

# **A diversification framework for eco-tourism products of Botswana**

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Thesis accepted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
**Doctor of Philosophy** in **Tourism Management** at the North-  
West University

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Graduation: May 2020

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## DECLARATION

I, Tonderai Vumbunu, identity number 75-282775C50, passport number CN990835 and student number 26331942, hereby declare that this research, A diversification framework for eco-tourism products of Botswana, submitted to the North West University for the PhD study, is my own independent work, and complies with the Code of Academic Integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North West University; and has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification. The discussion herein is based on my observations and conclusions, except where due reference is acknowledged.



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Tonderai Vumbunu

Date: 25 November 2019

## **FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE**

Financial assistance from the North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) is greatly acknowledged. Statements and suggestions in this dissertation are those of the author and should not be regarded as those of the North-West university, Potchefstroom campus.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of this thesis would not have been possible without the motivation, guidance, support and encouragement of key individuals. Heartful thanks to the following people for their special role in the completion of this study.

- Prof. P.A. Viviers, my promoter, for the dedicated guidance, encouragement, remarkable patience and commitment.
- Prof. L. Du Plessis, my co-promoter, for the unwavering support, incisive comments, and encouragement.
- Dr. S. Ellis, for professional support in statistical data processing and analysis.
- Ms. H. Borstlap, for committed and consistent administrative support.
- Ms. P. Ndebele, for assisting in designing and typing questionnaire template.
- Dr. J. Sibanda, for language editing.
- My lovely wife, “sahwira” Mugove Hedwig Vumbunu, and two daughters Taropafadzwa and Akudzweishe Chidochashe; for emotional support, relentless encouragement, patience and endurance throughout the duration of writing the thesis.
- The Department of Wildlife and National Parks, for issuing research permit to conduct research in Botswana.
- Civil Aviation of Botswana, for permission to collect data in departure lounge of Kasane and Maun Airports.
- My siblings, Taremeredzwa Ndanga and family, Philip Sekaihenyu Vumbunu and family; for their love, emotional support and motivation.
- My niece, Jean Nyambiri, for lighthearted comments, encouragement and inspiration.
- My sister-in law, Mrs. Mabwe and family, for constant encouragement
- My dear sister, Runako Chinoda, for inspiration and organising complimentary accommodation in Maun.
- Rev. Mabambe and Mrs. Mabambe, for spiritual support and hosting me in Maun.
- Ogomoditse Keitirile, for dedicated logistical support in Kasane.
- Liswani Paswel Chiswaniso, my research assistant, for commitment in collecting data.
- Alois Mhundwa, for assistance in initial compilation of SPSS template.
- Strike Mbulawa, for assistance in explaining statistical concepts for data analysis.
- Miriam Chingwe, for encouragement and assistance in printing of questionnaires.
- Manyudza and Murambiwa families, for continuous encouragement and spiritual support.
- George Mpofu, for technical expertise in drawing maps of Botswana.
- Cross Gombiro, for technical expertise in formatting and editing.

- Simon Lloyd and Faculty of Hospitality and Sustainable Tourism team, for constant support and motivation.
- All family members and friends, for the love and support.
- Above all, glory to God for life, inspiration and guidance to complete my studies.

## ABSTRACT

Tourism is regarded as one of the fastest growing industries that has generated colossal positive and negative impacts. This rapid growth and reaction to negative impacts has led to the advent of ecotourism as a component of Alternative tourism paradigm. The evolution and development of the ecotourism sector has been credited to changes in tourism demand, technology, globalisation and increasing competition amongst destinations. Due to these changes, product diversification is now core to ecotourism development strategy, as means of maintaining competitive advantage and remaining abreast with contemporary trends. However, empirical research focusing on diversification of ecotourism products from a demand perspective is limited, especially in the context of Botswana. The study, therefore, focused on empirical research to determine demand for ecotourism products. The research provided the basis for developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana.

To achieve this goal five objectives were formulated. The first objective was the analysis of literature on product development (showing linkage to marketing) and diversification in the tourism industry. An overview of marketing literature revealed the linkages amongst the concepts of tourism marketing, product, tourism product, product development and diversification. The concepts were analysed and applied in relation to diversification of tourism products. The review established that there are multiple strategies of diversification, with related constrained diversification being the most suitable for tourism firms to maintain competitiveness and remain relevant in continuously dynamic market environments. However, the review of literature established that diversification research in the field of tourism is limited, especially from a demand perspective.

The second objective was an evaluation of ecotourism as a concept, in view of definitional controversy, multiple principles and classifications. Given the various classification frameworks, the study developed seven ecotourism options that formed the basis of diversifying products.

