communities in which it works (p.180).

TBL framework has been adopted by businesses and organizations in many industries and countries as a way of assessing corporate initiatives (Tyrrell, Paris & Biaett, 2013). The TBL concept has also received a strong support from the World Business Council for Sustainable Development, (a coalition of 160 international businesses) due to its social and environmental concerns (Vandenberg, 2002). The tourism industry is considered to provide a unique opportunity for the promotion and development of the TBL concept, as it is made up of numerous commercial enterprises that seek to generate gains in conservation, community quality of life, and for multiple stakeholders, simultaneously interacting together (Buckley, 2003). The TBL concept has been widely applied in a variety of tourism settings such as; hospitality and tourism management (Faux & Dwyer, 2009), decision making in tourism planning (Northcote & Macbeth, 2006), “triple bottom line sustainable tourism project development framework” for donors to track their investments in tourism as a sustainable development tool (Epler Wood, 2004), a research agenda for pro-poor tourism in the developing world (Font & Harris, 2004), a guiding principle in the planning for wildlife tourism, and to further situate the understanding of wildlife tourism within a wider social context (Higginbottom & Scott, 2004), Environmental inputs and outputs in ecotourism (Buckley, 2003) and in sustainable community development (Rogers & Ryan, 2001). The rationale of using TBL in tourism enterprise development is based on the tenet that tourism industry has multiple impacts on the communities it operates, thus it has to be accountable for its actions. The TBL framework constitutes social, economic, and environmental dimensions, which are also the key pillars of sustainability as stipulated in (WCED, 1987). Ever since the World

Council on Environment and Development (WCED, 1987) introduced the concept of sustainable development for the international audience, the concept has been considered relevant in many fields including travel and tourism. Several scholars and organizations have developed a set of indicators to operationalize each of these dimensions. However, a very comprehensive list of indicators was provided by the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) (2002), which is an independent organization established to give support to the TBL and sustainability reporting guidelines (Brown, 2011; Faux, 2005). The GRI list of reporting guidelines includes more than 60 indicators.

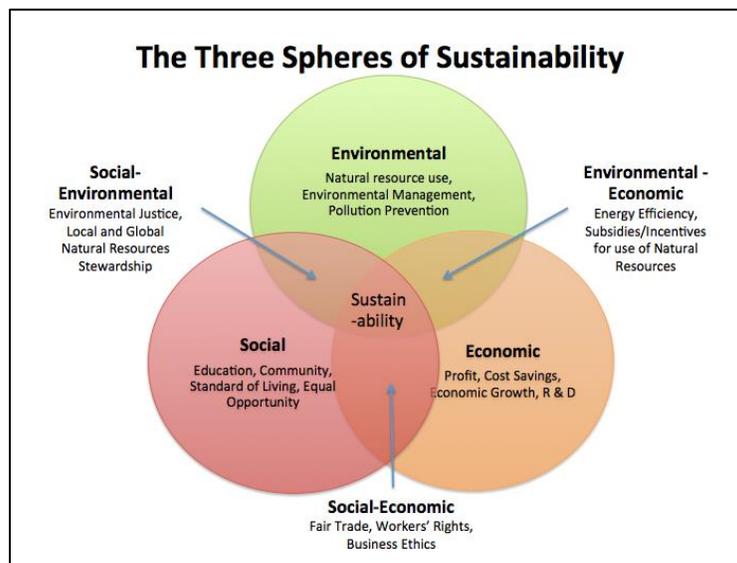


Figure 2:1 Triple bottom line concept and three pillars of sustainability
Source (Ursinus, 2014)

However, some researchers contend that some of these indicators are less relevant in particular situations or places and that some indicators tend to overlap, thus in a typical research situation it is usual to find researchers only using a handful of these indicators

(see e.g. Tyrrell, Paris & Biaett, 2013). Since its first publication, the GRI has commissioned several researchers to review the usefulness of its framework (see e.g. Tort, 2010). Most of these reviews demonstrate that despite some minor technical issues in interpreting the indicators, the framework provides a useful tool for firms to assess their sustainability performance. Dumay, Guthrie & Farneti (2010) show that there is no doubt that in the private sector the GRI is becoming the dominate sustainability performance reporting guideline as its use has been growing exponentially every year. According to (GRI, 2009) report, the number of reports registered with the GRI has increased from ten reports in 1999, to 941 reports in 2008. However, some researchers contend that GRI main weakness lies in its inability to objectively pay attention to key questions, which frame the sustainability debate (Moneva, Archel & Correa, 2006), which are;

- (a) Focus of the pursuit of sustainability and the impetus for change.
- (b) View of nature–human interaction.
- (c) What do we wish to sustain?
- (d) The gap between the present and a sustainable future.
- (e) Extent of change required.
- (f) Nature of the process of getting to a sustainable path.
- (g) Relevance of eco-justice concerns. Who is to be sustained?
- (h) Sustainable in what way?

Table 2:1 Ten important attributes of TBL theory

Social
1. Community charity (percentage of gross revenues provided for local charitable contributions).
2. Community health, safety, and security (traffic congestion, security on property, health measures on property)
3. Openness to public and local culture (openness to the non-guest general public)
Economic
4. Local suppliers and customers (goods produced and purchased locally)
5. Average hourly wages and benefits (compared to national average).
6. Employment of local residents (employees who maintain a local residence)
7. Local taxes paid (as a percentage of gross revenues)
Environmental
8. Water, energy, and material practices (energy conservation, use of environment-friendly products)
9. Green building and infrastructure (environment-friendly management, policies, and governance)
10. Waste management and reduction (recycling, wasted reduction)

Source: Tyrrell, Paris & Biaett, (2013)

Similarly, Moneva, Archel & Correa (2006:121) reveal that “some organizations that label themselves as GRI reporters do not behave in a responsible way concerning sustainability question, like gas emissions, social equity or human rights”. Thus, these authors suggest that to overcome such a problem, the questions listed above should be used as an additional checklist for companies, institutions, consumers, lobbies, etc. to rethink and reflect on the contribution they can make to sustainability. Despite the aforementioned limitations, “GRI sustainability reporting guidelines have the potential to significantly improve the usefulness and quality of information reported by companies

about their environmental, social and economic impacts and performance” (Willis, 2003:233).

Stakeholder Theory in Tourism

Literature shows that in 1980s, many enterprises were viewed as belonging to the shareholders, and so shareholder theory was employed to measure overall firm performance. In this regard, performance of a firm was measured according to how much profit it generates to the shareholders at the end of each fiscal year (see, e.g., Porter, 1980). Shareholder theory defines the primary duty of a firm’s managers as the maximization of shareholder wealth (Friedman, 1962). The theory has a widespread support particularly in the finance community and it is considered to be a fundamental building block of corporate financial theory (Danielson, Heck & Shaffer, 2008). The shareholder theory has been criticized by many scholars for encouraging short-term managerial thinking and profit maximization at the expense of the long run as well as ignoring unethical behavior with regard to the right of others (Freeman, Wicks & Parmar; 2004: 365; Smith, 2003:86). Shareholder theory is regarded as a finance and market myopia model whose focus is share value and for which shareholders are the only significant stakeholder (Blair, 1998, 47).

In response to these criticisms in early 1990s, a more stakeholder-based view started to prevail. Stakeholders in this case are defined as “persons or groups with

legitimate interests in procedural and/or essential aspects of corporate activity and are identified by their interests in the corporation, whether the corporation has any corresponding functional interest in them” Donaldson & Preston’s (1995: 67). According to Donaldson & Preston, “the interests of all stakeholders are of intrinsic value; that is to say, each group of stakeholders merits consideration for its own sake and not merely because of its ability to further the interests of some other group, such as the shareowners” (Donaldson & Preston’s (1995:67). The activities of corporations impact individuals and collectivities both negatively and positively (Cragg, 2002). “Those interests may revolve around basic needs like food, water or shelter or may involve issues of health and safety or may concern the capacity of those involved to accomplish their goals and objectives or to experience a decent standard of living or quality of life” (Cragg, 2002:3). According to stakeholders’ theory, a firm is seen as having responsibilities to a wider set of groups than simply shareholders (Brown & Fraser, 2006; Steurer, 2006). Stakeholder theory “requires dialogical processes that allow firms to critically reflect upon their practices and the demands placed upon them by their stakeholders” (Hess, 200:310). Literature shows that apart from shareholders, other stakeholders can include employees and their representatives, customers, suppliers, governments, industry bodies, local communities and so forth (Freeman, 1984; Hubbard, 2009). According to Freeman (1984:46), “a stakeholder in an organization is (by definition) any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organization’s objectives”. According to Freeman, stakeholders have the power to affect the firms’ performance and/or have a stake in the firms’ performance.

In contrast to shareholder approach, stakeholder theory makes serving the interests of those groups and individuals identified as ‘stakeholders’ the primary purpose of an organization (Kaler, 2003; Phillips, 2003). It follows therefore that one of the primary objectives of the firm is to identify who are the stakeholders it is compelled to serve, and what are their interests in relation to the firm. This is a critical element in firm management since failure to identify proper stakeholders may lead to disastrous relationship between the firm and the real stakeholders, as a result of the firm failing to serve the real stakeholders. “Based on the assumption that all stakeholders have more or less legitimate interests in an organization, stakeholder theory is concerned with the nature of these relationships in terms of both processes and outcomes” (Jones & Wicks, 1999, p. 207).

Donaldson & Preston’s (1995) distinguishes three aspects of the stakeholder theory namely; ‘descriptive’, ‘instrumental’, and ‘normative’. These scholars argue that the stakeholder theory has been advanced and justified in the management literature on the basis of its descriptive accuracy, instrumental power, and normative validity and that these three aspects of the theory, although interrelated, are quite distinct; they involve different types of evidence and argument and have different implications. According to Donaldson & Preston’s (1995), the “descriptive aspect of the stakeholder theory explains how organizations actually take into account stakeholder interests” and it presents a model describing what the corporation is. Also it describes the corporation as a

constellation of cooperative and competitive interests possessing intrinsic value. These scholars contend that in this aspect, “stakeholder theory is used to “describe, and sometimes to explain, specific corporate characteristics and behaviors” (Donaldson & Preston, 1995, p. 66). Therefore, from descriptive aspect, “it is obvious that one important stream of stakeholder theory focuses is on how organizations take their stakeholder interests into account” (Gilbert & Rasche, 2008).

As far as the instrumental aspect of the stakeholder theory is concerned, Donaldson & Preston (1995, p. 67) argue that this aspect “establishes a framework for examining the connections, if any, between the practice of stakeholder management and the achievement of various corporate performance goals”. They further argue that “the principal focus of interest here has been the proposition that corporations practicing stakeholder management will, other things being equal, be relatively successful in conventional performance terms (profitability, stability, growth, etc.). According to Donaldson & Preston, (1995, p. 71), instrumental aspect of stakeholder theory “tries to find out whether it is beneficial for an organization to engage with its stakeholders or not”, with Gilbert & Rasche (2008) arguing that the goal of this aspect is to identify connections, or a lack of connections, between the existence of stakeholder management and the achievement of corporate performance objectives. Thus, this aspect seems to suggest that there must be a strong relationship between managers and stakeholders and that there must be agreeable mechanism for stakeholders to be able to measure performance of the organization.

Table 2:2 Main aspects of stakeholder theory

	Descriptive stakeholder theory	Instrumental stakeholder theory	Normative stakeholder theory
Main concern	Describe and explain specific firm characteristics and behavior. It describes how do organizations take stakeholder interests into account?	In conjunction with descriptive/empirical data were available, is used to identify the connections, or lack of connections, between stakeholder management and the achievement of traditional corporate objectives (e.g., profitability, growth). Is it beneficial for organizations to take stakeholder interests into account?	The theory is used to interpret the function of the corporation, including the identification of moral or philosophical guidelines for the operation and management of corporations. By referring to different moral points of view, why should organizations take stakeholder interests into account?
Selected research and main authors	The nature of the firm (Brenner & Cochran, 1991); the way managers think about managing (Brenner & Molander, 1977); how board members think about the interests of corporate constituencies (Wang & Dewhirst, 1992); how some corporations are managed (Clarkson, 1991; Communication, Reporting and Performance (Andriof et al. 2003); Defining the Principle of Who and What Really Counts (Mitchell Agle & Wood, 1997)	Stakeholder management and corporate performance (Preston & Sapienza, 1990); Corporate culture and performance (Kotter & Heskett, 1992); Corporate governance (Freeman & Evan 1990); Stakeholder-agency theory (Hill & Jones, 1992); A stakeholder apologetic for management (Sharplin & Phelps, 1989)	Beyond success: Corporations and their critics in the 1990s (Kuhn & Shriver, 1991); Business and society: Ethics, government and the world economy (Marcus, 1993) Business and society (Carroll, 1989); The Moral Basis of Stakeholder Theory' (Gibson, 2001); Stakeholder Management Theory (Reed, 1999)

Source: Adapted from Gilbert & Rasche (2008) and Donaldson & Preston (1995)

Hill & Jones (1992) suggest that because of these relations, managers are able to complete tasks in a more efficient way and that the engagement of firms with their stakeholders is positively linked to organizational performance Gilbert & Rasche (2008). Donaldson & Preston, (1995, p. 67), shows that although ‘descriptive aspect’ and instrumental aspects are significant aspects of the stakeholder theory, their fundamental basis is normative aspect of the stakeholder theory. Donaldson & Preston (1995, p. 71) argue further that “Normative stakeholder theory discusses why organizations should take into account stakeholder interests”. This stream of stakeholder theory attempts to reach beyond instrumental arguments that base the question of ‘Why consider stakeholders?’ on an exclusive discussion of performance. Normative stakeholder theory interprets the function of the corporation by referring to certain ‘moral guidelines’ (Gilbert & Rasche, 2008). Normative aspect is based on the moral and ethical aspects of what is wrong and what is right in the organization. Since organizations exist in a particular contextual environment, it will be imperative for the organization to think about ethical and moral issues not only with respect to its internal environment but also with respect to the external environment on which it is built upon. Donaldson & Preston (1995, p.67) contend that stakeholder theory is managerial in the broadest sense and argue further that;

Stakeholder theory does not simply describe existing situations or predict cause-effect relationships; it also recommends attitudes, structures, and practices that, taken together, constitute stakeholder management. Stakeholder management requires, as its key attribute, simultaneous attention to the legitimate interests of all appropriate stakeholders, both in the establishment of organizational structures and general policies and in case-by-case decision making. This requirement holds for anyone managing or affecting corporate policies, including not only professional

managers, but shareowners, the government, and others. Stakeholder theory does not necessarily presume that managers are the only rightful locus of corporate control and governance. Nor does the requirement of simultaneous attention to stakeholder interests resolve the longstanding problem of identifying stakeholders and evaluating their legitimate "stakes" in the corporation. The theory does not imply that all stakeholders (however they may be identified) should be equally involved in all processes and decisions.

Stakeholder analysts argue that all persons or groups with legitimate interests participating in an enterprise do so to obtain benefits and that there is no prima facie priority of one set of interests and benefits over another; hence, the arrows between the firm and its stakeholder constituents run in both directions (Donaldson & Preston (1995). All stakeholder relationships are depicted in the same size and shape and are equidistant from the "black box" of the firm in the center (Donaldson & Preston (1995, p.68).

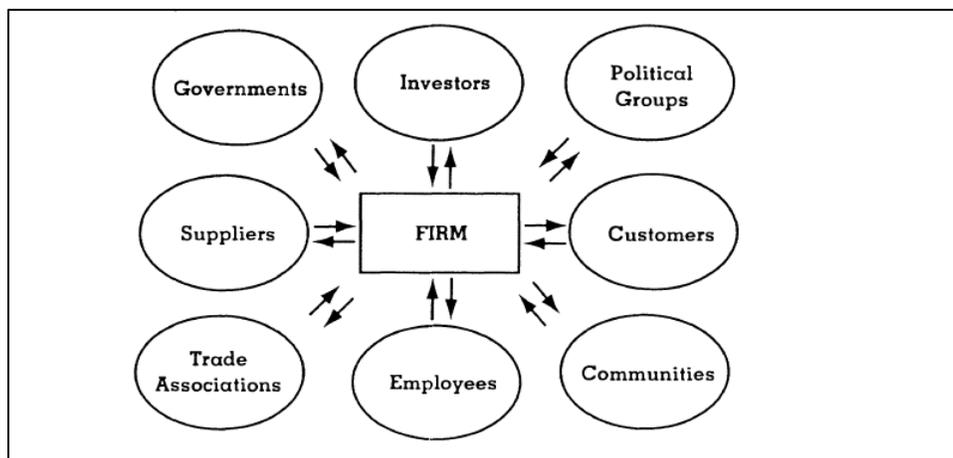


Figure 2:2 Stakeholders theory
Adapted from Donaldson & Preston (1995, p.69)

It can be generally concluded that the main objective of the stakeholder theory is to explain and guide the entire organization in its day to day activities including the core

managerial functions. The theory “views the firm as an organizational entity through which numerous and diverse participants accomplish multiple, and not always entirely congruent, purposes” (Donaldson & Preston, 1995, p.70). The use of stakeholder theory has increased in more recent years, in part because of its emphasis on explaining and predicting how organizations function with respect to the relationships and influences existing in their internal and external environment (Donaldson & Preston, 1995).

The salience of the stakeholder theory lies on the fact that it “assesses organization performance against the expectations of a variety of stakeholder groups that have particular interests in the effects of the organization’s activities. Its perspective of organizational performance incorporates shareholder value, but recognizes that shareholders are just one group of stakeholders and only relevant to those organizations that issue shares” (Hubbard, 2009:179). Similarly, it is argued that the “appeal of stakeholder theory lies in its capacity to address the perplexities generated by the dominant view of management and the modern investor owned corporation currently in place” (Cragg, 2002:2). It is also argued that the goal of the stakeholder theory “is to build a robust answer to the question ‘why should investor owned corporations be managed ethically and what does this mean for the way business is conducted?’ it is further contended that the tools it brings to this task are both empirical and normative” (Cragg, 2002:2). Another advantage of stakeholder theory is that, the TBL theory is also based on stakeholder theory and it takes a much wider perspective of the stakeholders affected by the organization (Hubbard, 2009). Therefore, the indicators for measuring

TBL can as well be useful in measuring how firms take into account interests of its stakeholders. “Equally important, stakeholder theory creates a mechanism and thereby opens the door to bringing fundamental moral principles to bear on corporate activities” (Cragg, 2002:3).

The stakeholder theory has been widely applied in travel and tourism industry (see e.g. Byrd, 2007; Robson & Robson, 1996; Sautter & Leisen, 1999) and particularly in the hotel industry (see e.g. Sheehan, Ritchie & Hudson, 2007; Timur & Getz, 2008). Most scholars suggest that tourism and especially the hotel industry provide a relevant avenue for employing the stakeholder theory because the sector has many stakeholders who are directly or indirectly affect and affected by hotel industry activities. It is argued that despite the primary mission of making profit, hotel industry activities are associated with steady degradation of the social cultural and environment landscapes, which subject the hotel industry under constant pressure from all stakeholders involved. It is contended that “managers experience pressure from shareholders to maximize the value of the firm at the same time that stakeholders such as governments, employees, clients, local communities, and ecologists demand that they strive for environmental protection” (Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Harrison & Freeman, 1999, as cited in Céspedes-Lorente, 2003:334). Literature shows further that “hotel operations are characterized by a massive number of activities that, taken individually, have a slight environmental impact and are thus arguably difficult to identify and regulate” (Dobers, 1997 as cited in Céspedes-Lorente, 2003:335), However, when all activities are taken all together, “the operations of

the hotel industry exert a significant impact on global resources and local community at large” (Kirk, 1995, p. 3). The use of the stakeholder theory is thus appropriate because “it provides many perceptive insights into the integration of environmental issues in business strategy” (Céspedes-Lorente, 2003:334), as well as legitimacy, ethical, normative and power issues, which are all critical for sustainability of the industry (Freeman, 1984; Madsen & Ulhoi, 2001).

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in Tourism

Corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives and organizational performance have been a focus of many scholarly literatures in recent years. Considerable efforts have been made to understand the influence of CSR activities on organizational performance (Marom, 2006; Schuler & Cording, 2006). CSR is considered to be a social construct, thus there is no single unbiased definition of the concept (Dahlsrud, 2008). Literature shows that at a conceptual level, CSR is nothing new, since for many years businesses had always dealt with social, environmental and economic impacts; however, at the operational level CSR is considered to be something relatively new (Dahlsrud, 2008). Some of the common terms referring to CSR include; corporate citizenship, corporate sustainability, corporate responsibility, corporate ethics, business social performance and responsible business (Carroll, 1998; Griseri & Seppala, 2010).

In general CSR refers to “a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis” (Commission of the European Communities, 2001:6). The commission points out further that “being socially responsible means not only fulfilling legal expectations, but also going beyond compliance and investing “more” into human capital, the environment and the relations with stakeholders” (p, 6). The commission makes the case that the experience with investment in environmentally responsible technologies and business practice suggests that going beyond legal compliance can contribute to a company’s competitiveness. Other scholars suggest that CSR refers to a company’s obligation to exert a positive impact and minimize its negative impact on society (Pride and Ferrell, 2006). Along the same line, the ISO 26000 (2011:6) defines CSR as the,

responsibility of an organization for the impacts of its decisions and activities on society and the environment, through transparent and ethical behavior that contributes to sustainable development, including health and welfare of society, takes into account expectations of stakeholders, is in compliance with applicable law and consistent with international norms of behavior and is integrated throughout and practiced in an organization’s relationships.”

Freeman et al., (2010) exemplify that this definition connotes that businesses are accountable for their impact on society and the environment, and that the management of a company includes the management of the relationship with its stakeholders with the latter being those individuals or groups who have a stake in the company and thus are and

can be influenced by the company (Freeman et al., 2010). CSR requires ongoing commitment from firms involved in business in terms of ethical conducts in their daily operations. Correspondingly CSR entails all necessary steps that a company can take to promote the quality of life of its employee and the community in general without destroying the very natural environment at which it depends. Arguing from a broader context, the Confederation of British Industry (CBI) (2001:10) posits that “CSR requires companies to acknowledge that they should be publicly accountable not only for their financial performance but also for their social and environmental record”. CBI shows further that, “CSR encompasses the extent to which companies should promote human rights, democracy, community improvement and sustainable development objectives throughout the world.” (CBI, 2001:10) Along the same line of argumentation, the World Bank (2004:11) defines CSR as ‘the commitment of businesses to contribute to sustainable economic development working with employees, their families, the local community, and society at large to improve the quality of life, in ways that are good for business and good for development’.

In showing the relationship between the community and the businesses, Wood (1991) contends that ‘the basic idea of CSR is that business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities.’ Technically this implies that the local communities in which companies are operating, should be regarded by companies as one of the major stakeholder in the business, thus companies are required to take into account the communities interests and concerns to achieve well-being and sustainability for both, the

community and the company. Corporates need the community and the community needs the corporate, no one can sustainably survive without the other, therefore, both parts need to understand the needs and responsibilities of each other. The Millennium poll conducted in 2000 with 25,000 respondents in 23 countries MORI (2000) shows that the most commonly mentioned factors influencing the view held by citizens regarding a company social responsibility relate to employee treatment, community commitment, ethics and the environment.

CSR and TBL in Tourism

A close look at the concept and some of the definitions given above indicates clearly that the concept encompasses, the economic, legal, ethical, and humanitarian expectations placed on organizations by the community. Similar conclusions was also drawn by Dahlsrud (2006) who argued that many CSR definitions, tend to be to a large degree congruent and consistently referring to the economic, the social, the environmental, the stakeholder, and the voluntariness dimension CSR schemes. Contrary to the philanthropic view which has been pointed out by many scholars, some scholars contend that CSR is considered by some companies as a way for an enterprise to safeguard against risks following, e.g. food safety, environmental or social incidences (Hartmann, 2011). However, Elkington, (1997) argues that the widely accepted approach to CSR by companies is based on the Triple Bottom Line (TBL) with three dimensions: economic (profits), social (people) and environmental (planet) responsibility), with

Cronin et al., (2011) suggesting that companies are increasingly interesting in TBL evaluation, which implies, doing business while avoiding harm to people and the planet .

Table 2:3 The Five dimensions of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Dimensions	The definition is coded to the dimension if it refers to	Example phrases
The environmental dimension	The natural environment	‘a cleaner environment’ ‘environmental stewardship’ ‘environmental concerns in business operations’
The social dimension	The relationship between business and society	‘contribute to a better society’ ‘integrate social concerns in their business operations’ ‘consider the full scope of their impact on communities’
The economic dimension	Socio-economic or financial aspects, including describing CSR in terms of a business operation	‘contribute to economic development, ‘preserving the profitability, business operations’
The stakeholder dimension	Stakeholders or stakeholder groups	‘interaction with their stakeholders’ ‘how organizations interact with their employees, suppliers, customers and communities’ ‘treating the stakeholders of the firm’
The voluntariness dimension	Actions not prescribed by law	‘based on ethical values’ beyond legal obligations’ ‘voluntary’

Source: Dahlsrud (2006; 2008)

Referring to different dimensions of the concept and how CSR can be operationalized by companies, Dahlsrud (2008) analyzed 37 definitions of CSR using content analysis and concluded that the concept encapsulates five main dimensions which

include; the environmental, social, economic, stakeholder and voluntariness dimensions. Despite some differences in perceptions, in general many researchers seem to agree with Dahlsrud (2008) regarding the key dimensions of CSR and his work has been cited in many publications that came out in subsequent years (see e.g. Carroll & Shabana, 2010; Tarí, 2011).

The environmental dimension shows the connection between business and the natural environment. Van de Mosselaer, Van der Duim, & Van Wijk (2012) point out that good examples of this dimension in the tourism setting may include the relation between airlines and emissions (Gössling & Peeters, 2007; Mak & Chan, 2006; Lynes & Andrachuk, 2008); cruise lines and water disposal (Johnson, 2002); hotels and natural resources management (Bohdanowicz & Martinac, 2007; Le, Hollenhorst, Harris, McLaughlin & Shook, 2006; Scanlon, 2007); and tourism and biodiversity (Van der Duim & Caalders, 2002). Similarly, Van de Mosselaer, Van der Duim, & Van Wijk (2012) argue that the social dimension refers to the business and society linkage and that good examples of social dimensions in tourism may be found in issues related to sex tourism (Garrick, 2005; Kibicho, 2005; Montgomery, 2008); fair trade in tourism (Bohdanowicz & Zientara, 2009; Cleverdon & Kalisch, 2000); and pro-poor tourism (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). According to Van de Mosselaer, Van der Duim, & Van Wijk (2012), the economic dimension of CSR pays attention on the firm's contribution to socio-economic development in the society in which the company operates, good examples demonstrating this dimension include debate on linkages and leakages

(Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010; Meyer, 2007); Correspondingly, it is contended that stakeholders are identified when developing sustainable destinations and good examples may include (Haukeland, 2011; Jamal and Stronza, 2009) and sustainable businesses (Amaeshi & Crane, 2006; Cespedes-Lorente, Burgos-Jimenez & Alvarez_Gil, 2003). The final dimension is voluntariness and it refers to actions that firms are not legally obliged to take, as for example illustrative by the debate on Antarctic tourism (Haase, lamers & Amelung, 2009; Kilcullen & Kooistra, 1999; McWilliams & Siegel, 2001).

Motivations for CSR

As far as motivations for CSR is concerned, literature indicates that managerial attentions for CSR may have rapidly evolved in the tourism business community as a consequence of increasing concerns over the negative impacts of tourism on the natural and socio-cultural environment (Rondinelli & Berry, 2000; Van de Mosselaer, Van der Duim, & Van Wijk; 2012). It is argued that “many multinational corporations are creating voluntary environmental programs, often under the label of ‘corporate citizenship,’ that directly address public concerns about the potential environmental impacts of their plants, facilities, and operations and that actively involve stakeholders in improving local economic, environmental, and social conditions through co-operation and partnership” (Rondinelli & Berry, 2000:71). Thus, CSR is “especially important in communities around the world where environmental conditions are hazardous and where

regulatory protection may not be effective in controlling the situation” (Rondinelli & Berry, 2000:71) for instance in developing countries.

In elaborating further the major reasons compelling firms to adopt CSR, Rondinelli & Berry (2000) point out that a complex mix of forces drives multinational corporations to practice good corporate citizenship. One of such forces is due to increased public demands for enforcement of regulations and for increased disclosure by investors, regulators, and public interest groups, which have played a strong role in increasing corporations' sensitivity to their social responsibilities in recent years (Business for Social Responsibility, 1998). Rondinelli and Berry (1997) note that public and shareholder expectations of corporations to deal with complex social and economic issues in the communities where they operate have also risen dramatically over the past decade at the same time that the roles of national and local governments have been shrinking.

In elaborating further why firms are motivated to apply CSR, Rondinelli & Berry (2000) argue that indeed many corporations have learned that consumers and business customers often seek to align themselves with firms that have a reputation for social responsibility, therefore, to stay competitive in the global markets multinational corporations have to develop strong supply chains through which they can impose rules of conduct on their suppliers as well as on their own divisions and subsidiaries, which will portray a positive image to broad stakeholders. Literature indicates that there exist a positive relationship between a company's CSR actions and consumers' reactions to that

company and its product(s) (When & Respond, 2004). For example, the Corporate Citizenship poll conducted by Cone Communications in 2002 revealed that “84% of Americans said they would be likely to switch brands to one associated with a good cause [socially responsible], if price and quality are similar” (Cone Corporate Citizenship, 2002). The Cone Corporate Citizenship Study also found that of U.S. consumers who learn about a firm’s negative corporate citizenship practices, 91% would consider switching to another company, 85% would pass the information to family and friends, 83% would refuse to invest in that company, 80% would refuse to work at that company and 76% would boycott that company’s products (When & Respond, 2004). Likewise, the Hill & Knowlton/ Harris Interactive poll conducted in 2001 revealed that “79% of Americans take corporate citizenship into account when deciding whether to buy a particular company’s product and 36% consider corporate citizenship as an important factor when making purchasing decisions” (Business for Social Responsibility, 2001). The findings from these two studies reveal that generally people tend to use their consumer, employee and investment power to punish bad corporate citizens, with Bhattacharya & Sen (2004) arguing that the positive link of CSR to consumer patronage compels companies to dedicate greater energies and resources to CSR initiatives.

Literature shows that these results are consistent with (1) the concept of returns to stakeholder, which reflects the benefits that CSR enterprises produce for individual stakeholders, and (2) means-end chains theory (Bhattacharya, Korschun & Sen, 2009). According to the theory on means-end chains (Gutman, 1982; Reynolds & Olson, 2001),

consumers make purchase decisions because the attributes of products and services provide three causally connected categories of benefits. “First are functional, which are tangible and directly related to features of the product or service. Second are psychosocial, which are related to the psychological and sociological well-being of the individual. Third, are attributes can affirm the values of the individual, which are end-states of importance to the consumer” (Bhattacharya, Korschun & Sen, 2009: 261).

CSR and the Food Sector

Literature indicates that in more recent years CSR has gained more popularity in the tourism and retail industry. For instance in 2011 CSR was ranked as the most important issue by managers in the Global Retail and Consumer Goods Sector (Consumer Good Forum, 2011). Similarly, Hansen & Schrader (2005) contend that in the scientific, political as well as public arena CSR has gained considerable importance over the last decade. In the tourism industry, available evidence suggests that tourists are becoming increasingly concerned about the environmental and social conditions of destinations they visit and that has compelled many companies to think about their corporate social responsibility. Similarly, “food and agribusiness companies are frequently subject to broad interests and there is an increasing need for them to respond to the challenges and obligations posed by sustainability” (Forsman-Hugg, et al., 2013:30). Many scholars argue that “food companies need to show that responsibility has moved from ideology to reality, i.e. that their actions are responsible and appropriate” (Forsman-Hugg, et al.,

2013:31). These scholars make the case that food companies are facing rapid changes because of the increasing concern and rising awareness among consumers particularly in developed countries regarding traceability in the food supply chain, the origin of raw materials and food safety, environmental impacts of products and processes as well as societal issues such as animal welfare. These scholars propose that “customers, governments, NGOs, the media and wider society should ask companies to provide an open and well-substantiated account of how they operate, what their impact on society is, and how they are minimizing negative impacts and saving scarce natural resources” (Forsman-Hugg, et al., 2013:31). Within similar lines of argumentation, it is argued that, the link between food safety and social responsibility is a grey one; thus, food companies have to fulfil legal, environmental and social obligations to produce safe foods in order to sustain their business as well as fulfilling consumers’ requirements (Curran, 2005).

Locally Produced Foods, Sustainable Tourism and Authenticity

A plethora of research and information exist regarding local food and sustainable tourism. Many of these studies propose that tourist consumption of local foods creates a market opportunity that can boost the development of sustainable agriculture, help conserve traditional farming landscapes, assist the local economy, encompass a concern for environment preservation and can help to create an “image” for a particular destination that will help it attract new visitors and boost its economic and social sustainability in the long term (Buller & Morris, 2004; Ilbery et al., 2007). Local foods

(e.g. spices from Zanzibar) can also appeal to visitors as souvenirs where tourists can buy and take home.

. A more recent study conducted by Sims (2009:334) shows that, “local foods have the ability to appeal to the visitor’s desire for authenticity within the holiday” and therefore contribute positively to sustainable tourism. Sims argues further that “local products can appeal to tourists on a number of levels, from the simple demand for ‘typical’ products that can be purchased and consumed as a symbol of place, through the complex and deep-seated quest for a more authentic sense of self” (Sims, 2009:334). This relatively new study was preceded by other studies which also found a more positive correlation between local food consumption and sustainable tourism (see e.g. Barnett et al., 2005; Cohen & Avieli, 2004; Quan & Wang, 2004; Soper, 2007). For instance, Quan & Wang (2004) argue that local foods consumption can be turned into tourist attractions as the peak, or part of the peak touristic experiences. They also argue that food festivals or gastronomic tourisms are one of the sources that help improve the local identity of a destination community, and hence bring about more community participations. Such community participations and supports are one of social conditions for tourism to be sustainable. Similarly, Cohen & Avieli (2004) agree that individual cities or even whole countries could be appealing for their unique culinary attractions. However, Cohen & Avieli (2004) argue that hygiene standards, health considerations, communication gaps, and the limited knowledge of tourists concerning the local cuisine constitute some of the challenges facing many destinations especially in developing countries.

Buller & Morris's (2004) research looked at market, state and sustainable food production; found that market plays an increasingly important role in agricultural production and environmental protection. Their research focused on the rapidly expanding number of what are termed 'market-oriented initiatives for environmentally sustainable food production' (MOIs), in which the incentive for food producers to manage the environment positively comes directly through the market. From this discourse it follows therefore that food providers such as hotels can be a good driver of sustainable food production and tourism. These hotels can specify production conditions that producers and suppliers must comply with and thereby promote environmental friendly production.

Local Food and Authenticity

One of the probably highly contentious concepts in tourism is authenticity. The concept of authenticity to sociological studies of tourist motivations and experiences was introduced about five decades ago by MacCannell (1973, 1976). Since then this concept has attained a lot of attention in many tourism studies. Discussions about the meaning and validity of authenticity play an important role in the tourism literature. Regarding local food portraying authenticity it is contended that consumer demands for foods perceived to be "traditional" and "local" can also be viewed as linked to a quest for authenticity (Sims, 2009). Despite a number of researchers supporting the notion of local food portraying authenticity to tourists (e.g. Cohen, 2002; 2007; Soper, 2007), there has been a number of counter arguments showing that true authenticity does not exist,

arguing that there is no pure culture because all societies and cultures change with time and therefore, authenticity should be viewed as a social construct (Hughes, 1995).

Literature on authenticity Cohen (2002), Sims (2009), Wang (1999) show that there are three types of authenticity; *objective authenticity* (Object-Related Authenticity), *constructive authenticity* and *existential authenticity* (Activity-Related). Objective authenticity refers to the authenticity of originals. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are equated to an epistemological experience (i.e. cognition) of the authenticity of originals (Sims, 2009; Wang, 1999). Constructive authenticity refers to the authenticity projected onto toured objects by tourists or tourism producers in terms of their imagery, expectations, preferences, beliefs, powers, etc (Sims, 2009; Wang, 1999). These scholars suggest that there are various versions of authenticities regarding the same objects. Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism and the authenticity of toured objects are constitutive of one another (Sims, 2009; Wang, 1999). In this sense, the authenticity of toured objects is in fact symbolic authenticity. Existential authenticity refers to a potential existential state of being that is to be activated by tourist activities (Sims, 2009). Correspondingly, authentic experiences in tourism are to achieve this activated existential state of being within the liminal process of tourism (Sims, 2009). Existential authenticity can have nothing to do with the authenticity of toured objects (Wang, 1999, p. 352). According to Wang (1999), existential authenticity can explain a greater variety of tourist experiences, and hence helps enhance the explanatory power of the authenticity-seeking model in tourism. The concept of existential authenticity as linked to identity formation is

important in relation to the provision of local foods and drinks to tourists because tourists may look to develop an authentic sense of self through the purchase of particular products (Sims, 2009).

In reaction to the enormous debate that authenticity has created, Cohen (2002) provides a way forward by contending that if we are to understand the motivations for tourist behavior we must focus, not on academic debates about authenticity, but on the ways in which the concept is understood by the tourists themselves. Cohen argues further that contemporary tourists seek both objective and existential authenticity in their holidays because, while some tourists are spending more, travelling further and experiencing more discomfort in order to experience encounters with “untouched” environments and cultures, others are happy to simply relax, have a good time and experience the existential authenticity that comes from “being themselves”.

Local Food Perceptions

Vester (1987) suggests that indeed many individuals are dissatisfied with the mundane quality of their everyday life and thus seek extra-mundane experiences from adventures [e.g. experiencing local foods and drinks]. Adventure plays a significant part in providing an opportunity to compensate for the boredom and lack of authenticity felt in ordinary life. It is a “sensual transcendence” of routine life (Vester 1987:238, 239). Similarly, understanding the role of local foods in enhancing tourists’ experiences and

promoting sustainable tourism may allow hotel managers to promote linkages with local suppliers and consequently help the local suppliers to boost their income and reduce poverty.

Owing to the debates surrounding local food, authenticity and demand, it may be beneficial to understand perceptions of international tourists towards local Tanzanian foods. Hotel managers, tourism planners, policy makers and academics may benefit by understanding the role played by local food in sustaining tourism industry especially as it is perceived and understood by tourists themselves. Such understandings may elicit hotel managers and other tourism planners to pay special attention to locally produced foods and thus local suppliers, which eventually may promote sustainable tourism. Gaining insights into local food-tourism linkages may also benefit other stakeholders who have a quest to promote sustainable tourism through local foods but do not have a clear view on how they can do it. Similarly, identifying some factors that negatively limit the supply of local foods to hotels serving international tourists may provide some guidelines necessary for promoting local food-tourism linkages. It can be argued that lack of diversity of such foods and drinks deny the tourists the opportunity to maximize the experience they seek from these local destinations.

Literature indicates that total perception or overall image about a product can be measured by looking at expression of all knowledge, impressions, prejudices and emotional thoughts that individuals have about a particular product (Lawson & Baud-

Bovy, 1977). Assael (1984) defined image as a total perception of a product that is formed by processing information from various sources over time. Literature also indicates further that total perception (composite perception) is formed as a result of both perceptual/cognitive and affective evaluations about a product (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Many scholars who studied perceptions agree with the notion that settings have both perceptual/cognitive and affective components (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Gartner, 1993; Hanyu, 1993). Perceptual/cognitive refers to the knowledge and experiences that people have about a particular product and is generated over time and space; on the other hand, affective component is related to individuals' feelings about a product. The feelings that individuals develop about a product is largely influenced by the knowledge they have about that product or experience they have gained over time when using that product (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Gartner, 1993). Total perception is therefore, a complex multidimensional construct that requires integration of many cues. In addition to perceptual/cognitive and affective evaluation dimensions, studies suggest that total perception is also significantly influenced by socio-demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, education level and income) of individuals (Stabler, 1990; Um & Crompton, 1990).

Linkages and Leakages in Tourism

Linkage and leakages studies indicate that “efforts to maximize the economic benefits derived from tourism in destination areas have centered on increasing the number of tourists, increasing the tourists' length of stay, and increasing tourists' overall

expenditures” (Telfer & Wall, 1996:635). These studies show that “a complementary way to enhance the benefits of tourism is to expand the backward economic linkages by increasing the amount of local food used in tourism industry” (Telfer & Wall, 1996:635). Torres (2003) suggests that improving tourism and agriculture linkages represents an important mechanism for; stimulating and promoting local food production, retaining tourism earnings in the region, and improve the distribution of tourism benefits to rural communities. She further points out that converting farmers and rural inhabitants into economic stakeholders and beneficiaries of tourism represents an important opportunity to improve the quality of life for poorest and most marginalized populations particularly in developing countries. Cohen (1982) argues that emerging tourist destinations that do not promote high multipliers and levels of backward linkages will not produce substantial economic development due to high economic leakages and may even foster resentment of the industry amongst local residents (Cohen, 1982).

The concept of local linkages has been defined generally as the mechanisms through which, businesses build economic links with residents in their local economy (Pattullo, 1996). The literature suggests a variety of potential methods for increasing linkages and reducing leakage. These include increasing local ownership (Milne, 1987; Sims, 2009; Stynes, 1997) and increasing the level of host involvement (Nyaupane et al., 2006). Studies show that the relationships between food production from local agricultural sector and tourism range from conflict over competition for land, labor and capital to symbiosis where both sectors mutually benefit from each other (Telfer & Wall,

1996). The potential benefits of tourism industry to the development of local economy through local linkages have been widely acknowledged in literature (Lacher & Nepal, 2010; Nyaupane et al., 2006; Telfer & Wall, 1996; 2000; Torres 2003).

For example, Telfer & Wall (2000) argues that if destinations are to maximize benefits from tourism development, ways must be found to increase backward economic linkages, including utilizing local food products in the tourism industry. They further contend that large-scale hotels in developing countries are often portrayed as importing a large proportion of their food supply and having minimal contact with local economies. Telfer & Wall (2000) also argue that while local food purchases by the tourism industry can strengthen the linkages within the traditional market sector, a series of natural and human barriers exist; raising issues of quality and quantity which often prevent a potentially symbiotic relationship between the two sectors from evolving. One of the major recommendations in their research was that working relationships between the tourism industry and local producers and suppliers need to be institutionalized to ensure constant communication. They propose the publication of a local agricultural food guide with the types of products produced and harvest times, along with the names of suppliers, as a means to facilitate communication. Similarly, as part of communication, the local suppliers may be made aware of the quality and quantity of products required in the industry as well as issues related to demand and supply fluctuation.

Reporting on the results of a case study on tourism and dependency in northern Thailand, Lacher & Nepal (2010), propose three strategies to enhance linkages and reduce leakages from village settings. The first strategy involves villagers coming together to form a village-wide cooperative. Lacher & Nepal believes that this strategy has the potential to reduce leakage as the villagers are able to set a standard wage rate for everyone, instead of competing against one another. The second strategy involves increasing revenues and reducing leakages through charging an entrance fee. The third strategy observed was selling locally made products. The major weakness of Lacher & Nepal study is that in practice it is difficult to apply these strategies in many villages in developing countries because most villages lack appropriate expertise to implement these strategies. Similarly, in most villages the people are highly dispersed and have different interests and power. Likewise, in food production, there are a number of limiting factors such as physical conditions of road infrastructure; the nature of local farming systems, local people knowledge on food quality, safety, reliability and seasonality (Torres, 2003). However, the concept of forming cooperatives can be applicable say at a regional/country level where skilled suppliers can form networks that link many villagers. Members of a cooperative can be trained according to specific needs of the market to overcome the barriers mentioned above.

A study conducted by Torres (2003) in Mexico concluded that the primary reasons why links failed to materialize in the state was that concrete agricultural development interventions, appropriate to the local social and environmental context,

were not incorporated into the tourism development process and the general master plan. Torres argues that understanding local linkages requires a more holistic approach that integrates all stakeholders involved. This view appears to be similar to what Jafari (1990) proposed in the advocacy and knowledge- based platform.

Factors Constraining Food-tourism Linkages

Economies of many developing countries in Africa where tourism is growing very fast depend mostly on Agriculture. Most of these countries are even categorized as agrarian countries. It is important therefore to link agriculture with tourism because already in these countries majority of the people are involved with agriculture. Literature indicates that “tourism has the potential to stimulate local agricultural development through backward linkages that allow local farmers to supply tourism industry food needs” (Torres & Momsen, 2004:299). These authors goes on to say that while the importance of creating backward sectoral linkages is widely recognized to be important in literatures, the issue of how to create such linkages has not been examined in depth. Reporting on a research by DBSA [Development Bank of South Africa] these authors also make the case that “linkages cannot be assumed to emerge – they must be actively facilitated’. Therefore, in order to understand how to form or facilitate those linkages, it is imperative to understand the major perils and constraints facing such linkages. A study conducted by Torres & Momsen (2004) provides an exhaustive list of such constraints including references related with studies that thoroughly explored those constraints.

Table 2:4 Factors Constraining Food-tourism Linkages

Nature of the Constraints	Constraining factors
Supply/production related	<p>Lack of sufficient, consistent and guaranteed quantity of locally produced food.</p> <p>Inadequate quality of local production.</p> <p>High prices of locally produced foods.</p> <p>Local farming systems' small economies of scale</p> <p>poor growing conditions</p> <p>Nature of existing local farming systems (i.e., plantation instead of food crops)</p> <p>Lack of capital, investment and credit</p> <p>Technological limitations</p> <p>Farm labor deficit attributable to competition with tourism sector</p>
Demand-related	<p>Foreign-owned, large and high-end hotel preference for processed and imported foods</p> <p>Immature tourism industry preference for imported and internally supplied foods</p> <p>Certain types of tourists' (i.e., mass and foreign) preferences for imported and/or home-country foods</p> <p>Tourist and chef distrust of local food owing to sanitation, hygiene and health concerns</p> <p>Foreign or internationally trained chef preference for imported foods</p>
Marketing/intermediary-related	<p>Failure to promote local foods</p> <p>Poor/inadequate transportation, storage, processing and marketing infrastructure</p> <p>Mistrust and lack of communication/information exchange between</p>

farmers, suppliers and tourism
industry
Entrenched monopoly marketing
networks that prevent local farmer
access
Corrupt local marketing networks that
limit local producer access
Bureaucratic obstacles and informal
nature of local farming operations

Adapted from (Torres & Momsen, 2004:300-301)

Many of the cited studies above have contributed to the body of literature that dealt with sustainable tourism or some forms of sustainable tourism. Some of the studies have also focused on advantages, disadvantages and challenges of agriculture-tourism linkages. Some studies have indicated that indeed there are few individual commercial tourism enterprises with positive triple bottom lines, including positive net contributions to local communities and to conservation (Buckley, 2009). There are also few enterprises which have taken voluntary measures to reduce environmental impacts, and make voluntary contributions to community wellbeing (Buckley, 2009). It is contended that majority of commercial tourism enterprises advocates environmental sustainability only to comply with regulations. Limited studies have focused on challenges/constraints facing food-tourism linkages by integrating opinions from key players such as tourists, hotel managers and local food suppliers/producers at the same time. Therefore, integrating opinions from such major players in tourism industry is the point of departure for this study which also distinguishes this research from existing studies.

Chapter summary

This section presents the summary of the literature review. In relation to tourism supply chain, many scholars suggest that one of the strategies that the tourism industry could use to increase competitiveness and meet customer demands is effective use of Tourism Supply Chain management (TSCM). Supply chain management is defined as the systemic, strategic coordination of the traditional business functions and the tactics across these business functions within a particular company and across businesses within the supply chain, for the purposes of improving the long-term performance of the individual companies and the supply chain as a whole.

Sustainable tourism is considered as tourism that attempts to make as low impacts on the environment and local cultures as possible, while helping to generate employment, increase income and thereby reducing poverty to the local people, which is the central tenet of Triple Botom Line (TBL) theory. The general concern of sustainability is that “aggregate human impacts threaten the survival of humans and the ecosystem services on which they depend”. In relation to the objectives of sustainable tourism, literature identifies three key objectives for sustainable tourism: meeting the needs of the host population in terms of improved living standards both in the short and long term; satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists; and safeguarding the natural environment in order to achieve both of the preceding aims. It is conceptualized that the TBL addresses fundamental issues related to sociocultural and environmental bottom lines in order to put these dimensions on a more equal footing with the traditional

economic benchmark, which for many years has been the main focus of many firms. Other key theories in this study include stakeholders' theory and CRS theory. The salience of the stakeholder theory lies on the fact that it "assesses organization performance against the expectations of a variety of stakeholder groups that have particular interests in the effects of the organization's activities. CSR refers to "a concept whereby companies integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis". The basic idea of CSR is that business and society are interwoven rather than distinct entities. Managerial attentions for CSR have rapidly evolved in the tourism business community as a consequence of increasing concerns over the negative impacts of tourism on the natural and socio-cultural environment.

There is a direct link between local foods and sustainable tourism. Tourist consumption of local foods creates a market opportunity that can boost the development of sustainable agriculture, help conserve traditional farming landscapes, assist the local economy, encompass a concern for environment preservation and can help to create an "image" for a particular destination that will help it attract new visitors and boost its economic and social sustainability in the long term. Understanding the role of local foods in enhancing tourists' experiences and promoting sustainable tourism may allow hotel managers to promote linkages with local suppliers and consequently help the local suppliers to boost their income and reduce poverty. The tourism industry has the potential

to stimulate local agricultural development through backward linkages that allow local farmers to supply foods needed in the tourism industry.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Study Site

The study was conducted in the United Republic of Tanzania. The government of Tanzania views travel and tourism as one of the main sources of foreign currency and a means economic development as well as poverty alleviation in rural areas though trickle-down and multiplier effects. The government endorses tourism that promotes local economic growth while being culturally and environmentally benign (TANAPA, 2013). The study was conducted using a quantitative method approach.

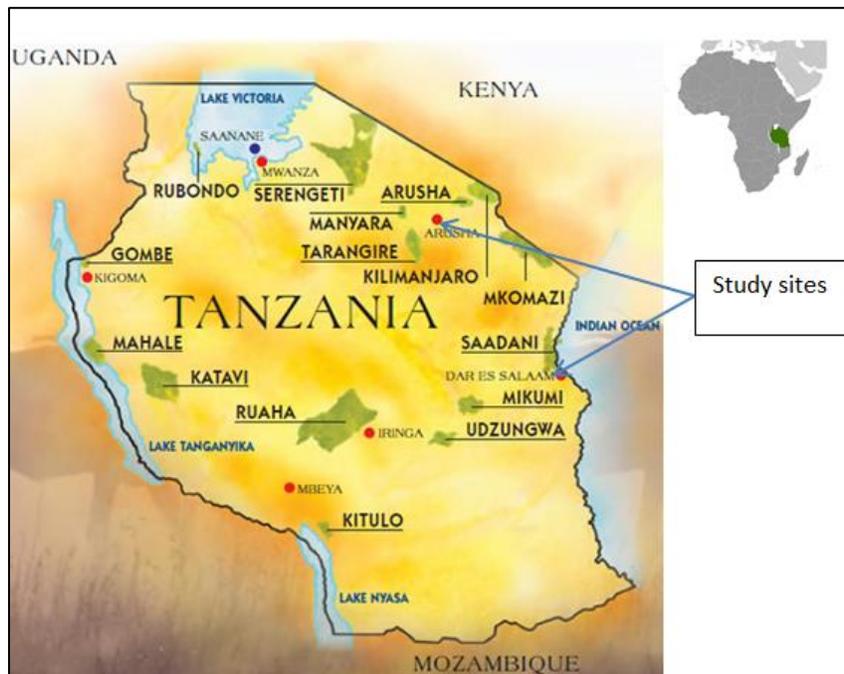


Figure 3:1 Map of Tanzania showing study sites
Source: TANAPA, 2013

Data Collection

In this study, data were collected from three different locations; Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA) and at the hotels in the cities of Arusha and Dar-es salaam. Collecting data from these places was necessary for the researcher to obtain detailed information that covers all objectives of this research which is focusing on local food-tourism linkages as a strategy for promoting sustainable tourism and economic development in Tanzania. Before going to the field for data collection, the researcher obtained approved IRB (IRB2014_185) from Clemson University Office of Research Compliance (ORC) that permitted him to conduct research in Tanzania. Similarly, the researcher obtained permission from the Vice-Chancellor of the Sokoine University of Agriculture (SUA) who has been empowered to issue research clearance to both, staff, students and researchers of SUA on behalf of the Government of Tanzania and the Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology (COSTECH).

Research Question One

(RQ1) What are the perceptions of international tourists concerning consumption of locally produced foods in tourist hotels in the country?

Data for question one were collected at the Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA). KIA was considered to be conducive place for this data collection since is possible to get access to many international tourists who had visited many different

national parks. KIA serves tourists who have just completed their visits from the most popular “Northern Circuit” of Tanzania National Parks which includes; Kilimanjaro National Park, Arusha National Park, Serengeti National Park, Lake Manyara National Park , Tarangire National Park, Mkomazi National Park and Ngorongoro Conservation Area.

The survey was conducted over three weeks in August 2014. This time corresponded with high season for tourists in the Northern Circuit. The researcher approached every group of tourist that entered the departure terminal. Once the group made it through passport control/security and was seated seat in the terminal, the group was approached and the researcher requested that one person in the group fill out a survey (Appendix C1). The survey was written in the English language.

The use of samples of returning tourists has found favor in tourism literature (Murphy & Pritchard, 1997). The significance of this approach is that, customers evaluate their perceptions of the destination immediately after the experience. Creating value for customers requires knowing how they use and evaluate products after purchase (Lapierre, 2000).

Research Questions Two, Three and Four

(RQ2) What are the major constraints facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?

(RQ3) What are the main reasons compelling hotel managers to import foods in their hotels which consequently lead to revenue leakages?

(RQ4) Are hotel managers willing to empower local people so that they can be able to meet their requirements as far as food supply is concerned?

Data for question two, three and four were collected from hotel/purchasing managers. The researcher collected data using survey (Appendix C2) from June to August, 2014. June corresponds with the relatively low season for tourists in the country. During this period, many hotels are not extremely busy. Therefore, it was logical for the researcher to start collecting data from hotel managers during this time. With respect to question 2, hotel managers were mainly asked about major constraints they face when buying local products and how they overcome those challenges. With respect to question 3, hotel managers were asked whether they import foods from outside the country; types of foods they import, to what extent they import foods and what are the main reasons compelling them to import such foods. Similarly, hotel managers were asked to what extent they buy locally produced foods and beverages and what kind of locally produced foods do they purchase. With respect to question 4, hotel managers were asked whether they are involved in empowering local communities/suppliers in terms of providing trainings or any sort of financial assistance (e.g. loans)

A purposive sample of hotels (1 to 5 stars) serving international tourists was selected from a list of hotels in the country. The list was obtained from the Department of

Tourism in the Ministry of Natural Resources and Tourism in Tanzania. In order to collect rich and detailed information, the researcher collected data from two of the largest cities in the country (Arusha and Dar-es-salaam). The researcher selected these two cities because major tourist hotels are located in these cities. To facilitate data collection process, the researcher was assisted by two other trained personnel, one for each city. These personnel were trained on how to collect data, the importance of data collection and about maintaining respondents' confidentiality. They were also informed that tourists' participation in the research was voluntary. Each of the research assistants was provided with the survey instrument and cover letter to submit to research respondents before data collection commencement. Furthermore, the research assistants were given a script to use when asking for tourists' participation in this study. Both research assistants are graduates of Sokoine University of Agriculture, Morogoro, Tanzania.

Selected hotel managers were approached by the researcher, who introduced himself as a Clemson University researcher working with Sokoine University of Agriculture. Managers were asked to participate in a voluntary study concerning local food-tourism linkages as delineated in the objectives above and in the IRB document. The study was conducted with selected managers who voluntarily accepted to participate in the study. The surveys were delivered to managers in the morning, afternoon, and during evening hours depending on managers' availability and convenience. Managers were contacted by phone, email or any other appropriate means before the survey was delivered. The survey questions were written in both English as well as Kiswahili

languages to give managers flexibility depending on which language they felt most comfortable with. Respondents who preferred English version of the survey were provided with a survey written in English and vice versa.

Research Question 5

(RQ5) What are the major constraints encountered by local suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels) and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?

Data collection techniques for research question 5 was similar to research question 2, 3, and 4 except that in question 5, the researcher used local food suppliers as respondents instead of hotel managers. Similarly, the researcher used a snowballing sampling technique to obtain the list of respondents. The survey (Appendix C3) involved semi-structured questions as well as coded questions, which were written in either English or Kiswahili languages. In order to make sure that the research instrument is accurate and precise, the instrument was translated from English to Kiswahili and then to English again, using different people, who are both native speakers of the two languages. Data collection took place from June to August 2014. Other techniques for data collection, analysis and presentation were consistent with those described in research question 2, 3 and 4 above.

Sample Size

Maxwell (2000) recommends a sample size of approximately 300 for models of moderate complexity. Other scholars notably Bentler & Chou (1987) argue that the ratio of sample size to estimated parameters should be between 5:1 and 10:1. Similarly, Tabachnick & Fidell (2007) argue that the decision regarding sample size is dependent upon a number of factors including the desired power level, alpha level, number of predictors in the model, and expected effect size. Based on these recommendations, a sample size of (n = 520) was used for KIA survey. While the sample size for hotel managers was (n = 226), that of local food suppliers was (n = 240).

Survey instruments

The research data were collected using semi-structured questionnaires. The questionnaire for KIA survey was constructed using extensive literature search and partly by using a modified consumer perceived quality model (Dodds, Monroe & Grewal, 1991) as well as image theory/model (Assael, 1984; Crompton, 1979; Myers, 1968). Dodds, Monroe & Grewal (1991) identified five variables consumers use to represent quality, namely; reliability, a direct quality measure, durability, dependability, and workmanship. These variables were used in this study with slight modification to suit the objectives of this study. The Questionnaires for hotel managers and local food suppliers were developed as a result of extensive literature search in the respective field. The questionnaires were developed using procedures suggested by Churchill (1979) and

assessed for internal and external consistency using correlational analysis and factor analysis. Each independent and dependent variable was measured using a 7 point Likert scale (Churchill, 1979). Following Churchill (1979) approaches, the first drafts of the questionnaires were presented to a number of graduate students and professors in the department in order to obtain their insights on the precision and accuracy of the preliminary questionnaires. Significant changes related to questions construction were made in this regard. After this stage, the questionnaires were revised ready for pre-test. The revised version of each questionnaire was pretested using a sample of graduate students in the PRTM department in order to detect any issues that needed to be resolved before going to the field.

Data Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS 6.2 for Windows was employed to analyze data for all questions. CFA is a statistical technique used to verify factor structure of a set of observed variables as described by the researcher. CFA allows the researcher to test the hypothesis that a relationship between observed variables and their underlying latent constructs exists. In CFA, the researcher uses knowledge of the theory, empirical research, or both, to postulate the relationship and then tests these relationships statistically. The objective of CFA is to test whether the data fit a hypothesized measurement model. The hypothesized model is based on theory and/or previous analytic research.

Chapter Summary

This section presents the summary of the methodology used in this study. The study was conducted in the United Republic of Tanzania using a quantitative research method approach. Data for the study were collected from three different locations; Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA) and at the hotels in the cities of Arusha and Dar-es salaam. The researcher obtained approved IRB (IRB2014_185) from Clemson University before going to the field for data collection. Data for question one were collected at KIA while data for question two, three, four and five were collected from hotel/purchasing managers and local food suppliers in Arusha and Dar-es salaam cities. To facilitate data collection process, the researcher was assisted by two trained personnel. A sample size of (n = 520) was used for KIA survey, while the sample size for hotel managers was (n = 226) and that of local food suppliers was (n = 240). All questionnaires were developed using procedures suggested by Churchill (1979) and were assessed for internal and external consistency using correlational analysis and factor analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS 6.2 for Windows was used for data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS PRESENTATION

Chapter four presents results of the descriptive statistics. When analyzing data, both descriptive and inferential statistics are pertinent in presenting results and drawing research conclusions. Descriptive statistics helps the researcher to understand issues related to data completeness, range of answers and data discrepancies. Descriptive statistics are also useful in describing, showing or summarizing data in a meaningful way, including showing patterns emerging from the data. In this chapter, excerpts of some research questions are provided to facilitate readers' comprehension and appraisal. Data for this research were collected from tourists at Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA), hotel managers and local food suppliers from Dar es Salaam and Arusha cities. Therefore; this chapter will be divided into three sections to reflect such study population.

Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA) Survey

Response Rate for KIA Survey

A total of 520 completed research questionnaires were used in the final analysis in this survey, corresponding to a response rate of 88%. The high response rate was due to the fact that the survey was conducted in August, 2014 which corresponds roughly with

the summer high season for tourists in the northern tourist zone in the country (i.e. summer high season is associated with more potential respondents because of high number of tourists). Another reason for high response rate is that the survey was administered to tourists after every respondent had entered the departure terminal (after the security check and had sat down) thus; they had sufficient time to complete the survey questions before boarding the plane. The response rate summary is presented in table 4.1. As displayed in the table, there are two types of non-response rate, unit non-response rate and item non-response rate. The unit non-response rate (61 cases) was due to refusal from respondents, notably due to language barriers and tiredness. Other reasons contributed to unit non-response rate include lack of enough time for some respondents particularly those who were departing to Nairobi. Tourists departing to Nairobi were relatively few in number and so board smaller aircrafts in comparison to tourists going to other destinations. Because they board smaller aircrafts, they spend very limited time in the departure lounge. Similarly, some respondents who were sampled by the researcher were ineligible for research because they were under 18 years.

Table 4:1 Response rate for KIA Survey

Measure	Number of Responses
Total number of survey solicited	589
Unit non-responses	61
Item non-responses	8
Total number of survey non-responses	69
Total number of survey responses	520

The item non-response rate (8 cases) was due to incomplete responses to survey questions. Therefore, the response rate was $(520/589)*100$, which is equal to 0.88 or 88%.

Demographic Profiles of Respondents

Age Profiles

With respect to age, respondents were asked “what year were you born in?” instead of “how old are you”. This form of a question is preferred in a survey because it is associated with high item response rate. Smit, Deeg & Schmand (1997) suggested that a possible explanation for high response rate is that, date of birth is normally imprinted and asked throughout a person’s whole lifespan, does not change and therefore, is less likely to be misreported. The response to this question is presented in Figure 4.1.

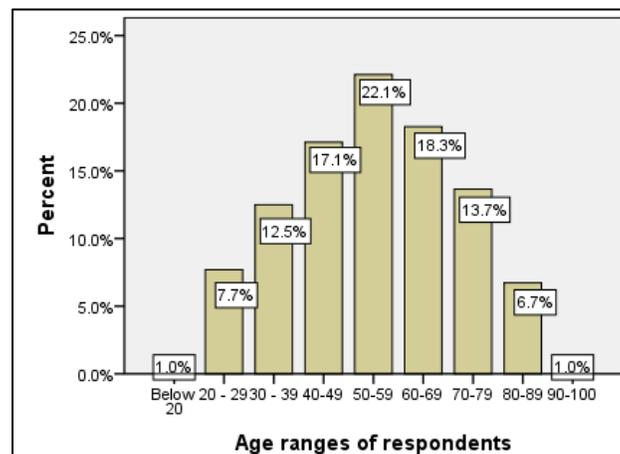


Figure 4:1 Frequency distribution of age ranges of respondents

Figure 4.1 shows that of the total survey respondents (N = 520), the majority were in the age-groups of 50-59 with a proportion of 22.1% (n = 115), 60-69 with a proportion of 18.3% (n = 95), 40-49 with a proportion of 17.1% (n = 89), 70-79 with a proportion of 13.7% (n = 71) and 30-39 with a proportion of 12.5% (n = 65). The age-groups of 20-29 had only 40 respondents (7.7%), while the age-groups of 80-89 had only 35 respondents (6.7%). Similarly, the age-groups of 90-100 years and that of below 20 years had 5 respondents (1%) each. Interestingly, these results to a large extent are consistent with results from other studies conducted in Tanzania in the previous years (cf. Lacher, 2012; Nzuki, 2006). Overall, the percentage of senior citizen visitors was small when compared to other age-groups. This might be partly due to insurance policy limitations which do not cover tourists involved in accidents while travelling on single engine aircrafts during landing/taking off from unpaved runways. As noted in Tanzania Tourism Sector Survey (2009), most of the aircraft in Tanzania that serve tourist attractions within the country are single aircraft engines. This analysis suggests that the tourism sector in the country may probably need to improve air transport facilities and infrastructure (i.e. use multi engines aircraft as well as removing the insurance constraints for senior tourists) in order to accommodate and attract more senior citizen tourists since these are the people with more leisure time and discretionary income.

Education Level Profiles

Table 4:2 Frequency distributions of education levels of respondents

Number	Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
1	Did not complete high school	7	1.3
2	Completed high school	43	8.3
3	Some college	104	20.0
4	Bachelor Degree	165	31.7
5	Master's Degree	137	26.3
6	Advanced graduate work or Ph.D.	57	11.0
Total number		513	100.0

Table 4.2 shows frequency distribution of education levels of research respondents. The results show that the majority of the respondents, 31.7% (n = 165) have a Bachelor degree. The second in prominence was the group of respondents with a master's degree 26.3% (n = 137). The results also show that while respondents with advanced graduate work or Ph.D. accounted for 11% (n = 57), those who did not complete high school accounted for only 1.3% (n = 7). Overall, the results show that many respondents in this research have high levels of education. These findings are consistent with those of Nzuki (2006) who also reported high percentage of educated tourists. This suggests partly that it is possible to have education programs that aim at educating tourists to be more responsible tourists and hence reduce environmental, social and cultural impacts to places where they visit because most of visitors are well educated.

Gender Profiles

Table 4:3 Frequency distribution of gender of respondents

Number	Gender	Frequency	Percentage
1	Male	275	52.9
2	Female	245	47.1
Total		520	100

The results in Table 4.3 show that in terms of gender, the percentage of male respondents was slightly higher 52.9% (n = 275) than that of female respondents 47.1% (n = 245). A study conducted by Nzuki (2006) also conducted at KIA indicated a balanced gender distribution, with male accounting for 49.5% of the respondents while female accounted for 50.5% of all respondents. Similarly, a study conducted by Lacher (2012) at KIA showed that females accounted for 53% of total research respondents. In general it can be concluded that gender distribution in this research is consistent with previous research conducted at the same location.

Household Income Profiles

Income of a respondent plays an important role in deciding where to travel and what to buy during the entire trip. The researcher therefore, in this study decided to investigate the household income of respondents as an important variable. The data related to household income of the respondents are presented in Table. 4. 4.

Table 4:4 Frequency distribution of income of respondents

Number	Income	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than \$20,000	6	1.2
2	\$20,000 - \$39,999	37	7.2
3	\$40,000 - \$59,999	65	12.6
4	\$60,000 - \$79,999	83	16.0
5	\$80,000 - \$99,999	98	19.0
6	\$100,000 - \$119,999	77	14.9
7	\$120,000 - \$139,999	63	12.2
8	\$140,000 - \$159,999	49	9.5
9	\$160,000 - \$179,999	38	7.4
Total number		516	100.0

The results in Table 4.4 indicates that about 21% (n = 108) of all respondents earn less than \$59,999 per year. About 35% (n = 181) earn between \$60,000 and \$99,999 per year. The results in Table 4.4 also shows that the majority of the respondents 44% (n = 227) earn more than \$100,000 per year. The highest household income of the respondents was between \$140,000 and \$159,999 while the lowest household income was less than \$20,000 per year. These results suggests that majority of the respondents in this research were financially well off.

Nationality of Respondents

Respondents were asked about their nationalities. Table 4.5 indicates that the majority of the respondents in this study originated from, USA 20.8% (n = 108), UK 11.7% (n = 61), Canada 7.9% (n = 41), France 7.9% (n = 41) and Germany 6.9% (n = 36). The results also show that Spain and Catalan had the least number of respondents in the study with a proportion of 0.8% (n = 4) and 0.4% (n = 2) respectively.

Table 4:5 Frequency distribution of nationality of respondents

Rank	Country	Frequency	Percentage
1	USA	108	20.8
2	UK	61	11.7
3	France	41	7.9
4	Canada	41	7.9
5	Germany	36	6.9
6	Netherlands	32	6.2
7	Italy	29	5.6
8	Mexico	23	4.4
9	Australia	20	3.8
10	Denmark	17	3.3
11	Portugal	15	2.9
12	Norway	15	2.9
13	Sweden	14	2.7
14	Belgium	13	2.5
15	Finland	13	2.5
16	Switzerland	12	2.3
17	Scotland	11	2.1
18	Austria	7	1.3
19	Argentina	6	1.2
20	Spain	4	0.8
21	Catalan	2	0.4
Total		520	100.0

Previous studies indicated that majority of the visitors intercepted at KIA were from USA, UK, France and Germany (Lacher, 2012; Nzuki, 2006). Therefore, the findings of this research are consistent with such previous studies conducted in the country. However, the emergence of Canadian market is interesting. A study conducted by Nzuki (2006) at KIA indicated that out of 983 surveyed respondents, only 3.4% (n = 33) were Canadian. Similarly, in comparison to the World's top tourism spenders, the respondents in this study represent 60% (9 out of 15) of the top tourism spending tourists worldwide as indicated by UNWTO (2013b).

The six countries that are significant spenders but whose citizens were not captured in this research include China, Russian Federation, Japan, Singapore and Hong Kong (China). The individuals from these countries were unable to participate in this study most likely due to language barriers. As indicated earlier, the main language used in this study was English language due to the fact that previous studies (Lacher, 2012) had indicated that more than 85% of individuals intercepted at the airport (KIA) were English speakers.

Table 4:6 Worlds' top tourism spenders

International tourism expenditure (US\$ billion)

Rank	Country	2005	2010	2011	2012
1	China	21.8	54.9	72.6	102.0
2	Germany	74.4	78.1	85.9	83.8
3	United States	69.9	75.5	78.7	83.7
4	United Kingdom	59.6	50.0	51.0	52.3
5	Russian Federation	17.3	26.6	32.5	42.8
6	France	31.8	39.0	44.1	38.1
7	Canada	18.0	29.6	33.3	35.2
8	Japan	27.3	27.9	27.2	28.1
9	Australia	11.3	22.2	26.7	27.6
10	Italy	22.4	27.1	28.7	26.2
11	Singapore	10.1	18.7	21.4	22.4
12	Brazil	4.7	16.4	21.3	22.2
13	Belgium	15.0	18.9	22.1	21.7
14	Hong Kong (China)	13.3	17.5	19.2	20.5
15	Netherlands	16.2	19.6	20.5	20.2

Note: From UNWTO (2013b) World's Top Tourism Spenders; 2013. Retrieved January, 02, 2015, from <http://www.etoa.org/docs/default-source/Reports/other-reports/2013-world's-top-tourism-spenders-by-unwto.pdf?sfvrsn=4>

Respondents Travel Characteristics

Number of Days Spent in Tanzania

Respondents were asked about the number of days they spent in Tanzania during this vacation. Table 4.7 shows frequency distribution of number of days spent by respondents in the country. The majority of the respondents, 46% (n = 239) indicated that they had spent between 7 to 14 days in Tanzania. This group was followed by those who had spent between 15 and 21 days representing 32.5% (n = 169). The proportion of the respondents who spent less than 7 days was 15.2% (n = 79) while the proportion of respondents who spent more than 56 days was very small 1.5% (n = 8). It is clear from this research that majority of the respondents spent two to three weeks in the country, which is relatively a long period. Although the number of days spent is not directly related to local food consumption but it does suggest that individuals spending more days in a particular place are more likely to eat local foods given an opportunity compared to individuals spending only a few days in a particular place.

Table 4:7 Frequency distribution of number of days spent by respondents

Number	Days	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than 7 days	79	15.2
2	7 to 14 days	239	46.0
3	15 to 21 days	169	32.5
4	22 to 28 days	9	1.7
5	36 to 42 days	16	3.1
6	More than 56 days	8	1.5
Total number		520	100.0

Packaged Vs. Unpackaged Tours

Respondents were requested to respond to a question that asked whether they booked this vacation as a packaged tour or not. A package tour normally consists of transportation and accommodation as advertised and sold together by a tour operator. In some cases, other services such as rental cars, sightseeing facilities may also be provided during the trip. Figure 4.2 displays respondents' answers to that question. The results in Figure 4.2 shows that the majority, 63.8% (n = 332) of the respondents booked their trip as a packaged tour and the rest, 35.6% (n = 185) did not book their trip as a packaged tour.

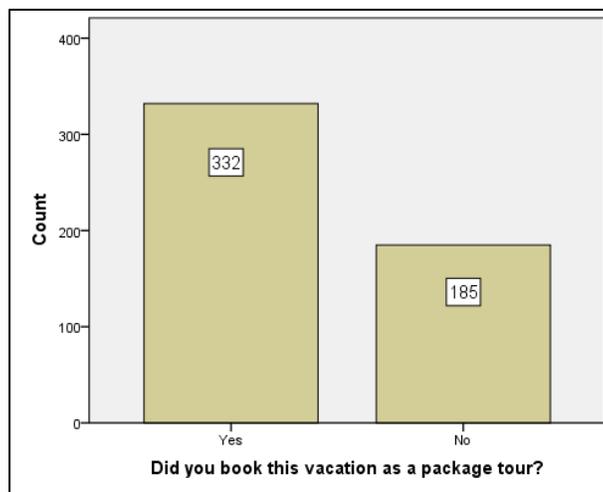


Figure 4:2 Frequency distribution of packaged and non-packaged tour

While packaged tours provide many advantages such; as peace of mind during the trip, ease to navigate, ease to budget (because activities are well known in advance); the main disadvantage is that packaged tours do not provide visitors with much flexibility within the package once it has been selected. For instance, if the selected package

involves eating in a hotel or a restaurant where local foods are not provided, it will be difficult for tourists to eat at other restaurants where many varieties of local foods are provided.

Number of People in the Group

Table 4:8 Frequency distribution of number of people in the group

Number	Number of people	Frequency	Percentage
1	Only 1	82	15.8
2	Two	219	42.1
3	Three	35	6.7
4	Four	115	22.1
5	Five	11	2.1
6	Six	17	3.3
7	Seven	5	1.0
8	Nine	12	2.3
9	Twelve	19	3.7
10	Fourteen	4	.8
11	Sixteen	1	.2
	Total	520	100.0

Respondents were requested to respond to a question that asked “including you; how many people form part of your travel group? Table 4.8 shows frequency distribution of the number of people in the group. While the minimum number of people in the group was 1 with a proportion of 15.8% (n = 82), the maximum number was 16 with a proportion of 0.2% (n = 1). Majority of the respondents 42.1% (n = 219) travelled in a group of two people, followed by a group of four people with a proportion of 22.1% (n = 115). In travel and tourism, it is common for people to travel in groups. In some cases individuals choose some activities because of the influence of the group they are in.

Therefore, in travel and tourism, individuals tend to be nested in groups of different types such as family, friends, co-workers etc. It is therefore, interesting to investigate the degree of nesting and whether there is a significant difference in decision making at individual's level and at a group level.

Type of Groups

Respondents were asked to respond to a question that asked “who are you travelling with in this trip? Figure 4.3 shows various group compositions as provided by different respondents in this research. Travelling with a family had the highest percentage of 60.4% (n = 314). Travelling with friends had the second highest percentage of 22.5% (n = 117). Travelling alone and travelling with co-workers had the lowest percentages of 15.8% (n = 82) and 1.3% (n = 7) respectively.

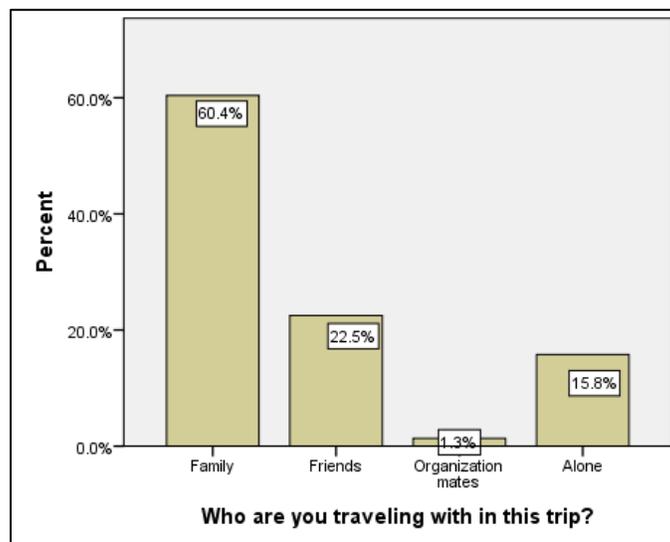


Figure 4:3 Respondents travel compositions

Major Purpose of the Trip

Respondents were asked: “What was the major purpose of this trip?” Table 4.9 shows diverse trip purposes as indicated by respondents. “Safari vacation” was the most common purpose of the trip with nearly half of all the respondents, 49.2% (n = 256) choosing this category as the main purpose of their trip, Climbing Mount Kilimanjaro had the second highest frequency of 65 (12.5%), while a combination of Climbing Mount Kilimanjaro and culture had the least frequency of 8 (1.5%).

Table 4:9 Frequency distributions indicating major purpose of the trip

Number	Trip Purpose	Frequency	Percentage
1	Safari vacation	256	49.2
2	volunteering vacation	13	2.5
3	visiting friends	26	5.0
4	Climbing Mt. Kilimanjaro	65	12.5
5	safari and beach	12	2.3
6	safari and culture	47	9.0
7	safari and volunteering	16	3.1
8	Work	35	6.7
9	Safari + Climbing Mt. Kilimanjaro	37	7.1
10	Climbing Mt. Kilimanjaro and culture vacation	8	1.5
11	Others	5	1.0
Total		520	100.0

Information about Tanzania

Table 4:10 Information about Tanzania

Number	Source of Information	Frequency	Percentage
1	Travel agent	67	13.0
2	Family	57	11.1
3	Friends	169	32.9
4	Colleges in school/college	15	2.9
5	Internet	75	14.6
6	Reading books/magazines	5	1.0
7	TV	61	11.9
8	My work	35	6.8
9	Friends and TV	16	3.1
10	Friends and Internet	10	1.9
11	Others	4	.8
Total		514	100.0

Respondents were asked to respond to the question that asked: “how did you hear about Tanzania as a destination to this trip?” Table 4.10 shows frequency of responses from research participants. The results in Table 4.10 indicates that majority of the respondents heard about Tanzania from their “friends” with a frequency of 169 (32.9%). The second prominent source of information was through “internet” with a frequency of 75 (14.6%), which is closely followed by “travel agents” with a frequency of 67 (13%). “Family members” scored 57 (11.1%) while “television” scored 61 (11.9%). “Reading books/magazines” was the least common source of information about Tanzania, representing only 5 respondents (1%).

Tanzania as a Primary Destination

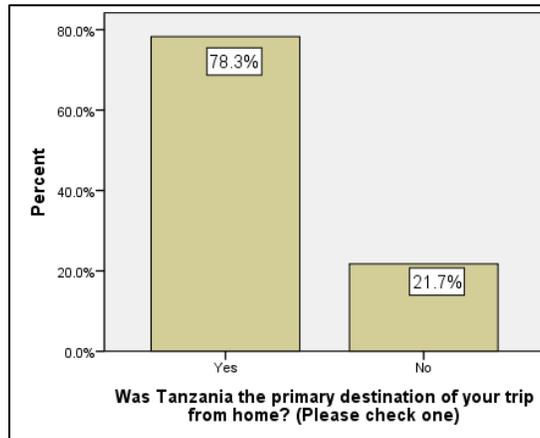


Figure 4:4 Frequency distribution showing Tanzania as a primary destination

Respondents were asked to answer the question that asked “was Tanzania the primary destination of your trip from home?” Figure 4.4 shows frequency distribution of responses to this question. As indicated in Figure 4.4, the majority of the respondents 78.3% (n = 407) indicated that Tanzania was their primary destination from home while a small percentage 21.7% (n = 113) indicated that Tanzania was not their primary destination from home. The response to this question is highly related to the other question (Table 4.11) that asked respondents about their primary destination.

Respondents’ Primary Destination

Respondents were asked: “what was your primary destination in this trip?” Table 4.11 shows frequency distribution regarding respondents’ primary destinations. The majority of the respondents 80% (n = 416) indicated that Tanzania was their primary destination. A small number of respondents 9.2% (n = 48) indicated that Kenya was their

primary destination while 1.3% (n = 7) indicated that Rwanda was their primary destination.

Table 4:11 Frequency distribution of respondents' primary destination

Number	Primary Destination	Frequency	Percentage
1	Tanzania	416	80.0
2	Kenya	48	9.2
3	Uganda	10	1.9
4	Rwanda	7	1.3
5	South Africa	10	1.9
6	Europe	12	2.3
7	Ethiopia	17	3.3
Total		520	100.0

Cognitive/Perceptual, Affective Evaluations and Total Perception Items

One of the main objectives of this study was to understand the way international tourists perceive local foods in Tanzania. The overall perception about a particular product is measured by cognitive/perceptual evaluations (knowledge/belief) about that product as well as by affective evaluations (feelings) that individuals have about that particular product (Assael, 1984; Crompton, 1979; Myers, 1968). Items measuring respondents' cognitive/perceptual, affective evaluations of local foods as well as total perceptions are presented in Table 4.12a, and Table 4.12b. The items were measured using 7 point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree) to (7 = strongly agree).

Respondents were asked to answer 41 questions regarding local foods, corresponding with 11 dimensions of total perceptions about local foods as derived from a modified image theory and extensive literature search. The Cronbach alpha (measure of internal consistency) for each factor is (41 items, alpha = 0.839): F1:sustainability (8 items, alpha = 0.879), F2:conservation (2 items, alpha = 0.769), F3:inadequacy provision (3 items, alpha = 0.912), F4:imported foods (3 items, alpha = 0.889), F5:familiarity (3 items, alpha = 0.911), F6:hearsay (2 items, alpha = 0.859), F7:food source/origin (3 items, alpha = 0.632), F8:confidence with local food production system (9 items, alpha = 0.956), F9:intrinsic quality attributes (4 items, alpha = 0.951), F10:extrinsic quality attributes (2 items, alpha = 0.873) and F11:total perception (2 items, alpha = 0.750). Factor 1 to 6 measures respondents' cognitive evaluation, factor 7 to 10 measures respondents' affective evaluations while factor 11 measures respondents' total perception about local foods.

In relation to respondents' knowledge and beliefs about sustainability, respondents (Table 4.12a) showed that the item "local foods may increase income of the local people" (mean = 6.23) was the most important indicator of sustainability. In terms of ranking, this item was closely followed by an item labeled "Local foods may increase local people's ownership of business" with a (mean = 6.18). These two items are closely related since they are all talking about financial sustainability. Involving local people in the tourism industry has been a subject of many studies related to financial sustainability, linkages, leakages and multiplier effects (Cohen, 1982; Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010;

Meyer, 2007; Telfer & Wall, 1996; Torres, 2003). These studies have indicated that linking local food and the tourism industry constitutes a significant element in tourism because such linkages tend to stimulate local economies by promoting local food production and retain tourism earnings in the region. Some scholars refer to these linkages as a necessary and a complimentary way of enhancing the benefits of tourism due to the fact that tourism tends to use and degrade the common pool resources (Briassoulis, 2002; Telfer & Wall, 1996). Promoting high multiplier effects through creating more linkages is also considered by some scholars as a means of reducing resentment of the tourism industry from the local communities (Cohen, 1982).

The items “local foods may enhance visitors’ experiences” (mean = 6.09) and “local foods may increase local people involvement in tourism” (mean = 6.03) were also ranked high by the respondents. This indicate that not only do respondents link the local foods with benefits to the receiving destination but also to the total experience they get from consuming such foods while in these destinations. The findings of this research is thus consistent with previous studies which indicated that local foods have a potential of enhancing tourists experience due to the fact that local foods are considered to be authentic and exemplify culture and heritage of a particular place (Boniface, 2003; Hall & Sharples, 2008; Sims, 2009). That means when tourists consume local foods they tend to experience the culture of a particular place which in turn enriches their experience. In some cases tourists participate in the local foods production process (e.g. picking coffee cherries, digging and roasting some plant roots). Enhancing tourists experience is a

crucial element in tourism industry because it is directly related to the tourists' satisfaction.