The third objective analysed tourism development in Botswana, with particular emphasis on ecotourism. Attainment of independence and subsequent discovery of diamonds that were prudently managed, triggered rapid economic development that greatly benefitted the tourism sector. The country promoted the strategy of High Value – Low Volume (HVLV), that focuses on attracting few affluent tourists with high spending patterns, taking into consideration the fragility and sensitivity of the major ecosystems supporting tourism, namely; Okavango Delta and Chobe river. In line with this approach to minimise negative environmental effects, the country markets

itself as a prime ecotourism destination based on wildlife related products, predominantly located in the northern parts of the country. The high dependence on one product type (wildlife) is regarded as greatly problematic. However, diversification efforts to alternative products have failed to yield tangible results for the past three decades. Research on diversification is fixated on supply side, and mostly on evaluation of potential tourism forms and the geographic areas to be developed. There is paucity of detailed empirical demand-based research and analysis of specific diversification strategies. It was established that, apart from the northern areas of Kasane and Okavango Delta, tourism development in other regions of the country is constrained, especially in relation to access and product quality. The review also identified the main types of existing and potential ecotourism activities.

The fourth objective determined tourists' needs and preferences for ecotourism products in order to identify possible diversification options. The fifth objective was the development of a framework for diversifying ecotourism products in Botswana tourism industry by thoroughly assessing empirical results and inferences deduced from review of literature.

To achieve these objectives, the study adopted a positivist research paradigm that entailed using descriptive design and quantitative data analysis. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to 400 respondents at Kasane and Maun airports. Data was analysed using SPSS version 24 to generate descriptive statistics, and conduct factor analysis and independent *t*-tests. Main findings revealed preference for wildlife/wilderness and nature -based activities or products whilst events and hunting were the least desired. The country attracts mature tourist who prefer soft adventure and activities that prioritise conservation, interpretation and environmental education. Factors related to entertainment, construction of entertainment facilities, post office and golf courses were strongly resented. The findings established that related diversification was the best strategy to implement through expanding services and enhancing existing products. In line with the findings, a framework to diversify ecotourism activities was developed, focusing on activities that promote longer stay as greater linkage with local communities. The study benefited local planners who will be able to know where and how to diversify.

*Key words: Diversification Tourism Product development, Ecotourism, Tourism demand, Tourism Products*

## OPSOMMING

Toerisme word beskou as een van die vinnigste groeiende bedrywe ter wêreld en kan massiewe positiewe en negatiewe impakte tot gevolg hê. Ekotoerisme is 'n komponent van die alternatiewe toerisme-paradigma wat ontwikkel is om die negatiewe omgewings impakte te probeer verminder. Die evolusie en ontwikkeling van die ekotoerismesektor was beïnvloed deur die veranderinge in onder andere die toerisme-vraag, tegnologie, globalisering en toenemende mededinging tussen verskillende bestemmings. Om mededingende voordeel te behou moet daar gekyk word na produk diversifikasieopsies binne ekotoerisme. Navorsing oor diversifikasie binne ekotoerisme is egter beperk, veral vanuit 'n vraag of behoefte perspektief, en daarom was dié studie daarop gerig om 'n omvattende raamwerk vir die diversifisering van ekotoerismeprodukte vanuit die behoefte kant te ontwikkel. Om hierdie doel te bereik, is vyf doelwitte geformuleer. Die eerste doelwit het literatuur oor produkontwikkeling en diversifisering binne die toerismebedryf analiseer. Die literatuurstudie het getoon dat diversifikasie van toerismeprodukte noodsaaklik is om die relevansie en mededingendheid daarvan te behou. Tweedens, het dit egter ook uitgewys dat navorsing op die gebied van ekotoerisme diversifikasie veral vanuit die vraag/behoefte kant baie beperk is.

Die tweede doelstelling het ekotoerisme geëvalueer, daar is veral gekyk na bestaande konsepte, kontroversie binne die bestaande definisies asook verskillende beginsels en klassifikasies van die term. Gegewe die verskillende klassifikasieraamwerke, het die studie sewe ekotoerisme-opsies geïdentifiseer wat die basis vir die diversifisering van ekoprodukte kan vorm.

Die derde doelstelling ontleed toerisme-ontwikkeling in Botswana. Die land se verkryging van onafhanklikheid asook die ontdekking van diamante het vinnige ekonomiese ontwikkeling tot gevolg gehad, wat ook die toerismesektor baie bevoordeel het. Met inagneming van delikate natuurlike hulpbronne, is 'n doelbewuste strategie aangewend om eerder minder toeriste wat meer spandeer te lok, veral binne die Okavango Delta area. Daar is bevind dat die land homself beskou as 'n uitstekende bestemming vir ekotoerisme, gebaseer op sy wildlewe-aktiwiteite wat hoofsaaklik in die noordelike dele van die land geleë is. Om alleenlik afhanklik te wees van wildlewe-aktiwiteite is egter problematies. Alhoewel daar verskeie pogings was om na alternatiewe toerisme vorme te diversifiseer het meeste daarvan misluk. Daar is dan ook tans beperkte toerisme-ontwikkeling in sekere dele van Botswana en groot uitdagings ten opsigte van die toeganklikheid en kwaliteit van sekere eko-produkte. Die studie het dan ook 'n analise gedoen van die bestaande en potensiale ekotoerisme produkte binne Botswana.

Die vierde doelwit fokus op die bepaling van toeriste se behoeftes en voorkeure vir ekotoerismeprodukte ten einde moontlike diversifiseringsopsies te identifiseer, terwyl die vyfde doelstelling dit ten doel gehad het om 'n raamwerk vir die diversifisering van ekotoerismeprodukte



in die Botswana-toerismebedryf te ontwikkel deur die empiriese resultate en gevolgtrekkings uit die literatuuroorsig te ontleed. Om hierdie doelstellings te bereik, is die studie gebaseer op die positivistiese navorsingsparadigma wat beskrywende ontwerp en kwantitatiewe data-analise behels. Self-toegedienende vraelyste is versprei aan respondente by die Kasane- en Maunlughawens. Data is geanaliseer met behulp van SPSS weergawe 22, 'n uitvoeringsfaktoranalise en onafhanklike t-toetse is ook uitgevoer. Wildlewe-/wildernisaktiwiteite en natuurgebaseerde aktiwiteite is geïdentifiseer as die belangrikste diversifikasie areas. Jagaktiwiteite was egter die laagste in aanvraag. Die land lok ouer toeriste wat sagte avontuur aktiwiteite verkies wat gefokus is op bewaring, interpretasie en omgewingsopvoeding. Aktiwiteite wat verband hou met vermaak, die oprigting van vermaaklikheidsfasiliteite was laag in aanvraag. Die bevindinge het vasgestel dat verwante diversifikasie die beste strategie was om te implementeer deur dienste uit te brei en bestaande produkte te verbeter. In ooreenstemming met die bevindinge, is 'n raamwerk ontwikkel vir die diversifisering van ekotoerisme-aktiwiteite, met die fokus op aktiwiteite wat langer verblyf moontlikhede kan inhou asook groter voordele vir die plaaslike gemeenskap kan inhou. Die studie kan beleidsbeplanners, plaaslike regering en die privaatsektor help sodat hulle kan weet waar en hoe om te diversifiseer.

*Sleutelwoorde: Diversifikasie van toerismeprodukontwikkeling, ekotoerisme, vraag na toerisme, toerismeprodukte*

## **ABBREVIATIONS OR ACRONYMS**

BAH:	Booze Allen and Hamilton
BTO:	Botswana Tourism Organisation
BWP:	Botswana Pula
CBE:	Community Based Ecotourism
CBNRM:	Community Based Natural Resources Management
CBO:	Community Based Organisation
CEDA:	Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency
CHA:	Controlled Hunting Areas
CT:	Community Trust
DNMM:	Department of National Museum and Monuments
DOT:	Department of Tourism
DWNP:	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
FAP:	Financial Assistance Plan
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GOB:	Government of Botswana
HATAB:	Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana
HRDC:	Human Resources Development Council
HVLV:	High Value Low Volume
KAZA:	Kavango-Zambezi
KCS:	Kalahari Conservation Society
MENT:	Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism
MEWT:	Ministry of Environment Wildlife and Tourism
MICE:	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibitions
NDP:	National Development Plan
NPD:	New Product Development
NSD:	New Service Development
PD:	Product Development
PLC:	Product Life Cycle
RBT:	Resource Based Theory
RBV:	Resource Based View
S-D:	Service Dominant Logic
SANParks	South African National Parks
SPSS:	Scientific Package for Social Sciences
SWOT:	Strengths Weaknesses Opportunities Threats

TALC:	Tourism Area Life Cycle
TFCA:	Transfrontier Conservation Area
TIES:	The International Ecotourism Society
TPD:	Tourism Product Development
TSA:	Tourism Satellite Account
UNWTO:	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USD:	United States Dollar
VOC:	Voice Of Consumer
VRIN:	Valuable Rare Inimitable Non-substitutable
WMA:	Wildlife Management Areas
WTTC:	World Travel and Tourism Council