Similarly, items related to environmental sustainability (mean = 5.93) and agricultural diversification (mean = 5.86), were also ranked high by respondents. In most cases local foods are produced in small scales which make it possible for small farmers to adopt environmental friendly practices such as using soil cover crops to enrich soils instead of using industrial fertilizers. Likewise, in many tropical areas where climate is warm throughout the year, local foods tend to keep local lands in production throughout the year and thus support the local economy. The findings of this study is thus consistent with previous studies which indicated that local foods have the potential to maintain regional identities and support agricultural diversification (Clark & Chabrel, 2007; Everett & Aitchison, 2008; Knowd, 2006; Sims, 2009).

In relation to hotels, the study findings indicate that items “the hotel I stayed in did not provide many varieties of local foods” (mean = 6.28) and “the hotel I stayed in provided scarce information about local foods (mean = 6.19) were ranked high by respondents. Provision of varieties of local foods or information about local foods in hotels where tourists stay constitutes an important element in introducing local foods to tourists. Hotels act as a gateway between tourists and local foods. In some cases, tourists may not be aware of the local foods around and thus, it is logically impossible for them to purchase something they don't know or they can't see.

In relation to imported foods, respondents strongly agree that “imported foods take money away from the local economy” (mean = 5.89), “Imported foods contribute to climate change” (mean = 5.64) and that “imported foods contribute to environmental pollution (mean = 5.62). Previous studies found that importing foods from other countries contributes significantly to environmental pollution and climate change due to massive greenhouse gases emission during transportation (Gössling et al., 2011). Previous studies have also established that importing foods from other destinations contributes to financial leakages since the money that is generated from the tourism industry does not stay in the local economy (Milne, 1987; Sims, 2009; Stynes, 1997). Thus, the findings of this study are consistent with such previous findings.

With respect to the factor labeled “familiarity”, the item “difficulty in identification prevented me from using local foods (mean = 5.88) scored the highest rank followed by the item “unfamiliar ingredients discouraged me to eat local foods” (mean = 5.68). There are two major implications that can be drawn from familiarity indicators. One is that, there was lack of information regarding local foods in many hotels. Provision of such information would have helped the respondents to overcome the identification problem. The second is that, respondents had a higher preference for local foods. Previous studies have indicated that the inability to identify local foods constitutes a significant constraint to greater sales of local foods (Conner, Colasanti, Ross & Smalley, 2010).

In relation to the factor labeled “hearsay” the study findings show that the item “stories from friends discouraged me to eat local foods” scored a mean of 4.45 and the item ‘experiences from relatives discouraged me to eat local foods’ scored a mean of 4.09. This implies that most respondents scored around neutral point in the Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 4 = neutral, 7 = strongly agree), which may further imply that the reputation of Tanzanian local foods is not bad. Literature shows that hearsay is significantly important in decision making, it can be convincing evidence, and it is argued to be a sort of evidence on which people routinely rely in making decisions (Park, 1987).

In relation to the source/origin of local foods (Table 4.12 b), respondents indicated that overall they consider “when local food was harvested” (mean = 5.96) and “where local food was harvested” (mean = 5.91) to be the most important factors when buying local foods. Knowing who harvested local foods was the least concern item in the list (mean = 5.79). Knowing where food is coming from has been cited by other researchers as an important factor for consumers to buy or not to buy local foods. These results are therefore in line with previous study findings on local foods (Conner, Colasanti, Ross & Smalley, 2010). Consumers are considered to possess heightened awareness of the socio-economic issues related to the food and farming, and do willingly make the link between the foods they buy and the production origins and methods underlying them (Weatherell, Tregear & Allinson, 2003).

In relation to confidence with local food production system (Table 4.12b), respondents were provided with 9 items and were asked to indicate their level of confidence with local food production system using a 7 point Likert scale (1= highly unconfident to 7 = highly confident). The mean ranged from 3.27 (produced by healthy workers) to 3.61(prepared hygienically). This suggests that overall; respondents have less confidence with the way local foods are produced. Providing consumers with products that meet consistent quality and safety standards has been cited as an important element in enhancing consumers' confidence and trust (Fulponi, 2006). Studies have also shown that there is a strong positive relationship between consumers' confidence and future consumption (Smith & Riethmuller, 1999). Lack of confidence with the local food production system was also reflected in the question that asked respondents to provide their perception regarding intrinsic quality attributes. In this question, the mean ranged from 3.32 (safer) to 3.49 (more appealing).

Interestingly, respondents indicated that local foods are better tasting (mean = 6.19) and much cheaper (mean = 5.92) than most foods at their home towns. This implies that once trust and confidence in local food production system is instituted, the market for local foods may increase significantly. The findings of this study are in line with the findings of previous studies on local foods which indicated that consumers prefer eating local foods because such foods taste better compared to conventional foods (Wilkins, 2002).

The overall image/total perception was measured directly by two items using a Likert scale from (1= strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). “I am satisfied with local foods in this destination” (mean = 5.23) and “I will recommend to friends visiting this destination to use local foods” (mean = 5.41). On average, the mean was 5.32, implying that the overall perception of respondents towards local foods was high. Previous studies have indicated that consumers who choose local foods are not merely trying to find a balance between intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes but rather are seeking to build a relationship with local communities based on reciprocity, trust and shared values (Weatherell, Tregear & Allinson, 2003).

Table 4:12a Indicators for measuring respondents' knowledge and beliefs
(Cognitive Evaluation)

Indicators and Factors	Mean	S.D
F1: Sustainability	5.99	1.10
Local foods may contribute to environmental sustainability	5.93	1.10
Local foods may contribute to sustainable tourism	5.81	1.12
Local foods may serve as a tourist attraction	5.83	1.27
Local foods may support agricultural diversification	5.86	1.25
Local foods may enhance visitors experiences	6.09	0.97
Local foods may increase income of the local people	6.23	1.05
Local foods may increase local people's ownership of business	6.18	1.01
Local foods may increase local people involvement in tourism	6.03	1.07
F2: Conservation	4.38	1.52
Local foods may help to conserve the environment	4.49	1.49
Local foods are produced organically	4.27	1.56
F3: Inadequacy Provision	6.18	0.78
The hotel I stayed did not provide many varieties of local foods	6.28	0.79
The hotel I stayed provided scarce information about local foods	6.19	0.73
The hotel I stayed provided few varieties of local foods	6.08	0.83
F4: Imported Foods	5.71	1.45
Imported foods may contribute to climate change	5.64	1.35
Imported foods may contribute to environmental pollution	5.62	1.52
Imported foods takes money away from the local economy	5.89	1.49
F5: Familiarity	5.69	1.18
Unfamiliar ingredients discouraged me to eat local foods	5.88	1.22
Identifying local foods was difficult	5.53	1.14
Difficulty in identification prevented me from using local foods	5.68	1.18
F6: Hearsay	4.27	1.49
Stories from friends discouraged me to eat local foods	4.45	1.44
Experiences from relatives discouraged me to eat local foods	4.09	1.54

F1 to F6 Measured from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree

Table 4:132b Indicators for measuring respondents' feelings
(Affective Evaluation) and Total evaluation

Indicators and Factors	Mean	S.D
F7: Food Source/Origin	5.88	1.09
When local food was harvested	5.96	1.13
Where local food was harvested	5.91	1.01
Who harvested local food	5.79	1.12
F8: Confidence with Production System	3.46	1.69
Transported hygienically	3.45	1.75
Stored hygienically	3.52	1.73
Prepared hygienically	3.61	1.55
Safe to eat	3.43	1.62
Produced by healthy workers	3.27	1.63
Produced by knowledgeable workers	3.59	1.78
Produced by honest workers	3.40	1.75
Food problems can be traced back	3.34	1.67
Regulatory authority competence	3.50	1.78
F9: Intrinsic Quality Attributes	3.41	1.68
Safer	3.32	1.65
Better in quality	3.46	1.68
Cleaner	3.37	1.61
More appealing	3.49	1.78
F10: Extrinsic Quality Attributes	6.05	1.11
Better tasting	6.19	1.04
Cheaper	5.92	1.18
F11: Overall Image/Total Perception	5.32	1.45
I am satisfied with local foods in this destination	5.23	1.52
I will recommend to friends visiting this destination to use local foods	5.41	1.37

F7 measured from 1 = not extremely important to 7 = extremely important. F8 measured from 1 = extremely unconfident to 7 = extremely confident. F9, F10 and F11 Measured from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Survey of Hotel Managers

Response Rate for Hotel Managers Survey

A total of 226 completed research questionnaires were used in the final data analysis, corresponding to a response rate of 73.6%. The high response rate for this part of the research may be attributed to the method of survey administration (i.e. the survey was physically delivered to respondents by the researcher). Before the survey was administered, all respondents were notified by telephone. Similarly, respondents who had not completed the survey were given extra time before the survey was collected. Another factor that influenced the high response rate was that the survey was conducted in either Kiswahili or English. The choice of languages gave respondents flexibility to choose which language to respond to the survey. To facilitate the data collection process, the researcher was assisted by two trained assistants, one in Arusha and the other one in Dar es Salaam.

Table 4:143 Survey response rate for hotel managers

Measure	Number of Responses
Total number of survey solicited	307
Unit non-responses	79
Item non-responses	2
Total number of survey non-responses	81
Total number of survey responses	226

The response rate summary is presented in Table 4.13. As displayed in the table, there are two types of non-response rates, unit non-response rate and item non-response rate. The unit non-response rate (79 cases) was due to refusal from respondents, notably due to their busy schedules. The busy schedule for managers was due to the fact that the survey was conducted in June through August, 2014 with, July and August corresponding roughly with the summer high season for tourists in the country. The item non-response rate (2 cases) was caused by incomplete responses. Therefore, the response rate was $(226/307)*100$, which is equal to 0.736 or 73.6%.

Demographic Profiles of Hotel Managers

Gender Profiles of Hotel Managers

Gender of respondents was investigated in this study. Data related to gender of respondents are presented in Figure 4.5.

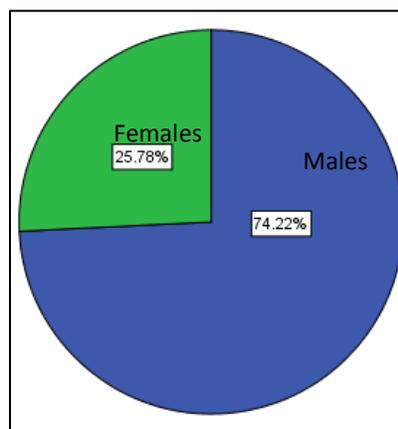


Figure 4:5 Frequency Distribution of Gender of Hotel Managers

The results indicate that out of the total respondents involved in this study (n = 226), the majority of the respondents were males with a proportion of 74.2% (n = 167). As in many other sectors in the country, males still dominate most senior positions in many organizations; a situation which is also reflected in this research.

Age Profiles of Hotel Managers

Age of respondents is one of the crucial elements in a research. By analyzing age of respondents, a researcher can compare views of younger, middle aged and older people. Figure 4.6 presents age profiles for hotel managers. The age-groups of 31-40 had the highest frequency distribution with a proportion of 43.2% (n= 96).

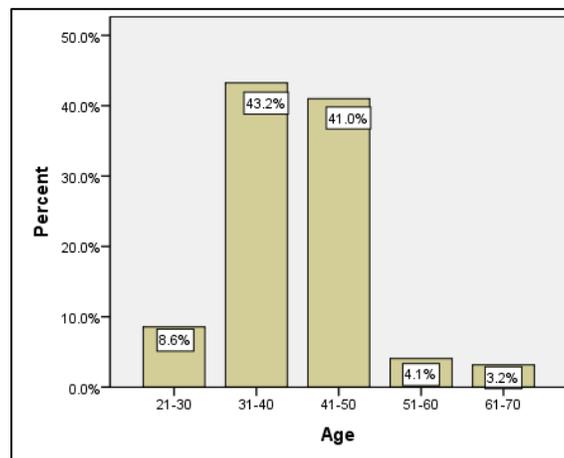


Figure 4:6 Age frequency distributions for hotel managers

This age-groups was closely followed by the age-groups of 41-50, which had a frequency distribution of 41% (n = 91). The age-groups of 61-70 had the least frequency

distribution of 3.2% (n = 7). This suggests that most managers in this research were younger people as indicated in Figure 4.6.

Education Profiles for Hotel Managers

Education level is one of the fundamental characteristics of respondents in demographic research. It influences the way respondents perceive different concepts and make decisions in their daily activities. The response of an individual is likely to be influenced by his/her educational status and therefore, it is important know the educational background of the respondents. Because of this, the variable ‘Educational level’ was investigated by the researcher and the data concerning education level are presented in Table 4.14. The findings in Table 4.14 show that the majority of the respondents had some college education or higher. Respondents with some college education through master’s degree constituted 92.9% (n = 209) of the sample. While respondents with the highest level of education in the sample constituted only 7.6% (n = 17), those with the lowest education level constituted only 2.7% (n = 6).

Table 4:154 Frequency distribution of education level of hotel managers

Number	Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
1	Did Not Complete High School	6	2.7
2	High School/GED	10	4.4
3	Some College	128	56.9
4	Bachelor’s Degree	64	28.4
5	Master’s Degree	17	7.6
Total		225	100.0

Nationality Profiles for Hotel Managers

Table 4:15 Frequency distribution of nationality of hotel managers

Number	Nationality	Frequency	Percentage
1	Tanzania	186	82.7
2	UK	1	.4
3	Kenya	19	8.4
4	Belgium	1	.4
5	India	7	3.1
6	Poland	3	1.3
7	South Africa	5	2.2
8	Philippines	3	1.3
Total		225	100.0

Table 4.15 shows frequency distribution of nationality of the hotel managers. As indicated in Table 4.15, the majority of the respondents were Tanzanians with a proportion of 82.7% (n = 186). The second in the order were Kenyans with a frequency distribution of 8.4% (n = 19). The Least in the order were British and Belgians each with a frequency distribution of 0.4% (n = 1).

Hotel Characteristics

Uses of Local Food Suppliers

Respondents were asked: “does your hotel use local food suppliers to purchase locally produced foods?” Figure 4.7 shows the frequency distribution of uses of local food suppliers. It is evident from Figure 4.7 that the majority of the respondents

overwhelmingly responded “Yes” with a proportion of 84.9% (n = 191), while the minority responded “No” with a proportion of 15.1% (n = 34).

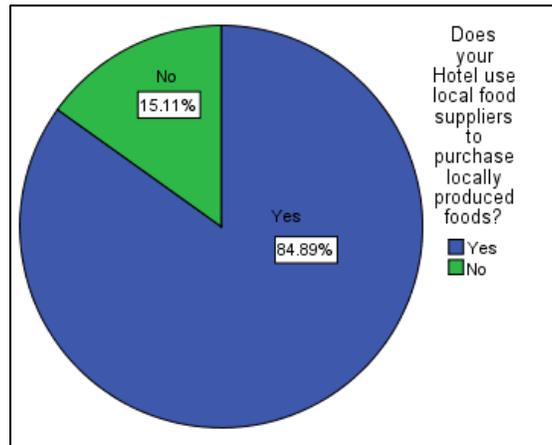


Figure 4:7 Distributions of hotels using local food suppliers

Current Number of Local Food Suppliers

Respondents were asked to indicate how many local food suppliers were currently used by their hotels. Table 4.16 shows the frequency distribution of how many local food suppliers were used by their hotels. As shown in Table 4.16, 20.4% (n = 46) of the surveyed hotel managers indicated that they used between 2 and 5 local food suppliers. 19% (n = 43), indicated that they used between 6 and 10 local food suppliers and 18.1% (n = 41) indicated that they used more than 10 local food suppliers. Hotel managers who used only 1 local food supplier represented the smallest proportion of the sample 14.6% (n = 33).

Table 4:16 Frequency distribution of current number of local food suppliers

Number	Number of local food suppliers	Frequency	Percentage
1	Only 1	33	14.6
2	Between 2 and 5	46	20.4
3	Between 6 and 10	43	19.0
4	Above 10	41	18.1
5	Does not use local food suppliers	63	27.9
Total		226	100.0

Star Rating by Hotel Managers

Hotel managers were asked: “how would you rate this hotel?” They were asked to choose one out of the 6 categories provided (1= 1 Star hotel), (2 = 2 Star hotel), (3 = 3 Star hotel), (4 = 4 Star hotel), (5 = 5 Star hotel) and (6 = Non-rated hotel). Figure 4.8 shows frequency distribution of hotel “star ratings” by managers.

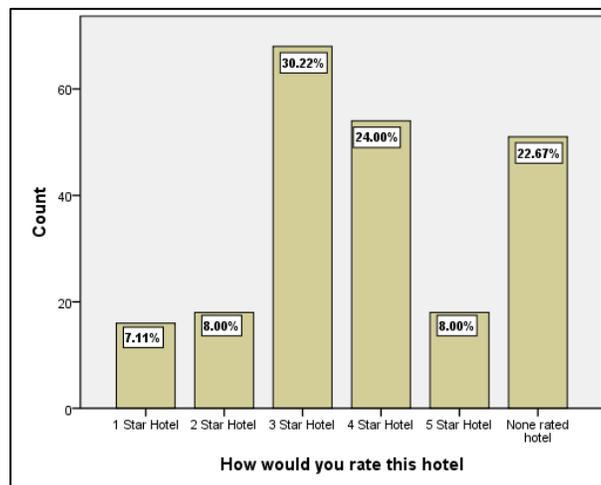


Figure 4:8 Hotel star rating by managers

It can be seen from Figure 4.8 that the majority of the hotels involved in this research were rated, “3 stars” by 30.2% (n = 68) and “4 stars” by 24% (n = 54). Non-rated hotels were 22.7% (n = 51), while “5 star” hotels were only 8% (n = 18) and “1 star” hotels were 7.1 % (n = 16).

Food Importation by Hotels

Table 4:17 Distribution showing hotels importing foods

Does the hotel import food from other countries			
	Hotel Type	Value Label	N
No	1.00 ^a	No	60
	2.00 ^b	No	70
	3.00 ^c	No	28
		Total	158
Yes	1.00 ^a	Yes	7
	2.00 ^b	Yes	14
	3.00 ^c	Yes	44
		Total	65

a. 1 star hotel and non-rated hotels; b. 2 and 3 stars hotel; c. 4 and 5 stars hotel

Respondents were asked: “does the hotel import food from other countries?” Table 4.17 shows the frequency distribution of hotels importing foods from other countries. The descriptive results show that of the total number of respondents (n = 223), the proportion of hotels importing foods from other countries was 29.1% (n = 65), while the proportion of hotels not importing foods from other countries was 70.9 % (n = 158). This means that two-third of the hotels involved in this research do not import foods from

other countries. Further review of the descriptive statistics indicate that 68% (n = 44) of the hotels importing foods were either four or five star hotel. However, the results of this research need to be interpreted with care because some hotel managers do not import food directly in their hotels but they do purchase foods from third parties who in turn import food from other countries.

Food Importing Countries by Tanzanian Hotels

Table 4:18 Frequency distribution of countries where hotels import foods from

Number	Countries	Frequency	Percentage
1	Kenya	40	17.8
2	South Africa	23	10.2
3	Asia	9	4.0
4	USA	1	.4
5	Not Importing	152	67.6
	Total	225	100.0

Respondents were asked: “Which countries do the hotel import food from?” Table 4.18 shows frequency distribution of countries where hotels import foods from. As depicted in Table 4.18, the descriptive results indicates that the majority of the hotels 67.5% (n = 152) do not import foods from other countries. However, those who import, do so mostly from Kenya 17.8% (n = 40), followed by South Africa 10.2% (n = 23). Few hotels indicated that they imported foods from Asia and the USA 4% (n = 9) and 0.4% (n = 1) respectively.

Types of Imported Foods

Respondents were asked to indicate the types of food they imported from other countries. Descriptive results in Table 4.19 shows that the majority of the hotels 68.8 % (n = 154) do not import food. Regarding imported foods, the results indicate that most of the hotels 17.9% (n = 40) import “cheese” and 7.1% (n = 16) import “spices”. However, very few hotels 0.9% (n = 2) imported “fruits” and “fish products”.

Table 4:19 Distribution of types of foods imported by hotels

Number	Types of Foods	Frequency	Percentage
1	None	154	68.8
2	Cheese	40	17.9
3	Spices	16	7.1
4	Others	4	1.8
5	Legumes	3	1.3
6	Meat/beef	3	1.3
7	Fruits	2	0.9
8	Fish	2	0.9
Total		224	100.0

Indicators for Measuring Hotel Managers’ Perception

In relation to the managers’ perceptions of constraints facing local food suppliers, managers were provided with 8 items and were asked to choose the items that constrain or prevent local food suppliers from doing business with their hotels (Table 4.20).

Surprisingly, most respondents scored around the mid-point (neutral) for all items provided in the list. The mean ranged from 3.46 (Local food suppliers do not maintain product consistency) to 3.73 (Local food suppliers lack food safety skills). A careful look at the standard deviation ($SD = 1.73$) shows that there was relatively much variation among managers regarding major constraints.

Respondents were also presented with 5 items with respect to reasons compelling them to import foods in their hotels (Table 4.20). “Locally produced foods exhibits low safety” (mean = 6.12) was by far the most compelling reasons for the majority of the respondents. For the remaining items, there was much variation among respondents.

Respondents were also asked to indicate their perceptions of their willingness to support local food suppliers in their business. 4 items were provided in this category (Table 4.20). “Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers” (mean = 5.95) was the most preferred kind of support by the majority of the respondents with “Sharing information with local food suppliers” (mean = 5.77) as the next most preferred kind of support. “Providing local food suppliers with operating capital/ loans (mean = 5.08) was the least preferred kind of support by many respondents. Respondents were then asked how they would be willing to support local food suppliers. The results in Table 4.20 shows that “Providing training to improve skills of local food suppliers” (mean = 6.01) was the most preferred option by many respondents, with “Sharing information with local food suppliers” (mean = 5.94) as the next most preferred option.

Table 4:20 Indicators for measuring hotel managers' perception

Indicators and Factors	Mean	S.D
F1: Constraints	3.57	1.73
Local food suppliers have low operating capital	3.55	1.75
Local food suppliers lack food quality skills	3.64	1.78
Local food suppliers lack food safety skills	3.73	1.63
Local food suppliers lack entrepreneurship/business skills	3.63	1.68
Local food suppliers do not maintain product consistency	3.46	1.69
Local food suppliers are confronted by product seasonality	3.55	1.78
Local food suppliers exhibit unstable prices	3.55	1.74
Local food suppliers are unreliable	3.66	1.83
F2: Reasons for Importing	4.07	1.75
Locally produced foods exhibit unstable prices	3.48	1.75
Locally produced foods are seasonal	3.63	1.79
Locally produced foods exhibits low quality	3.46	1.72
Locally produced foods exhibits low safety	6.12	0.93
Foods that customers want are unavailability in the local market	3.68	1.85
F3: Willingness to Support	5.62	1.29
Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers	5.95	1.01
Share information with local food suppliers	5.77	1.11
Share resources with local food suppliers	5.69	1.30
Provide local food suppliers with operating capital/ loans	5.08	1.75
F4: Ability to Support	5.72	1.14
Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers	6.01	1.15
Share information with local food suppliers	5.94	0.97
Share resources with local food suppliers	5.67	1.08
Provide local food suppliers with operating capital in terms of loans	5.25	1.34

F1 to F4 measured from (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

Similar to willingness to support, the item “Providing local food suppliers with operating capital in terms of loans (mean = 5.25) was the least item in relation to the managers’ ability to support local food suppliers.

Local Food Suppliers Survey

Response Rate of Local Food Suppliers

A total of 240 local food suppliers completed surveys that were used in the final data analysis, corresponding to a response rate of 79.5%. The high response rate for this part of the study may be attributed to the method of survey administration (i.e. the survey was physically delivered to respondents by the researcher) following a snowball data collection technique. All respondents were notified by telephone before the survey was delivered to them. Similarly, respondents who had not completed the survey were given extra time before the survey was collected. Another factor that influenced the high response rate was that the survey was conducted in either Kiswahili or English. The choice of languages gave respondents flexibility to choose which language to respond to the survey. To facilitate the data collection process, the researcher was assisted by two trained assistants, one in Arusha and the other one in Dar es Salaam.

The response rate summary is presented in Table 4.21. As shown in the table, there are two types of non-response rates, unit non-response rate and item non-response rate. The unit non-response rate (52 cases) was due to refusal from respondents, notably

due to busy schedules of respondents. The busy schedule for local food suppliers can be attributed to the season during which the study was conducted. The survey was conducted in May through August, 2014 which corresponds roughly with the summer high season for tourists in the country. The item non-response rate (10 cases) attributed to the incomplete responses by local food suppliers. Therefore, the response rate was $(240/302)*100$, which is equal to 0.7947 or 79.5%.

Table 4:21 Survey response rate for local food suppliers

Measure	Number of Responses
Total number of survey solicited	302
Unit non-responses	52
Item non-responses	10
Total number of survey non-responses	62
Total number of survey responses	240

Demographic Profiles of Local Food Suppliers

Gender Profiles of Local Food Suppliers

Respondents were asked in the survey to indicate their gender. Figure 4.9 shows frequency distribution of gender of respondents. As indicated in Figure 4.9, the proportion of respondents' gender was not balanced: of the total number of respondents (n = 240), the proportion of males was 89.12% (n = 213) while that of female was 10.88% (n = 26). This suggests that hotel managers prefer male suppliers than females.

This is probably due to the fact that in Tanzania most household duties are performed by females, which limits their flexibility in terms of movement.

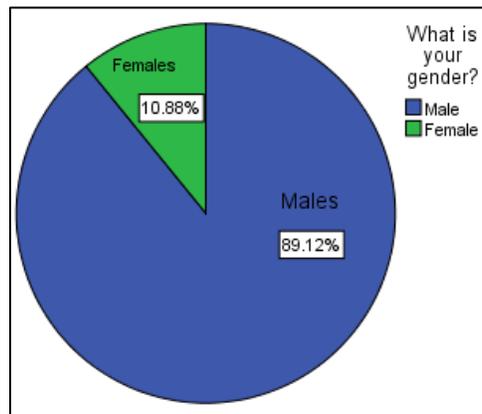


Figure 4:9 Frequency distribution of gender of local food suppliers

Age Profiles for Local Food Suppliers

Respondents were requested to respond to a question that asked “what year were you born in?” The response to this question is summarized in Figure 4.10.

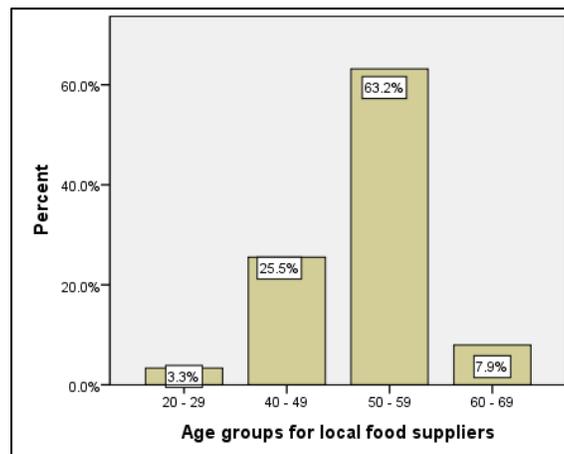


Figure 4:10 Frequency distribution showing age of local food suppliers

As indicated in Figure 4.10, of the total number of survey respondents (n = 239), the majority were in the age-groups of 50-59 by a proportion of 63.2% (n = 151), followed by age-groups of 40-49 by a proportion of 25.5% (n = 61). The respondents with age-groups of 20-29 were the least in the order with a proportion of 3.3 % (n = 8). This suggests that the majority of respondents involved in this research were middle aged people. Surprisingly there were no respondents in the age-groups of 30-39.

Education Profiles for Local Food Suppliers

Table 4:22 Frequency distribution of education level of food suppliers

Number	Education Level	Frequency	Percentage
1	Did Not Complete High School	67	29.9
2	High School/GED	108	48.2
3	Some College	40	17.9
4	Bachelor's Degree	9	4.0
5	Master's Degree	0	0.0
	Total	224	100.0

Respondents were asked about their level of education. The descriptive results in Table 4.22 indicates that close to a half 48.2% (n = 108) of the survey respondents were educated up to high school level. About 29.9% (n = 67) of the survey respondent did not complete high school. While the proportion of the respondents with some college education was 17.9% (n = 40), only 4% (n = 9) reported completing a bachelor degree. Surprisingly, there were not respondents with master's degree in the sample. It can be

concluded from the Table 4.22 that respondents in this survey were less educated with the high school education.

Profit Profile of Local Food Suppliers

Table 4:23 Frequency distribution of the income of local food suppliers

Number	Profit generated	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than \$5,000	8	3.3
2	\$5,000 - \$9,999	10	4.2
3	\$10,000 - \$14,999	14	5.9
4	\$15,000 - \$19,999	21	8.8
5	\$20,000 - \$24,999	30	12.6
6	\$25,000 - \$29,999	47	19.7
7	\$30,000 - \$34,999	39	16.3
8	\$35,000 - \$39,999	34	14.2
9	\$40,000 - \$44,999	23	9.6
10	\$45,000 - \$50,000	8	3.3
11	Above \$50,000	5	2.1
Total		239	100.0

Respondents were asked: “On average, how much profit are you generating per year as a result of supplying local foods to various hotels?” The results to this question are summarized in Table 4.23. The results indicate that majority of the respondents 19.7% (n = 47) gained a profit of about \$25,000 - \$29,999 per year, 16.3% (n = 39) gained about \$30,000 - \$34,999 per year, 14.2 % (n = 34) earned about \$35,000 - \$39,999 per year and 12.6% (n = 30) respondents earned about \$20,000 - \$24,999 per year. While the proportion of respondents gained a profit of less than \$5,000 per year was 3.3% (n = 8), that of respondents gained a profit above \$50,000 per year was only 2.1% (n = 5).

Nationality Profiles of Local Food Suppliers

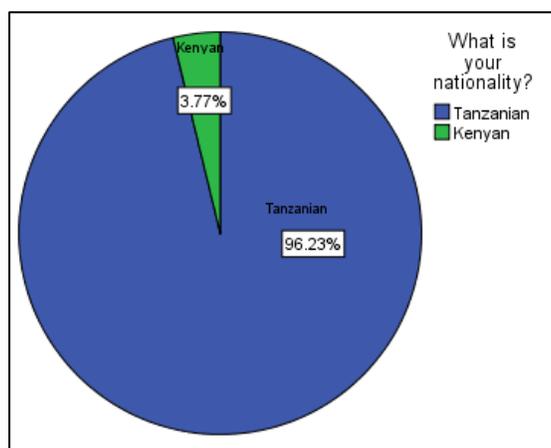


Figure 4:11 Frequency distribution of the nationality of local food suppliers

Respondents were requested to respond to the question that asked “what is your nationality?” Figure 4.11 shows frequency distribution of the nationality of local food suppliers involved in this research. Surprisingly, all respondents were either Tanzanians or Kenyans. Local food suppliers identified themselves as Tanzanians were overwhelmingly the majority with a proportion of 96.23% ($n = 230$), while those who identified themselves as Kenyans were 3.77% ($n = 9$).

Characteristics of Local Food Suppliers

Current Local Food Suppliers

Respondents were asked: “are you currently supplying any locally produced foods in any of the hotels in the Tanzania?” The results to this question are presented in Figure 4.12. As indicated in Figure 4.12, about 97% ($n = 228$) of all respondents indicated that

they are currently supplying locally produced foods to various hotels in the country. On the contrary 3% (n = 7) indicated that they are currently not supplying any locally produced foods to any of the hotels in the country.

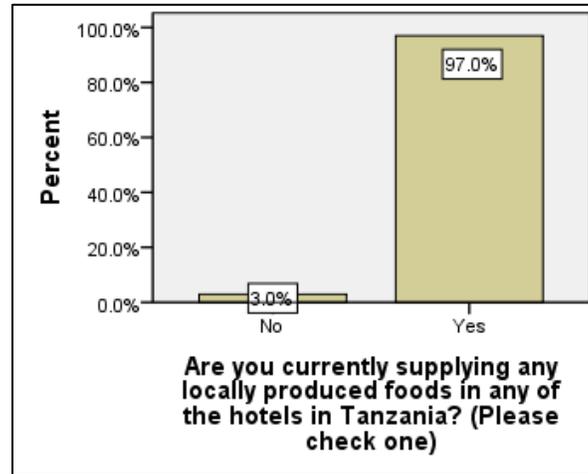


Figure 4:12 Frequency distribution of the status of local food suppliers

Types of Foods Supplied

The researcher was interested in understanding types of locally produced foods that were supplied by local food suppliers to different hotels in the country, thus; the question “what products do you supply?” was included in the survey. Table 4.24 shows that the most frequently supplied foods include milk, eggs and coconuts 6.3% (n = 15) each. Beef and spices constituted the list of the least supplied foods, each with a proportion of 3.8% (n = 9). However, the difference in terms of percentages among the supplied products was relatively small as shown in the table.

Table 4:24 Types of foods supplied by local food suppliers

Number	Types of Foods Supplied	Frequency	Percentage
1	Beef	9	3.8
2	Fish	14	5.9
3	Chicken	13	5.5
4	Milk	15	6.3
5	Cheese	10	4.2
6	Eggs	15	6.3
7	Vegetables	12	5.1
8	Fruits	10	4.2
9	Spices	9	3.8
10	Coconuts	15	6.3
11	Rice	11	4.6
12	Maize and maize flour	13	5.5
13	Beans	10	4.2
14	Cashew-nuts and groundnuts	13	5.5
15	Wheat Flour	13	5.5
16	Potatoes	11	4.6
17	Cooking oil	10	4.2
18	Breads	12	5.1
19	Beverages/drinks	12	5.1
20	Other products	10	4.2
Total		237	100.0

Note: Bolded numbers refer to the most and the least supplied local foods

Local Food Supplier Duration

The researcher was interested in understanding for how long the local food suppliers involved in the research have been doing that business with various hotels, thus, the question that asked: “For how long have you been supplying locally produced foods to hotels?” was included in the survey. The response of that question is summarized in Table 4.25.

Table 4:25 Frequency distribution of local food supplier duration

Number	Duration	Frequency	Percentage
1	Less than a year	49	20.7
2	Between 1 and 2 years	120	50.6
3	Between 3 and 5 years	66	27.8
4	More than 6 years	2	.8
Total		237	100.0

As indicated in Table 4.25, slightly more than a half, 50.6% (n = 120) of all the respondents indicated that they have been supplying local foods to various hotels between 1 and 2 years. While the proportion of those who have been suppliers for less than a year was 20.7% (n = 49), those who have been suppliers for more than 6 years was only 0.8% (n = 2). This indicates that many local food suppliers have not done business with hotels for a long time (mean = 2) i.e. between 1 and 2 years.

Number of Hotels for Each Supplier

Respondents were asked: “how many hotels are you currently supplying locally produced foods?” Table 4.26 summarizes responses of that question. As shown in Table 4.26, the majority of the respondents, 86.9% (n = 206) indicated that they supplied between 1 and 2 hotels. While the proportion of those who supplied 3 hotels was 11% (n = 26), the proportion of those who supplied 4 hotels was only 2.1% (n = 5). On average local food suppliers supplied local foods to 2 hotels as indicated in the table (mean = 1.75).

Table 4:26 Frequency distribution of number of hotels per supplier

Number	Number of Hotels	Frequency	Percentage
1	1 hotel	95	40.1
2	2 hotels	111	46.8
3	3 hotels	26	11.0
4	4 hotels	5	2.1
Total		237	100.0

Indicators for Measuring Local Food Suppliers' Perception

Respondents were presented with 11 items in relation to major constraints or factors that prevent them from doing business with various hotels (Table 4.27). The findings show that, the item “poor road infrastructure (mean = 6.23) was the most important constraint chosen by the majority of the respondents with the item, “locally produced foods exhibit unstable prices” (mean = 6.13) as the next most important chosen constraint. The item “lack of food quality skills” (mean = 5.77) was the least chosen important constraints.

Next, respondents were provided with a list of 11 items representing various solutions to the hypothesized major constraints. The findings show that, the item, “frequent trainings” (mean = 5.48) was the most preferred solution by the majority of the respondents with, items “networking with other local food suppliers” (mean = 5.45) and “networking with farmers” (mean = 5.45) as the next most preferred solutions.

The items “clear product specifications” (mean = 5.18) was the least selected option by majority of the respondents. However, a close look at mean differences between one item and the other shows that there was really no big difference across all items.

Respondents were also asked to indicate their feelings regarding how different hotel managements address their problems. The researcher presented 5 items corresponding to “perception towards hotel management”. The results (Table 4.27) indicate that the item “flexibility in dealing with food suppliers problems” (mean = 4.70) was the most preferred item, implying that the majority of the local food suppliers felt that hotel managements are more flexible in addressing their problems. The second most preferred item was “provision of feedback to food suppliers” (mean = 4.59). Nevertheless, a close look at the mean difference indicates that the difference between one item and the other was small.

Respondents were also provided with 5 items to indicate their perception regarding factors compelling managers to solve their problems, which the researcher thought may be a good indicator of measuring sustainability of local food-tourism linkages. The results indicate that the item “because they want to maximize profit” (mean = 5.36) was the most perceived option by many respondents. Interestingly, the item “because they care about the local community” (mean = 5.18) was chosen as the next most perceived option.

Table 4:27 Indicators for measuring local food suppliers' perception

Indicators and Factors	Mean	S.D
F1: Constraints	5.94	1.17
Lack of storage facilities	5.95	1.17
Locally produced foods are seasonal	5.93	1.15
Hotel requirements are difficult to follow	5.77	1.19
Lack of operating capital	5.86	1.26
lack of business skills	5.73	1.13
Hotels do not provide clear food specifications	5.85	1.34
Hotels do not pay local suppliers in time	6.10	0.99
Lack of food quality skills	5.77	1.23
Poor road infrastructure	6.23	1.12
Locally produced foods exhibit unstable prices	6.13	1.16
Difficulty in maintaining product consistency	6.00	1.17
F2: Solutions	5.34	1.57
Hotel technical support	5.31	1.55
Frequent Trainings	5.48	1.51
Information sharing	5.30	1.66
Networking with other local food suppliers	5.45	1.62
Good road infrastructure	5.43	1.44
Clear product specifications	5.18	1.50
Certification schemes	5.32	1.39
Networking with farmers	5.45	1.65
Easy accessibility of operating Capital	5.25	1.59
Regular meetings with hotel management	5.26	1.77
F3: Perceptions Towards Management	4.54	1.63
Flexibility in dealing with food suppliers problems	4.70	1.62
Provision of feedback to food suppliers	4.59	1.68
Interest in problems solving	4.45	1.68
Providing support	4.40	1.55
Communication with food suppliers	4.54	1.62
F4:Perceptions Towards Sustainability	5.02	1.63
Care about the local community	5.18	1.38
Care about the environment	4.85	1.82
Want to maximize profit	5.36	1.65
Are required to do so by law	5.11	1.62
Meeting demands of their customers	4.90	1.69

F 1 to F4 measured from (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree)

Chapter Summary

This section presents the summary of the descriptive statistics. The response rate for KIA survey was 88%, while the response rate for hotel managers' survey was 73.6% and that of local food suppliers was 79.5%.

With respect to KIA survey, the majority of the respondents 22.1% were in the age-groups of 50-59 years. In terms of education level, about 31.7% of the respondents tended to have a Bachelor degree. In terms of gender, the percentage of male respondents was 52.9%, slightly higher than female. The average income was found to be \$85,999. The respondents from USA topped the list, representing 21% of the sample. The average number of days spent in the country by respondents was about 10 days. Similarly, 63.8% of the respondents booked their trip as a packaged tour. In terms of travelling in groups, majority of the respondents 42.1% indicated that they travelled in groups of two people in which case 60.4% of them, travelled in groups that involved families. About half 49.2% of the respondents indicated that "Safari vacation" was the main purpose of their trip. About one third of the survey respondents indicated that they heard about Tanzania from their friends. Interestingly, 80% of the respondents indicated that Tanzania was their primary destination.

With respect to the hotel managers' survey, the findings show that the overwhelmingly majority were males with a proportion of 74.2%. On average, respondents were about 45 years of age. Respondents with college education through master's degree constituted 92.9% of the sample. 82.7% of the respondents were Tanzanians. 84.9% of the respondents indicated that they use local food suppliers in their hotels. 20.4% indicated that they have between 2 and 5 local food suppliers. 30.2% of the hotels were rated as "3 stars" hotels. The proportion of hotels importing foods from other countries was 29.1%. About 68% of the hotels importing foods are either four or five star hotel. Managers, who import foods, do so mostly from Kenya in which the proportion was only 17.8% out of the total respondents. Cheese and spices topped the list of most frequently imported foods with 17.9% and 7.1% respectively.

With respect to local food supplier' survey, males constituted the majority of the respondents with a proportion of 89.12%. On average, respondents were 47 years old. The majority of the respondents were less educated with 48.2% of the respondents been educated only up to high school level. In relation to income, local food suppliers tended to earn about \$25,000 on average per year. Regarding nationality, suppliers identified themselves as Tanzanians were overwhelmingly the majority with a proportion of 96.23%. The top list of locally supplied foods includes; milk, eggs and coconuts, each with a proportion of 6.3%. Interestingly, 50.6% of all local food suppliers indicated that they have been supplying local foods to various hotels between 1 and 2 years only, implying that many local food suppliers do not do or stay in the business with hotels for a

long time. However, the majority of the respondents, 86.9% indicated that they supply between 1 and 2 hotels.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF THE INFERENTIAL RESULTS

This chapter presents inferential results of this research. Inferential statistic normally makes predictions or inferences about the population using data drawn from the population, i.e. the researcher takes the results of an analysis using a sample and generalizes it to the larger population that the sample represents. By using inferential statistics the researcher reaches conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data alone. In this research, various inferential statistics will be used as tests of significance. These tests include; T-test, Chi-square, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and regression analysis. Similarly, multivariate analysis such as factor analysis employing Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS 6.2 for Windows will also be used. In order to do this, however, it is imperative that the sample is representative of the group to which it is being generalized. Similarly, it is important to make sure that the research data are normally distributed. One way of attaining normality is through data screening. The next section explains data screening procedure used in this research.

Data Screening

Data screening was performed using SPSS 18 software. A flow diagram for data screening appears in Figure 5.1.