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM STATEMENT, OBJECTIVES AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been identified as experiencing exponential growth since the end of World War two and is now one of the largest industries in the entire world (Tetik & Girgin, 2010; Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012: xxxi; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:3; UNWTO, 2018). In view of its rapid growth, revenue from tourism is expected to account for 8% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) by 2020. Based on its contribution to various national outputs and dominance over the past four decades as a prominent and resilient sector, tourism is now regarded as a vital vehicle for economic growth and development, especially in developing countries (Mbaiwa, 2015; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:3). The importance of tourism to countries has received extensive coverage, and figures relating to size and significance are staggering (Hall & Page, 2006; UNWTO, 2018). The United Nations World Tourism Organisation UNWTO (2018) estimates that tourism has experienced massive expansion and diversification over the past sixty years, becoming one of the largest and fastest-growing economic sectors in the world. Tourist arrivals that rose from 25 million in 1950 to around 1.8 billion in 2017, are a clear testimony of this remarkable expansion. International tourist arrivals increased by 7% in 2017, the highest in 7 years. Regionally, Africa registered the highest growth of 9%. Tourism receipts for emerging economies were US\$386 billion in 2012, and provided the primary source of foreign exchange earnings in over 40 of the 49 Least Developed Countries (UNWTO, 2018). Tourism has thus, been intricately linked to development and annual volumes comparable to oil and food exports. Considering the performance by the industry, UNWTO (2018) regards the sustained rise of tourism demand as one of the most significant economic, social and cultural phenomena of the past six decades. Despite the apparent importance, Fennel (2008) and Korstanje (2017:3) observe that the rapid growth has triggered a host of negative impacts as focus is placed solely on economic benefits stemming from tourism. In view of this, ecotourism arose as part of the broader Alternative tourism paradigm that greatly emphasises increased interaction and understanding, firstly; between hosts and guests, and secondly; between tourists and the environment. Alternative tourism is a generic/umbrella term covering an entire series of tourism forms that aim to be consistent with natural, social and community values; focusing on acquisition of positive benefits by both hosts and guests. In literature, the forms are known by many terms, namely; “eco”, “responsible”, “controlled”, “green”, “small scale” and “people to people” (Fennell,

2008:9; Wearing & Neil, 2009:3). The basic notion is that all forms offer an alternative to mass tourism. The focus of this study was on ecotourism, which generally refers to responsible travel that conserves the natural environment, sustains well-being of local people, and involves interpretation and education (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996:20; Weaver, 2001:15; Fennell, 2008:24; TIES, 2015). Similarly, since its inception, ecotourism related travel has grown rapidly to the extent of accounting for 20 – 30% total tourism arrivals at global level (UNWTO, 2018). Based on its appeal for equitable distribution of resources, conservation, and strong focus for promoting local economies; ecotourism has been widely adopted as the tourism development option, especially in developing countries where dependence on natural resources such as rivers, wild animals and forests require monitored development (Cobbinah, 2015; Mbaiwa, 2015). To maintain the growth momentum, diversification of tourism products is now considered a critical component of the development strategy by most countries, given that tourists' tastes are dynamic and destinations across the globe are competing for the same market; at times basing on similar natural resources (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2015). Over time, tourism product diversification has grown to become a key research area, given that well managed diversified destinations are more resilient to economic turbulence (Benur & Bramwell, 2015; Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2015; Weidenfeld, 2018:10). Despite the recognition of tourism's importance, Farmaki (2012:186) observes that empirical research on diversification in tourism, especially on the demand side, is very limited.

In line with the global trends, tourism in Botswana was largely non-existent at independence, but registered phenomenal growth to become the second largest revenue earner after diamonds; contributing 9.5% to the country's Gross Domestic product (Mbaiwa & Darkoh 2006; WTTC, 2007:13). This expansive growth has, however, been predominantly centred on wildlife tourism in the northern parts of the country, mainly in Okavango Delta and Chobe. As in other African countries such as Tanzania, Kenya and Zimbabwe; the tourism product in Botswana is highly skewed towards wildlife, despite increasing calls for diversification to widen options for tourists (Mazimhaka, 2007; Anbalagan & Lovelock, 2014:89; Reimer & Walter, 2013; Akama & Oradimu, 2001; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:9). Despite its reliance on wildlife-based tourism products, Botswana considers herself as a prime ecotourism destination. Based on these trends the study sought to assess and determine demand for current and new ecotourism products in view for developing a diversification framework.

This chapter provides an introduction and discussion of how the study was executed, following the sequence outlined. Following the introduction, is the background of study, statement of

problem, outline of goals and objectives, method of research, analysis of data, definition of key terms and the structure of the thesis.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Regardless of the impressive rise in receipts, arrivals and related economic progress over the past half century, the tourism industry is highly volatile, fragmented, continuously evolving, and reliant on other sectors and on primary resources that are, at times, easily degradable. Farmaki (2012:185) notes that these attributes, especially dynamism of the industry, are closely related to the rapid rise in problems related to: mass tourism; evolution in motivation for travel; and how tourism is organised, produced and consumed. In response to these attributes, tourism product diversification has, therefore, been adopted in many countries as a means of maintaining competitiveness, relevance, sustainable use of resources, as well as increasing foreign currency earnings in an ever-changing tourism environment beset by market globalisation, continual development of new products, and strong competition (Brent-Ritchie & Crouch, 2003:25; Tetik & Girgin, 2010; Tsiotsou & Goldsmith, 2012; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:214; Carboni *et al.*, 2017; Weidenfeld, 2018:1).

Diversification is not a new concept since, from the 1950s, research on the concept is quite extensive in fields such as marketing, strategic management and economics. However, its application in the context of tourism is still considered new, constrained and fragmented (Bacher, 2005:12; Wang & Xu, 2010:192; Farmaki, 2012:186; Weidenfeld, 2018:2). Diversification in business studies is part of corporate level strategy involving action embarked on to gain competitive advantage by selecting and managing a mix of businesses competing in several industries or product markets (Hitt *et al.*, 2017:176).

Diversification as a generic concept has changed many times to the extent of lacking a common definition, and resulting in multiple ways of classifying, defining and applying the term (Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989:524; Luffman *et al.*, 1996; Peng, 2006:361; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:178). It is important to note that product diversification and innovation are closely related. Innovation refers to the degree of novelty embodied in the product, and organisations using diversification strategies may use different types of innovation to enter new markets. Although referred to, innovation is beyond the scope of this study. Despite the various definitions, the notion that diversification involves setting out on some form of new business activity is constantly maintained (Ansoff, 1957; Luffman *et al.*, 1996; Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010:262; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:178). From a business perspective, diversification

is defined as investment distribution over different sectors to enhance economic spread and reduce overdependence on a few sectors (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010). A more widely used definition coined by Ramanujam and Varadajaran (1989:525) defines diversification as the entry of a firm or business unit into new lines of activity, either by processes of internal business development or acquisition, which entail changes in its administrative structure, systems and other management processes. As indicated earlier, the basic notion of venturing into new products is maintained.

Over the years, the concept has been adopted in several other disciplines such as Human Resources, Agriculture, Economics, Finance, Marketing, Hospitality and Tourism. In all the different disciplines, the common theme is introduction of something new or some kind of modification; be it of a product or service. Despite extensive diversification literature in some fields, empirical and comprehensive research in hospitality and tourism is regarded as new and constrained (Wang & Xu, 2010:192; Farmaki, 2012:186; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:214; Evans, 2015; Weidenfeld, 2018:4). A tourism-specific definition defines diversification as when a firm or tourism enterprise, private or public, expands its business operations into new tourism products, functions served, markets, and technologies (Moutinho *et al.*, 2011:235). The definition has been viewed as restrictive, given the breadth and dynamism of the tourism sector (Weidenfeld, 2018). Research by Weidenfeld (2018:6) and Benur and Bramwell (2015) shows that in tourism, diversification can be defined at multiple levels such as at product, sectoral and geographic/regional level. Poon (cited in Evans, 2015:363) suggests that the definition of diversification in tourism should also consider unique characteristics of service industry, especially intangibility and inseparability, fragmentation of the industry, and multiple and diverse types of tourism products. Considering these multiple perceptions, the study adopted Benur and Bramwell's (2015:214) definition, where diversification refers to development or modification of new or existing tourism products and services that have the potential to attract or widen the experiences of new and existing tourists.

Literature reveals that diversification of tourism products has been adopted by many private and public organisations as a remedy to distribute tourism population, promote sustainable tourism development and to spread wealth, especially to marginalised areas. This has resulted in diversification being part of tourism policy for many countries, including Botswana (Bramwell, 2004; Sharpley & Vaas, 2006; Mbaiwa, 2008.2015; Farmaki, 2012:186; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:215; Evans, 2015, Weidenfeld, 2018:5). According to Farmaki (2012:185), most of the research is concentrated on supply side, especially on the advantages of diversification and



identification of products or services that could be modified or introduced. Empirical demand side research, crucial for informing diversification options, is scant. Literature, especially in many developing countries, advocates product diversification and emphasises the disadvantages of depending on one product as exemplified by wildlife tourism in Kenya and Botswana, gorilla tourism in Rwanda, and heritage tourism in Cambodia (Mazimhaka, 2007; Anbalagan & Lovelock, 2014:89; Reimer & Walter, 2013; Akama & Oradimu, 2001; Mayaka & Prasad, 2012). The common trend is lack of empirical demand research that identifies specific products, activities, or diversification strategies that can be employed.

Although there is limited empirical research in tourism field, diversification strategies have been widely covered in literature to the extent that there are many ways of classifying them (Ansoff, 1957; Finlay, 2000; Evans, Campbell & Stonehouse, 2003; Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010:263; Volberda *et al.*, 2011:242; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:217; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:180). Diversification, as noted by Finlay (2000) and Morden (1999), falls into two groups; related (concentric) and unrelated (conglomerate). In related diversification, the firm ventures into new industries but at the same centre of gravity. There are two broad groups of relatedness, namely; vertical and horizontal diversification. Conglomerate diversification occurs when the firm ventures into a completely different form of activity that is operating at different centres of gravity (Mintzberg, 2003). This signifies very high levels of diversification since less than 70 percent of the revenue is generated from the dominant business and there are no common links between the businesses (Hitt *et al.*, 2017:177). This kind of diversification in business studies is considered the riskiest as managerial and operational expertise is generally limited, owing to little or no synergy with its core business or technology. Most countries, therefore, address diversification in general and limited progress in diversification has been partly credited to that lack of synergy. Despite the limited research, it is important to identify previous research that has been conducted, specifically in relation to diversification from a tourism perspective. Although not conclusive, Table 1.1 lists research conducted on tourism diversification.