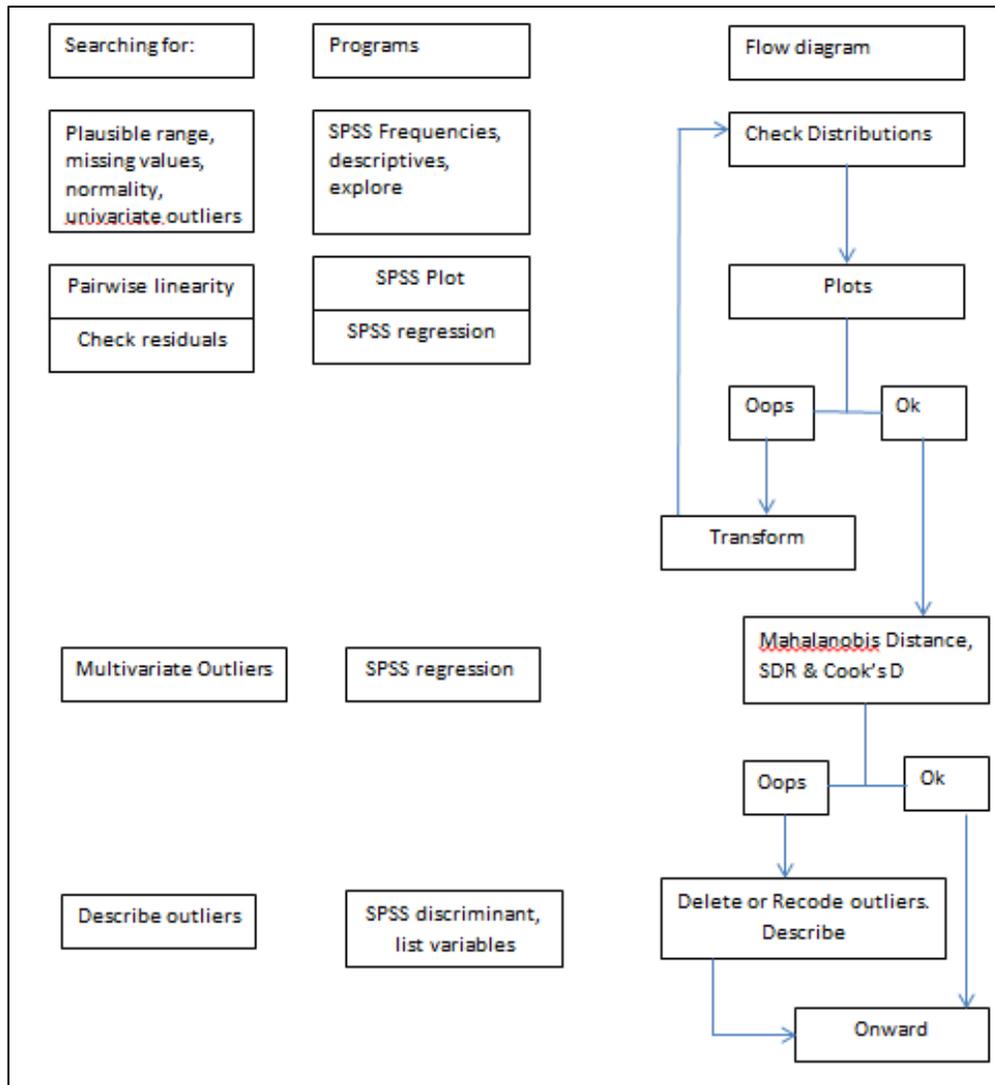


Figure 5:1 A Flow diagram for screening ungrouped data
Adapted from Tabachnick & Fidell (2001)

The direction of flow shows procedures used in this research to screen data with the intention of attaining normality. In some cases data transformation was undertaken to attain normality. When transformation of data was not necessary, other procedures for handling outliers were used as indicated in the flow diagram. Transformation of data is preferred in statistical analyses because of its tendency to reduce the number of outliers,

produce normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity among the variables. It therefore, brings the data into conformity with one of the fundamental assumptions of most inferential tests (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001:92).

Accuracy of Input, Missing Data, Distributions, and Multivariate Outliers: KIA Survey

The accuracy of data entry, missing data, skewness, and kurtosis for Kilimanjaro International Airport (KIA) survey was done through SPSS FREQUENCIES. The minimum and maximum values, means, and standard deviations for each of the variables were inspected for plausibility. The results showed that there were few mistakes in data entry for some variables. For instance, number “55” was erroneously entered instead of entering number “5” in some of the variables. However, in general data entry was done correctly for most variables. For instance, the minimum score for the variable “Use of unfamiliar ingredients” is 1 and the maximum score is 7. These values were found to be accurate because the study employed a 7 point Likert scale. The mean for that variable is 2.33 and the standard deviation (std. Deviation) is 1.23. These values are all reasonable as are the values on the other variables where a 7 point Likert scale is used. The variable “was Tanzania the primary destination?” was a binary variable measured by “YES” (1) and “NO” (2), so it was reassuring to find 1 and 2 as the maximum and minimum values. The mean for the variable is 1.2173 and the standard deviation (std. Deviation) is 0.41. All variables with high values of skewness and kurtosis were transformed prior to analysis.

The literature shows that lack of symmetry (skewness) and pointiness (kurtosis) are two main ways in which a distribution can deviate from normal and that the values for these parameters should be zero in a normal distribution (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012). Literature shows further that an absolute value of the score greater than 1.96 or lesser than -1.96 is significant at $P < 0.05$, while greater than 2.58 or less than -2.58 is significant at $P < 0.01$, and greater than 3.29 or lesser than -3.29 is significant at $P < 0.001$ (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Field (2009:822) recommends that in small samples, a value greater or less than 1.96 is sufficient to establish normality of the data. However, in large samples (200 or more) with small standard errors, this criterion should be changed to • to 2.58 and in very large samples no criterion should be applied (that is, significance tests of skewness and kurtosis should not be used)

Missing Values Analysis

Occurrence of missing data is a common phenomenon in a survey (Williams, 2003). In general, missing data arises when no data are entered for the variable by the research respondents or by the researcher during data entering process. With respect to research respondents, missing data can arise due to non-response in which case no information is provided for several items or no information is provided for a whole unit. Researchers can opt to exclude all cases with missing values. However, doing so may cause a researcher to lose some of the vital information in the research. Studies indicate that there are several techniques that can be used by the researcher to deal with missing

values. However, if care is not taken, these techniques may lead into bias, inefficiency, reduced power and misleading conclusions (Cohen et al., 2003).

There are three mechanisms of missing data in a survey namely; Missing Completely at Random (MCAR), missing at Random (MAR) and Missing Not at Random (MNAR). MCAR occurs when missing values are randomly distributed across all observations (i.e. missing values on dependent variable “Y” are unrelated to values on dependent variable “Y” and independent variable “X”). MAR occurs when missing values are not randomly distributed across all observations but are randomly distributed within one or more subsamples in a survey (i.e. missing values on dependent variable “Y” are unrelated to values on dependent variable “Y” but related to values on independent variable “X”). MNAR on the other hand occurs when missing values are not randomly distributed across observations, but the probability of missingness cannot be predicted from the variables in the model (Allison, 2002; Fichman & Cummings, 2003). MCAR mechanism can be verified by using SPSS Missing Value Analysis (MVA) option under Little’s MCAR test which essentially is based on Chi-square test. Test of MCAR is test of missing values on dependent variable “Y” related to independent variable “X”. If non-significant ($p\text{-value} > 0.05$) then missing data assumed MCAR, if significant ($p\text{-value} < 0.05$), missing data may be MAR. Fichman & Cummings (2003) suggest that if data are MCAR then the researcher may choose listwise or pairwise deletion of data. If data are not MCAR, then missing values should be imputed. Fichman & Cummings

(2003) identify and classify frequently used methods for dealing with missing data into several categories.

1. Complete case analysis - listwise deletion
2. Available case analysis - pairwise deletion
3. Unconditional mean imputation
4. Conditional mean imputation, usually using least squares regression
5. Maximum likelihood
6. MI (multiple imputations)

According to Fichman & Cummings (2003) most of these methods assume missing values are MCAR and therefore, are inefficient since they lead into biased results. In more recent years, MI and Expectation maximization (EM) have become more attractive procedures for dealing with missing data imputation issues due to consideration of uncertainties in the analysis. In methods such as mean imputation or regression imputation, researchers do not consider imputation uncertainty. The MI and EM methods replace each missing value with a set of plausible values that represent the uncertainty about the right value to impute (Rubin, 1987). MI and EM provide a more general purpose solution to the problem of missing data (Collins, Schafer & Kam, 2001).

In the present study, the missing data problem was evident in some variables. The missing values analysis (MVA) procedure was performed by using SPSS to determine the pattern of missingness. Correspondingly, Little's MCAR test was requested in addition to assessing the pattern of missingness. The results revealed that the pattern of missingness was "MAR" as indicated by Little's MCAR test: Chi-Square = 4155.986, DF = 1835, $p < 0.05$. Similarly, the MVA output showed that "there are no variables with 5% or more missing values and therefore t-test table was not produced". These two results confirm that the missingness pattern was indeed "MAR" warranting imputation.

The present study employed EM method because such a method is relatively easy to use and is considered by many researchers to optimize the outcomes and is also associated with unbiased standard errors (Cohen et al., 2003; Fichman & Cummings, 2003). Similarly, Schafer & Graham (2002) pointed out that when MAR assumption is met, both MI and EM are appropriate ways of dealing with missing data. EM is a maximum likelihood approach that is used to create a new data set in which all missing values are imputed with maximum likelihood values. This approach is based on the observed relationships among all the variables and injects a degree of random error to reflect uncertainty of imputation (Acock, 2005). EM requires that data has to be "Missing at Random" (MAR). For data to be "MAR" the P-value in T-test should be less than 0.05.

In relation to dichotomous variables, the normality of all dichotomous variables was checked by using their split patterns. It was found that all variables were split in a

ration less than 10:1, which is a critical value for splitting dichotomous variables as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001:96).

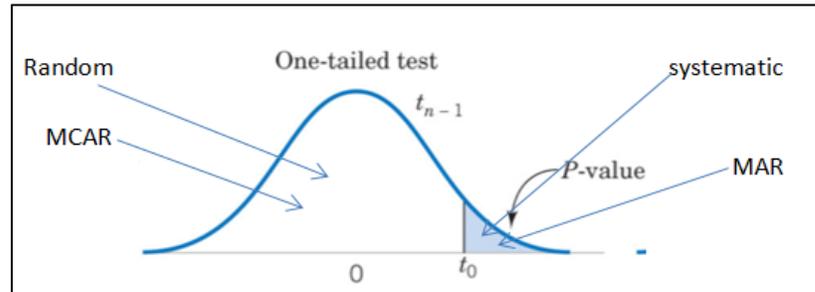


Figure 5:2 T-test showing MCAR and MAR

Transformation of Data

As suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001:96) all skewed variables were transformed prior to searching for multivariate outliers. A logarithmic transformation technique was applied to transform highly skewed data. For positively skewed data, a direct Log10 transformation was applied to the data using SPSS (transform, compute variable, target variable name, Log10 [variable name], execute). Similarly, the negatively skewed variables were transformed by using “reflection log10” technique in SPSS (transform, compute variable, target variable name, log10(X-skewed variable), where X is the maximum observed value of that variable plus 1. The syntax below shows how transformation was done.

```
COMPUTE Traveltourism3RLog10=LG10 (8-Traveltourism3).
EXECUTE.
COMPUTE Traveltourism4RLog10=LG10 (8-Traveltourism4).
```

```
EXECUTE.  
FREQUENCIES VARIABLES=Traveltourism3RLog10 Traveltourism4RLog10  
/STATISTICS=STDDEV VARIANCE MINIMUM MAXIMUM MEAN SKEWNESS  
SESKEW KURTOSIS SEKURT  
/HISTOGRAM NORMAL  
/ORDER=ANALYSIS.
```

Detecting Multivariate Outliers

The researcher screened 523 cases for multivariate outliers through SPSS REGRESSION using the RESIDUALS = OUTLIERS (MAH, COOK'S D and SDR) syntax added to menu choices. Case labels (ID) was used as the dummy DV, convenient because multivariate outliers among IVs are unaffected by the DV. The remaining VARIABLES were considered independent variables as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001:99).

Three criteria were used for evaluating multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis (MAH) distance at $p < .001$, Studentized Deleted Residual (SDR) with a critical value of ± 3 and COOK'S D with a critical value of 1. Note that, SDR and COOK'S D are normally meaningful when a particular criterion variable is used. Mahalanobis (MAH) distance was evaluated as a Chi-square with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables. The number of variables used in this case was 47. Any case with a Mahalanobis (MAH) distance greater than Chi-square (47) = 82.7204 was considered to be a multivariate outlier. Cases number 250,293 and 457 in SPSS corresponding with survey ID number 521, 522 and 523 were identified as multivariate outliers among the tested variables.

Basing on three criteria mentioned above (MAH, SDR, COOK'S D), these three cases (case 250,293 and 457) were then deleted from further analysis leading to 520 cases remaining for further analysis. Some few cases were a little bit higher than the critical values of (MAH) 82.7204. However, visual examination of the histogram indicated that these cases were not particularly disconnected from the remaining cases as shown in Appendix A1.

A check on accuracy of data entry, missing data, kurtosis, skewness and multivariate outliers for hotel managers and local food suppliers' data was done using the same procedures as explained in KIA survey section. The analysis showed that both data sets were okay for further analysis as shown in Appendix A2 and A3.

The Hypothesized Research Model for KIA Survey

Exploratory Factor Analysis

All items were derived from the literature since the researcher of the current study had no prior information regarding the number of factors and the corresponding items which are appropriate for measuring tourists' perception of local foods. Therefore, it was important to conduct Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to get the first impression regarding the number of factors and the corresponding items based on how well each item load on the respective factor (cf. Byrne, 2006, P.382). The EFA was conducted using SPSS for Windows.

The process of determining the number of factors to extract followed appropriate EFA procedure recommended by several scholars (e.g. Byrne, 2006; Comrey & Lee, 1992; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). Such procedures involved,

1. Running the Parallel analysis by Changing “ncases” to “520” and “nvars” to 47
2. Running the Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to determine random eigenvalues
3. Comparing the observed values between the Parallel analysis and PCA (random)
4. Determining the number of factors by comparing random vs observed eigenvalues
5. Running Principal Axis with promax rotation

Scree Test:

In this test, eigenvalues were computed (amount of variance accounted for by the factor) and plotted in descending order. This test provided the researcher with an opportunity to visualize a substantial drop between components. The scree plot (Figure 5.3) suggests that the research data had 6 Factors.

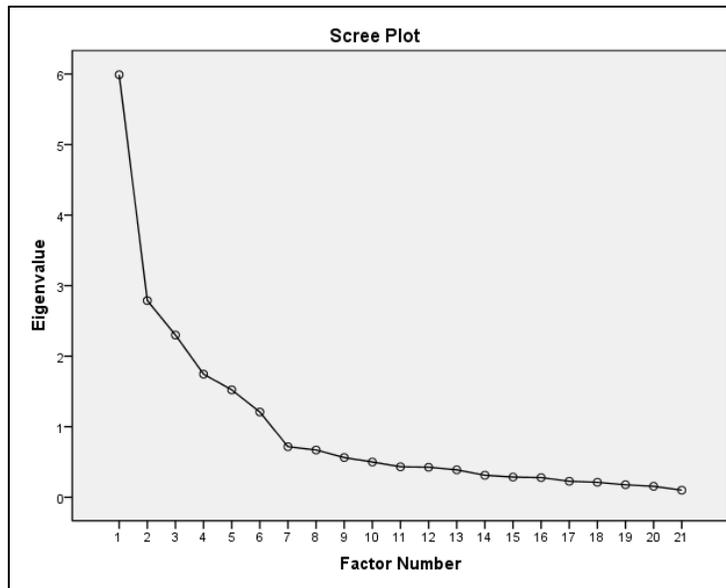


Figure 5:3 Scree plot

Parallel Analysis:

The parallel analysis compares the observed variance with a random analysis of 1000 datasets with similar characteristics to the sample. Both analyses were run using principal components analysis to obtain eigenvalues for comparison. The factor is counted whenever the observed eigenvalues > Random eigenvalues indicated (i.e. Keep those factors that have observed eigenvalues greater than eigenvalues from corresponding factors in random data). Parallel analysis is not available through the menus in SPSS; therefore, a syntax file with special commands was used. Based on the parallel analysis the researcher obtained 8 factors because 1.314 (root 9) > 1.278 (component 9) as indicated in Figure 5.4

Total Variance Explained								
Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Random Data Eigenvalues		
Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Root	Means	Prcntyle
9.712	20.664	20.664	9.712	20.664	20.664	1.000000	1.630182	1.696321
4.794	10.199	30.863	4.794	10.199	30.863	2.000000	1.566915	1.615983
2.888	6.144	37.008	2.888	6.144	37.008	3.000000	1.517904	1.558138
2.667	5.674	42.682	2.667	5.674	42.682	4.000000	1.477690	1.516419
2.168	4.613	47.295	2.168	4.613	47.295	5.000000	1.439515	1.471162
2.033	4.325	51.62	2.033	4.325	51.62	6.000000	1.405417	1.435349
1.682	3.579	55.199	1.682	3.579	55.199	7.000000	1.372958	1.400935
1.4	2.979	58.178	1.4	2.979	58.178	8.000000	1.342735	1.370452
1.278	2.719	60.897	1.278	2.719	60.897	9.000000	1.314511	1.340947
1.223	2.601	63.498	1.223	2.601	63.498	10.000000	1.287062	1.312564
1.117	2.376	65.875	1.117	2.376	65.875	11.000000	1.260073	1.284258
1.081	2.301	68.176	1.081	2.301	68.176	12.000000	1.233817	1.256799
1.02	2.169	70.345	1.02	2.169	70.345	13.000000	1.208704	1.232176
0.934	1.988	72.333				14.000000	1.185468	1.207634
0.889	1.892	74.225				15.000000	1.161773	1.183345
0.862	1.833	76.058				16.000000	1.139467	1.160995
0.825	1.756	77.814				17.000000	1.116533	1.137335
0.792	1.685	79.499				18.000000	1.094238	1.114968
0.726	1.545	81.044				19.000000	1.073088	1.092392
						20.000000	1.051590	1.070582

Figure 5:4 Parallel Analysis

Obtaining the Factor Solution Using an Appropriate Extraction and Rotation

Methods

The previous analysis based on principal components analysis, which analyzed all the variance (common and error) associated with a factor. So it was necessary to run the model again with a different type of extraction that conducts the analysis based on only common variance. However, it was a bit hard to interpret this “unrotated” version of the factor analysis, so the researcher went back in and rotated the solution to increase

interpretability. The researcher used the “Promax” method, because this method allows the factors to correlate with each other.

The Pattern matrix illustrated that there were 7 dominant factors showing higher explanatory power (with loadings above 0.7). As a researcher, it was wise to take into account the number of factors suggested by the parallel analysis, scree plot and EFA, though the number of factors suggested by the scree plot is somehow very subjective, due to flawed procedure that considers using all factors with eigenvalue greater than 1. However, the Pattern matrix table indicated that there were some items with cross loading, failed to load well on any factor and have loadings below 0.3. At this point a factor loading of 0.3 was used as a cut point. Therefore, the researcher considered all items with a factor loading of above 0.3 as good items.

After running the model with 7 factors specified it was realized that the 7 factors extracted accounted for 49.344% of the variance in the solution. Similarly, the results showed that there were about 6 items that showed cross loading, failed to load well on any factor and have loadings below 0.3. Similarly, the Total Variance Explained table indicated that the 7th factor only contributed 2.11% of the total variance which is very insignificant. Therefore, the analysis was run again to see if perhaps an 8th factor would improve the simple structure.

After running the model with 8 factors specified, it was realized that there were still about 8 items that showed cross loading, failed to load well on any factor and have loadings below 0.3. Similarly, looking at Total Variance Explained, it was realized that the 8th factor only contributed about 1.5% of the total variance which is very insignificant. Therefore, the researcher decided to run the model again with 6 factors specified to determine any significant changes.

After running the model with 6 factors specified, it was realized that there were still about 8 items that showed cross loading, failed to load well on any factor and have loadings below 0.3. However, looking at the Total Variance Explained, it was clear that the 6th factor contributed about 5.442% of the total variance which is substantial. Therefore, the researcher concluded that a 6 factor solution is more reasonable than 7 and 8 factors solution.

After running the model with 6 factors specified (Appendix B1), and removing all bad items it was realized that there were no anymore items with cross loading, failed to load well on any factor and have loadings below 0.3. Looking at the Total Variance Explained table (Appendix B2), the reader can see that the 6th factor contributed about 6.618 % of the total variance which is very significant. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the 6 factors solution was more reasonable than 7 and 8 factors solution.

Table 5:1 Factor correlation matrix for KIA survey

Factor	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000	.501	.234	.403	-.063	.065
2	.501	1.000	.113	.202	.009	.062
3	.234	.113	1.000	.286	.193	.261
4	.403	.202	.286	1.000	.081	.098
5	-.063	.009	.193	.081	1.000	.165
6	.065	.062	.261	.098	.165	1.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization

Factor correlation matrix (Table 5.1) demonstrates that factors 1 and 2 as well as 1 and 4 are strongly correlated at level 0.501 and 0.403 respectively. The results imply that there may be a better structure for the data. This shows that EFA is a subjective test and therefore, it was necessary for the researcher to proceed to the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to confirm the factors explored using EFA.

Conceptual Research Model for KIA Survey

The final conceptual research model for KIA survey consists of 11 dimensions. The rationale behind this model is that, previous studies on visitors' perception have demonstrated that the overall image is predicted by perceptual/cognitive evaluation and affective evaluation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999). Perceptual or cognitive evaluation refers to beliefs and knowledge about an object whereas affective evaluation refers to feelings about it (Baloglu & Brinberg, 1997; Gartner, 1993). Some studies have also established that affective evaluation depends on the cognitive evaluation of objects and

that the affective responses are formed as a function of the cognitive ones (Gartner, 1993; Stern & Krakover, 1993). Many studies about cognitive and affective evaluation are based on the “image theory” which suggests that the world is a psychological or distorted representation of objective reality residing and existing in the mind of the individual (Myers, 1968). Some scholars have defined image as a set of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that people have of a place or destination (Crompton, 1979; Kotler et al., 1993). Following the image theory, the researcher of the current study postulates that the overall image/perception about local foods (Factor 11) is predicted by perceptual/cognitive evaluation (Factors 1 to 6) and affective evaluations (Factors 7 to 10). It is also postulated that factors 7 to 10 (affective evaluations) are formed as a function of factors 1 to 6 (cognitive /perceptual evaluations). The next section focuses on the confirmatory factors analysis for the identified factors above.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) refers to a special form of analysis used in social research to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher’s understanding of the nature of that construct. Therefore, before proceeding with the final analysis, it was important for the researcher to confirm all the factors in the hypothesized research model.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Factors 1 to 6 (Cognitive evaluations)

The EFA conducted earlier indicated that all 21 items are best described by a 6 factors structure. The researcher then proceeded to test for the validity of a 6 factors structure that included all items using CFA. Similar to Byrne (2006:386), the researcher started the analysis based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Equally, only correlations between factor 1 and 2 as well as between factor 1 and 4 were specified; correlations involving other factors were left to be determined. Likewise, the researcher wanted to know how all factors are correlated so, PFF (covariance between two factors) was specified in the model along with that of PEE (covariance between two error terms) in the SET command for the LM test. The PFF specification represents a phi matrix and as such requests modification indexes bearing on any omitted factor correlations (Byrne, 2006).

Review of the descriptive statistics after running the model showed that there was some evidence of univariate skewness and kurtosis. The normalized estimate of mardia's multivariate kurtosis was way far from the recommended value, suggesting deviation of data from normality. However, since (ML, ROBUST) was specified in the model, the non-normality of data was likely not to be a problem. Review of the goodness of fit statistics in Table 5.2 (initial model column) as related to this initial CFA model showed that it was relatively well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.939; CFI = 0.958; SRMR = 0.080; RMSEA = 0.064). However, the LM test statistics (Lagrange Multiplier Test) revealed a

substantial misspecification in the model with reference to error covariances E44 and E45. With an LM Test χ^2 value of 105 compared to the remaining univariate incremental values, it was clear that the model required re-specification that involved these parameters.

Table 5:2 Initial and final CFA model: Cognitive evaluations

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML		
CHI-SQUARE	633.760	553.397
Degree of Freedom	204	198
P Value for the Chi-Square	.00000	.00000
<u>FIT INDICES</u>		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index	.939	.947
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index	.952	.959
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.958	.965
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR)	.131	.094
Standardized RMR	.080	.056
Root Mean-Square Error of Approx. (RMSEA)	.064	.059
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	.058-.069)	.053-.065

The error covariance “E44” corresponds with the item “local foods may contribute to climate change” while the error covariance “E45” corresponds with the item “local foods may contribute to environmental pollution”. The content of these two items appears to reflect the same construct therefore, the researcher concluded that specification of an error covariance between these two items was substantive reasonable.

The model was re-specified accordingly and the review of goodness of fit in Table 5.2 (final model column) as related to the final CFA model indicated that the model

was very well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.947; CFI = 0.965; SRMR = 0.056; RMSEA = 0.059). Likewise, the LM Test statistics revealed no more substantial misspecification in the model. Correspondingly, further review indicated that all factor correlations were statistically significant (Table 5.3). The final CFA model for cognitive evaluations is presented in Figure 5.5.

Table 5:3 CFA model for cognitive evaluation:

Unstandardized and standardized factor covariances

COVARIANCES AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

STATISTICS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 5% LEVEL ARE MARKED WITH @.

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	.180*I
I F1 - F1	.041 I
I	4.381@I
I	(.034)I
I	(5.251@I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.297*I
I F1 - F1	.035 I
I	8.508@I
I	(.042)I
I	(7.036@I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.285*I
I F1 - F1	.044 I
I	6.493@I
I	(.045)I
I	(6.366@I
I	I
I F5 - F5	-.097*I
I F1 - F1	.038 I
I	-2.570@I
I	(.040)I
I	(-2.411@I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.117*I
I F2 - F2	.037 I
I	3.139@I
I	(.031)I
I	(3.769@I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.411*I
I F2 - F2	.063 I
I	6.545@I
I	(.082)I

I	(5.000@I
I	I
I F5 - F5	.247*I
I F2 - F2	.055 I
I	4.511@I
I	(.067)I
I	(3.690@I
I	I
I F6 - F6	.197*I
I F2 - F2	.059 I
I	3.332@I
I	(.073)I
I	(2.702@I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.133*I
I F3 - F3	.036 I
I	3.710@I
I	(.029)I
I	(4.622@I
I	I
I F6 - F6	.192*I
I F5 - F5	.074 I
I	2.599@I
I	(.083)I
I	(2.301@I
I	I

CORRELATIONS AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	.247*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.478*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.396*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F5 - F5	-.103*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.153*I
I F2 - F2	I

I	I
IF4 - F4	.467*I
IF2 - F2	I
I	I
IF5 - F5	.214*I
IF2 - F2	I
I	I
IF6 - F6	.152*I
IF2 - F2	I
I	I
IF4 - F4	.177*I
IF3 - F3	I
I	I
IF6 - F6	.115*I
IF5 - F5	I

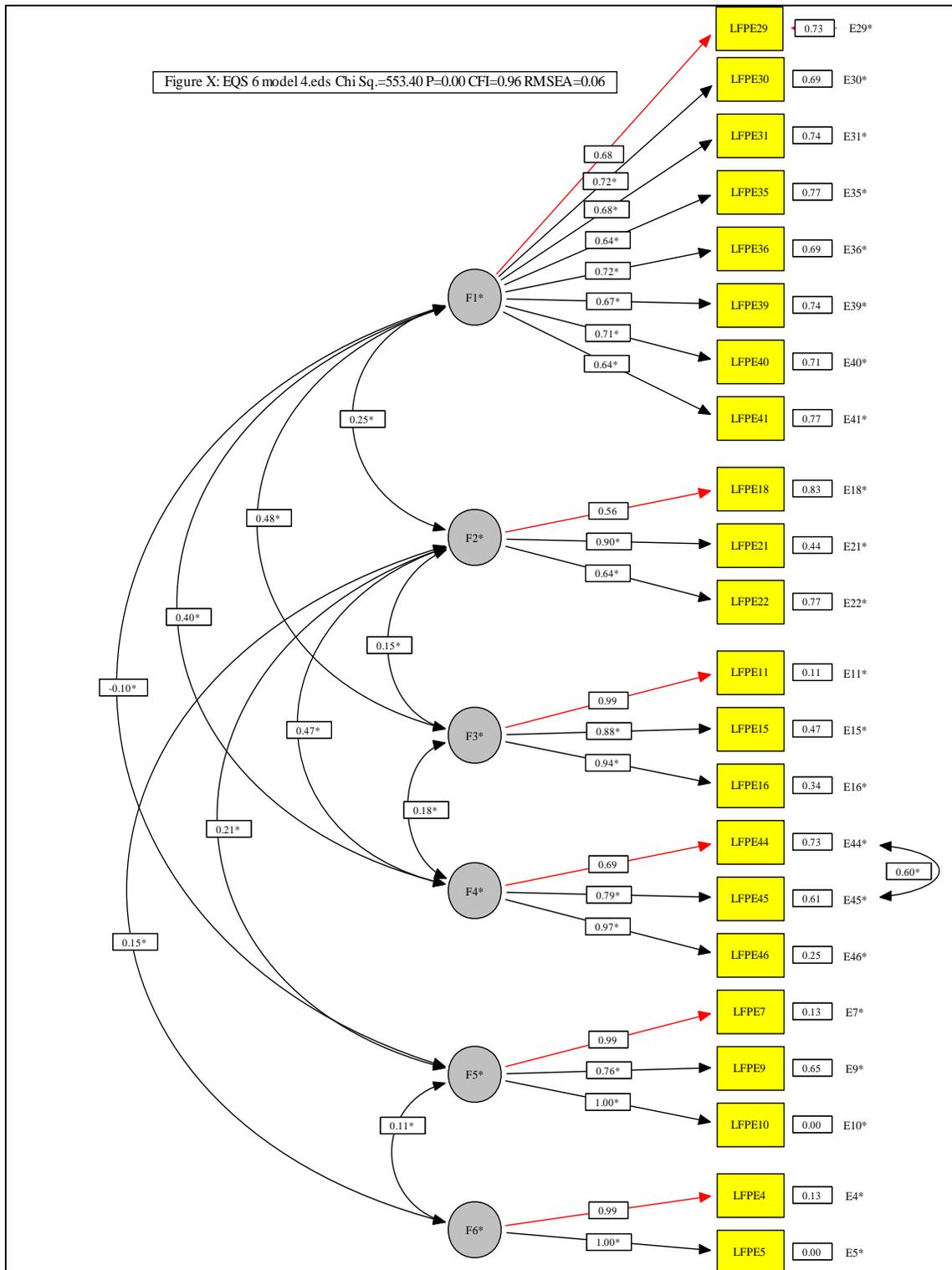


Figure 5:5 CFA model for (Factor 1 to 6) cognitive evaluation

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Factor 7 (Food source/origin)

The researcher was interested in understanding what food production factors respondents considered to be important when they purchase local foods (i.e. how important the local food production environment was to the respondents). Respondents were then presented with 8 items that were constructed following a thorough literature search. Respondents were asked to indicate how important each item was for them when it comes in to local foods consumption during their trip. The responses were measured in a 7 point Likert scale with (1 = Not extremely important) to (7 = extremely important).

The researcher started the analysis based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Since the researcher hypothesized only one factor, there was no need to specify PFF in the model, instead only PEE in the SET command was specified since this specification allows the researcher to know which error covariances are related in the model (Byrne, 2006).

Review of the goodness of fit statistics related to the initial CFA model (Table 5.4) indicated that the model was very well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.904; CFI = 0.960; SRMR = 0.038; RMSEA = 0.050). The LM test statistics indicated that E51 and E49 needed to be respecified. However, since the model was already well fitting, this option was not implemented to overcome the risk of overparametarizig the model as suggested by Byrne (2006:389).

Table 5:4 CFA model for Factor 7 (Food source/Origin)

Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML		
Chi-Square =	46.152 Based On	20 Degrees Of Freedom
Probability Value For The Chi-Square Statistic Is	0.00077	
Fit Indices		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index =		0.904
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index =		0.919
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =		0.960
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR) =		0.065
Standardized RMR =		0.038
Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (Rmsea) =		0.050
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	(0.031,	0.069)

When the standardized solution estimates was checked, it was revealed that four items out of 8 items; IMPORT1 (How local food was harvested), IMPORT2 (How local food was prepared), IMPORT3 (How local food was transported) and IMPORT7 (Is a local food producer certified) loaded very low (below 0.56) and the researcher decided to remove them from further analysis as indicated in Figure 5.6.

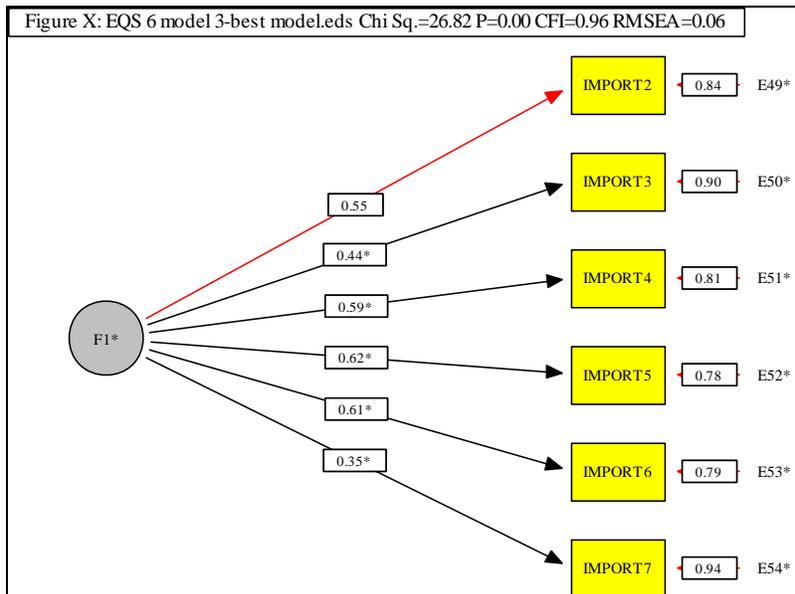


Figure 5:6 CFA model for Factor 7 (Food source/origin)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Factor 8 (Confidence)

The researcher was also interested in understanding the level of tourists' confidence with the local food production system in Tanzania. Specifically, respondents were asked to respond to the following sentence "Please indicate your level of confidence in local food production system when deciding to purchase local foods in this destination". Respondents were then presented with 10 items generated from the literature. The responses were collected in a 7 point Likert scale with (1 = extremely unconfident) to (7 = extremely confident).

The researcher started the analysis with the robust statistics specified (ML, ROBUST). The researcher postulated only one factor, thus, there was no need to specify

PFF in the model, and instead only PEE in the SET command was specified since this specification allows the researcher to know which error covariances are related in the model (Byrne, 2006).

Review of the goodness of fit statistics of this initial CFA model (Table 5.5) showed that the model was relatively well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.906; CFI = 0.911; SRMR = 0.049; RMSEA = 0.164). Further review on the LM test statistics, revealed that there was a considerable misspecification regarding covariance of parameter E62, E57. With an LM test χ^2 values of 264.439 compared to the remaining univariate incremental values, it was apparent that the model required respecification that included the estimation of the above parameters.

Table 5:5 Initial and final CFA model for Factor 8 (Confidence)

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML		
CHI-SQUARE	522.240	171.734
Degree of Freedom	35	34
P Value for the Chi-Square	.00000	.00000
<u>FIT INDICES</u>		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index	.906	.969
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index	.886	.967
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.911	.975
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR)	.155	.098
Standardized RMR	.049	.033
Root Mean-Square Error of Approx. RMSEA)	.164	.050
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	.151-.176)	.043-.065

A close look at items corresponding to parameters “E57” (transported hygienically) and “E62” (produced by knowledgeable workers) suggests that the wording of these items might have referred to the same construct in eyes of the respondents and this explains why the two items share extra variance beyond the factor.

The model was respecified accordingly, and the review of the goodness of fit statistics revealed that the model was now very well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.969; CFI = 0.975; SRMR = 0.034; RMSEA = 0.050). The LM test statistics revealed no more major misspecifications in the final model. Figure 5.7 displays the graphic view of the final model.

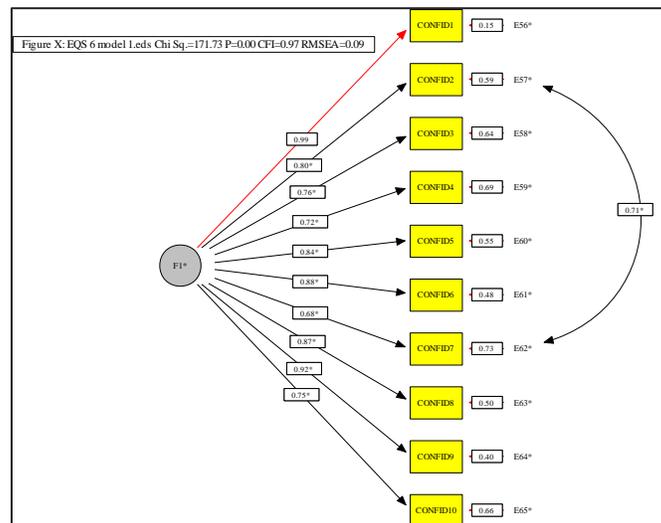


Figure 5:7 CFA model for Factor 8(Confidence)

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for factor 9 and 10 (Intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes)

The researcher was also concerned with respondents' perception about quality and safety of local foods in Tanzania. Respondents were then presented with 8 items that were constructed following a thorough literature search on food quality and safety. In relation to this, respondents were asked to indicate their views on these items based on a 7 point Likert scale with (1 = strongly disagree) to (7 = strongly agree).

Table 5:6 Hypothesized CFA model for Factor 9 and 10

Goodness of Fit Summary For Method = ML	
Chi-Square =	46.105 Based on 19 Degrees of Freedom
Probability Value For The Chi-Square Statistic Is	0.00048
<u>Fit Indices</u>	
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index =	0.990
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index =	0.991
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) =	0.994
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR) =	0.043
Standardized RMR =	0.038
Root Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) =	0.052
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA (0.033, 0.072)

As in the other factors above, the researcher started the analysis based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Since the researcher postulated two factors (safety and quality), PFF and PEE functions in the SET command were specified since this specification allows the researcher to know which parameters are related in the model (Byrne, 2006). Review of the goodness of fit statistics related to the initial CFA

model (Table 5.6) indicated that the model was very well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.990; CFI = 0.994; SRMR = 0.038; RMSEA = 0.052). The LM test statistics indicated that the parameters E70 and E68 needed to be respecified. However, since the model was already well fitting, the model respecification was not implemented as suggested by LM test statistics to overcome the risk of overparameterizing the model (consideration of parsimony). Figure 5.8 displays the graphic presentation of the final model. The correlation between the two factors was found to be statistically significant (Table 5.7)

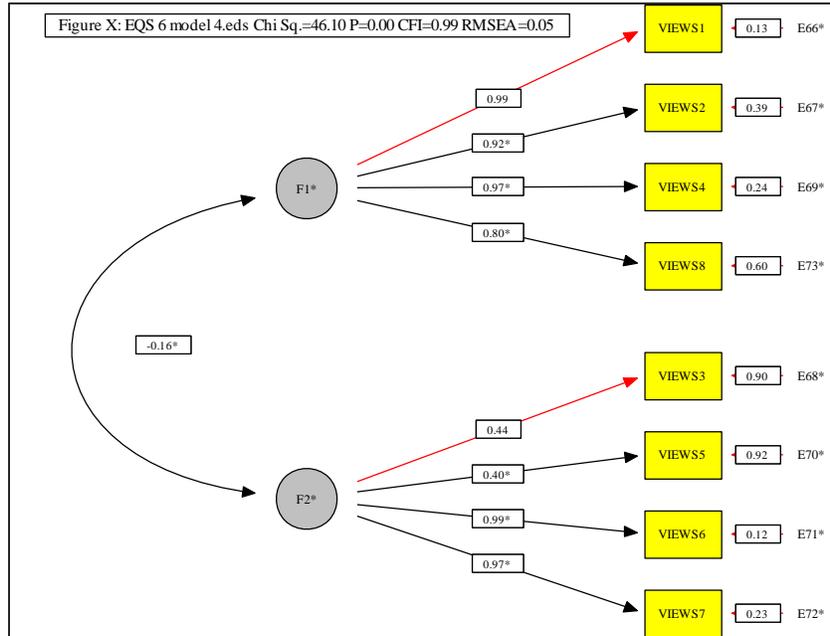


Figure 5:8 CFA model for Factor 9 and 10 (Intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes)

Table 5:7 CFA model (Intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes)

Unstandardized and standardized factor covariances

COVARIANCES AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

STATISTICS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 5% LEVEL ARE MARKED WITH @.

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	-.119*I
I F1 - F1	.035 I
I	-3.430@I
I	(.041)I
I	(-2.943@I
I	I

CORRELATIONS AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	-.162*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Factor 11 (The overall image)

The researcher was also interested in knowing the overall respondents' perception about local foods in Tanzania. The respondents were presented with 2 items that were derived from other studies and were asked to indicate their views on these items based on a 7 point Likert scale with (1 = strongly disagree) to (7 = strongly agree). Since this factor has only two items (it was under identified and the fit was perfect), the researcher decided to constrain all 2 items to 1 instead of constraining the factor. From CFA stand

point the most important thing in this case is the loadings rather than the fit indices. Therefore, the model fit table is not presented here as in the other factors.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Final Conceptual Research Model-KIA Survey

Similar to the previous CFA (Factor 1 to 11) models, the researcher started the CFA of the final conceptual model based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Since the model has 11 factors the researcher selected PFF, PDD and PEE functions in the SET command. Specification of these functions (PFF, PDD and PEE) allows the researcher to know which parameters are related in the model (Byrne, 2006). Review of the descriptive statistics revealed that there was evidence of substantial univariate skewness or Kurtosis. The normalized estimate of Mardia's multivariate kurtosis was 181. Literature suggests that with the large case contributions to kurtosis, it is likely that outlying cases may be more of a problem than bad distributions (Byrne, 2006). The researcher opted to delete some of these outlying cases one by one following a series of analyses. In total 20 cases were deleted from further analysis.