**Table 1.1: Research on diversification in tourism**

<b>Author and Year</b>	<b>Title of study</b>	<b>Summary of findings</b>
Benur (2013)	Product diversification, Product relationships and	Developed framework to determine whether diversification of destinations enhanced their ability to deal with crises. Established that tourism products can be diversified in many ways, thus; strategic planning is essential. There is need for collaboration

	economic resilience of Libyan resilience	amongst destinations to satisfy diverse tourist tastes and better withstand economic turbulence.
Farmaki (2012)	A critical evaluation of tourism product diversification: The case of Cyprus	The diversification strategy of Cyprus coastal products failed mainly due to product weaknesses, poor planning, and dominance of traditional products (sun and sea) that overshadowed new offerings. The country should focus on rejuvenating the existing product and follow a diversification strategy informed by empirical research.
Benur and Brammwell (2015)	Tourism product development and product diversification in destinations	To succeed in diversification requires detailed knowledge about primary products which are key in attracting tourists. Despite the multiple primary products, diversification occurs in two ways; integrative and parallel, carried out using mass or niche tourism. There are many product combinations and destinations need to analyse their resources to come up with the best diversification strategy.
Saarinen, Moswete and Monare (2014)	Cultural tourism: New opportunities for diversifying the tourism industry in Botswana	A supply side analysis that identifies and lists cultural tourism resources that can be employed as diversification strategy. Botswana is rich in cultural resources such as ancient monuments, rock art, and ethnic traditions that have high potential but lack investment. The country could benefit from cultural tourism by exploiting these resources.
Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2015)	Tourism development in Qatar: Towards a diversification strategy beyond the conventional 3 Ss	Gulf oil rich states have managed to diversify from dependence on oil to tourism. Current focus is diversification within tourism sector. Qatar has used locational advantages and wealth to diversify beyond 3Ss to add the following products; shopping, skyscrapers, sporting and surgery. The products target high income markets. However, evaluation is required to determine sustainability.
Mahachi and Ketsabile (2013)	Diamond mining as a possible strategy for tourism product diversification in Botswana	An exploratory study profiling benefits of developing mining tourism focusing on diamonds given that Botswana is one of the largest producers in the world. Diamond mining tourism is viewed as a way of reducing dependence and strain on wildlife tourism
Bacher (2005)	Questioning the diversification of tourist products: Two examples of achievement in the Mid-French mountains	Destinations are unique in terms of physical resources, location and human capital; making it difficult to develop generic diversification models. Destinations must develop capacity to diversify. However, there is paucity of qualitative and quantitative demand and supply side research that can assist in coming up with effective strategies.
Nare, Musikavanhu and Chiutsi (2017)	Tourism diversification in Botswana a stakeholder perspective	A supply side analysis of tourism stakeholder views regarding diversification in Botswana. There is general consensus that diversifying tourism will benefit the industry itself and country at large. Advantages of diversifying the industry are outlined.

Weidenfeld (2018)	Tourism diversification and its implication for smart specialisation	Tourism diversification occurs at three levels product/market, regional and sectoral. Each level can be further subdivided into smaller subgroups. Diversification is not easy to implement due to complexity of tourism and dependence on other sectors, hence; smart innovative strategies are required to succeed. Conceptual diversification strategies are proposed, such as sectorial and inter-regional tourism diversification.
Moswete and Lacey (2015)	"Women cannot lead" Empowering women through cultural tourism in Botswana	Cultural tourism focusing on women empowerment is explored as a diversification option to safari-led tourism development in Botswana. Community based tourism has resulted in more women being empowered. However, there are still many barriers such as lack of education, capital and resources that is inhibiting involvement of women in cultural tourism.
Perrin-Malterre (2018)	Tourism diversification process around trail running in the Pays of Allevard (Isère)	Diversification requires demand side analysis to capture views of tourists in relation to diversification. Case study revealed that participants were comfortable with the addition of trail running to the traditional thermal spa and winter sports. Despite the acceptance to include trail running, an evaluation of the economic benefits is required to determine viability of the diversification.

**Source: Author's own compilation**

Table 1.1 shows that diversification is a wide and growing field that can be analysed from multiple perspectives. However, specific research in tourism context is constrained. Most of the research is supply based, proposing conceptual frameworks that can be adopted to diversify tourism products (Benur & Brammwell, 2015; Weidenfeld, 2018). Although most of the studies highlight the importance of diversification, comprehensive empirical studies collecting data from tourist perspective are limited. A common theme is acknowledgement of complexity on tourism, and that diversification can be approached from various perspectives. It is in this vein, that the study centres on demand perspective, to understand specific needs that can be used to develop a framework.