The review of the goodness of fit statistics related to the initial hypothesized CFA model (Table 5.8- initial model) indicated that the model was badly fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.817; CFI = 0.871; SRMR = 0.054; RMSEA = 0.074). The review of the LM test statistics indicated a substantial misspecification regarding; parameters (E53, E29) with an LM test χ^2 value of 309.743, parameters (E5,E4) with an LM test χ^2 value of 192.525 and parameters (E62,E57) with an LM test χ^2 value of 157.851.

Table 5:8 Initial and final CFA model for the Overall Perception

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
<u>Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML</u>		
CHI-SQUARE	2117.920	1304.160
Degree of Freedom	739	735
P Value for the Chi-Square	.00000	.00000
<u>FIT INDICES</u>		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index	.817	.913
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index	.857	.941
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.871	.956
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR)	.104	.080
Standardized RMR	.054	.038
Root Mean-Square Error of Approx. RMSEA)	.074	.043
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	.071-.078)	.044-.052

These values were higher compared to the remaining univariate incremental values, thus it was evident that the model required respecification that included the estimation of these parameters. The error covariance “E53” corresponds with item IMPORT6 (Who harvested local food), while the error covariance “E29” corresponds with item LFPE29 (Locally produced foods may contribute to environmental sustainability). The error covariance “E5” corresponds with item LFPE5 (Experiences from relatives discouraged me to use local foods); while the error covariance “E4” corresponds with item LFPE4 (Stories from friends discouraged me to use local foods). The error covariance “E62” corresponds with item CONFID7 (Produced by knowledgeable workers), while the error covariance “E57” corresponds with item CONFID2 (Transported hygienically). The content of the above respective items “LFPE29” and “IMPORT6”, “LFPE4” and “LFPE5” as well as “CONFID2” and “CONFID7” appears to have elicited responses reflective of the same mind set to

respondents. The researcher argue that specification of an error covariance between these two items was therefore, substantive reasonable.

The model was modified accordingly and again LM test statistics revealed misspecification regarding parameters (E51, E35) with an LM test χ^2 values of 93.399. This value was found to be relatively higher compared to the remaining univariate incremental values. Thus, it was evident that the model required respecification that included the estimation of these parameters. The error covariance “E51” corresponds to item IMPORT4 (When local food was harvested); while the error covariance “E35” corresponds with item LFPE35 (Locally produced foods may support agricultural diversification). In many tropical countries like Tanzania, local foods are produced throughout the year and thus support agricultural diversification (Clark & Chabrel, 2007). Provided with some justification and evidence from literature, the researcher considered it appropriate to re-specify the model. That is, the items appear to have elicited responses reflective of the same construct to respondents.

The model was modified accordingly and again the LM test statistics revealed misspecification regarding parameters (E59, E58) with an LM test χ^2 values of 17.331. Although LM test showed this misspecification, the researcher opted not to do further modification in the model to overcome the risk of overparameterizing the model since it was already well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.913; CFI = 0.956; SRMR = 0.038; RMSEA = 0.043) as shown in Table 5.8 (final model). As shown in Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 all factor correlations were statistically significant with factor 1(sustainability) and factor 3

(inadequacy provision) showing the strongest correlation (0.577). Table 5.11 and Table 5.12 show the final model item list, corresponding factor names as well as regression coefficients (both standardized and unstandardized).

Table 5:9 CFA model (Overall Perception):

Standardized and Unstandardized Factor Covariances

COVARIANCES AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

STATISTICS SIGNIFICANT AT THE 5% LEVEL ARE MARKED WITH @.

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	.317*I
I F1 - F1	.077 I
I	4.107@I
I	(.072)I
I	(4.372@I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.327*I
I F1 - F1	.042 I
I	7.765@I
I	(.051)I
I	(6.419@I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.352*I
I F1 - F1	.064 I
I	5.456@I
I	(.064)I
I	(5.468@I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.132*I
I F2 - F2	.055 I
I	2.386@I
I	(.050)I
I	(2.627@I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.596*I
I F2 - F2	.102 I
I	5.819@I
I	(.119)I
I	(5.027@I
I	I
I F5 - F5	.328*I
I F2 - F2	.097 I
I	3.383@I
I	(.116)I
I	(2.820@I

	I	I
	I F4 - F4	.162*I
	I F3 - F3	.045 I
	I	3.620@I
	I (.040)I
	I (4.086@I
	I	I

Table 5:10 CFA model (Overall Perception): Factor Correlations

CORRELATIONS AMONG INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

V	F
---	---
I F2 - F2	.278*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.577*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.366*I
I F1 - F1	I
I	I
I F3 - F3	.152*I
I F2 - F2	I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.404*I
I F2 - F2	I
I	I
I F5 - F5	.200*I
I F2 - F2	I
I	I
I F4 - F4	.221*I
I F3 - F3	I

Table 5:11 Final measurement model (cognitive evaluation)

Indicators and Factors	alpha α	Rho	AVE	Standardized loading (Unstandardized loading)
F1: Sustainability	.879	.880	.515	
LFPE29: May contribute to environmental sustainability				.743 (.848)
LFPE30: May contribute to sustainable tourism				.737 (.849)
LFPE31: May serve as a tourist attraction				.668 (.805)
LFPE35: May support agricultural diversification				.682 (.791)
LFPE36: May enhance visitors experiences				.716 (.661)
LFPE39: May increase income of the local people				.775 (.710)
LFPE40: May increase local people's business				.705 (.732)
LFPE41: May increase local people involved in tourism				.712 (.654)
F2: Conservation	.769	.808	.694	
LFPE21: May help to conserve the environment				.999 (1.572)
LFPE22: Local foods are produced organically				.624 (1.003)
F3: Inadequacy Provision	.912	.913	.836	
LFPE11: The hotel did not provide many varieties				.911 (.664)
LFPE15: The hotel provided scarce information				.910 (.625)
LFPE16: The hotel I stayed in provided few varieties				.835 (.668)
F4: Imported Foods	.889	.896	.737	
LFPE44: May contribute to climate change				.825 (1.111)
LFPE45: May contribute to environmental pollution				.956 (1.458)
LFPE46: Takes money away from the local economy				.785 (1.141)
F5: Familiarity	.911	.920	.784	
LFPE7: Unfamiliar ingredients discouraged me				.990 (1.243)
LFPE9: Identifying local foods was difficult				.770 (0.880)
LFPE10: Difficulty in identification				.882 (1.075)
F6: Hearsay	.859	.867	.784	
LFPE4: Stories from friends discouraged me				.999 (1.440)
LFPE5: Experiences from relatives discouraged me				.755 (1.181)

Table 5:12 Final measurement model for KIA survey:
(Affective evaluation) and total evaluation

Indicators and Factors	alpha α	Rho	AVE	Standardized loading (Unstandardized loading)
F7: Food Source/Origin	.632	.639	.375	
IMPORT4: When local food was harvested				.498 (.552)
IMPORT5: Where local food was harvested				.628 (.652)
IMPORT6: Who harvested local food				.694 (.798)
F8: Confidence with Production System	.947	.956	.704	
CONFID1: Produced hygienically				.850 (.999)
CONFID2: Transported hygienically				.817 (.954)
CONFID3: Stored hygienically				.793 (.843)
CONFID4: Prepared hygienically				.857 (.936)
CONFID5: Safe to eat				.877 (.972)
CONFID6: Produced by healthy workers				.739 (.888)
CONFID7: Produced by knowledgeable worker				.866 (1.021)
CONFID8: Produced by honest workers				.929 (1.055)
CONFID9: Food problems can be traced back				.813 (.983)
CONFID10: Regulatory authority competence				.700 (.721)
F9: Intrinsic Quality Attributes	.951	.951	.833	
VIEWS1: Safer				.951 (.998)
VIEWS2: Better in quality				.917 (.985)
VIEWS4: Cleaner				.926 (.956)
VIEWS8: More appealing				.854 (.971)
F10: Extrinsic Quality Attributes	.873	.878	.794	
VIEWS6: Better tasting				.991 (1.076)
VIEWS7: Cheaper				.778 (.924)
F11: Overall Image/Total Perception	.750	.785	.680	
LFPE17: I am satisfied with local foods in this destination				.602 (.922)
LFPE25: I will recommend to friends visiting th destination to use local foods				.999 (1.411)

Convergent and Discriminant Validity-KIA Survey

Table 5:13 Convergent and Discriminant Validity-KIA Survey

X	AVE	F1	F2	F3	F4	F5	F6	F7	F8	F9	F10	F11
F1	.579	.760										
F2	.626	.267	.792									
F3	.782	.583	.164	.884								
F4	.744	.369	.413	.221	.862							
F5	.788	-.034	.211	.060	.045	.888						
F6	.990	.064	.026	.070	.124	-.060	.995					
F7	.564	.101	.333	.593	.369	-.026	.0089	.750				
F8	.704	-.191	-.190	-.191	-.25	-.089	-.038	-.222	.839			
F9	.833	-.147	-.163	-.180	-.211	-.090	.004	-.175	.803	.913		
F10	.804	.483	.153	.379	.148	-.017	.003	.442	-.229	-.252	.897	
F11	.600	.222	.753	.112	.309	.238	-.030	.295	-.225	-.195	.134	.775

a. The diagonal elements are the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) (the shared variance between the factors and their items). For good discriminant validity these values should not be less than any of the correlations below the diagonal elements.

b. The off-diagonal elements are the correlations between factors.

Note: F1 = Sustainability, F2 = Conservation, F3 = Inadequacy provision, F4 = Imported foods, F5 = Familiarity, F6 = Hearsay, F7 = Food source/origin, F8 = Confidence, F9 = Intrinsic quality attributes, F10 = Extrinsic quality attributes and F12 = Overall image/Total perception

Kline (2005) suggests that when conducting CFA, researchers should check the convergent and discriminant validity of the CFA model. Convergent validity refers to the internal consistency of a set of items that form a particular construct (Gau, 2011). According to Brown (2006), convergent validity helps the researcher to know the strength of the relationships between the items that are predicted to represent a single

latent construct. Brown (2006) argues further that a given set of items theorized to represent a construct must: (1) Be strongly related to one another; and (2) Represent one and only one factor and that high interitem correlations, alpha coefficients, and factor loadings are good indicators of convergent validity. A construct possess a good convergent validity when Average Variance extracted (AVE) by that construct is greater than 0.5. As indicated in Table 5.13, AVE for all factors were above 0.5, meaning good convergent validity.

On the other hand, discriminant validity refers to the relationship between a particular latent construct and others of a similar nature (Brown, 2006). Discriminant validity is present when the correlations among manifest indicators of a single construct are greater than the correlations between those items and the items representing other latent factors (Kline, 2005). The discriminant validity of the scales is established when the square root of AVE of each factor is greater than the correlations between pairs of factors (Fornell and Larcker,1981). As indicated in Table 5.13, the values of AVE exceeded all factor correlations signifying good discriminant validity of the model.

The Final Structural Research Model – KIA Survey

Figure 5.9 shows the final structural model for the overall respondents' perception (Note that, factor covariances as well as items corresponding to each factor have been removed from the model for clarity purposes).

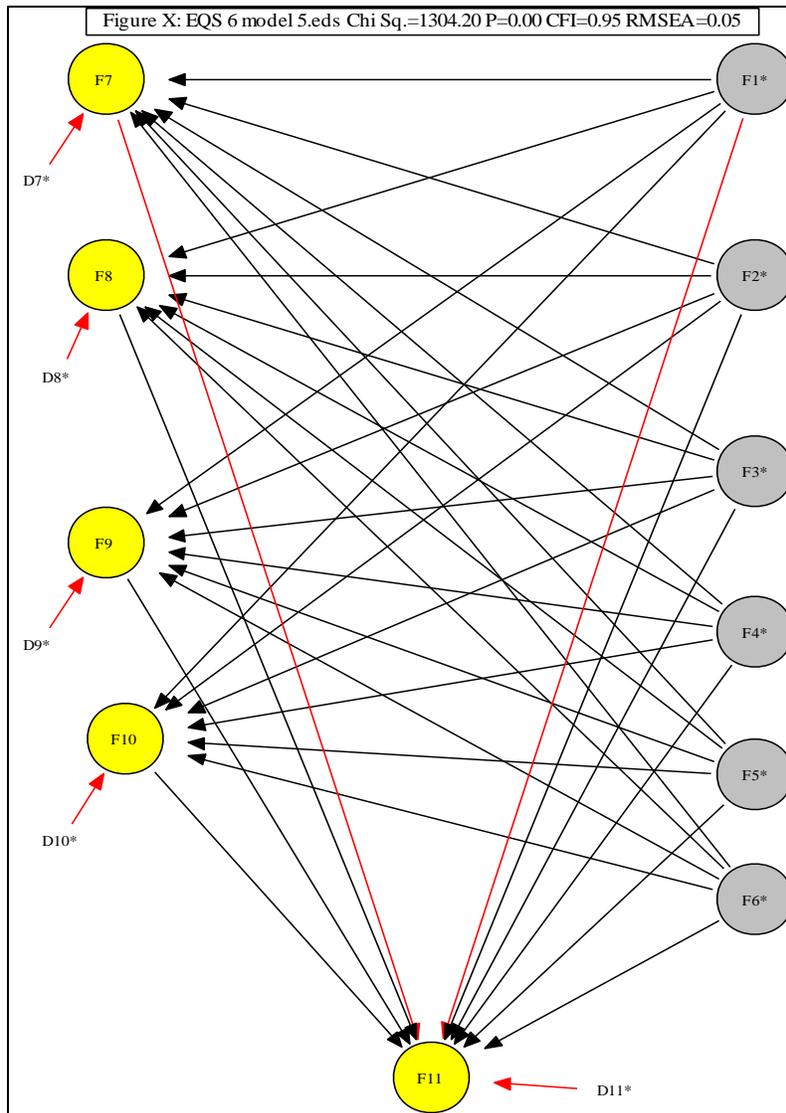


Figure 5:9 Final structural research model-Overall Perception

Note: F1 (SU) = Sustainability, F2 (CO) = Conservation, F3 (IP) = Inadequacy provision, F4 (IF) = Imported foods, F5 (FA) = Familiarity, F6 (HS) = Hearsay, F7 (FS) = Food source/origin, F8 (CN) = Confidence, F9 (IN) = Intrinsic quality attributes, F10 (EX) = Extrinsic quality attributes and F11 (TP) = Overall image/Total perception

Table 5.14 presents a summary of the estimated regression coefficients (standardized solutions and unstandardized) as obtained in the final structural model.

Table 5:14 Final structural model for KIA survey
(Standardized and unstandardized solutions)

Predictor variable	Criterion variables (Affective evaluations)				
	F7(FS)	F8(CN)	F9(IN)	F10(EX)	F11(TP)
F1(SU)	.981(.620 ^a)	-.049(-.085)	-.004(-.007)	.397(.496 ^a)	.509(.306)
F2(CO)	.091(.037 ^a)	-.074(-.082)	-.066(-.079)	.040(.032)	.573(.587 ^a)
F3(IP)	.005(.004)	-.110(-.248)	-.133(-.320)	.155(.253 ^a)	-.303(-.646 ^a)
F4(IF)	-.033(-.016)	-.179(-.237 ^a)	-.156(-.222 ^a)	-.046(-.044)	-.087(-.109)
F5(FA)	-.014(-.006)	-.058(-.069)	-.058(-.074)	-.023(-.020)	.113(.128 ^a)
F6(HS)	-0.022(-2.95)	.853(.949)	.963(.999)	-.173(-.663)	-.056(-.083)
F7(FS)					.266(.280 ^a)
F8(CN)					.455(.381 ^a)
F9(IN)					-.638(-.623)
F10(EX)					-.059 (-.375)
R ²	.99	.82	.99	.279	.588

(F1-F6): Perceptual/Cognitive evaluations (knowledge and beliefs).

(F7-F10): Affective evaluations (feelings)

^a Significant at 0.05 probability level

Values in brackets refer to unstandardized regression coefficients.

Note: F1 (SU) = Sustainability, F2 (CO) = Conservation, F3 (IP) = Inadequacy provision, F4 (IF) = Imported foods, F5 (FA) = Familiarity, F6 (HS) = Hearsay, F7 (FS) = Food source/origin, F8 (CN) = Confidence, F9 (IN) = Intrinsic quality attributes, F10 (EX) = Extrinsic quality attributes and F11 (TP) = Overall image/Total perception

Multicollinearity Diagnostics

Multicollinearity is a statistical terminology which refers to highly correlated predictor variables in the model or in the regression analysis. When two or more predictors are highly correlated it means one predictor can be perfectly predicted by the other predictor with high degree of certainty. There is agreement among researchers that Multicollinearity does not affect the reliability of the model (Gujarati & Porter, 2003), but it only makes it difficult for the researchers to calculate the individual unique effect of each predictor in the model. Multicollinearity ranges from perfect multicollinearity (where correlation, $r = 1$) to no multicollinearity (where correlation $r, < 0.5$). Literature suggests that multicollinearity can be calculated by detecting model “Tolerance” or the “variance inflation factor” (O’Brien, 2007). Thus,

$$\text{Tolerance} = 1 - R^2_j, VIF = \frac{1}{\text{Tolerance}}$$

Where; R^2_j is the coefficient of determination of a regression of predictor variable j on all the other predictors in the model and VIF is Variance Inflation Factor. A Tolerance of less than 0.2 or 0.1 and /or a VIF of 5 or 10 and above may indicate a multicollinearity problem in the model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). In practice the procedure can be implemented through a series of regression analyses where one predictor variable is treated as a dependent variable and all other variables are treated as independent variables. However, this procedure is highly tedious when the researcher has many predictor variables as in the current situation. Literature suggests that

multicollinearity can also be calculated by construction of a correlation matrix. According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2012; 90) “statistical problems created by multicollinearity occur at much higher correlations (.90 and higher)”. The researcher of the present study conducted a correlation matrix and found out that two variables “CONFID1” and “CONFID2” were highly correlated with ($r = 0.98$). Therefore, the researcher opted to delete one variable (CONFID1) to overcome statistical problems. The possible reason for high correlation between these two variables could be due to the fact that the two variables measured almost the same construct. CONFID 1 refers to “Produced hygienically” while CONFID 2 refers to “Transported hygienically” in the survey. Since collinearity problems also apply on the predictors (factors) in the structural model, the researcher decided to examine the factor correlations to address this problem. Factor correlation results (Table 5.13) indicated no collinearity problems (correlations below 0.9).

Testing for Suppression Effects in the model

In recent years, several studies have explored the effect of suppressor variables in multiple regression analysis. Lynn (2003) provided an example in logistic regression while Maassen and Bakker (2001) focused in the structural equation models. A suppressor variable is defined as an “independent variable that substantially improve the prediction of a criterion (DV) through the addition of a variable which is uncorrelated or relatively little correlated with the criterion but is related to another predictor or set of predictors” (Thompson & Levine, 1997:11). Inclusion of the suppressor variable in the

model tends to falsefully strengthen the effect of another independent variable on the criterion variable. Thompson & Levine (1997) elaborates further that when suppression occurs, addition of the suppressor to the regression equation frequently is associated with a sizable increase in the weight of regression coefficient of the previously suppressed predictors and in a forward stepwise analysis, an increase in R^2 nearly as large or larger than that contributed by the previously suppressed predictor variable. One piece of evidence that there is suppression in the model is that, part correlation (specific r square) “ s_r ” of the independent variable with the DV is greater than the zero order “ r ” between them. Another indication of suppression is that, when a suppressor variable is controlled in the model, the suppressor shows the sign change (i.e. from positive to negative and vice versa) and the suppressed variables shows the inflation. However, literature indicates that for a suppressor variable to cause a spurious outcome in the model, it has to be a significant predictor in that model. Therefore, a researcher should not be worried about any “potential suppressor variables” that are not significant in the respective model (MacKinnon, Krull & Lockwood, 2000).

In the present study, 6 regression models were run to find out whether there was a suppression effect in the model. The reader should note that the final model in this study has 5 regression equations involving 5 criterions (F7 to F11). The first model was run with all 6 predictors (F1 to F6) in the model and this was considered to be a full model. All other subsequent models involved all predictors except the predictor that the researcher wanted to test its suppression effect. Each time the model was run, the

researcher recorded all regression coefficients and compared the magnitude and sign change. Similarly, the researcher noted down whether the regression coefficients were significant or not each time the model was run.

The initial suppression analysis indicated that there was an indication of potential suppression due to change in sign of the regression coefficients after controlling for particular factors in the final model. However, further analysis revealed that all factors that showed a sign of suppression (regression coefficients sign change) were not significant predictors in the model and thus, do not pose any threat to the current analysis (c.f. MacKinnon, Krull & Lockwood, 2000).

Hypothesis Testing - KIA Survey

Four hypotheses are tested in relation to KIA survey, based on the research question (RQ1) “What are the perceptions of international tourists concerning consumption of locally produced foods in tourist hotels in the country?” All hypotheses based on the image theory (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Myers, 1968).

H1a: The overall international tourists’ perception about local foods in Tanzania is significantly influenced by perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) and affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods.

H1b: International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods

H1c: International tourists' affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods significantly influence their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania

H1d: International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania

Support for Hypotheses – KIA Survey

Support for Hypothesis (H1a)

H1a: The overall international tourists' perception about local foods in Tanzania is significantly influenced by perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) and affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods.

Hypothesis (H1a) was tested using the final structural model. Table 5.14 shows path coefficients from perceptual/cognitive evaluations to overall evaluations as well as path coefficients from affective evaluations to overall evaluations. As indicated in Table

5.14 the path coefficient from; F2 (Conservation) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.573$, $B = 0.587$), from F3 (Inadequacy provision) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.303$, $B = 0.646$), from F5 (Familiarity) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.113$, $B = 0.128$). Correspondingly, the path coefficient from; F7 (Food source/origin) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.266$, $B = 0.280$), and from F8 (Confidence with local food production system) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.455$, $B = 0.381$). All these path coefficients are significant and therefore, provide a strong support for hypothesis (H1a), that is; the overall international tourists' perception about local foods in Tanzania is significantly influenced by perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) and affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods.

Support for Hypothesis (H1b)

H1b: International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods in Tanzania

Hypothesis (H1b) was tested using the final structural model. The path coefficients (Table 5.14) from perceptual/cognitive evaluations to affective evaluations (feelings) about local foods shows that the path coefficient from; F1(Sustainability) to F7 (Food source/origin) is ($\beta = 0.981$, $B = 0.620$), F2 (Conservation) to F7 (Food source/origin) is ($\beta = 0.091$, $B = 0.037$), F4 (Imported foods) to F8 (Confidence with

local food production system) is ($\beta = 0$ -.179, $B = 0$ -.237), F4(Imported foods) to F9 (Intrinsic quality attributes) is ($\beta = 0$ -.156, $B = 0$ -.222), F1 (Sustainability)to F10 (Extrinsic quality attributes) is ($\beta = 0.397$, $B = 0.496$) and from F3 (Inadequacy provision) to F10 (Extrinsic quality attributes) is ($\beta = 0.155$, $B = 0.253$). As indicated in the Table 5.14, these path coefficients are significant and thus provide a strong support for hypothesis (H1b) indicating that International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods in Tanzania.

Support for Hypothesis (H1c)

H1c: International tourists' affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods significantly influences their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Hypothesis (H1c) was tested using the final structural model. The path coefficients (Table 5.14) from affective evaluations to overall evaluations indicate that the path coefficient from; F7 (Food source/origin) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.266$, $B = 0.280$) and from F8 (Confidence with local food production system) to F11 (Total perception) is ($\beta = 0.455$, $B = 0.381$). These path coefficients are positive and significant, providing support for hypothesis (H1c), which states that "International tourists' affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods significantly influences their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania".

Support for Hypothesis (H1d)

H1d: International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Hypothesis (H1d) was tested using the final structural model as indicated in Table 5.14. This hypothesis is partially supported with path coefficients of ($\beta = 0.573$, $B = 0.587$) from F2 (Conservation) to F11 (Total perception), ($\beta = 0.303$, $B = 0.646$) from F3 (Inadequacy provision) to F11 (Total perception), and ($\beta = 0.113$, $B = 0.128$) from F5 (Familiarity) to F11 (Total perception). These path coefficients are significant and therefore, provide evidence that International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their overall perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Final Research Model-Hotel Managers' Survey

Similar to the previous Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for KIA survey, the researcher started the CFA for the final conceptual model for manager' survey based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Prior to final structural model, the researcher tested all measurement models to ascertain the inclusion of items in the model

as well as the model fit. Since the researcher followed similar procedures as in KIA survey, the section that involves measurement models for each factor will not be presented, instead only the CFA of the final model as well as the final structural model will be presented.

Since the model has 4 factors the researcher selected PFF, PDD and PEE functions in the SET command. According to Byrne (2006), specification of these functions (PFF, PDD and PEE) allows the researcher to know which parameters are related in the model and thus allows the researcher to modify the model to improve the fit when necessary. Review of the descriptive statistics revealed that there was evidence of substantial univariate skewness or Kurtosis. Byrne (2006) suggests that with the large case contributions to kurtosis, it is likely that outlying cases may be more of a problem than bad distributions. High values of Kurtosis suggest that the researcher should consider robust statistics when reading the results.

Table 5:15 Initial and final CFA model for Managers survey

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML		
CHI-SQUARE	531.289	392.518
Degree of Freedom	203	182
P Value for the Chi-Square	.00000	.00000
<u>FIT INDICES</u>		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index	.905	.928
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index	.930	.954
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.939	.960
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR)	.160	.150
Standardized RMR	.080	.055
Root Mean-Square Error of Approx. RMSEA)	.085	.042
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	.076-.093)	.032-.081

The evaluation of the goodness of fit statistics associated with this initial model (Table 5.15) showed that the model was not well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.905; CFI = 0.939; SRMR = 0.081; RMSEA = 0.085). The review of the LM test statistics showed a slight misspecification regarding; parameters (E17, E15) with an LM test χ^2 values of 20.247. This value was relatively higher compared to the remaining univariate incremental values, thus it was evident that the model required respecification that included the estimation of these parameters. Further review indicated that the error covariance “E17” corresponds with item labeled WILE3 (Share resources with local food suppliers), while the error covariance “E15” corresponds with item labeled WILE1 (Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers). A close look at these two items suggests that “sharing resources” can be a form of “proving training to improve skills of the local food suppliers). Given that the content of these two items appears to elicit responses reflective

of the same construct, the researcher argues that specification of an error covariance between these two items was substantive reasonable.

The model was modified accordingly and again the LM test statistics revealed misspecification regarding parameters (E5, E1) with an LM test χ^2 values of 18.97. Although LM test showed this misspecification, the researcher opted not to do further modification in the model to overcome the risk of overparameterizing the model since it was already fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.928; CFI = 0.960; SRMR = 0.055; RMSEA = 0.043) as shown in Table 5.15 final model column.

Similar to KIA survey, the final structural model was checked for suppression effects as well as multicollinearity. The results indicated that the model has no suppressor variables and correlations of all variables behaved very well that is, correlations were below 0.9 as recommended by (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

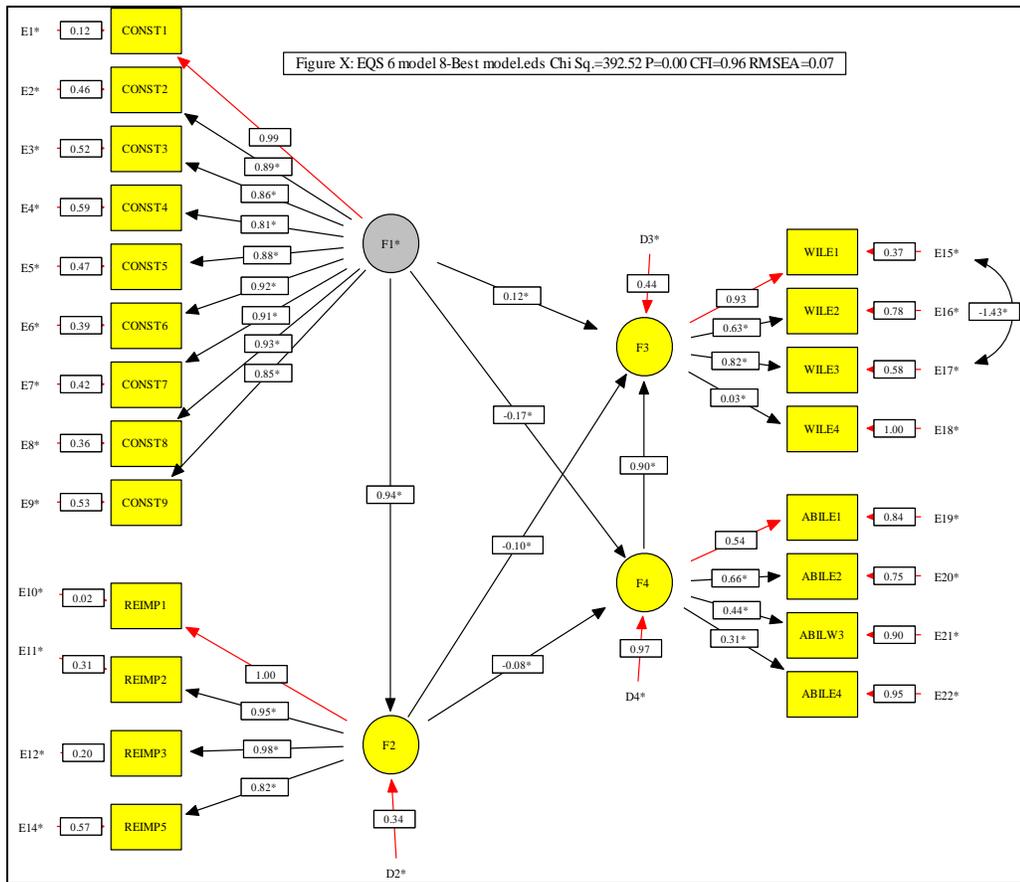


Figure 5:10 Hypothesized CFA model for hotel managers

Note: F1= Constraints, F2 = Reasons to import foods, F3 = Willingness to support and F4 = Ability to support.

Table 5:16 Measurement model for Hotel managers' survey

Items and Factors	Alpha α	Rho	AVE	Standardized Coefficients (Unstandardized Coefficients)
F1: Constraints to local food supply	.972	.973	.800	
CONST1: Suppliers lack operating capital				.992 (.998 ^a)
CONST2: Suppliers have low operating capital				.890 (.907 ^a)
CONST3: Suppliers lack food quality skills				.855 (.887 ^a)
CONST4: Suppliers lack food safety skills				.810 (.768 ^a)
CONST5: suppliers lack business skills				.882 (.863 ^a)
CONST6: Suppliers lack product consistency				.919 (.907 ^a)
CONST7: Suppliers exhibits product seasonality				.907 (.938 ^a)
CONST8: Suppliers exhibit unstable prices				.934 (.940 ^a)
CONST9: Suppliers are unreliable				.849 (.901 ^a)
F2: Reasons to import	.867	.947	.837	
REIMP1: Local foods exhibit unstable prices				.901 (.988 ^a)
REIMP2: Locally produced foods are seasonal				.950 (.974 ^a)
REIMP3: Locally prod. foods exhibits low quality				.979 (.963 ^a)
REIMP5: Foods we want are locally unavailable				.822 (.870 ^a)
F3: Willingness to support	.467	.593	.483	
WILE1: Provide training to improve skills				.931 (.800 ^a)
WILE2: Share information with local suppliers				.630 (.742 ^a)
WILE3: Share resources with local suppliers				.818 (1.131 ^a)
WILE4: Provide operating capital/loans				.030 (.056)
F4: Ability to support	.532	.541	.254	
ABILE1: Provide training to improve skills				.541 (.990 ^a)
ABILE2: Share information with local suppliers				.661 (1.025 ^a)
ABILEW3: Share resources with local suppliers				.437 (.754 ^a)
ABILE4: Provide operating capital/loans				.307 (.660 ^a)

^a Significant at 0.05 probability level; The values in brackets refers to unstandardized path coefficients; ^b robust statistics

Hypotheses for Hotel Manager' Survey

Eight hypotheses are tested with regard to hotel managers. These hypotheses are based on three research questions which are hereby reiterated to facilitate readers' follow up.

RQ2: What are the major constraints facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?

H2a: Lack of operating capital significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

H2b: Seasonality of local foods significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

H2c: Lack of skills on food handling significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

RQ3: What are the main reasons compelling hotel managers to import foods in their hotels which consequently lead to revenue leakages?

H3a: Unstable prices of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries

H3b: Low quality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries

H3c: Seasonality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries

RQ4: Are hotel managers willing to empower/support local people so that they can be able to meet their requirements as far as food supply is concerned?

H4a: The willingness of hotel managers to support local food suppliers is significantly influenced by their ability to provide support.

H4b: Constraints facing local food suppliers significantly influence hotel managers to import foods from outside the country.

Support for Hypotheses - Hotel Manager' Survey

Table 5.16 presents a summary of regression coefficients with standardized and (unstandardized solutions in brackets) as obtained in the final CFA model. The overall results indicated that the model was highly reliable, with a Cronbach's alpha = 0.910

(reliability coefficient $\rho = 0.964$) and well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.928; CFI = 0.960; SRMR = 0.055; RMSEA = 0.043).

Support for Hypothesis (H2a)

H2a: Lack of operating capital (CONST1) significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

CFA results (Table 5.16) indicates that the item “Lack of operating capital” (CONST1) is a reliable indicator of factor F1 (CONSTRAINTS) since the loading from F1 (CONSTRAINTS) to the variable “Lack of operating capital” (CONST1) is significant and positive ($t = 24.064$, $SE = 0.030$, $\beta = 0.992$, $B = 0.998$). This implies that that lack of operating capital significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country, and therefore, hypothesis (H2a) is supported. The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.985 (98.5%). Note that this effect size is large indicating that this is an important predictor.

Support for Hypothesis (H2b)

H2b: Seasonality of local foods (CONST 7) significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

CFA results (Table 5.16) indicate that the item “Seasonality of local foods” (CONST 7) is reliably reflect factor F1 (CONSTRAINTS) due to the fact that the factor loading from F1 (CONSTRAINTS) to the variable “Seasonality of local foods” (CONST7) is significant and positive ($t = 33.010$, $SE = 0.028$, $\beta = 0.997$, $B = 0.938$). This indicates that seasonality of local foods significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country and therefore provide support for hypothesis H2b. Table 5.16 indicates also that the effect size (R^2) for this predictor was 0.823 (82.3%) signifying that this is an important predictor in the model.

Support for Hypothesis (H2c)

H2c: Lack of skills on food handling (maintaining product consistency- CONST 6) significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country.

The CFA results (Table 5.16) indicates that the indicator “Maintaining product consistency” (CONST 6) is a reliable indicator of factor F1 (CONSTRAINTS). The factor loading from F1 (CONSTRAINTS) to the variable “Maintaining product consistency” (CONST 6) is significant and positive ($t = 26.522$, $SE = 0.034$, $\beta = 0.919$, $B = 0.901$). These results provide a strong support that CONST6 (Local food suppliers do not maintain product consistency) is a significant predictor of factor F1. Therefore, this

hypothesis is supported by the data. Similarly, effect size (Table 5.16) was found to be large ($R^2 = 0.845$), implying that this is an important predictor in the model.

Support for Hypothesis (H3a)

H3a: Unstable prices of local foods (REIMP1) significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries.

In relation to hypothesis (H3a), CFA results (Table 5.16) reveals that the indicator “Unstable prices of local foods” (REIMP1) is a reliable indicator of factor F2 “Reasons for importing food” (REIMP) since the factor loading from F2 “Reasons for importing food” (REIMP) to the variable “Unstable prices of local foods (REIMP1) is significant and positive ($t = 85.000$, $SE = 0.02$, $\beta = 0.901$, $B = 0.988$). Thus, hypothesis H3a is supported by the data. Similarly, Table 5.16 indicates that the effect size (R^2) for this predictor was 0.909 (90.9%) signifying that this is an important predictor in the analysis.

Support for Hypothesis (H3b)

H3b: Low quality of local foods (REIMP 3) significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries

In relation to hypothesis (H3b), CFA results (Table 5.16) reveals that the indicator “Low quality of local foods” (REIMP 3) reliably reflect factor F2 “Reasons for importing food” (REIMP) since the factor loading from F2 “Reasons for importing food” (REIMP)

to the variable “Low quality of local foods” (REIMP 3) is significant and positive ($t = 41.099$, $SE = 0.023$, $\beta = 0.979$, $B = 0.963$), signifying that indeed low quality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries. Likewise, Table 5.16 indicates that the effect size (R^2) for this predictor was 0.958 (95.8%) signifying that this is an important predictor in the analysis. That is, hypothesis H3b is supported by the data.

Support for Hypothesis (H3c)

H3c: Seasonality of local foods (REIMP 2) significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries

In supporting hypothesis (H3c), CFA results (Table 5.16) denotes that the indicator “seasonality of local foods” (REIMP 2) is a reliable indicator of factor F2 “Reasons for importing foods” (REIMP) since factor loading from F2 “Reasons for importing foods” (REIMP) to the variable “Seasonality of local foods (REIMP 2) is significant and positive ($t = 81.550$, $SE = 0.012$, $\beta = 0.974$, $B = 0.974$), suggesting that seasonality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries. Table 5.16 indicates that the effect size (R^2) for this predictor was 0.903 (90.3%) signifying that this is an important predictor in the analysis. In conclusion, hypothesis H3c is supported by the research data.

Support for Hypothesis (H4a)

H4a: The willingness of hotel managers to support local food suppliers (F3-F4) is significantly influenced by their ability to provide support.

Table 5:17 Path coefficients for the final structural model
(Hotel managers' survey)

Predictor Variables	Criterion variables		
	F2(Reasons for importing foods)	F3(Willingness to support local food suppliers)	F4(Ability to support local food suppliers)
F1 (Constraints)	.939 (.953 ^a)	.122 (.067)	-.167 (-.061)
F2 (Reasons for importing)		-.105 (-.056)	-.078 (-.028)
F3 (Willingness to support)			
F4 (Ability to support)		.902 (1.356 ^a)	
R ²	.881	.806	.058

^a Significant at 0.05 probability level; The values in brackets refers to unstandardized path coefficients

In testing hypothesis (H4a), a structural model is used (Table 5.17). The results also shows that the predictor F4 (Ability to support) is significant and positive with parameter estimates ($t = 4.586$, $SE = 0.296$, $\beta = 0.902$, $B = 1.356$), signifying that the willingness of hotel managers to support local food suppliers is significantly influenced by their ability to provide support. In conclusion, hypothesis H4a is supported by the research data.

Support for Hypothesis (H4b)

H4b: Constraints facing local food suppliers (F1-F2) significantly influence hotel managers to import foods from outside the country.

Similarly, in testing hypothesis (H4b), a structural model is used (Table 5.17). The results of this structural model reveals that the model is highly reliable with a Cronbach's alpha = 0.910 (reliability coefficient rho = 0.964). The results also show that the predictor factor F1 (CONSTRAINTS) is highly significant and positive with parameter estimates ($t = 41.257$, $SE = 0.023$, $\beta = 0.939$, $B = 0.953$), implying that the decision of hotel managers to import foods in their hotels is significantly influenced by constraints facing local food suppliers. In conclusion, hypothesis H4a is supported by the research data.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Local Food Suppliers Survey

Similar to the previous Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for KIA survey, and hotel managers' survey, the researcher started the CFA for the final conceptual model for local food suppliers' survey based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Prior to final structural model, the researcher tested all measurement models to ascertain the inclusion of items in the model as well as the model fit. Since the researcher followed similar procedures as in KIA survey, the section that involves measurement models for

managers' survey is not presented, instead only the CFA for the final model as well as structural model is presented.

Due to the fact that the model involves 4 factors the researcher selected PFF, PDD and PEE functions in the SET command. According to Byrne (2006), specification of these functions (PFF, PDD and PEE) allows the researcher to know which parameters are related in the model and thus allows the researcher to modify the model to improve the fit when necessary. The evaluation of the goodness of fit statistics associated with the initial model (Table 5.18) revealed that the model was not well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.871; CFI = 0.942; SRMR = 0.053; RMSEA = 0.054, ($\chi^2 = 459.234$, DF = 269, P < 0.001)). The review of the LM test statistics showed a slight misspecification regarding; parameters (E13, E18) with an LM test χ^2 values of 48.129. This value was relatively higher compared to the remaining univariate incremental values, thus it was evident that the model required respecification that included the estimation of these parameters.

Further review of univariate incremental values indicated that the error covariance "E13" corresponds with item labeled SOL2 (Frequent Trainings), while the error covariance "E18" corresponds with item labeled SOL7 (Certification schemes). A close look at these two items suggests that "certification schemes" to a certain degree may be associated with "frequent training). Individuals get certified as a result of frequent training. Given that the content of these two items appears to elicit responses reflective of

the same construct, the researcher maintains that specification of an error covariance between these two items was reasonable.