Just like most developing countries, the tourism product in Botswana is largely one dimensional and there have been calls for diversification for the past two decades, with limited success. Tourism development in Botswana is closely related to the economic development that occurred after independence. The success story of Botswana, centred on diamond mining and characterised by prudent governance and wise monetary policies, is widely covered and well documented in literature (Siphambe, 2007:1; Washington & Hacker, 2009:2; Sebudubudu, 2010:249; Seidler, 2010:3). Given that diamonds are a finite resource prone to international price

fluctuations and weakly linked to downstream economic activities, tourism has been identified by the government as “an important engine for economic growth” vital for steering the economy from dependence on diamonds. To this end, tourism has played a dominant role in the government’s overall development strategy, and when sustainably managed, it provides valuable income and much needed employment (Botswana Government, 2000:7, 2002). Tourism development is clustered on wildlife and wilderness experience, with the northern parts comprising Okavango Delta, Chobe and Kasane forming the core areas activity. There are other generally less developed and less visited parks and game reserves offering largely the wildlife product spread throughout the country. These include Kgalagadi Trans-frontier park to the south west, Central Kalahari Game Reserve, Mashatu Game Reserve to the south east, Makgadikgadi and Nxai Pan National Parks in Central district (Botswana Government, 2000:4; Rozemeijer, 2001:12). Since the tourism base is largely based on sensitive ecosystems like the Okavango Delta and Chobe river, the country has deliberately followed the strategy of ‘High Value – Low Volume’ (HVLV) which aims to attract limited numbers of tourists with high spending patterns. In line with this approach, the country declared itself an ecotourist destination and actively promotes activities and products based around ecotourism. In addition to the wildlife-based ecotourism, there are about 50 community-based tourism organisations mostly centred around the Okavango Delta involved in Community-based, natural resources management (CBNRM) projects (Rozemeijer, 2001:10). Though the country possesses a number of historical, cultural and archaeological attractions, most have minimal development such that they are not part of the country’s tourism product (Botswana Government, 2000:4; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:10). Development in tourism is regulated by the government through the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) and Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO). However, most of the industry operations are run by the private sector, with a relatively large proportion of expatriates (Mbaiwa, 2005:162).

Tourism has experienced rapid and steady growth since independence, and by 2006, was contributing 10.6% to total employment, 5.4% to investment, and 9.7% to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (World Travel and Tourism Council WTTC, 2007:14). International tourist arrivals rose from around 500 000 in 1994 to 1.9 million in 2016 (WTTC, 2018; DOT & UNWTO, 2018:12). It is important to note that Statistics Botswana records 2.4 million as the total number of tourist arrivals against 1.9 million for DOT. Statistics Botswana records overall arrivals which are then refined by DOT to remain with those satisfying criteria of tourists. According to the latest WTTC report for 2018, the direct contribution of travel and tourism was BWP7.129.6 million, which translates to

3.8% of GDP; whilst total contribution to employment was 76.000 jobs, that is 8.3% of total employment (WTTC, 2018:1).

Despite the rapid growth over the past two decades, tourism is principally reliant on wildlife, has largely foreign owned operations, and is concentrated in the northern parts of the country. Also the direct contribution of travel and tourism to employment (% of GDP) for Botswana is small at 3.0% in 2016, 3.2% in 2017 and projected to be around 3.8% in 2025 (WTTC, 2018:1) About 53.7% of the tourism facilities in the Delta region are foreign owned, 17.9 % citizen owned, and 23.3% jointly owned; resulting in leakage of 70% of tourism earnings. The concentration in the north and high levels of expatriate ownership has made tourism largely enclavic, resulting in limited benefits to the local community (Mbaiwa, 2002:460, 2005:162, and 2009:23). Statistics from WTTC (2007:48) show that the Chobe National Park and Okavango Delta accounted for 95% of all national park entries and 91% of all park revenues in 2006. The Department of Tourism Report (DOT) (2010:15) also reveals that the Kasane/Chobe, Maun and Okavango areas, which primarily focus on wildlife, accounted for over 80% of leisure visitors to Botswana.

Given the heavy reliance on wildlife in a fragile ecosystem, the country's stance as a 'High Value – Low Volume' (HVLV) destination has, over the years, been progressively criticised since it fostered an element of exclusivity that has literally closed the door for low budget tourists (WTTC, 2007:48; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:8). The motive of making travel to the Okavango Delta difficult and expensive (high value) is to minimise the number of tourists visiting the region (low volume), and decrease tourism's negative effects on the environment. Although wildlife tourism has been pivotal in tourism development, there is concern with regards to high level of leakages, dependence on a narrow product range, suppressed demand for domestic tourism, and competition from neighbouring countries such as Namibia, South Africa, Zambia and Zimbabwe offering the same wildlife product. (Mbaiwa, 2005a:216, 2005b:165; WTTC, 2007:49; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:9). These factors present challenges and threats to the development of tourism in the country.