Table 5:18 Initial and final CFA model: local food suppliers' survey

Parameters	Initial Model	Final Model
Goodness Of Fit Summary For Method = ML		
CHI-SQUARE	459.234	431.645
Degree of Freedom	269	268
P Value for the Chi-Square	.00000	.00000
<u>FIT INDICES</u>		
Bentler-Bonett Normed Fit Index	.871	.879
Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index	.935	.944
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	.942	.950
Root Mean-Square Residual (RMR)	.122	.120
Standardized RMR	.053	.052
Root Mean-Square Error of Approx. RMSEA)	.054	.051
90% Confidence Interval of RMSEA	.046-.063)	.041-.059

The model was modified accordingly and again the LM test statistics revealed further misspecification regarding parameters (E28, E22) with an LM test χ^2 values of 39.431. Although LM test showed this misspecification, the researcher opted not to do further modification in the model to overcome the risk of overparametarizing the model since it was already fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.944; CFI = 0.950; SRMR = 0.052; RMSEA = 0.051, ($\chi^2 = 431.645$, DF = 268, P < 0.001) as shown in Table 5.18. Similar to KIA survey, the final CFA model was checked for suppression effects as well as multicollinearity. The results indicated that the model has no suppressor variables and

correlations of all variables behaved very well that is, correlations were below 0.9 as recommended by (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

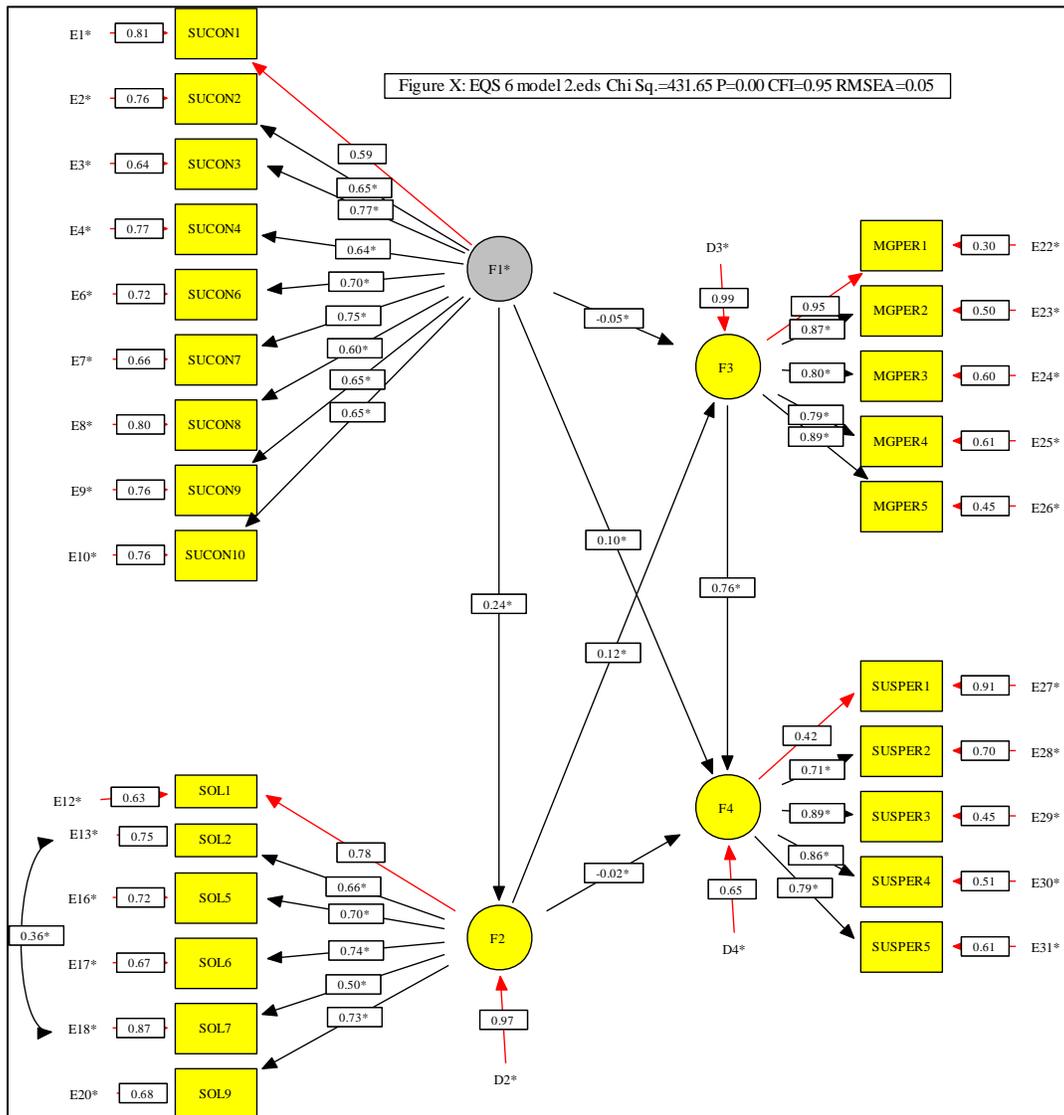


Figure 5:11 Hypothesized CFA Model for local food suppliers

Note: F1= Supplier constraints, F2 = Potential solutions, F3 = Perception towards management and F4 = Perceptions towards sustainability

Table 5:19 Measurement model for Local food suppliers' model

Item	Alpha α	Rho	AVE	Standardized Coefficients (Unstandardized Coefficients)
F1: Supplier constraints	.855	.868	.472	
SUCON1: Lack of storage facilities				.591 (1.090 ^a)
SUCON2: Locally produced foods are seasonal				.654 (1.080 ^a)
SUCON3: Hotel requirements are difficult				.766 (1.310 ^a)
SUCON4: Lack of operating capital				.639 (1.157 ^a)
SUCON6: Hotels lack clear food specifications				.697 (1.347 ^a)
SUCON7: Hotels do not pay suppliers in time				.749 (1.073 ^a)
SUCON8: Lack of food quality skills				.605 (1.071 ^a)
SUCON9: Poor road infrastructure				.653 (1.055 ^a)
SUCON10: Local foods exhibit unstable prices				.653 (1.090 ^a)
F2: Potential solutions	.837	.848	.477	
SOL1: Hotel technical support				.776 (.998 ^a)
SOL2: Frequent Trainings				.660 (.823 ^a)
SOL5: Good road infrastructure				.698 (.834 ^a)
SOL6: Clear product specifications				.745 (.928 ^a)
SOL7: Certification schemes				.497 (.572 ^a)
SOL9: Easy accessibility of operating Capital				.731 (.966 ^a)
F3: Perception towards management	.936	.937	.748	
MGPER1: Flexibility in dealing with problems				.955 (.996 ^a)
MGPER2: Provision of feedback to suppliers				.868 (.946 ^a)
MGPER3: Interest in problems solving				.806 (.875 ^a)
MGPER4: Providing support				.793 (.795 ^a)
MGPER5: Communication with food suppliers				.894 (.939 ^a)
F4: Perceptions towards sustainability	.779	.781	.570	
SUSPER1: Care about the local community				.420 (.990 ^a)
SUSPER2: Care about the environment				.714 (.916 ^a)
SUSPER3: Want to maximize profit				.894 (1.041 ^a)
SUSPER4: Are required to do so by law				.859 (.985 ^a)
SUSPER5: Meeting demands of their customers				.793 (.946 ^a)

^a Significant at 0.05 probability level; The values in brackets refers to unstandardized path coefficients; ^b robust statistics

Hypotheses for Local Food Suppliers' Survey

Five hypotheses are tested in relation to local food suppliers' survey. These hypotheses are based on the research question (RQ5), which is reiterated below to facilitate readers follow up.

RQ5: What are the major constraints encountered by local suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels) and what are the potential solutions to these challenges?

H5a: Seasonality of locally produced foods significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

H5b: Lack of operating capital significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

H5c: Lack of clear food specifications significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

H5d: Poor road infrastructures significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

H5e: Perceived solutions are significantly influenced by types of challenges confronting local food suppliers

Support for Hypotheses – Local Food Suppliers' Survey

Table 5.19 presents a summary of regression coefficients with standardized and (unstandardized factor loadings in brackets) as obtained in the final CFA research model. As in the previous surveys, all hypotheses were tested using CFA. The overall results indicated that the model was well fitting (i.e. NFI = 0.944; CFI = 0.950; SRMR = 0.052; RMSEA = 0.051).

Support for Hypothesis (H5a)

H5a: Seasonality of locally produced foods significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

CFA results (Table 5.19) indicates that the indicator “Seasonality of locally produced foods” (SUCON 2) is reliably reflecting factor F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) due to the fact that the factor loading from F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) to the indicator “Seasonality of locally produced foods” (SUCON 2) is significant and positive ($t = 4.579$, $SE = 0.236$, $\beta = 0.654$, $B = 1.080$), implying that seasonality of locally produced foods significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country, and therefore, hypothesis (H5a) is supported. The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.428 (42.8%). Note that this effect size is large indicating that this is an important predictor in the model.

Support for Hypothesis (H5b)

H5b: Lack of operating capital significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

In relation to hypothesis (H5b), CFA results (Table 5.19) shows that the indicator “Lack of operating capital” (SUCON 4) reliably reflect F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) since the regression coefficient from F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) to the indicator “Lack of operating capital” (SUCON 4) is significant and positive ($t = 6.124$, $SE = 0.189$, $\beta = 0.639$, $B = 1.157$), indicating that lack of operating capital significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country, and therefore, Hypothesis (H5b) is supported. The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.408 (40.8%). Note that this effect size is large indicating that this is an important predictor in the model.

Support for Hypothesis (H5c)

H5c: Lack of clear food specifications significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

With respect to hypothesis (H5c), CFA results (Table 5.19) show that the indicator “Lack of clear food specifications” (SUCON 6) is a reliable indicator of factor F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) since the factor loading from F1 (SUPPLIER

CONSTRAINTS) to the indicator “Lack of clear food specifications” (SUCON 6) is significant and positive ($t = 5.788$, $SE = 0.233$, $\beta = 0.697$, $B = 1.347$), suggesting that lack of clear food specifications significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country, and therefore, providing a strong support for hypothesis (H5c). The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.486 (48.6%). Note that this effect size is large indicating that this is an important predictor.

Support for Hypothesis (H5d)

H5d: Poor road infrastructures significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels

Regarding hypothesis (H5d), CFA outcomes (Table 5.19) indicates that the indicator labeled “Poor road infrastructures” (SUCON 9) reliably reflect F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) because the regression coefficient from F1 (SUPPLIER CONSTRAINTS) to the variable “Poor road infrastructures” (SUCON 9) is significant and positive ($t = 4.858$, $SE = 0.217$, $\beta = 0.653$, $B = 1.055$), denoting that poor road infrastructure significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country, and therefore, hypothesis (H5d) is supported. The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.427 (42.7%). Note that this effect size is large indicating that this is an important predictor.

Support for Hypothesis (H5e)

Table 5:20 Path coefficients for the final structural model
(Local food suppliers' survey)

Predictor Variables	Criterion variables		
	F2(perceived solution)	F3(Perception towards management)	F4(perception towards sustainability)
F1 (Supplier Constraints)	.242 (.420 ^a)	-.055 (-.121)	.101 .207 ^a
F2 (Perceived Solutions)		.121 (.155)	-.025 (-.029)
F3 (Perception towards Management)			.759 (.697 ^a)
F4 (Perceptions towards Sustainability)			
R ²	.059	.014	.578

^a Significant at 0.05 probability level; The values in brackets refers to unstandardized path coefficients

H5e: Perceived solutions are significantly influenced by types of challenges confronting local food suppliers

In relations to hypothesis (H5e), structural model results (Table 5.20) exemplifies that the path coefficient from factor 1 “Supplier constraints” to F2 (perceived Solutions) is significant and positive ($t = 2.899$, $SE = 0.145$, $\beta = 0.242$, $B = 0.420$), implying that challenges confronting local food suppliers significantly influence the type of solution to be taken by hotel managers and therefore, hypothesis (H2a) is supported. The effect size (R^2) accounted for by this variable is 0.059 (5.9%). Note that this effect size is small indicating that the variance explained by the predictor is very little.

Test of Mediation Effects for Kia Survey

Mediation is a process of exploring the mechanism by which one variable “X” (independent variable) influences another variable “Y” (dependent variable) through a mediator variable “M”. “Mediation hypothesis posit how, or by what means, an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential intervening, or mediators (M)” (Preacher & Hayes, 2008:879). Scholars argue that establishing relationships between variables is essential, because correlation (though important) is not a sufficient condition for claiming that two variables are causally related (Preacher & Hayes, 2008:879). Figure 5.12 depicts a schematic representation of a simple mediation effects test. (note that, c represents the total effect, $a*b$ represents the indirect effect and c' represents the direct effect).

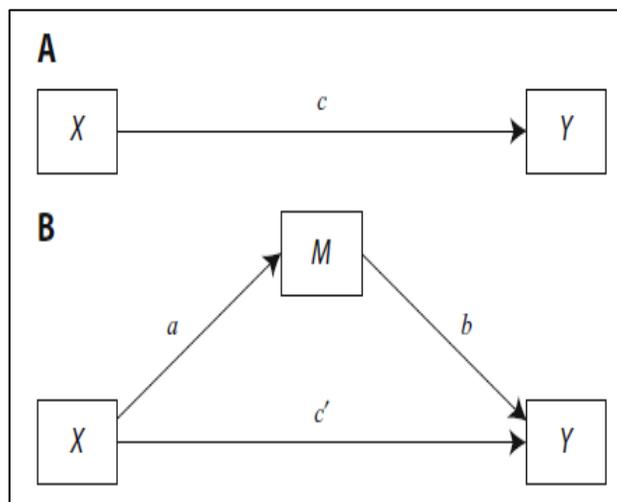


Figure 5:12 Simple mediation effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

1. Figure A in the diagram represents an independent variable (X) that has a direct effect on dependent variable (Y). In regression analysis, “c” represents the standardized or unstandardized regression coefficient for this relationship.
2. “b” is a simple mediation model, where independent variable (X) has a direct effect on dependent variable (Y), Mediator variable (M) has an effect on dependent variable (Y), and independent variable (X) has an effect on mediator variable (M). “a” is the coefficient in a model predicting M from X. And b & c’ are the coefficients in a model predicting Y from both M and X, respectively.
3. Multiplying together the coefficients “a” & “b” gives the indirect effect of X on Y through M.

Testing For the Mediation Effects of Frequency of Using Local Foods At Home Town on Sustainability

Hypothesis (H6a): Frequency of using local foods at home town mediate the relationship between respondents knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was interested to know whether the international tourists’ frequency of using local foods at home town does mediate the relationship between their knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local foods in

Tanzania. By using SPSS the researcher computed composite variables for knowledge/belief about sustainability, as well as for total perception about local foods in Tanzania. The researcher conducted regression analyses and specified bootstrapping analysis as suggested by (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

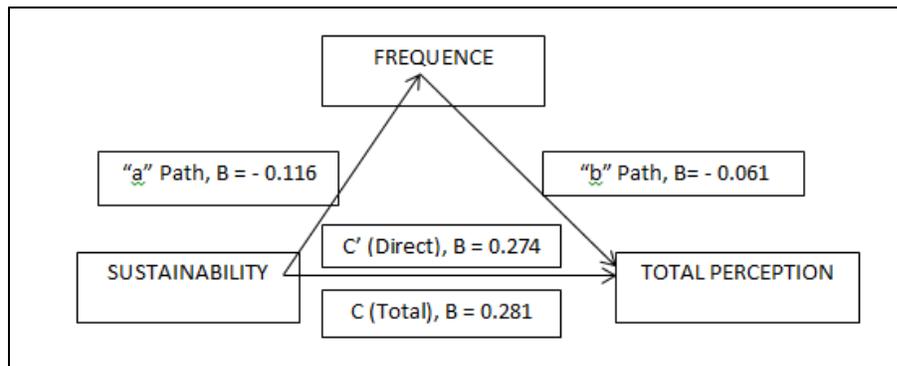


Figure 5:13 Mediation effects of frequency of using local foods at home town

The bootstrapping results indicated that; c' path ($B= 0.274$, $Se = 0.088$, $P = 0.002$) is significant, "a" path ($B = - 0.116$, $Se = 0.074$, $P = 0.117$) is not significant, "b" path ($B= - 0.061$, $Se = 0.065$, $P = 0.346$) is not significant, "c" path (Total) ($B= 0.281$, $Se = 0.088$, $P = 0.002$) is significant, indirect path (" a " X " b ") = 0.007. The normal theory tests for indirect effects indicated that indirect effects of IV (sustainability) on DV (total perception) through a proposed mediator (ab) path is = 0.0071 with ($Z = 0.811$, $P = 0.417$). This indirect effect is not significant at $P < 0.05$. Similarly, bootstrapping results indicated that indirect effect (boot) = 0.0074. Confidence intervals (CI lower) = - 0.0039, CI upper = 0.0383. The confidence interval does include zero, therefore, the researcher concludes that the indirect effect is not significantly different from Zero.

The regression coefficients for “a” path and “b” path along with their respective std. error were entered in Sobel (1982) calculator. The Sobel (1982) test results indicated that ($Z = 0.805$, $Se = 0.0087$, $P = 0.420$). The values of ($Z = 0.805$) is less than 1.96 and thus, is not significant. According to Sobel (1982), the mediation effect is considered to be significant if the calculated Z value is greater than 1.96.

Combining the bootstrapping and Sobel (1982) results, the researcher concludes that, the international tourists’ frequency of using local foods at home town does not mediate the relationship between their knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local food in Tanzania.

Testing For the Mediation Effects of Sustainability Knowledge on Income Level

Hypothesis (H6b): Respondents’ knowledge/belief about sustainability mediate the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods

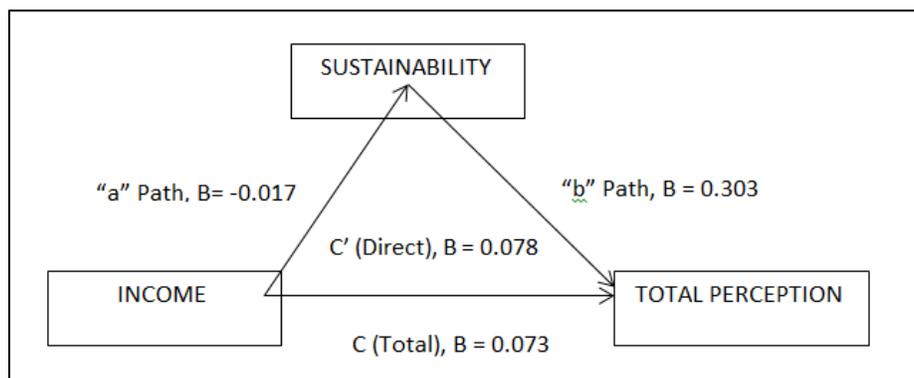


Figure 5:14 Mediation effects of sustainability knowledge on income

The researcher was also interested to know whether international tourists' knowledge/belief about sustainability does mediate the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. The researcher used the same procedures as above to test the mediation effects.

The bootstrapping results indicated that; c' path ($B = 0.078$, $Se = 0.034$, $P = 0.024$) is significant, "a" path ($B = -0.017$, $Se = 0.021$, $P = 0.410$) is not significant, "b" path ($B = 0.303$, $Se = 0.088$, $P = 0.0007$) is highly significant, C path (Total) ($B = 0.073$, $Se = 0.035$, $P = 0.038$) is significant, and "a" X "b" (indirect path) = -0.005 . The normal theory tests for indirect effects indicated that indirect effects of IV (income) on DV (total perception) through a proposed mediator ($ab = -0.0053$, $Z = -0.803$, $Se = 0.007$, $P = 0.422$) is not significant at $P < 0.05$. Correspondingly, bootstrapping results revealed that indirect effect (boot) was $= -0.0051$ with a confidence intervals ($CI_{lower} = -0.0216$, $CI_{upper} = 0.0064$). The confidence interval does include zero, therefore, the researcher makes the case that the indirect effect is not significantly different from Zero.

Following bootstrapping results, the researcher was interested to know the outcomes of the Sobel (1982) test. Thus, the regression coefficients for "a" path and "b" path along with their corresponding std. errors were entered in Sobel (1982) calculator. The Sobel (1982) test results indicated that ($Z = -0.8025$, $Se = 0.007$, $P = 0.422$). The reader can see that the values of ($Z = -0.8025$) in absolute values is less than 1.96 and

thus, not significant. According to Sobel (1982), the mediation effect is considered to be significant if the calculated Z value is greater than 1.96.

By using a combination of bootstrapping results as well as Sobel (1982) results, the researcher concludes that, the respondents' perceptions about sustainability does not mediate the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Testing For the Mediation Effects of Sustainability Knowledge on Education Level

Hypothesis (H6c): Respondents' perception about sustainability mediate the relationship between their education level and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was also interested in gaining an insight of whether respondents' perception about sustainability does mediate the relationship between their education level and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. The researcher used same procedures as above to test the mediation effects education level

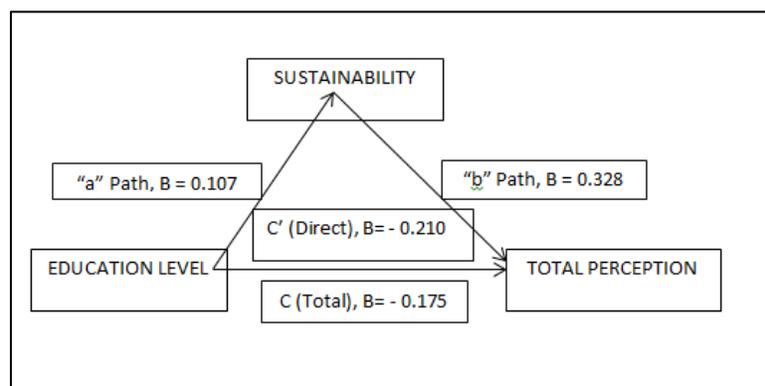


Figure 5:15 Mediation effects of Sustainability knowledge on Education level

The results of the bootstrapping analysis showed that; c' path ($B = -0.210$, $Se = 0.060$, $P = 0.0006$) is highly significant, "a" path ($B = 0.107$, $Se = 0.037$, $P = 0.0041$) is highly significant, "b" path ($B = 0.328$, $Se = 0.088$, $P = 0.0002$) is highly significant, C (Total) path ($B = -0.175$, $Se = 0.061$, $P = 0.0042$) is highly significant, and the calculated indirect path ($a \times b = 0.0352$). The normal theory tests for indirect effects indicated that indirect effects of IV (education level) on DV (total perception) through a proposed mediator ($ab = 0.0352$, with $Z = 2.287$, $Se = 0.015$, $P = 0.0222$). This indirect effect is significant at $P < 0.05$. Consistently, bootstrapping results revealed that indirect effect (boot) was $= 0.0346$ with confidence intervals ($CI_{lower} = 0.0133$, $CI_{upper} = 0.0692$). As it can be seen from the results, the confidence interval does not include zero, therefore, the results of the bootstrapping analysis suggest that the indirect effect is significantly different from Zero.

Following bootstrapping results, the researcher decided to perform the Sobel (1982) test. In this case, the regression coefficients for "a" path and "b" path along with their corresponding std. errors were entered in Sobel (1982) calculator. The Sobel (1982) test results indicated that ($Z = 2.281$, $Se = 0.015$, $P = 0.0225$). The reader can see that the values of ($Z = 2.281$) is greater than 1.96 and thus, significant. According to Sobel (1982), the mediation effect is considered to be significant if the calculated Z value is greater than 1.96.

By combining the results obtained from bootstrapping analysis and Sobel (1982), the researcher concludes that, the respondents' perceptions about sustainability (knowledge/belief about sustainability) does mediate the relationship between their education level and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. However, the reader can note that the indirect effect is positive (i.e. 0.0352) while the direct effect is negative (i.e. - 0.210) and thus, the researcher concludes that there is inconsistent mediation in the relationship. When individuals' knowledge about sustainability is kept constant at the mean, the effect of education level of individuals on total perception is (B = -0.210). However, when individuals' knowledge about sustainability is allowed to vary, the effect of education level of individuals on total perception goes further down (B = - 0.175), indicating that knowledge about sustainability suppresses the effect of education level on total perception.

The effect size of the indirect effect is calculated by finding the ration of the indirect effect to the total effect (i.e. indirect effect/total effects). From this analysis, the researcher concludes that the proportion of the total effect accounted for by indirect effect = 20% while the percentage accounted for by the direct effect = 80%

Testing For the Mediation Effects of Income Level on Education Level

Hypothesis (H6d): Respondents' income mediate the relationship between their level of education and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was also interested to know whether respondents' income does mediate the relationship between their level of education and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. The researcher used same procedures as above to test the mediation effects.

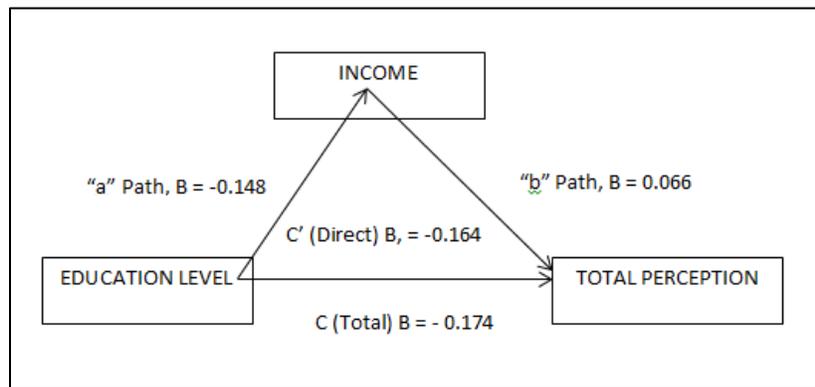


Figure 5:16 Mediation effects of income level on education level

The results of the bootstrapping analysis revealed that; C' path is significant with (B = - 0.164, Se = 0.061, P = 0.008), "a" path is not significant with (B = - 0.148, Se = 0.096, P = 0.123), "b" path is not significant with (B = 0.066, Se = 0.035, P = 0.060) and C path (Total) is significant (B = - 0.174, Se = 0.061, P = 0.005). Similarly, the calculated indirect effect (ab) was found to be = - 0.0098).

The normal theory tests for indirect effects indicated that indirect effects of IV (education level) on DV (total perception) through a proposed mediator (ab = - 0.0098, Z = - 1.199, P = 0.231) is not significant at P < 0.05. Correspondingly, bootstrapping results revealed that indirect effect (boot) was = - 0.0099 with a confidence interval (CI_{lower}) = -

0.035, $CI_{upper} = 0.001$. The confidence interval does include zero, therefore the researcher makes the case that the indirect effect is not significantly different from Zero.

After getting bootstrapping results, the researcher was interested to know the outcomes of the Sobel (1982) test. Thus, the regression coefficients for “a” path and “b” path along with their corresponding std. errors were entered in Sobel (1982) calculator. The Sobel (1982) test results indicated that ($Z = -1.1958$, $Se = 0.008$, $P = 0.2317$). The reader can see that the values of ($Z = -1.1958$) is less than 1.96 and thus, is not significant. According to Sobel (1982), the mediation effect is considered to be significant if the calculated Z value is greater than 1.96.

By using a combination of bootstrapping results and Sobel (1982) results, the researcher concludes that, the respondents’ income does not mediate the relationship between their knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Testing for the Moderation Effects

Often in social science research, the relationship between one independent variable (IV1) and dependent variable (DV) depends on the level of a third variable IV2 (a moderator). That is, the effect of one variable on the dependent variable depends on the level of another variable. The independent variable and the moderator all together

predict the dependent variable (IV1* IV2). The effect of the moderating variable is characterized statistically as an interaction (Cohen, et al., 2003).

Testing for the Moderation Effects of Gender

Hypothesis (H7a): Gender of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was interested to know whether gender of respondents moderates the prevailing relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods. The researcher used SPSS General Linear Model univariate to analyze the moderation effects. Income of the respondents was recoded as categorical variable with three categories (lower income, middle income and higher income).

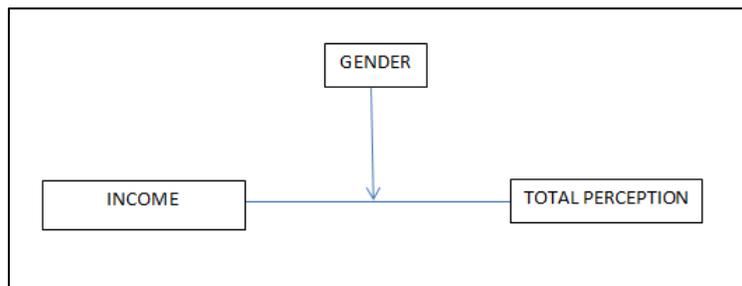


Figure 5:17 Moderation effects of gender

Gender of the respondents is a categorical variable so no further recoding was necessary. The results showed that income has three categories; lower income (n = 28), Middle income (n = 249) and upper income (n = 59). Gender has two categories, male (n = 167) and female (n = 169). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 5.21) indicated

that income has significant main effects ($P = 0.036$) while gender has no significant main effects ($P = 0.318$). Similarly, the interaction (gender* income) has no significant effects ($P = 0.07$).

Table 5:21 Tests of between-subjects effects: Moderation effects of gender

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	22.324 ^a	5	4.465	2.623	.024
Intercept	4072.101	1	4072.10	2392.58	.000
Gender	1.700	1	1.700	.999	.318
INCOME2	11.396	2	5.698	3.348	.036
Gender * INCOME2	9.101	2	4.551	2.674	.070
Error	561.649	330	1.702		
Total	9876.500	336			
Corrected Total	583.973	335			

^aR Squared = .038 (Adjusted R Squared = .024); Dependent Variable: Total perception

Table 5:22 Multiple Comparisons: Moderation effects of Gender

(I) INCOME2	(J) INCOME2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lower income	Middle income	-.6764*	.26004	.010	-1.1880	-.1649
	Upper income	-.6538*	.29939	.030	-1.2427	-.0648
Middle income	Lower income	.6764*	.26004	.010	.1649	1.1880
	Upper income	.0227	.18890	.905	-.3489	.3943
Upper income	Lower income	.6538*	.29939	.030	.0648	1.2427
	Middle income	-.0227	.18890	.905	-.3943	.3489

Based on observed means: The error term is Mean Square (Error) = 1.702. *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Total perception, LSD

Since the ANOVA results indicated that income of respondents' has a significant main effect, the researcher proceeded with the post hoc tests to decompose the main effect. Post hoc compares (based on LSD) the means of each group to determine which groups are significantly different from one another. The post hoc test (Table 5.22) indicated that there was a significant mean difference between lower income and middle income ($P = 0.01$), and between lower income and upper income ($P = 0.030$). The mean difference between middle income and upper income was not significant (0.905).

Table 5:23 Tests of between-subjects effects: Moderation effects of gender

Gender	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Male	Corrected Model	.884 ^a	2	.442	.323	.724
	Intercept	2215.936	1	2215.93	1619.31	.000
	INCOME2	.884	2	.442	.323	.724
	Error	224.424	164	1.368		
	Total	4721.250	167			
	Corrected Total	225.308	166			
Female	Corrected Model	19.799 ^b	2	9.899	4.873	.009
	Intercept	1872.710	1	1872.71	921.84	.000
	INCOME2	19.799	2	9.899	4.873	.009
	Error	337.225	166	2.031		
	Total	5155.250	169			
	Corrected Total	357.024	168			

^a. R Squared = .004 (Adjusted R Squared = -.008); ^b. R Squared = .055 (Adjusted R Squared = .044); dependent variable (Total perception).

Although interaction (gender*income2) was not significant ($P = 0.07$), the reader can see that this P-value was close to the margin ($P = 0.05$). Because of this, the researcher decided to conduct a test of simple effects by splitting the file by gender. The

simple effect results (Table 5.23) shows that effect of income is significant for females only but not for males.

Table 5:24 multiple comparison: Moderation effects of gender

Gender	(I) INCOME2	(J) INCOME2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Male	Lower income	Middle income	-.0924	.3305	.780	-.7451	.560
		Upper income	-.2521	.3714	.498	-.9856	.481
	Middle income	Lower income	.0924	.3305	.780	-.5602	.745
		Upper income	-.1597	.2274	.484	-.6088	.289
	Upper income	Lower income	.2521	.3714	.498	-.4814	.985
		Middle income	.1597	.2274	.484	-.2895	.608
Female	Lower income	Middle income	-1.247*	.4009	.002	-2.038	-.45
		Upper income	-1.045*	.4757	.029	-1.985	-.10
	Middle income	Lower income	1.247*	.4009	.002	.4557	2.03
		Upper income	.2015	.3112	.518	-.4130	.816
	Upper income	Lower income	1.045*	.4757	.029	.1064	1.98
		Middle income	-.2015	.3112	.518	-.8161	.413

Dependent variable (Total perception); LSD, Based on observed values. The error term is Mean Square (error) = 2.031. *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Similarly, multiple comparisons show how income groups (Lower, middle and higher) differ from one another within each gender. From Table 5.24, the reader can see that within females, there was a significant mean difference between lower income and middle income ($P = 0.002$), and between lower income and upper income ($P = 0.029$). The mean difference between the middle income and the upper income was not significant (0.518). Equally, the analysis shows that within males, all mean differences were not significant.

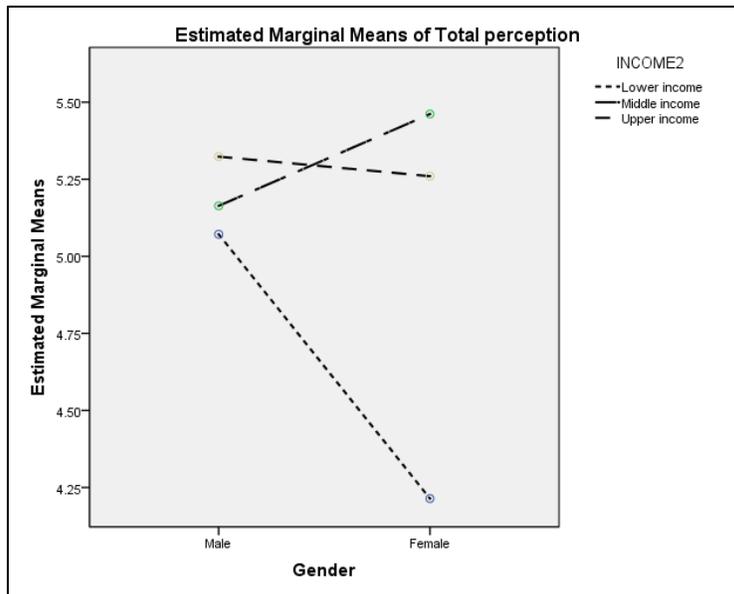


Figure 5:18 Profile Plots showing gender in the horizontal axis

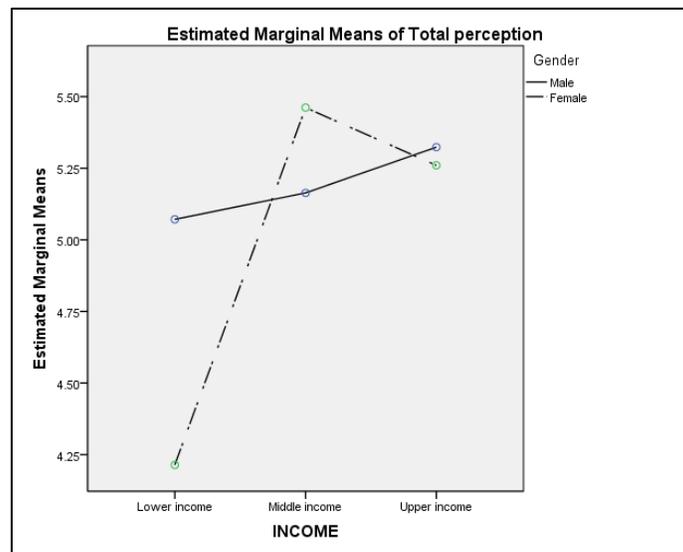


Figure 5:19 Profile Plots showing income in the horizontal axis

The reader can note that for female respondents (Figure 5.18 & Figure 5.19), the total perception about local foods is influenced by their incomes. The total perception about local foods is higher for females with higher incomes (mean = 5.26) and lower for

females with lower incomes (mean = 4.21) and middle incomes (mean = 5.46). That is, for female respondents, their total perception about local foods increases as their income increases. However, for male respondents, their total perception about local foods is not significantly influenced by their incomes. From this analysis, the researcher concludes that gender of respondents does moderate the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. That is, the effect of respondents' income on the total perception about local foods depends on whether the respondent is a male or a female. Similarly, within female the effect depends on the level of income (lower, middle, upper) the respondent is coming from.

Testing for the Moderation Effects of Age

Hypothesis (H7b): Age of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was also interested to know whether age of respondents moderates the existing relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods. The researcher used SPSS General Linear Model univariate to analyze the moderation effects. Income was recoded as a categorical variable with three categories of lower income (less than \$40,000 per year), middle income (between \$40,000 and \$139,999) and higher income (above \$140,000). Age was also recoded into three categories younger (below 40 years), middle (between 40 and 59 years) and older (above 60 years). Income and age was recoded into these categories to facilitate interpretation of

the moderation effects. The results showed that income has three categories; lower income (n = 28), Middle income (n = 249) and upper income (n = 59). Age has three categories, younger age (n = 77), middle age (n = 122) and older age (n = 137). The analysis of variance (ANOVA) results (Table 5.25) indicated that all variables have no significant main effects, income (P = 0.372), age (P = 0.225), interaction (age* income2) (P = 0.796).

Table 5:25 Tests of between-subjects effects: Moderation effects of age

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	16.826 ^a	5	3.365	1.958	.084
Intercept	5220.888	1	5220.88	3037.82	.000
INCOME2	3.407	2	1.704	.991	.372
AGE2	5.155	2	2.577	1.500	.225
INCOME2 * AGE2	.115	1	.115	.067	.796
Error	567.147	330	1.719		
Total	9876.500	336			
Corrected Total	583.973	335			

^aR Squared = .029 (Adjusted R Squared = .014); Dependent Variable: Total perception

Since the ANOVA results indicated that there was no main effect and the interaction was not significant, the researcher did not proceed with the post hoc tests to decompose the main effect. From this analysis, the researcher concludes that age of respondents does not moderate the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Testing for the Moderation Effects of Education Level

Hypothesis (H7c): Education level of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was also interested to know whether education level of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods. The researcher used SPSS General Linear Model univariate to analyze the moderation effects. Income was recoded as a categorical variable with three categories (lower income, middle income and higher income). Initially education level of respondents was in a continuous scale so; to facilitate the interpretation of the moderation effects, this variable was recoded into three categories; lower level (high school), middle level (some college) and higher level (graduate). The results showed that income has three categories; lower income (n = 28), Middle income (n = 249) and upper income (n = 59). Education level has three categories, high school level (n = 33), college level (n = 165) and graduate level (n = 133).

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 5.26) indicated that all variables have no significant main effects, income (P = 0.052), education level (P = 0.225), interaction (education* income) (P = 0.737). However, the P-value for the income (P = 0.052) was almost significant, so the researcher decided to continue with the post hoc tests to decompose the main effect (if any).

Table 5:26 Moderation effects of education level
(Tests of between-subjects effects)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	26.463 ^a	8	3.308	1.912	.058
Intercept	2211.033	1	2211.033	1277.69	.000
INCOME2	10.309	2	5.154	2.979	.052
EDUCATION2	5.198	2	2.599	1.502	.224
INCOME2 * EDUCATION2	3.447	4	.862	.498	.737
Error	557.215	322	1.730		
Total	9725.250	331			
Corrected Total	583.678	330			

^aR Squared = .045 (Adjusted R Squared = .022); Dependent Variable: Total perception

The post hoc test (Table 5.27) indicated that there was a significant mean difference between lower income and middle income ($P = 0.009$), and between lower income and upper income ($P = 0.027$). The mean difference between the middle income and the upper income was not significant (0.901). The researcher did not conduct a test of simple effects since the interaction was not significant. From this analysis, the researcher concludes that education level of respondents does not moderate the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Table 5:27 multiple comparisons: Moderation effects of education level

(I) INCOME2	(J) INCOME2	Mean Differen ce (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lower income	Middle income	-.7060*	.2667	.009	-1.230	-.1813
	Upper income	-.6820*	.3064	.027	-1.284	-.0790
Middle income	Lower income	.7060*	.2667	.009	.1813	1.2306
	Upper income	.0240	.1920	.901	-.353	.4017
Upper income	Lower income	.6820*	.3064	.027	.0790	1.284
	Middle income	-.0240	.1920	.901	-.401	.3538

Based on observed means: The error term is Mean Square (Error) = 1.730. *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Total perception, LSD.

Testing for the Moderation Effects of Visitation Frequency

Hypothesis (H7d): Visitation frequency moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods

The researcher was also interested in understanding whether being a “first time visitor” or a “repeat visitor” (visitation frequency) moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods. The researcher used SPSS General Linear Model univariate to analyze the moderation effects. Income was recoded as a categorical variable with three categories (lower income, middle income and higher income). Visitation frequency was a categorical variable (first time or repeat visitor). The results indicated that income has three categories; lower income (n = 28),

Middle income (n = 249) and upper income (n = 59). Visitation frequency has two categories, first time visitor (n = 291) and repeat visitor (n = 45).

Table 5:28 Moderation effects of type of visitation
(Tests of between-subjects effects)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares B	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	18.282 ^a	5	3.656	2.133	.061
Intercept	1890.731	1	1890.731	1102.97	.000
INCOME2	3.417	2	1.708	.997	.370
Visitation frequency	1.768	1	1.768	1.031	.311
INCOME2 * Visitation frequency	1.649	2	.824	.481	.619
Error	565.691	330	1.714		
Total	9876.500	336			
Corrected Total	583.973	335			

^aR Squared = .031 (Adjusted R Squared = .017); Dependent Variable: Total perception

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 5.28) indicated that all variables have no significant main effects, income (P = 0.370), type of visitation (P = 0.311), interaction (visitation frequency* income) (P = 0.619). Since the ANOVA results indicated that there was no main effect and the interaction was not significant, the researcher did not proceed with the post hoc tests to decompose the main effect. From this analysis, the researcher concludes that visitation frequency (being a first time or repeat visitor) does not moderate the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania.

Testing for the Moderation Effects of Type of Accommodation

Hypothesis (H7e): Type of accommodation moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about the local foods

The researcher was also interested in understanding whether the type of accommodation used by respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about the local foods. Similar to previous analyses, the researcher used SPSS General Linear Model univariate to analyze the moderation effects.

Table 5:29 Moderation effects of type of accommodation
(Tests of between-subjects effects)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares B	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	54.030 ^a	5	10.806	6.73	.000
Intercept	2389.141	1	2389.14	1487.73	.000
INCOME2	1.846	2	.923	.575	.563
Accommodation	25.790	1	25.790	16.06	.000
INCOME2 *	2.354	2	1.177	.733	.481
Accommodation					
Error	529.944	330	1.606		
Total	9876.500	336			
Corrected Total	583.973	335			

^aR Squared = .093 (Adjusted R Squared = .079); Dependent Variable: Total perception

Income was recoded as a categorical variable with three categories (lower income, middle income and higher income). Type of accommodation was recoded into two categories. Category one constituted respondents who used hotels, campgrounds and lodges, while category two constituted those who used volunteer houses, homestays, , apartments and hostels. The results (between subject factors) showed that income has three categories; lower income (n = 28), Middle income (n = 249) and upper income (n = 59). Type of accommodation has two categories, category one (n = 285) and category two (n = 51).

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) (Table 5.29) indicated that accommodation has a significant main effect (P = 0.000) while income has no significant main effects (P = 0.563). Similarly, the interaction (accommodation* income) has no significant main effects (P = 0.481).

Table 5:30 Post hoc tests: Income multiple comparisons

(I) INCOME2	(J) INCOME2	Mean Differen ce (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Lower income	Middle income	-.6764*	.25259	.008	-1.1733	-.1795
	Upper income	-.6538*	.29081	.025	-1.2258	-.0817
Middle income	Lower income	.6764*	.25259	.008	.1795	1.1733
	Upper income	.0227	.18349	.902	-.3383	.3836
Upper income	Lower income	.6538*	.29081	.025	.0817	1.2258
	Middle income	-.0227	.18349	.902	-.3836	.3383

Based on observed means: The error term is Mean Square (Error) = 1.606. *. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Total perception, LSD

Although income of the respondents is not a significant predictor, the post hoc test (Table 5.30) revealed that there is a significant mean difference between lower income and middle income ($P = 0.008$), and between lower income and upper income ($P = 0.025$). The mean difference between middle income and upper income is not significant (0.902). In summary, the researcher concludes that the effect of income on respondents' total perception about local foods does not depend on the type of accommodation since the interaction (income*accommodation) is not significant.

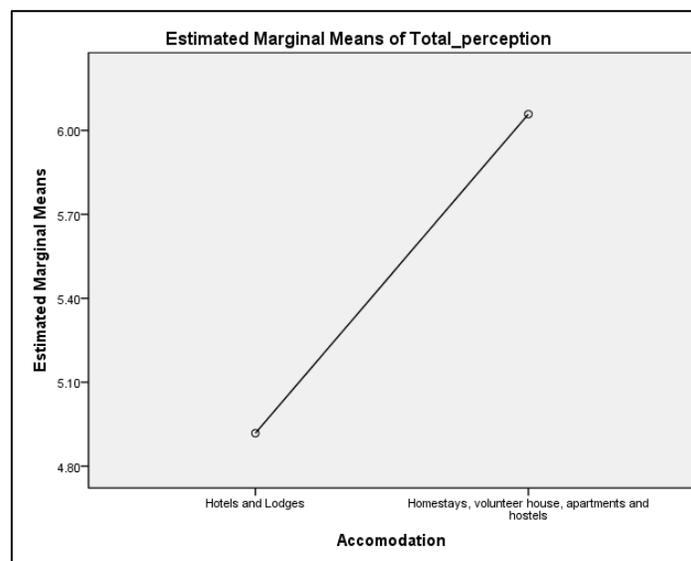


Figure 5:20 Effects of accommodation type on total perception

Since the type of accommodation significantly influence respondents' perception about local foods ($P = 0.000$), the researcher proceeded with testing the mean difference between the two categories of accommodation. The independent sample t test indicated that the mean difference between the two categories was significant ($P = 0.004$).

Therefore, the researcher concludes that the overall perception of respondents in category two (homestays, volunteer houses, apartments and hostels) is significantly higher (mean = 6.07, SD. = 1.32) than that of respondents in category one (hotels, campgrounds and lodges) (mean = 5.11, SD. = 1.33).

Chapter Summary

This section summarizes the results of the inferential statistical analysis. Inferential statistic makes inferences about the population using data drawn from the population. The research data were screened using SPSS 18 software prior to further analysis. The accuracy of data entry, missing data, skewness, and kurtosis for all surveys was done through SPSS FREQUENCIES. Three criteria were used for evaluating multivariate outliers, Mahalanobis (MAH) distance at $p < .001$, Studentized Deleted Residual (SDR) with a critical value of ± 3 and COOK'S D with a critical value of 1. All items used in this study were derived from the literature since the researcher had no prior information regarding the number of dimensions and the corresponding items. The process of determining the number of factors to extract followed appropriate EFA procedure recommended by several scholars (e.g. Byrne, 2006; Comrey & Lee, 1992; Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). The final conceptual research model for KIA survey consisted of 11 dimensions, while hotel managers' and local food suppliers' models both consisted of 4 dimensions each. Convergent and discriminant validity was high for all models.

Research data were analysed by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) by using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS 6.2 for Windows. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) refers to a special form of analysis used in social research to test whether measures of a construct are consistent with a researcher's understanding of the nature of that construct. The researcher started the analysis based on the robust statistics specified as (ML, ROBUST). Moderation and mediation effects were also tested in this research.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

FINDINGS

This chapter presents discussions, conclusions and implications of the significant findings of the study. The chapter begins by presenting a comprehensive discussion of the results, followed by a summary of important conclusion derived from the study. The final section presents implications and limitations of the study.

Discussions

The main purpose of the present study was to evaluate local food-tourism linkages as a strategy for promoting sustainable tourism and economic development. The study was guided by five main questions which are hereby reiterated for easy reference;

1. What are the perceptions of international tourists concerning locally produced foods in Tanzania?
2. Which factors significantly prevent hotel managers from doing business with local food suppliers?
3. Which factors significantly compel hotel managers to import foods in their hotels which consequently lead to revenue leakages?

4. To what extent are hotel managers willing to support local food suppliers so that they can be able to supply local foods efficiently?
5. Which constraints significantly deter local suppliers in accessing tourism markets (hotels)?

The five questions resulted into 16 hypotheses, which were tested by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with EQS software. In more recent years, SEM has become one of the most popular data analysis tool in social sciences. SEM reliably enables the researcher to analyze the causal-effect relationship between measured variables and latent constructs. Noar (2003) points out that CFA increases confidence in the structure of a new measure and provide further confirmation regarding strength of the model as well as proving more information about the dimensionality of a scale. Through fit indices, SEM enables the researcher to know to what extent the hypothesized structural model corresponds to the empirical data.

The rationale of this study is that, previous studies on food-tourism linkages focused more on separate/individual components of food-tourism chain. The current study takes a more holistic view in that, it starts by evaluating the perception of international tourists (consumers) towards consumption of local foods, then in an integrative way, it investigates major constraints facing both local food suppliers as well as hotel managers.

The emergence and development of the tourism industry in many developing countries is often considered as an opportunity to reduce poverty through generating income and employment. Nevertheless, if tourism is not well planned, developed and managed correctly by taking into consideration the needs and concerns of all major players, the actual benefits may not be achieved as theoretically envisioned. One way of achieving objectives of sustainable tourism, is to integrate voices of various players in the tourism industry. This study therefore, integrated voices of tourists, local food suppliers and hotel managers in an effort to understand how local food-tourism linkages can be well utilized for the benefit of tourists, hotels and the local communities.

Hypotheses - KIA Survey

The results of this study do support hypothesis H1a through H1d (Table 6.1). These hypotheses were constructed according to the image theory (Assael, 1984; Crompton, 1979; Myers, 1968). The intention of using this theory was to exemplify how this theory can be used in predicting and explaining international tourists' perception towards local foods. The theory has been extensively used in various fields including destination image (Assael, 1984). Therefore, grounded on the most recent studies of customer satisfactions, a cognitive-affective model is used in this research to examine the interrelationships among the research variables that measured food-tourism linkages. To the best knowledge of the researcher of this study, this theory has never been used to measure perceptions of tourists towards local foods. According to the image theory

(cognitive-affective model), the overall image/perception is formed as a result of individuals' cognitive and affective evaluations about a product.

The cognitive/perceptual (knowledge and beliefs) about local foods was assessed through 6 factors. The first factor (sustainability) measured respondents' knowledge and beliefs about sustainability in relation to local foods. The second factor (Conservation) looked at how knowledge and beliefs about conservation influence individuals overall cognitive/perceptual evaluation. The third factor (Inadequacy provision) looked at how availability of information or local foods at the hotel influences the overall perception of respondents towards local foods. The Fourth factor (imported foods) looked at how respondents' knowledge and beliefs about imported foods influences their overall perception about local foods. The fifth factor (familiarity) looked at how difficulties in identifying local foods contribute to overall respondents' perception about local foods. The sixth factor (hearsay) looked at how stories from friends and relatives at home or during the trip influence respondents' overall perception about local foods. The affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods was assessed through 4 factors. The first factor (food source/origin) measured respondents' perception towards sources/origin of local foods. The second factor (confidence) measured respondents' confidence level in relation to local food production system. The third and fourth factors assessed respondent' view in relation to intrinsic and extrinsic quality attributes of local foods.

All measurement models were assessed using a confirmatory factor analysis with all the variables of the model included. Standardized and non-standardized coefficients as well as error variances were used in the model. The final model indicated that overall the model fits well the research data: $\chi^2 = 1303.16$ based on 735 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$); NFI = .941; CFI = .950; SRMR = .044; RMSEA = .048. Correspondingly, reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the model were all confirmed. Literature recommend the following critical values for fit indices; NFI > 0.90; CFI > 0.95; SRMR < 0.08; RMSEA < 0.05 and χ^2 close to zero (Byrne, 2006; Sivo et al., 2006).

All hypotheses were tested using a structural equations model in EQS 6.2 for Windows at alpha = 0.05. The results are displayed in Figure 6.1. The results indicate that overall the model explained about (58.8%) of the total variance in overall image (total perception). As indicated in the model (Figure 6.1), both cognitive/perceptual (knowledge and belief) and affective evaluations are significant predictors of the overall image/perception (Figure 6.1). In relation to the first hypothesis (H1a), the results indicate that cognitive/perceptual evaluations and affective evaluations all-together (collectively) have a significant effect on the overall image/total perception about local foods ($B = 0.150$, $SE = 0.078$, $t = 1.916$), providing support for H1a. Similarly, the results indicate that the relationship between cognitive/perceptual evaluations and affective evaluations is significant ($B = 0.620$, $SE = 0.099$, $t = 6.234$), providing support for hypothesis (H1b). In line with previous studies, it is demonstrated that cognitive evaluations significantly influences individuals' affective evaluation about a place or

product. A study conducted by Del-Bosque & Martin (2008) concluded that emotions (feelings) occur as a result of the cognitive appraisals of experience. These authors also concluded that emotions/feelings play an important role in satisfaction formation and that emotional responses are fundamental components of the consumption process since individuals' enjoyment is based on their own experiences.

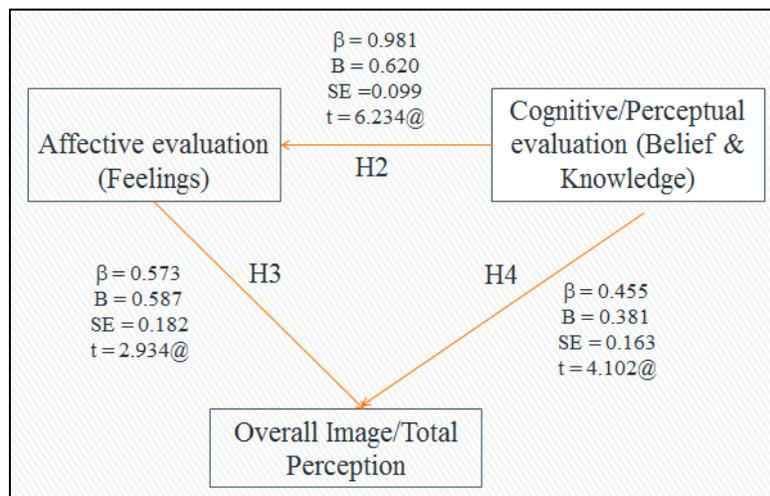


Figure 6:1 Overall image/Total perceptions

The results also demonstrate that the relationship between affective evaluations and overall image/total perception is significant ($B = 0.534$, $SE = 0.182$, $t = 2.93$), providing support for H1c. The results also indicate that the relationship between cognitive/perceptual evaluations and overall image/total perception (H1d) is significant but negative ($B = -0.667$, $SE = 0.163$, $t = -4.102$), implying that the total perception about local foods is significantly influenced by individuals knowledge and beliefs about local foods. Surprisingly this relationship is negative and requires further research, a study

conducted by Baloglu & McCleary (1999) found a significant but positive relationship between cognitive and overall image.

This study demonstrates further the contention that people develop both cognitive and affective responses and attachments to environment, places and products as suggested earlier by Proshonsky, Fabian & Kaminoff (1983). Early studies in environmental psychology also found strong evidence that settings have both perceptual/cognitive and affective images (Hanyu, 1993). Recent studies in psychology concluded that the higher mental processes of understanding and evaluation would be performed by the cognitive system, whereas emotions would be related to the individuals' feelings towards the service or the product (Van Dolen et al., 2004).

In line with previous studies, this study has demonstrated a strong evidence that cognitive/perceptual (knowledge and beliefs) significantly influence affective evaluation (feelings). Therefore, the knowledge and beliefs that people have about local foods influence the way individuals feel about local foods. Similarly, this study has shown that affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods significantly influence the overall perception about local foods. Likewise, the study has demonstrated that cognitive evaluations significantly influence the overall perception about local foods. This implies that hotel managers need to provide more information about local foods to increase consumers' knowledge and belief (cognitive evaluation). Managers should also demonstrate that they have efficient food safety systems in their hotels in order to

increase consumers' confidence as well as enhancing their feelings (affective evaluation) towards local foods. The importance of cognitive-affective evaluations in the consumer behavior models has increased significantly during the last few years (Loken, 2006). In summary it can be concluded that the findings of this study are in line with previous studies that employed this theory in measuring total perception (c.f. Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Del-Bosque & Martin, 2008).

In recent years the knowledge and therefore demand for local foods has sharply increased among consumers. In the United States for instance there are many organizations and associations supporting the movement for local foods. Consumers have myriad reasons for demanding local foods. Such reasons include; freshness, flavor, high quality, more safe because local foods travel short distances and so the chances of contamination are minimal compared to conventional foods that travel many miles and pass through many handlers. Other reasons include awareness to environmental issues. It is contended that because local foods travel minimal distances and require minimal processing, its contribution to greenhouse gases are insignificant compared to conventional foods. Studies have also shown that some consumers buy local food because they want to support the local economy.

Table 6:1 Summary of tested hypotheses

No.	Hypothesis	Results
H1a	The overall international tourists' perception about local foods is significantly influenced by perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) and affective evaluation	Supported
H1b	International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods	Supported
H1c	International tourists' affective evaluation (feelings) about local foods significantly influences their overall perception about local foods	Supported
H1d	International tourists' perceptual/cognitive evaluation (beliefs and knowledge) about local foods significantly influence their overall perception about local foods	Supported
H2a	Lack of operating capital significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country	Supported
H2b	Seasonality of local foods significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country	Supported
H2c	Lack of skills on food handling significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country	Supported
H3a	Unstable prices of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries	Supported
H3b	Low quality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries	Supported
H3c	Seasonality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries	Supported
H4a	The willingness of hotel managers to support local food suppliers is significantly influenced by their ability to provide support	Supported
H4b	Constraints facing local food suppliers significantly influence hotel managers to import food from outside the country	Supported
H5a	Seasonality of locally produced foods significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels	Supported
H5b	Lack of operating capital significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels	Supported
H5c	Lack of clear food specifications significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels	Supported
H5d	Poor road infrastructure significantly affect the ability of local food	Supported

	suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels	
H5e	Perceived solutions are significantly influenced by types of challenges confronting local food suppliers	Supported
H6a	Frequency of using local foods at home town mediate the relationship between respondents knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H6b	Respondents' knowledge/belief about sustainability mediate the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H6c	Respondents' perception about sustainability mediate the relationship between their education level and their total perception about local foods	Supported
H6d	Respondents' income mediate the relationship between their level of education and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H7a	Gender of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods	Supported
H7b	Age of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H7c	Education level of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H7d	Visitation frequency moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods	Not supported
H7e	Type of accommodation moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about the local foods	Not supported

Hypotheses - Managers' Survey

Hotel managers' model entails 4 factors. The first factor (constraints) consists of 9 items. These items measured hotel managers' perception of the major constraints facing their hotels when dealing with local food suppliers. The second factor (reasons to import food) measured managers' perception regarding major factors that make their hotels to import various foods from outside the country. The third factor (willingness to support) measured hotel manager's willingness to support local food suppliers so that they can have the capacity to supply local foods more efficiently particularly those who are in need of the support. The fourth factor (ability to support) assessed hotel managers ability to provide support to local food suppliers. Previous researchers have indicated that local food suppliers particularly in developing countries face many challenges including, lack of capital, low operating capital, lack of specialized trainings on food handling, lack of training on business skills as well as lack of marketing skills (Slocum, 2010; Torres & Momsen, 2004). These factors are further compounded by the fact that many agricultural products are seasonal in nature. Similarly, poor road infrastructure in these countries tends to exacerbate the challenges that local suppliers already have (Jayne et al., 2002). Thus, understanding major constraints/challenges that managers face when dealing with local food suppliers can be fundamental in creating food-tourism linkages in the country.

The results of this study do support hypothesis H2 through H4 (Table 6.1). Similar to KIA survey, the measurement model was assessed using a confirmatory factor analysis with all the variables of the model included. Standardized and non-standardized

coefficients as well as error variances were used in the model. The final model indicated that overall the model fits well the research data: $\chi^2 = 392.52$ based on 182 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$); NFI = .954; CFI = .960; SRMR = .055; RMSEA = .036. Reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the model were all confirmed. Literature recommend the following critical values for fit indices; NFI > 0.90; CFI > 0.95; SRMR < 0.08; RMSEA < 0.05 and χ^2 close to zero (Byrne, 2006; Sivo et al., 2006).

All hypotheses were tested using a structural equations model in EQS 6.2 for Windows at alpha = 0.05. The results are displayed in Figure 6.1. The overall model explained about 80.6% of the total variance. With respect to the hypothesis (H2a), the results indicate that “lack of operating capital significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country”, thus providing support for H2a ($B = 0.907$, $SE = 0.036$, $t = 25.069$). Previous studies have demonstrated that lack of capital is one of the major constraints facing local suppliers in the country (Slocum, 2010; Torres & Momsen, 2004). The results also demonstrated that the hypothesis H2b “Seasonality of local foods constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country” is significant and positive ($B = 0.938$, $SE = 0.028$, $t = 33.010$). A study conducted by Torres & Momsen (2004) concluded that failure to develop linkages between tourism and agriculture was due to lack of farmer cooperation, few economies of scale, seasonality of production and shortage of transport. In relation to the hypothesis (H2c) “lack of skills on food handling significantly constrains local food suppliers from doing business with different hotels in the country”, the results indicated

that this hypothesis is significant and positive ($B= 0.907$, $SE = 0.034$, $t = 26.522$). Previous studies have demonstrated that inconsistent supplies and the poor quality of local supplies constitute major constraints for local food suppliers (Torres & Momsen, 2004). Thus, the findings of these previous studies corroborate the findings of the current study.

As with hypothesis (H3a), “unstable prices of local foods influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries”, this study found this hypothesis to be positive and significant ($B =0.901$, $SE = 0.012$, $t = 20.370$). Similarly, the hypothesis (H3b) “low quality of local foods influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries” was found to be positive and significant ($B = 0.963$, $SE = 0.023$, $t = 41.099$). Closely related to hypothesis H3a and H3b, is hypothesis H3c which states that “seasonality of local foods significantly influence hotel managers to import foods in their hotels from other countries”. Study findings indicate that this hypothesis is significant and positive ($B = 0.974$, $SE = 0.012$, $t = 81.550$). Findings from past research on food-tourism linkages indicated that many hotels import food from other countries due to; high prices of locally produced foods in the local markets (Pattullo, 1996; Telfer, 2000; Torres, 2003), unavailability of locally produced foods in some periods of the year (Pattullo, 1996; Rhiney, 2011; Torres, 2003), poor quality of locally produced foods (Miller, 1985; Pattullo, 1996; Telfer, 2000; Torres, 2003). Food import for tourism consumption has a tremendous effect on the backward linkages, create financial leakages and reduce multiplier effects (Lejárraga & Walkenhorst, 2010).

In relation to the willingness to provide support, the study findings indicate that the hypothesis (H4a) “the willingness of hotel managers to support local food suppliers is influenced by their ability to provide support”, was positive and significant ($B = 0.902$, $SE = 0.296$, $t = 4.58$). Hotel managers who feel that local community is part of the hotel stakeholders are normally in the frontline is proving support to such communities. Studies on CSR indicate that the extent to which the firm takes into account the needs of the surrounding community can provide evidence of its responsibility to the community.

Hypotheses – Local Food Suppliers Survey

Local food suppliers’ model consists of 4 factors. The first factor (suppliers’ constraints) consists of 9 items. These items measured local food suppliers’ perception of the major constraints facing local food suppliers when supplying their products to hotels in the country. The second factor (solutions) measured local food suppliers’ perception regarding potential solutions to the challenges/constraints identified in factor one (suppliers’ constraints). The third factor (perception towards hotel management) measured how local food suppliers perceive hotel managements during business transactions. The fourth factor (perception towards sustainability) looked at how local food suppliers perceive the connection between their business and sustainable tourism. As discussed in hotel managers section, past studies have shown that local food suppliers especially from developing countries face many challenges such as; lack of capital, lack of food handling knowledge, lack of business skills, and seasonality of local produces.

Other challenges include poor road infrastructure and poor communication (Jayne et al., 2002; Slocum, 2010; Torres & Momsen, 2004). Understanding major constraints/challenges facing managers and suppliers can be fundamental in creating and strengthening food-tourism linkages in the country.

Similar to KIA and hotel managers' surveys, the measurement model was assessed using a confirmatory factor analysis with all the variables of the model included. Standardized and non-standardized coefficients as well as error variances were used in the model. The final model indicated that overall the model fits well the research data: $\chi^2 = 431.65$ based on 268 degrees of freedom ($p < .001$); NFI = .944; CFI = .950; SRMR = .052; RMSEA = .051. Reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity of the model were all confirmed.

All hypotheses were tested using a structural equations model in EQS 6.2 for Windows at alpha = 0.05. The results are displayed in Figure 6.1. The overall model explained about 57.8% of the total variance. In relation to hypothesis (H5a), "seasonality of locally produced foods significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels", the results indicate that (H5a) is positive and significant ($B = 0.654$, $SE = 0.236$, $t = 4.579$). The study findings also demonstrate that the hypothesis (H5b), "lack of operating capital significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels" is significant and positive ($B = 0.639$, $SE = 0.189$, $t = 6.79$). Interestingly, these two hypotheses were also positive and significant in hotel

managers' survey. This implies that indeed seasonality and lack of capital constitute major challenges in food-tourism linkages. The study findings are thus in line with past researches that looked at challenges and opportunities for linking tourism and agriculture (Torres, 2003; Torres & Momsen, 2004).

With regard to the hypothesis (H5c), "lack of clear food specifications significantly affects the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels", the study findings reveals that (H5c) is positive and significant ($B = 0.697$, $SE = 0.233$, $t = 5.788$). Food specification is related to food quality because quality is meeting customers' (hotel) specifications. Thus, it is not surprising that this hypothesis is significant and positive since lack of quality (H3b) was also positive and significant for hotel managers' survey. The study findings also show that hypothesis (H5d) "poor road infrastructure significantly affect the ability of local food suppliers to supply local foods to the hotels" is positive and significant ($B = 0.653$, $SE = 0.217$, $t = 4.858$). Poor/inadequate transportation, storage, processing and marketing infrastructure have been cited as one of the major challenges facing food-tourism linkages (Pattullo, 1996; Torres, 2003). Correspondingly, the hypothesis (H5e) "perceived solutions are significantly influenced by types of challenges confronting local food suppliers" (H5e) is positive and significant ($B = 0.242$, $SE = 0.145$, $t = 2.899$). This is not surprising because in most cases challenges dictate solutions in business. For instance if the hotel want some products that are not in the local market then the solution will be to purchase that product from other places. Similarly, if local food suppliers lack training about particular aspects of the food supply

chain, the solution would be to provide specialized training to solve that problem. Literature indicate that “with improved access to credit, markets, training and private-sector joint ventures, farmers can supply fresh produce and regional crops to the tourism industry” (Torres & Momsen, 2004:302).

Mediation effects

As indicated in the results section, the study investigated whether respondents’ frequency of using local foods at home towns mediates the relationship between respondents’ knowledge and beliefs about sustainability and total perception about local foods. The study hypothesized that individuals who frequently use local foods in their home towns, have more knowledge and strong beliefs about sustainability issues and thus, their perception towards local foods would be high. Previous studies have demonstrated that individuals have higher propensity for local foods because such foods contribute significantly to sustainable development than conventional foods (Sims, 2009). On contrary to these previous studies, the findings of this study indicate that the international tourists’ frequency of using local foods at home town does not mediate the relationship between their knowledge/belief about sustainability and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. This suggests that when people are travelling, there are many other factors they take into account that influence their perception apart from their usual habits at home. Some of these factors could be safety issues and overall confidence of the local food production system.

Further on mediation, the study also examined whether respondents' perception about sustainability mediates the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods. Previous studies have indicated that knowledge on sustainability and income are positively related to perception formation (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Sims, 2009). On contrary, the results of this study demonstrate that respondents' perception about sustainability does not mediate the relationship between their income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. However, studies that looked at the influence of sustainability knowledge and income on perception formation have not been consistent (Lehtinen, 2012; Vermeir & Verbeke, 2006). This is probably due to the fact that sustainability is a subjective construct, which means consumers cannot evaluate it personally with a high level of certainty.

Similarly, the study looked at whether respondents' perception about sustainability mediates the relationship between education level of respondents and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. Previous studies have demonstrated that knowledge on sustainability and education level of individuals is positively correlated with environmental concerns and behaviors (Straughan & Roberts, 1999), as well as perception formation (Stern & Krakover, 1993). The results of this study indicate that, respondents' perception about sustainability does mediate the relationship between respondents' education level and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. Similar findings were also obtained in a study by Baloglu & McCleary (1999). This

means that hotel managers and tourism promotions agencies need to demonstrate to their customers that local foods in the destination are produced according to sustainable practices and also are contributing to sustainable development.

The study also investigated whether income level mediates the relationship between respondents' education level and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. As discussed in the above sections, previous studies have established that income and education level positively influence individuals' perception (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Straughan & Roberts, 1999). Contrary to the findings from these studies, the results of this research indicate that respondents' income does not mediate the relationship between education level and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. This is not surprising because these studies did not test the mediation effect but rather the direct effect of each variable.

Moderation Effects

The study evaluated whether gender of respondents moderates the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods. The findings indicate that gender of respondents does moderate the relationship between respondents' income and their total perception about local foods in Tanzania. The effect of respondents' income on the total perception about local foods depends on whether the respondent is a male or a female. The findings indicate that income has only effect for

female respondents but no effect for males. Among females, the study shows that there is a significant mean difference between lower and middle income and between lower and upper income females but there is no significant mean difference between middle and upper income female respondents. Female respondents with lower income exemplified a lower perception about local foods compared to middle and upper income females. This also means that among female respondents, perception about local foods increases as income increases. Previous studies have indicated that gender and income influence perception formation (Baloglu 1997; Baloglu and McCleary, 1999). However, none of these studies looked at how gender moderates the relationship between income and total perception.

More on moderation, the study investigated whether age, education level, visitation frequency and type of accommodation used by respondents, moderates the relationship between respondents income and their total perception about local foods. The findings revealed that the effect of income on total perception does not depend on age, education level and visitation frequency. A number of studies have attempted to identify differences in the perception formation depending on socio-demographic characteristics. However, such studies have presented contrasting results. While Baloglu and McCleary (1999) found some differences in the perceived image depending on, age, level of education, occupation, income, marital status, and country of origin, Baloglu (1997) found no such differences in the cases of gender, level of education, and income.

In relation to the type of accommodation, the findings demonstrate that although the type of accommodation used by respondents does not moderate the relationship between their income and total perception, the overall perception of respondents in category two (homestays, volunteer houses, apartments and hostels) is significantly higher (mean = 6.07, SD. = 1.32) than that of respondents in category one (hotels, campgrounds and lodges) (mean = 5.11, SD. = 1.33). This might be caused by the fact that most respondents who use hotels, campgrounds and lodges are on packaged tours and thus they do not have much time and perhaps freedom to eat outside these areas. In other words, their menus are pretty much pre-arranged/pre-determined by their chefs and so lack opportunities to experience local foods. On the other hand, respondents who were in the category of homestays or who used volunteer houses, apartments and hostels have more options to choose what they want to eat. These respondents are more exposed to the local environment and in some cases they do prepare their own menus or prepare their menus in close cooperation from their hosts and so have more opportunities to experience local foods

Conclusions

The link between local food and tourism has significantly increased in importance in more recent years. For some tourists as well as destinations, local foods is seen as a push as well as a pull factor motivating tourists to visit the destination (Boniface, 2003; Hall, Mitchell, & Sharples, 2003; Sims, 2009). In general, food is acknowledged to be a

tourist concern and one of the major priorities when planning for a trip. Thus, perceptions of the availability of good foods as well as good food hygiene can be viewed as a strength and opportunity (Henderson, 2009). Some scholars contend that having a clear gastronomic identity can be a critical factor for destination success particularly in highly competitive markets (Fox, 2007). Some destinations in the world have capitalized in their local foods and in recent years have become highly famous because of their local cuisine. Such destinations include; France, Italy, Singapore, Hong Kong, Malaysia, UK, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand (Henderson, 2009). For instance, Hong Kong and Singapore proclaim themselves to be “food paradises” with Hong Kong having over 9,000 restaurants from which tourists can select (Au and Law, 2002). Some places in the United States (e.g. Las Vegas) are investing in food to assist in its reinvention and repositioning as a tourist destination, which is not reliant on gambling alone (Henderson, 2009). Food can therefore be central to tourism development, which, in turn, can be essential for the overall economic advancement of a country. However, for food to contribute significantly to economic development, it is imperative for tourism players to clearly understand all the perils and complexities surrounding local foods.

In order to explain and understand complexities revolving around local food-tourism linkages, this study not only attempted to explore and investigate challenges/constraints facing both local food suppliers and hotel managers, but also attempted to evaluate the perceptions of international tourists towards local foods in Tanzania. Understanding perceptions of key players in food-tourism linkages not only

provides a more holistic view about the problem but also shades some light on the potential solutions to the problem.

The current study draws the conclusion that cognitive/perceptual (knowledge and beliefs) and affective (feelings) evaluations are two interdependent psychological constructs, which together play a key role in understanding individuals overall perception about local foods. The cognitive/perceptual evaluations formed by individuals as a result of accumulated knowledge and beliefs about local foods influence the way individuals perceive local foods. Likewise, this study concludes that the affective evaluation (feelings) that individuals have about local foods is a precursor of the overall perception about local foods. Understanding knowledge and beliefs of consumer psychology is extremely important in tourism because it determines the success of a destination. Similarly, cognitive and affective evaluations can provide significant insights regarding tourists' satisfaction with products and services that are offered in the country. These constructs can as well be used to provide meaningful feedback to the system and thus, provide opportunities for service providers to improve service performance.

The research model has revealed that cognitive and affective constructs have a strong influence on the overall perception. It is therefore imperative for service providers and marketers as well to understand what specific elements constitute these constructs that are more applicable in their situation or place. Such understandings can serve a lot of

time and money that managers use to create and enhance images of their businesses or destination.

A considerable number of studies have focused on consumers' perception because it is considered to be one of the most important factors in business success particularly in highly competitive markets (Morgan, Attaway & Griffin, 1996). In the tourism industry, many studies have concentrated in tourists satisfactions with travel agencies, accommodations, tour operators and destinations in general. However, more effort is needed to investigate tourists' perception and satisfaction with regards to local foods and the associated services. Understanding tourists' perception and or satisfaction with local foods and associated services is considered to be a crucial issue not only for academics but also for all tourism stakeholders owing to the benefits associated with local foods.

The present study also draws the conclusion that; lack of operating capital, seasonality of local foods, lack of food handling skills, unstable prices, low quality and safety of local foods, lack of clear food specifications from hotels and poor road infrastructure constitutes some of the major challenges facing local food-tourism linkages in the country. There are a number of compelling reasons why these challenges need to be addressed. One, there is already established study findings that local people are not benefiting much from the current tourism industry development in the country. Two, existing studies have already established that local people are not currently accessing tourism markets to sell their products in the country. Third, myriad studies have already

established that improving food-tourism linkages reduces economic leakages, create employment, increases multiplier effects in the local economy, stimulates agricultural production, strengthens agricultural diversification and reduces environmental degradation since local foods travel minimal distances compared to conventional foods. Fourth, it is argued that the tourism industry tends to overuse and degrade the common pool resources which eventually culminate into resentment from the local communities since they no longer have an equal opportunity to use the scarce resources in the areas. Therefore, addressing these challenges can be one way of ameliorating some of the negative impacts of the tourism industry as well as optimizing benefits to the local community. Fifth, the study findings have revealed that some of the constraints push hotel managers to import foods from other countries, causing revenue leakages. Therefore, paying attention to these challenges can be one way of overcoming the problem of revenue leakages caused by importing foods from other countries. Previous studies have already demonstrated that improving the link between agriculture and tourism can provide a major source of income and is one way to decrease leakages out of the local economy (Telfer & Wall, 1996, 2000; Torres, 2003).

This study also draws the conclusion that, the majority of the respondents who participated in this research indicated clearly that they like local foods in this destination. However, one of their major concerns was in relation to food quality, safety and confidence with food production systems. In general, when it comes into food consumption, consumers are very sensitive with quality and safety of what they eat. In

recent years food safety and quality issues have become highly significant notably due to recent food scandals such as; Chinese milk scandal (Gereffi & Lee, 2009), dioxins in food in Belgium and detection of mad cow disease (BSE) in Britain (Chen, 2008). These three food scandals and others such as Ebola which is associated with consumption of bush meat in some countries in West Africa not only have decreased consumers' confidence in the local food production system of global destinations but also have shown major weaknesses in overall food supply chain. This suggests that there is a strong need for the country to have a sound food quality assurance system in its hospitality industry. One way of achieving this is to integrate food safety into the national tourism policy. Such policies should identify all stakeholders involved in food-tourism linkages since food safety cannot be guaranteed by an individual actor. Such policies should pay attention to small and medium sized tourism and hospitality enterprises which are currently not highly regulated. Likewise, such policies should highlight the significance of the food vendors who are present on many streets and beaches in most parts of the country. These vendors (for instance stone town in Zanzibar) serve a significant number of tourists and therefore, they need to be highly regulated since their contribution in the food tourism industry is highly substantial in the country.

For individual hotels, food quality, safety and hence consumers' confidence can be guaranteed by adopting one of the modern food quality management systems such as Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point (HACCP). HACCP is one of the modern food management systems in which food safety issues are addressed through the analysis and

control of food safety hazards (biological, chemical, and physical) from raw material production, procurement, handling, to manufacturing, distribution and consumption of the finished product. HACCP can be easily applied in all types of hotels and restaurants. Such a food quality management system can enable all food handlers such as hotels and restaurants to; identify, control all Critical Control points (CCP), and reduce food safety risks and consequently maintain tourists' confidence.

Studies indicate that the tourism industry is normally associated with higher prices of goods and services in many developing countries. If the information from this study is implemented and local foods are adopted and provided to all tourist operations; it is less likely that local residents will have problems in accessing local foods since about 80% of Tanzanians are farmers, living in rural areas, producing their own foods. Moreover, Tanzania has a large uncultivated area; therefore higher demand of local foods may be a significant factor to stimulate more supply of local foods to the market (both tourist markets such as hotels and restaurants as well as local grocery stores). Similarly, local food growing seasons vary greatly within the country. This variation may be beneficial in creating a more stable local food supply chain which in turn may also help to overcome the problem of local food seasonality as demonstrated in this study.

Implications of the Study Findings

The findings of this study have both theoretical and practical implications. From a theoretical viewpoint, the study developed and tested a conceptual model based on the image theory. The study employed image theory main constructs (i.e. cognitive/perceptual evaluations and affective evaluations). However, these constructs constituted different items derived from the literature to reflect the objectives of the current study. Therefore, this study has contributed to the existing body of knowledge by providing empirical evidence about elements contributing to the cognitive/perceptual and affective evaluations and therefore to the overall perception. The study also employed the stakeholder theory and the triple bottom line theory. Stakeholder theory seeks to identify all individuals who in one way or another are affected by organizations' activities. In this study, the main stakeholders of food-tourism linkages were identified to be; local people, local food producers/suppliers, hotels, tourists and the government. Hotels play a key role in food-tourism linkages and are considered to be one of the main drivers of food-tourism linkages. This study has demonstrated that for hotels to be able to provide optimum experience to their customers (tourists), they have to take into account the needs of other stakeholders identified above. In relations to the Triple Bottom Line theory, this study has demonstrated that food-tourism linkages can be successful and sustainable if such linkages create a shared prosperity for all stakeholders. This study has also demonstrated that individuals' knowledge and belief (cognitive evaluation) about sustainability (Triple Bottom Line theory) significantly influence their total perception about local foods.

From a practical standpoint, the findings that cognitive/perceptual and affective evaluations have an influence on individuals overall perceptions towards local foods has marketing implications. Hotel managers can use cognitive/perceptual and affective evaluation cues identified in this research to promote and enhance the image of local foods and consequently boost the well-being of the local communities. For instance, the respondents indicated that overall, they have low confidence with food production systems in the country. Thus, hotel managers should establish effective food quality management systems and demonstrate to their customers that they do have such systems in place. Doing so will enhance consumers' trust and confidence and consequently boost the overall image of local foods. Similarly, hotel managers and those involved in destination marketing such as Tanzania Tourism Board (TTB) should pay more attention on what constitute individuals' cognitive and affective evaluations over and beyond what was covered in this study. This is important because items constituting cognitive and affective evaluations can be subjective and so can vary greatly. To overcome this, hotel managers in collaboration with TTB can do more studies focusing specifically on the development of cognitive and affective cues related to local foods.

To the best knowledge of the researcher, there are very few studies that looked at local food-tourism linkages in Tanzania. Most existing studies focused on the challenges facing the agricultural industry in general. Therefore, the findings of this study can be useful not only to academicians but also to other tourism stakeholders including, tourists, hotel managers and local food suppliers as well.

Further implications of this study is that as tourism industry is becoming more competitive, each destination needs to assess its; strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats more vigorously in order to win the competition. Likewise, to win the competition, destinations need to have unique products that competitors do not have. One such product could be local foods/cuisines. Therefore, understanding perceptions of international tourists towards local foods provides a step ahead in meeting such objectives. The study findings have indicated that overall international tourists like Tanzanian local foods and that they are ready to recommend these foods to friends and relatives back at home. However, the results indicate that many hotels where tourists stayed in did not provide many varieties of local foods or information about local foods. One of the fundamental motives for people to travel is to experience local culture. Studies indicate that one way of experiencing local culture is through consuming local foods/traditional foods. Therefore, hotels should take that as an opportunity to enhance tourists' experiences.

Similarly, the majority of the tourists appeared not to have very high confidence with the local food production systems. Confidence and trust in the food production system are critical issues for consumers. This implies that there is a need for food service providers to take immediate actions in improving their quality assurance systems including traceability systems. Likewise, food service providers should demonstrate to their customers that they have sound quality assurance systems. Media coverage

particularly the one that captures the entire local food journey (from farm to folk) can be highly influential in regaining customers trust and confidence.

This study has also shown that there are many constraints facing local food suppliers. Such constraints include lack of operating capital, lack of business skills, lack of food handling skills, difficulty in maintaining product consistency, difficulty in accessing microfinance institutions to acquire capital as well as poor networking with farmers. Some of these constraints can be solved by establishing local food producers/suppliers cooperatives. A food cooperative is an organization owned, managed and operated by its members for the benefit of all members in that cooperative. Food cooperatives are very common in the United States and its history goes back to 1970s. In the United States many local food producers are members of local cooperatives. Through these cooperatives it is easy for the local producers and suppliers to discuss their common problems and find solutions which otherwise would have been difficult to be pursued by one person. For instance, it is easier to conduct training on food safety or quality assurance systems for members of a particular cooperative than conducting training for one person. Similarly, it is relatively easier for a particular cooperative to acquire simple local food processing facilities than it is for an individual member. Likewise, it is relatively easier for a cooperative to acquire loan from either bank or microfinance institution than it is for an individual person. It is also relatively easier for hotel managers to deal with local farmers/suppliers who operate under a particular cooperative because

they can be easily traced back, thus cooperatives create a sense of high quality and safe foods.

Previous studies have indicated that local communities including those living alongside leading tourism sites do not see the benefits of tourism (Nelson, 2012; TMNRT, 2005) and therefore, pose potential threats to conservation initiatives to the nearby protected areas. Most of these communities are poor, uneducated and highly unemployed due to lack of skills required in the job markets. One of the main economic activities practiced by these communities is farming. However, one of the main challenges facing these communities is lack of market for their produces. Formation of cooperatives would therefore, help to bring these communities together and access markets for their produces (for instance cooperatives can be linked to big hotels in the country) and consequently reduce conservation threats to many protected areas across the country. Since these people are scattered and uneducated it is difficult for them to establish such cooperatives, thus the government or NGOs should take initiatives in establishing such cooperatives. Cooperatives/local farmers associations can also be initiated by hotel managers. A good example of this is that of Singita lodges in Serengeti national park. Over years, the lodge administration has been providing technical support to local farmers who in turn sell their local foods directly to the lodge. Visitors review indicates that one of the main attractions in Singita lodges is provision of local foods.

This study has also demonstrated that 74.2% of the surveyed hotel managers were males and 89.1% of the surveyed local food suppliers were males. This implies that only a small percentage of hotel managers (25.8%) as well as local food suppliers (10.9%) were females. Previous studies focusing on agriculture and food production in Tanzania indicate that farming is mainly done by females and that female farmers are the primary contributors to the World's food production. This indicates clearly that there is a gender imbalance along the food supply chain. The implication of the findings of this study is that there is a need to empower more women to create a gender balanced atmosphere in the local food supply chain. Empowerment can create many employment opportunities for all types of women including unmarried, married; divorced as well as single mothers. Such empowerment can be done by government agencies or NGOs.

Limitations of the study

This study has several limitations, many of which may provide useful insights for conducting future studies. First, the study used only the English language for the KIA survey and therefore, only English speakers participated in the study. Issues surrounding foods are closely related to individuals' cultures; therefore, people from a different culture might have different perceptions regarding the cognitive and affective evaluations as indicated in this study. Thus, generalizability of the study findings to non-English speakers might not be correct.

Second, the research data for KIA survey was collected from the airport, where tourists were waiting to board their planes. In some occasions there was no enough time for tourists to; take the survey, or read the research questions thoroughly; instead they just checked the boxes because they didn't want to return the survey unanswered. Similarly, in some cases tourists were tired because of the long journey and so were not willing to take the survey.

Third, the research data for KIA survey was collected during the high tourists' season in the country, it should therefore, not be considered representative of the entire tourist population in Tanzania. Likewise, data collection for managers and local food suppliers' survey was done in Dar-es Salaam and Arusha regions only. While this represents the major tourist regions in the country, it should not be considered representative of all regions in the country.

Fourth, although the cognitive/perceptual and affective model was significant, some factors in the model were not significant, and therefore care should be taken when interpreting the model. This is particularly important when further reference is made from the model. Similarly, the current study was limited to the objectives of the research, thus, the researcher did not test the indirect paths or multiple mediations in the model. Related to this, the researcher tested only one direction (did not reverse the direction) of paths in the model. Testing all paths would therefore have provided the researcher with a more complete picture of the model.

Fifth, most items used in this study were obtained from diverse literatures that focused on food-tourism linkages. Most of these items were therefore highly subjective and most of them were not included in the final model. However, the final model was tested for reliability and validity.

Sixth, this study only tested mediation effects of few variables consistent with the objectives of the study. Therefore, it is possible that some variables that were not tested for mediation effects may exhibit some mediation effects.

Recommendations for Future Research

The tourists' survey at the Kilimanjaro international airport (KIA) involved only the English language speakers' as respondents. As discussed in this research, issues related to food consumption are highly linked to individuals' cultures. Therefore, it would be useful to replicate this research using a sample that is representative of many cultures (The English language speakers and non-English language speakers). Such a research would enable scholars and practitioners to identify differences and similarities among different groups. Furthermore, such a research effort would be useful in validating findings of the current study.

Similarly, this research was conducted by using a quantitative research method approach. It would be useful to conduct a similar research by using a qualitative research method approach or a combination of both methods. Qualitative approach enables

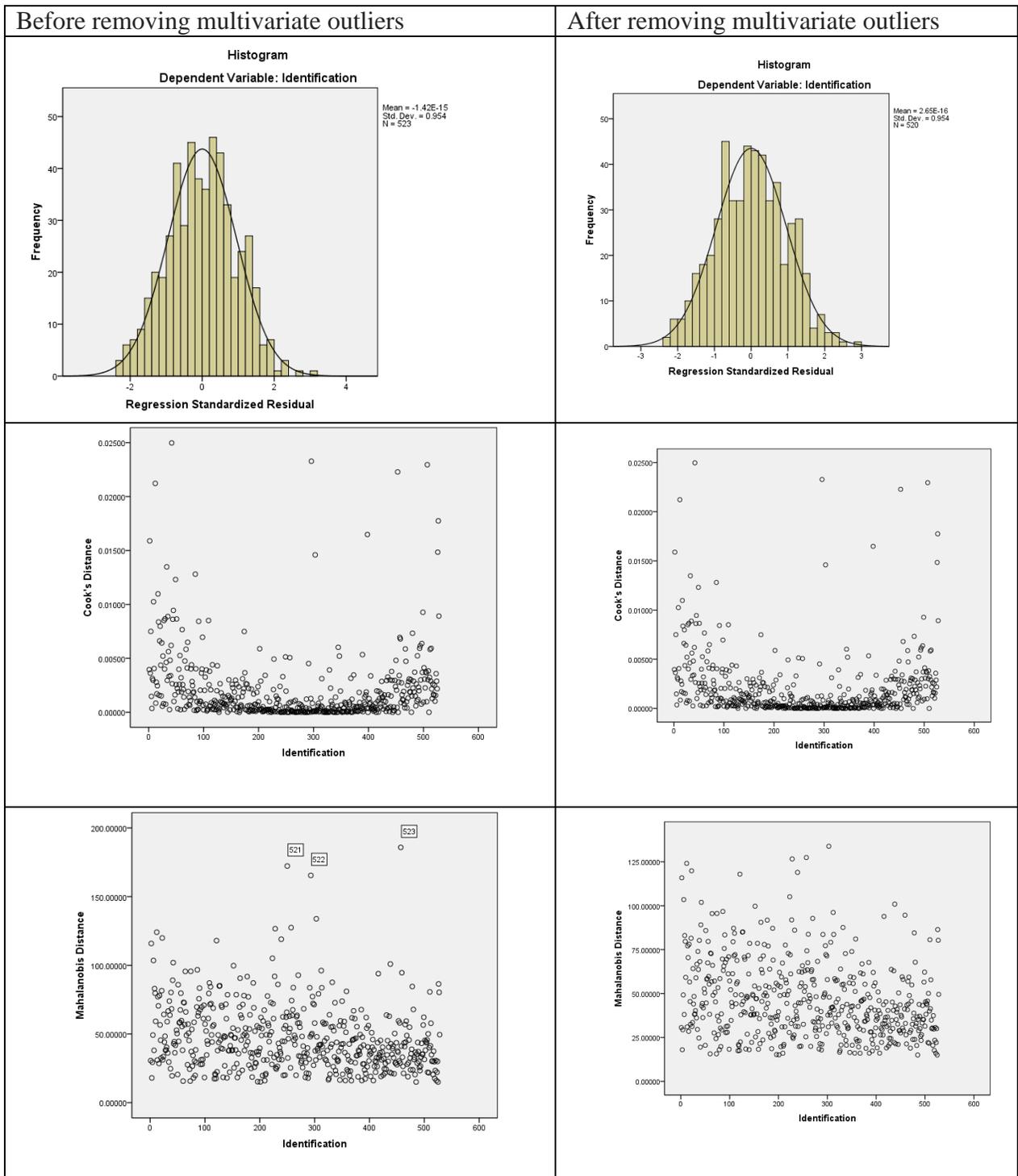
researchers to get deeper information and meanings since the research subjects can describe in rich detail phenomena as they are situated and embedded in local context. Likewise, Qualitative approaches are especially responsive to local situations, conditions, and stakeholders' needs.

This research was conducted from June to August. This period coincides with the high tourist season in the northern part of the country. During this time, most hotels are relatively busy. Therefore, it would be useful to conduct a survey with hotel managers during the low tourist season, where most managers have more discretionary time. In relation to hotels, it would also be useful to conduct a research with hotel chefs who have rich experience and expertise in the food industry in Tanzania, to identify specific local/traditional ingredients or cuisine that have been doing well in the market (some hotels) but for some reasons have not been promoted.

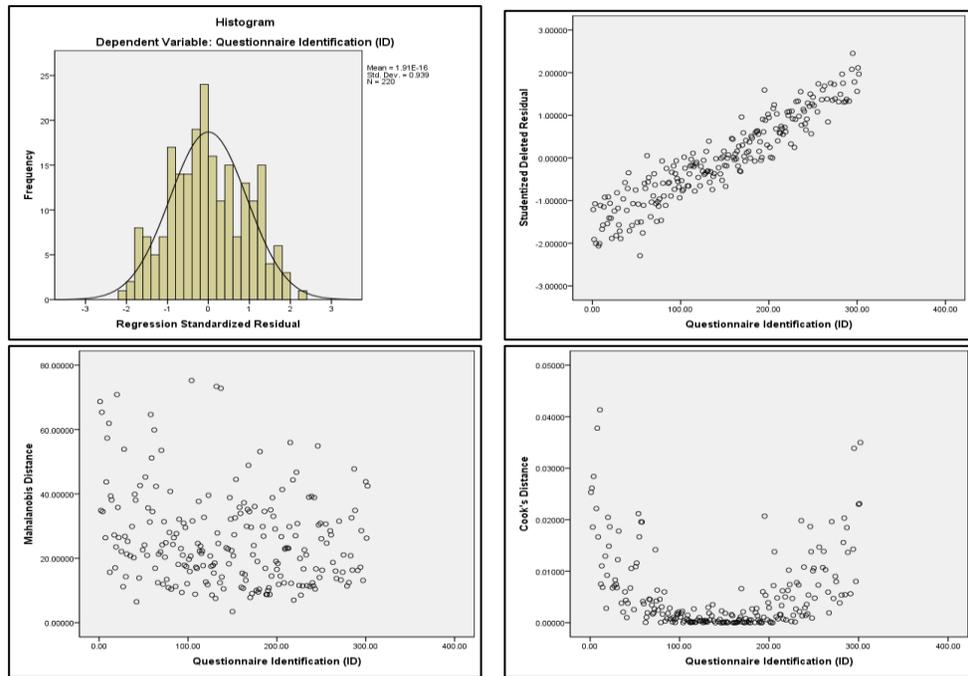
Furthermore, Tanzania is a multicultural country with high cultural diversity (it has more than 150 tribes). Most of these tribes have more than one traditional cuisine. The researcher of the current study believes that some of these local/traditional cuisines, including many varieties of delicious tropical fruits and vegetables would have a good reputation and demand from international visitors. Therefore, it would be useful to conduct a study to identify such local food/products for the purpose of promoting them and at the same time promoting the destination. An example of such local products could be the local wines that are produced in Dodoma area and other areas around the country.

APPENDICES

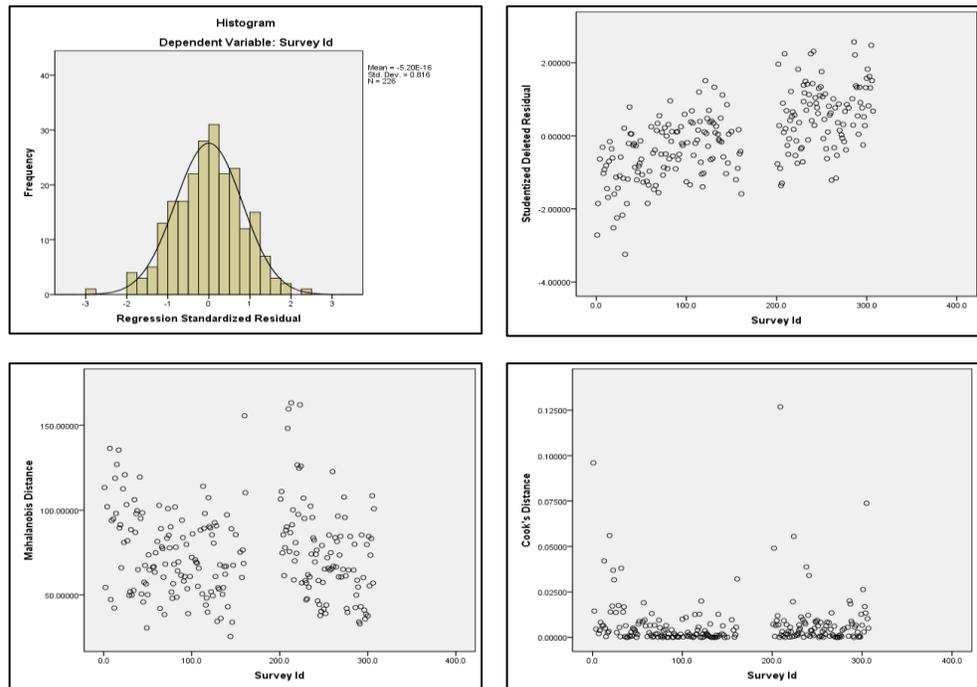
Appendix A1: Multivariate outliers Analysis for KIA Survey



Appendix A2: Multivariate outliers Analysis for hotel managers' survey



Appendix A3: Multivariate outliers Analysis for Local Food Supplier survey



Appendix B1: A Pattern Matrix table indicating 6 Factors

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.Locally produced foods contribute to sustainable tourism development	.802	-.089	-.101	-.004	.060	-.041
8.Locally produced foods may contribute to environmental sustainability	.699	-.049	.046	.063	-.075	.009
8.Locally produced foods may increase income of the local people	.676	-.069	-.009	-.002	.001	.019
8.Locally produced foods may serve as a tourist attraction	.671	.006	-.036	.031	-.040	-.089
8.Locally produced foods may increase local people's ownership of business	.665	-.051	-.058	.123	.035	.175
8.Locally produced foods may support agricultural diversification	.655	.066	-.009	-.014	.033	-.056
8.Locally produced foods may increases level of local community involvement in tourism	.643	.007	-.005	-.031	.034	.076
8.Locally produced foods may contribute to sustainable development	.628	-.041	.064	-.046	-.005	.038
8.Locally produced foods may enhance visitors experiences	.623	.112	.037	.034	-.019	.039
8.Locally produced foods may improve the image of the destination	.535	.091	.026	-.103	-.062	.018
8.Locally produced foods travel short distances so may reduce climate change	.516	-.066	-.123	.324	.069	-.099
8.Locally produced foods are genuine (authentic) products	.497	.089	.091	-.116	-.051	-.075
8.Locally produced foods may help in maintaining regional identity	.474	.176	.091	.012	.001	-.059
8.I used local foods in this destination because I know doing so contributes to poverty reduction	.458	-.031	.075	-.227	-.088	-.038
8.Difficulty in communication prevented me from experiencing local foods	-.340	.048	-.165	.092	-.091	-.109
8.Locally produced foods may enhance hotel competitive advantages	.338	.150	-.178	.135	.041	.111
8.The hotel I stayed in did not provide many varieties of local foods	-.007	.967	-.007	-.001	.008	-.008
8.The hotel I stayed in provided few varieties of local foods	.017	.934	-.010	.002	-.003	.002
8.Hotels should promote locally produced foods	.027	.912	.002	-.008	-.005	.013
8.The hotel I stayed in provided insufficient information about local foods	.042	.897	.006	.006	-.003	.007
8.I used local foods in this destination because I wanted to experience local culture	-.126	.022	.858	.024	.008	.040
8.I used local foods in this destination	-.008	-.054	.837	-.007	.003	-.004
8.I will recommend to friends visiting this destination to use local foods	.123	-.021	.680	-.063	.083	.046
8.I used local foods because doing so may help to conserve the environment	.014	.040	.536	.213	.137	-.054
8.I used local foods because they are produced organically	-.005	.033	.510	.118	-.064	-.061
8.Local foods were reasonably priced	-.061	-.014	.487	-.017	-.089	.156
8.Local Food services in this destination were reliable	.117	.015	.385	-.032	.047	.086

8.I used local foods in this destination because I wanted to increase my knowledge about local foods	.224	-.060	.335	.008	-.136	-.219
8.Imported foods travel long distances so may contribute to environmental pollution	-.031	.018	.001	.912	-.049	-.039
8.Imported foods travel long distances so may contribute to climate change	-.027	-.011	-.074	.863	-.017	.081
8.Imported foods takes money away from the local economy	-.023	-.002	.132	.848	-.022	-.037
8.Overall I like locally produced foods in this destination	-.038	.001	.097	.712	.017	.022
8.Difficulty in identifying local foods prevented me from using local foods	-.021	.005	-.009	-.013	1.006	-.039
8.Use of unfamiliar ingredients discouraged me from using local foods	-.011	.008	-.010	-.012	.998	-.032
8.Identifying local foods was difficult	-.008	-.018	.061	-.035	.749	.046
8.Stories from friends discouraged me to use local foods	.010	-.015	.028	.019	-.018	.993
8.Experiences from relatives discouraged me to use local foods	-.002	-.011	.032	.022	-.018	.985
8.Unpleasant display of local foods prevented me from using local foods	-.030	-.094	-.161	.050	-.014	-.302

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appendix B2: Total Variance Explained by 8 Factors

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues						Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings ^a
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total			
							Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	
1	8.924	23.485	23.485	3.279	8.628	8.628	7.449			
2	4.367	11.492	34.978	2.248	5.915	14.543	5.325			
3	2.799	7.365	42.342	6.589	17.338	31.881	4.176			
4	2.445	6.434	48.777	3.885	10.223	42.104	4.553			
5	2.123	5.588	54.365	2.190	5.762	47.866	2.910			
6	1.936	5.094	59.458	2.515	6.618	54.484	2.685			
7	1.384	3.641	63.099							
.										
38	.007	.018	100.000							

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

a. When factors are correlated, sums of squared loadings cannot be added to obtain a total variance.

Appendix C1: Survey instrument for KIA survey

Clemson University- Department
of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism
Management



Sokoine University of
Agriculture- Department of
Wildlife Management



ID _____ Date _____

Dear participant,

We are conducting a survey to help us determine how to improve Food-Tourism linkages as a Strategy for Promoting Sustainable Tourism, Economic Development and Poverty Alleviation in Tanzania. Participation in this research is purely voluntary and you can opt to stop participating at any time. We do not know of any risks or discomforts to you that may be caused by this research study. The information you provide will help in finding common solutions to problems facing food-tourism linkages in the country

Please take a few minutes to answer the enclosed confidential questions about your experience on Food-Tourism linkages. Your individual answers will not be disclosed. They will be combined with those of other respondents to guide us in the evaluation process.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation. Your opinions are very important to us.

John, T. Mgonja

PhD. Candidate - Clemson University, SC. USA

If you have questions or concerns regarding this survey please contact:

John T. Mgonja
Clemson University
Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management
270 Lehotsky Hall, 29634 Clemson, SC, USA
864-986-2461 (US)
+255 713 314904 (Tanzania)
jmgonja@clemson.edu

Section A: Information about Tanzania

1. How did you hear about Tanzania as a destination to this trip?

2. Was Tanzania the primary destination of your trip from home? *(Please check one)*

 1=Yes, 2=No → (b) what was your primary destination?

3. In what type of lodging did you stay during this visit to this destination? **(Please circle all that apply)**
 - a. hotel/motel,
 - b. campground
 - c. eco lodge
 - d. luxury lodge
 - e. other_____
4. What was the major purpose of this trip? **(Please circle all that apply)**
 - a. safari vacation
 - b. beach vacation
 - c. cultural vacation
 - d. other_____
5. Including you; how many people are part of your travel group? ____ **(please write in the number)**
6. Who are you travelling with in this trip _____

Section B: Local foods

This section seeks to understand your perceptions of local foods and drinks.

7. How do you define local foods and drinks? Please provide as much information as possible to help us understand how you define local foods and drinks.

In the remaining part of this section “local food” refers to all products produced from within a defined local area that you might have visited such as the village, district, region or even a country (Tanzania) in general.

8. (a) This question seeks to understand your perception of local foods during your visit to Tanzania. After reading the given statement, please circle the number that best fits your views.

	To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Please circle the number that best fits your views.						
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Overall local foods were of good quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall local foods were safe to eat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fear of illness deterred me from using local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stories from friends discouraged me to use local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Past experiences from relatives discouraged me to use local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unpleasant display of local foods prevented me from using local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Use of unfamiliar ingredients discouraged me from using local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Suspicion of being cheated discouraged me from using local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Identifying local foods was difficult	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Difficulty in identifying local foods prevented me from using local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel I stayed in did not provide many varieties of local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Difficulty in communication prevented me from experiencing local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Difficulty in ordering prevented	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

me from experiencing local foods							
Local foods were reasonably priced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel I stayed in provided insufficient information about local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel I stayed in provided few varieties of local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods in this destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods in this destination because I wanted to experience local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods in this destination because I wanted to increase my knowledge about local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods in this destination because I know doing so contributes to poverty reduction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods because doing so may help to conserve the environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I used local foods because they are produced organically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local Food services in this destination were appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local Food services in this destination were reliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I will recommend to friends visiting this destination to use local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The memories of local foods from this destination will remain with me for a long time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I like local foods more than imported foods from overseas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may contribute to sustainable development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may contribute to environmental	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

sustainability							
Locally produced foods may contribute to sustainable tourism development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may serve as a tourist attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may improve the image of the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods are genuine (authentic) products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may help in maintaining regional identity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may support agricultural diversification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may enhance visitors experiences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may promote local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods travel short distances so may reduce climate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may increase income of the local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may increase local people's ownership of business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may increase level of local community involvement in tourism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may enhance hotel competitive advantages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hotels should promote locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imported foods travel long distances so may contribute to climate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imported foods travel long	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

distances so may contribute to environmental pollution							
Imported foods takes money away from the local economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Overall I like locally produced foods in this destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. Did you eat local foods in this destination?

1=Yes

2=No

10. Please tell us, whether you agree or disagree with the following statement. "I frequently eat local foods in my home town?"

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. Please tell us, how important is the following information when deciding on which local food to purchase when you visiting this destination

	Not highly important	Not Important	Somewhat not important	Neutral	Somewhat important	Important	Highly Important
How local food was harvested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How local food was prepared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
How local food was transported	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
When local food was harvested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
where local food was harvested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Who harvested local food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Is a local food producer certified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Is local food Produced organically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

12. Please indicate your level of confidence in local food production system when deciding to purchase local foods in this destination.

	Extremely Unconfident	Unconfident	Somewhat unconfident	Neutral	Somewhat confident	Confident	Extremely Confident
Produced hygienically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Transported hygienically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Stored hygienically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Prepared hygienically	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Safe to eat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Produced by healthy workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Produced by knowledgeable workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Produced by honest workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Food problems can be traced back	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regulatory authority competence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

13. Please indicate your views on local foods in this destination compared to local foods in your home town. Local foods in this destination are..... than local foods in my home town

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Safer	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Better in quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Healthier	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cleaner	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fresher	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Better tasting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cheaper	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
More appealing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Please indicate how likely are you to eat the following local products when visiting this destination?

Items	Highly unlikely	Unlikely	Some What unlikely	Neutral	Some What likely	Likely	Highly likely
Fruits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Vegetables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fish (e.g. Sea fish, cold water fish)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meat (e.g. Beef, pork, chicken)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Milk and milk products (e.g. cheese, fresh milk, yoghurt)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Leguminous products (e.g. alfalfa, clover, peas, beans, lentils, peanuts etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Cereals (e.g. rice, wheat, millet, maize etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Roots and tubers (e.g. Carrot, Irish potatoes, yam, ginger, sweet potato, cassava etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tap water	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bottled water	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alcoholic drinks (e.g. local wines, local beers)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nonalcoholic drinks (tea, coffee)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Breads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Salads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Desserts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section B: This section seeks to collect information about your experience in the areas you visited.

15. Please rate how you agree/disagree with each of the following travel characteristics

When I travel, I feel it is important to ...	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
See culture different than mine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Have information on the history of the local people.	1	2	3	4	4	5	6
Attend cultural events.	1	2	3	4	4	5	6
Learn about the local culture.	1	2	3	4	4	5	6
Meet local residents.	1	2	3	4	4	5	6

16. Please check all national parks/reserves you visited during **THIS** visit to Tanzania. For each park/reserve you checked, please also check how satisfied you were with the park/reserve

Name of the Park/Reserve	I Visited The...	Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Some what dissatisfied	Neutral	Some what satisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied
Example: Saadan National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Serengeti National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ngorongoro Conservation Area Authority	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tarangire National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lake Manyara National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Arusha National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Kilimanjaro National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Mkomazi National Park	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Others	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	<input type="checkbox"/> →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. Have you been to any of the national parks/reserves in Tanzania BEFORE THIS TRIP? (*Circle one*)

(a) No, (b) Yes, _____ how many times _____

18. How many trips have you made to other African parks/reserves in the last five years?

19. Please rate how important each of the following characteristics are in an African national park/reserve

Reserve characteristics	Not highly important	Not important	Somewhat not important	Neutral	Somewhat important	Important	Highly important
Attractive scenery	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
High bird diversity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
High mammal diversity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
High floral diversity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The "Big Five" (lion, elephant, buffalo, leopard and rhinoceros)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Large predators	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Wildebeest migration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

20. Please rate how you agree/disagree with each of the following statements about travel and tourism

Statements about travel and tourism	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neutral	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The local people must have the opportunity to manage tourism in their region.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The local people's opinions must be considered in the tourism planning process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tourism must contribute to the local community development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I desire part of the revenue from tourism to go into the hands of the local people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Tourism must build cultural pride within the local community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

21. Please rate how likely are you to use the following items when you travel

Items	Highly unlikely	Unlikely	Some What unlikely	Neutral	Some What likely	Likely	Highly likely
Locally owned accommodations?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally owned food areas?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally made arts and crafts?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22. If time or money is not a limitation, would you return to this destination in the future?

Definitely No				Neutral				Definitely Yes
1	2	3	4	5	6	7		

23. What is your gender? ____ Male ____ Female

24. What year were you born in? _____

25. What is the highest level of education you completed?

- Did Not Complete High School
- High School/GED
- Some College
- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Advanced Graduate work or Ph.D.

26. What is your approximate household income per year?

- a) Less than \$20,000
- b) \$20,000 - \$39,999
- c) \$40,000 - \$59,999
- d) \$60,000 - \$79,999
- e) \$80,000 - \$99,999
- f) \$100,000 - \$119,999
- g) \$120,000 - \$139,999
- h) \$140,000 - \$159,999
- i) \$160,000 - \$179,999
- j) \$180,000 - \$199,999
- k) \$200,000 or more

27. What is your nationality? _____

28. Did you book this vacation as a package tour?

(a) Yes _____

(b) No _____

29. How many days and nights have you been away from home on this vacation?

_____ # of days

_____ # of nights

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix C2: Survey instrument for hotel managers

Clemson University- Department
of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism
Management



Sokoine University of
Agriculture- Department of
Wildlife Management



ID _____ Date _____

Dear participant,

We are conducting a survey to help us determine how to improve Food-Tourism linkages as a Strategy for Promoting Sustainable Tourism, Economic Development and Poverty Alleviation in Tanzania. Participation in this research is purely voluntary and you can opt to stop participating at any time. We do not know of any risks or discomforts to you that may be caused by this research study. The information you provide will help in finding common solutions to problems facing food-tourism linkages in the country

Please take a few minutes to answer the enclosed confidential questions about your experience on Food-Tourism linkages. Your individual answers will not be disclosed. They will be combined with those of other respondents to guide us in the evaluation process.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation. Your opinions are very important to us.

John, T. Mgonja

PhD. Candidate - Clemson University, SC. USA

If you have questions or concerns regarding this survey please contact:

John T. Mgonja
Clemson University
Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management
270 Lehotsky Hall, 29634 Clemson, SC, USA

Section 1 A

This section seeks to collect information about major constraints/problems facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers.

In this document “local foods” refer to all products produced from within a defined local area such as the village, district, region or even a country (Tanzania) in general.

1. Does your hotel use local food suppliers to purchase locally produced foods? Please select one
 - a. Yes,
 - b. No

2. If No, please skip this question and go to question 6 below, if yes, how many local food suppliers do you currently have? Please give the number

3. How many local food suppliers did your hotel had in the last two years?

4. Are there suppliers who stopped doing business with you in the last two years?
 - a. No,
 - b. Yes. If yes, what is the reason? Please explain _____

5. What kinds of foods does your hotel buy from local food suppliers? Please provide as many types as possible.

6. What kind of foods do you think should be supplied by local suppliers but for some reasons are not currently supplied? Please provide as many types as possible

7. In your opinion, what do you think are the main reasons preventing local food suppliers from doing business with your hotel?

8. What problems/challenges do you normally encounter when dealing with local food suppliers? Please feel free to mention as many problems/challenges as possible

9. What strategies do you normally use to solve problems that you encounter when dealing with your local food suppliers? Please feel free to mention as many strategies as possible

10. How does your hotel select/recruit local food suppliers? Please explain

11. Does your hotel have detailed product specifications that you always require your local food suppliers to follow? (Please check one)

- a. Yes, b. No

12. With respect to product specifications, how does your hotel communicate with local food suppliers? Please circle one

- a. Verbally
 b. By writings
 c. By phones
 d. By email
 e. Others _____

13. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding the performance of local suppliers. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. (Please circle one number for each statement)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Local food suppliers can be easily traced by our hotel management	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The way in which local food suppliers communicate their problems to the hotel management is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the hotel specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the food safety specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the quality specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the quantity specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the size specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the color specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the freshness specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers bring their products at the agreed time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers meet the smell specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In general the performance of local food suppliers is good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

14. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding how the hotel management deals with local food suppliers. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. (Please *circle one number for each statement*)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
The hotel has a good system to trace the local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The way in which the hotel communicates with local food suppliers about product specification is highly effective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear food specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear food safety specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear food quality specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear quantity specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear size specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear food color specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear food freshness specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with clear time frame to supply their products to the hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel management provides the local suppliers with a clear food smell specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

In general the performance of the hotel is good in handling local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

15. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding how tourists perceive locally produced foods. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. *(Please circle one number for each statement)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall international tourists like locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Complaints from international tourists regarding the quality of locally produced foods is low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Complaints from international tourists regarding the safety of locally produced foods is low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
International tourists perceive the quality of locally produced foods to be high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
International tourists perceive the safety of locally produced food to be high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. From your experience and knowledge, how long does it normally take for the local suppliers to complete their orders (from the moment you place the order to the moment they bring the products) please specify in terms of days, weeks or months-

17. From your experience, what is the average estimated distance that local foods travel before reaching your hotel (please answer in terms of kilometers covered)

18. In general how would you rate this hotel? Please circle one of the following
 (a) 1 star hotel, (b) 2 stars hotel, (c) 3 stars hotel, (d) 4 stars hotel, (e) 5 stars hotel, (f) none rated

19. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement about major constraints/challenges facing hotel managers when dealing with local food suppliers.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Local food suppliers lack operating capital	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers have low operating capital	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers lack food quality skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers lack food safety skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers lack entrepreneurship/business skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers have difficulty in maintaining product consistency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers are confronted by product seasonality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers exhibit unstable prices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local food suppliers lack are unreliable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 1 B

This section seeks to collect information about reasons compelling hotel management to import foods. The section also seeks to collect information about major constraints facing hotel managers when importing foods.

- Does your hotel import foods from outside the country? (Please check one)
 - No
 - Yes → which countries are you importing from?
-

2. What kind of foods do you import? please mention them-

3. Are the foods that you import available locally? (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → If locally available, what are the reasons compelling you to import them?
 Please specify

4. Who makes the final decision with respect to purchasing foods from outside the country?
 Please specify

5. In general, how long does it take for imported foods to reach your hotel? Please specify in terms of days, weeks or months

6. What problems are you experiencing when importing foods? Please specify

7. How do you define local foods? Please provide as much information as possible to help us understand how you define local foods.

8. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding the quality and safety of imported foods. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. *(Please circle one number for each statement)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Overall international tourists like imported foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Complaints from international tourists regarding the quality of imported foods is low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Complaints from international tourists regarding the safety of imported foods is low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The quality of imported foods is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The safety of imported foods is high	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding the importance of locally produced foods and imported foods. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. *(Please circle one number for each statement)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Locally produced foods may contribute to sustainable development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may contribute to poverty alleviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods may contribute to environmental sustainability	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods contributes to sustainable tourism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods serve as tourist attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods shapes the image of the destination	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods shapes the image of the hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods are considered to be (genuine) authentic products	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods helps in maintaining regional identity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods supports agricultural diversification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods enhances visitors experiences	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods promote local culture	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods can mitigate climate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods increases revenue retention to the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods increases local ownership of business	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods increases level of local community involvement in tourism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods has	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

nothing to do with tourism							
Locally produced foods enhances a hotel's competitive advantages	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods are cheaper than imported foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hotels should promote locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imported foods contributes to climate change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Imported foods contributes to financial loss from the local economy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

10. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement about possible **motives/reasons** that compel hotel managers to import foods from outside the country. Hotel managers import foods because...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Locally produced foods exhibit unstable prices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods are seasonal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods exhibits low quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods exhibits low safety	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Foods that customers want are unavailability in the local market	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 1C

This section seeks to collect information about performance of local food suppliers who supply foods to your hotel.

- How often does the hotel management meet with the local food suppliers to discuss their problems/challenges

- Do you have specific requirements that your hotel needs all food suppliers to comply with? (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → what are the requirements

- Do you have product specifications that your hotel requires all food suppliers to comply with? (Please check one)

- No
 - Yes → what are these specifications
-

4. Do you often conduct training for your local food suppliers to make sure that they understand your requirements and product specifications? (Please check one)
- No
 - Yes → How often do you conduct the trainings
-
5. Does your hotel evaluate performance of local food suppliers? (Please check one)
- No
 - Yes → How often do you do the evaluation
-
6. What actions do you take for suppliers who fail to comply with your requirements? Please specify
-
7. Does your hotel provide any financial assistance (e.g. loans) to local food suppliers? (Please check one)
- No
 - Yes → How many local food suppliers have taken loans from your hotel in the last two years. Please select one
 - (a) 0
 - (b) 1-4
 - (c) 5-10
 - (d) More than 10
8. If you provide loans, what is the maximum amount of money that your hotel provides in Tanzania shillings? Please select one.
- a. Less than 1,000,000
 - b. 1,000,000 – 4,999,999
 - c. 5,000,000-10,000,000
 - d. More than 10,000,000
9. On average, how often do you get requests from local people who want to become food suppliers? Please select one
- a. 0 requests per month
 - b. 1-4 requests per month
 - c. 5-10 requests per month
 - d. More than 10 requests per month
10. Please explain to what extent is your hotel willing to provide training to local people who are interested in becoming local food suppliers but do not know your product specifications and other requirements?
-
11. Collection centers have been used in other places as a means of solving quality, safety and quantity problems associated with small local food suppliers. Please give us your opinion

regarding establishments of collection centers in this town

-
12. Food quality/safety management certification schemes have been used in other places as a means of solving quality, safety and quantity problems associated with small local food suppliers. Please give us your opinion regarding establishments of certification schemes
-
13. Please explain to what extent is your hotel willing to provide loans or any other support to local people who are interested in becoming local food suppliers but do not have the financial capacity to do so?
-
14. In case of any food safety problem, how do you trace back the source and the history of the products that you receive from your suppliers? Please explain
-
15. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding food quality/safety management certification schemes for local food suppliers. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. *(Please circle one number for each statement)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
The hotel supports the idea of establishing food quality/safety certification schemes for local food suppliers in the country	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes can guarantee food quality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes provides food safety assurance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes increases consumers' confidence on locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

schemes increases hotel confidence on local food suppliers							
Certification schemes can reduce food imports from other countries	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes can facilitate traceability of locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes can enhance agricultural productivity	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding the role of the hotel and the community. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. *(Please circle one number for each statement)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	No Opinion	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The hotel must buy locally produced foods from local people	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel has a responsibility to facilitate local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local suppliers are part of hotel stakeholders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel has a duty to help the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local people have the capacity to supply local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local people do not have the capacity to supply locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Local people must be given the opportunity to supply local foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel must contribute to the wellbeing of the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I desire some revenues from hotels to go to the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel should exert positive impacts to the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel should minimize its negative impacts to the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Our hotel promote locally produced	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Our menus include many varieties of locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement regarding the **willingness** of hotel managers to empower local food suppliers. Empowerment in this case is defined as “a management practice of sharing information, resources, and rewards with stakeholders, so that they can take initiative and make decisions to solve problems and improves service performance”. Hotel managers are willing to...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share information with local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share resources with local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Provide local food suppliers with operating capital in terms of loans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

18. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement regarding the **Ability** of hotel managers to empower local food suppliers. Empowerment in this case is defined as “a management practice of sharing information, resources, and rewards with stakeholders, so that they can take initiative and make decisions to solve problems and improves service performance”. Hotel managers have the ability to...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Provide training to improve skills of local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share information with local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Share resources with local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Provide local food suppliers with operating capital in terms of loans	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

19. What is your gender? _____ Male _____ Female

20. What year were you born in? _____

21. What is the highest level of education you completed?

- (a) Did Not Complete High School
- (b) High School/GED
- (c) Some College
- (d) Bachelor's Degree
- (e) Master's Degree
- (f) Advanced Graduate work or Ph.D.

22. On average, how much profit are you generating per year as a result of supplying local foods to various hotels?

- 1) Less than \$5,000
- 2) \$5,000 - \$9,999
- 3) \$10,000 - \$14,999
- 4) \$15,000 - \$19,999
- 5) \$20,000 - \$24,999
- 6) \$25,000 - \$29,999
- 7) \$30,000 - \$34,999
- 8) \$35,000 - \$39,999
- 9) \$40,000 - \$44,999
- 10) \$45,000 - \$50,000
- 11) Above \$50,000

21. What is your nationality? _____

Appendix C3: Survey instrument for local food suppliers

Clemson University- Department
of Parks, Recreation, and Tourism
Management



Sokoine University of
Agriculture- Department of
Wildlife Management



ID _____ Date _____

Dear participant,

We are conducting a survey to help us determine how to improve Food-Tourism linkages as a Strategy for Promoting Sustainable Tourism, Economic Development and Poverty Alleviation in Tanzania. Participation in this research is purely voluntary and you can opt to stop participating at any time. We do not know of any risks or discomforts to you that may be caused by this research study. The information you provide will help in finding common solutions to problems facing food-tourism linkages in the country

Please take a few minutes to answer the enclosed confidential questions about your experience on Food-Tourism linkages. Your individual answers will not be disclosed. They will be combined with those of other respondents to guide us in the evaluation process.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation. Your opinions are very important to us.

John, T. Mgonja

PhD. Candidate - Clemson University, SC. USA

If you have questions or concerns regarding this survey please contact:

John T. Mgonja
Clemson University
Department of Parks, Recreation and Tourism Management
270 Lehotsky Hall, 29634 Clemson, SC, USA
864-986-2461 (US)
+255 713 314904 (Tanzania)
jmgonja@clemson.edu

This survey seeks to collect information about constraints/problems facing local food supplier who are currently doing business with hotels or who have been doing business with hotels in the past five years.

1. Are you currently supplying any locally produced foods in any of the hotels in the region?
(Please check one)
 No
 Yes → what products do you supply

2. For how long have you been supplying locally produced foods to hotels? Please specify the number of years/months

3. How many hotels are you currently supplying locally produced foods? Please specify the number of hotels

4. How did you start supplying locally produced foods to the hotels? Please explain

5. What problems do you normally face in relation to supplying locally produced foods to hotels? Please explain.

6. Are there specific requirements that hotels want you to comply with when supplying your products? (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → what are these requirements

7. Are there special products specifications that hotels want you to follow when supplying your products? (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → what are these product specifications

8. What happens in the situation where you fail to meet the hotel requirements and product specification? Please explain

9. If you are supplying locally produced foods to more than one hotel, are the requirements and product specification the same across all hotels? (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → please explain what are the differences

10. Did you receive any initial trainings from the hotels you are supplying your products (Please check one)
 No
 Yes → what was the training about?

11. Did you receive any training from anywhere else about food production and handling before becoming a food supplier? (Please check one)

- No
 Yes → please specify

12. Where did you get the initial capital to run your business? Please explain

13. This question aims at gathering information about how easy/difficult was it for you to get capital for doing this business. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. (Please circle one number for each statement)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
It was easy to get capital in terms of a loan from financial institutions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It was easy to get capital in terms of a loan from bank	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It was easy to get capital in terms of a loan from microfinance institutions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It was easy to get capital from my own savings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It was easy to get capital in terms of a loan from my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. As a food supplier, do you normally meet with other local food suppliers to discuss the best ways of solving your problems? (Please check one)

- No
 Yes → How often do you meet with other suppliers and who organizes the meetings?

15. As a food supplier, is there any technical support that you get from the hotels? (Please check one)

- No
 Yes → what kind of support do you receive from the hotels

16. Are you aware of any food quality management certification schemes? (Please check one)

- No
 Yes → what kind of schemes do you know, please mention them

17. Are you willing to join one of the food quality management certification schemes? (Please check one)

Yes

No → what are the reasons? Please specify

18. Where do you normally get products that you supply to hotels

19. How do you know if the quality of the products is good? please explain

20. How do you know if the products are safe for human consumption? Please explain

21. In case of any food safety problem, how do you trace back the source and the history of the products that you supply to hotels? Please explain

22. Please mention any type of Quality Assurance (QA) system that you are using

23. The following question asks about your knowledge and opinions regarding training, networking and certification. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements. (Please circle one number for each statement)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Regular training improves supplier performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Suppliers should pay for their training	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hotels should pay for suppliers' trainings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The management of the hotel I supply foods is good for suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel I supply foods offer good prices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel I supply foods provides technical support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel requirements are difficult to follow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The hotel products specifications are	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

difficult to follow							
In general I have a good business relationship with the hotel (s) I supply foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important for food suppliers to form network with other suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important for suppliers to form collection centers for locally produced foods	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important for suppliers to be certified from credible institution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important for suppliers to attend food quality/safety related training regularly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is important for food suppliers to form network with farmers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

24. The statements below may or may not constitute some of the major constraints / challenges facing local food suppliers in this region. As a local food supplier, please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement about major constraints/challenges facing local food suppliers

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Lack of storage facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods are seasonal	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hotel requirements are difficult to follow	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lack of operating capital	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
lack of business skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Hotels do not provide clear food specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hotels do not pay local suppliers in time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Lack of food quality skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Poor road infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Locally produced foods exhibit unstable prices	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Difficulty in maintaining product consistency	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25. The statements below may or may not constitute some of the solutions to the major constraints / challenges facing local food suppliers in this region. As a local food supplier, please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement about such statements

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Hotel technical support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Frequent Trainings	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Information sharing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Networking with other local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Good road infrastructure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Clear product specifications	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Certification schemes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Networking with farmers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Easy accessibility of operating Capital	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regular meetings with hotel	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

management							
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26. The statements below seek to understand your perception about hotel managements in relation to how they solve local food suppliers' problems. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with such statements. Hotel managers...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Are flexible in dealing with local food suppliers problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Provide regular feedbacks to local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Show great interest in solving local food suppliers problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Provide regular support	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Communicate well with local food suppliers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

27. The statements below seek to understand your perception about sustainability of food-tourism linkages in relation to the motives of hotel managers to solve problems facing local food suppliers. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with such statements. Hotel managers solve local food suppliers' problems because they...

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	No Opinion	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
Care about the local community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Care about the environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Want to maximize their profit	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Are required to do so by law	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Want to meet	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

demands of their customers							
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28. What is your gender? _____ Male _____ Female
29. What year were you born in? _____
30. What is the highest level of education you completed?
- (a) Did Not Complete High School
 - (b) High School/GED
 - (c) Some College
 - (d) Bachelor's Degree
 - (e) Master's Degree
 - (f) Advanced Graduate work or Ph.D.
31. On average, how much profit are you generating per year as a result of supplying local foods to various hotels?
- 12) Less than \$5,000
 - 13) \$5,000 - \$9,999
 - 14) \$10,000 - \$14,999
 - 15) \$15,000 - \$19,999
 - 16) \$20,000 - \$24,999
 - 17) \$25,000 - \$29,999
 - 18) \$30,000 - \$34,999
 - 19) \$35,000 - \$39,999
 - 20) \$40,000 - \$44,999
 - 21) \$45,000 - \$50,000
 - 22) Above \$50,000
32. What is your nationality? _____

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