Within this background, there have been calls for tourism product diversification to provide new avenues and different dimensions to wildlife market by stimulating interest in other tourism products such as agro- and mining tourism, as well as urban and cultural tourism. This would improve tourism linkages with the local communities, create employment, enhance infrastructure and service quality; to maintain a comparative advantage in the tourism industry. This need to diversify has been consistently highlighted in literature, policies and development plans such as

the Tourism Policy (1990), the Tourism Master Plan (2000), the framework for a long term vision for Botswana (2002), Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy (2002), Vision 2016, Vision 2036, World Travel and Tourism Council WTTC (2007) tourism satellite account report, draft of the proposed new National Tourism Policy UNWTO (2008), National Development Plan (NDP) (2010) and NDP (2011). The Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO), formerly known as the Botswana Tourism Board (BTB), is mandated to drive this diversification process. It is important to note that more than fifteen years have elapsed since the first guidelines for diversification of the tourism product and differentiation of tourist destinations were passed. However, statistics still reveal the dominance of wildlife tourism and high degrees of foreign ownership. It is important to note that the diversification options suggested are generic, providing various options that lack specific implementation framework.

Although wildlife-based tourism has been crucial to the growth and development of overall tourism sector in Botswana, continuous change in demand and supply factors has heightened the need for a diversified product. Mahachi and Ketshabile (2013:38) observe that the tourism sector in Botswana is in a dynamic phase characterised by challenges that require new strategies to remain competitive. The demand-side changes include increased need for varied activities of high quality, emergence of the eastern market, increased level of education and desire for informative and educative holidays. Richards and Wilson (2007:20) point out this shift towards creativity as demand changed from “having a holiday” to “becoming transformed by the tourism experience itself”. Supply-side factors include increased local and regional competition, seasonality, climate change, increased poaching, and emphasis on sustainable tourism arising from mounting negative environmental impacts (WTTC, 2007). The Okavango Delta is a fragile environment, and studies by Mbaiwa (2002:460), Mbaiwa and Darkoh (2006) have revealed increasing environmental strain and decline in some wildlife species that will negatively affect tourism. Despite the adoption of diversification to widen the product base, little empirical research was found in Botswana on strategies to diversify the nature of tourism demand, both domestic and international. It is important to point out that wildlife tourism is not performing poorly in Botswana. However, the product is one-dimensional and hence, vulnerable to changes in demand, seasonality, drought and tourist tastes. Research on diversification identifies and discusses the potential for an alternative form. For example, Saarinen *et al.*, (2014:11) concentrate on cultural tourism, and list cultural sites and activities that could be developed, while Mahachi and Ketshabile (2013) examine the potential of diamond mining as a new tourism product. Focus is on supply side factors but equally important demand side factors have been given scant attention.

It is important to note that the last comprehensive compilation of tourism statistics by Department of Tourism was in 2010, and data on domestic tourism is very limited. Most of the tourism literature is largely centred on the Okavango delta (Mbaiwa, 2002, 2005a & b; Moswete & Mavondo, 2003; Mmopelwa & Blignaut, 2006; Mbaiwa, Thakadu & Darkoh, 2008; Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011), dwelling on aspects such as impact of tourism, community-based tourism, environmental sustainability and human-wildlife conflict. It is also important to note that statistics from the latest WTTC report for 2014 shows that leakages from the current tourism set up are still high, indicating very limited benefits for local people despite the increase in tourist receipts and arrivals. Diversification framework within ecotourism products has been chosen as an option because the country identifies itself as an ecotourism destination and has great potential, given the abundance of natural tourism resources in the country that are hardly developed (Mbaiwa, 2012:220). With prudent management, eco-tourism conserves resources, promotes rural development and increases local participation.

It is important to note that eco-tourism is defined and conceptualised in multiple ways. This study adopts the Botswana definition as provided in the Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy report (2002:ii). Ecotourism is responsible travel to natural areas that conserve the environment and sustain the well-being of local people. In Botswana, it refers to the country's cultural and natural heritage, emphasising active involvement of host communities and other Batswana in all aspects of the industry's management and development (Stevens & Jansen, 2002: ii). Despite the country declaring itself an ecotourism destination and developing a specific ecotourism definition, research on diversification has remained general, focusing on broad options lacking explanation on how they are going to be applied. This has generally led to diversification failure over the past 20 years. Considering this background, the study fills the gap by focusing on empirical demand side research to develop a diversification framework based, specifically on ecotourism products.

### **1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

Botswana is one of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa which has enjoyed political stability and significant economic growth since independence in 1966. This has positively impacted on tourism development such that it has grown to become the second highest contributor to GDP, after diamonds. The current ecotourism product is nature, mainly concentrating on traditional activities/products such as game drives in wildlife resources areas, principally in the northern parts of the country, namely; Kasane and Okavango Delta. Tourism statistics from the 1990s to date, reveal a high degree of foreign ownership for tourism enterprises and dominance of wildlife ecotourism, since over 80% of leisure tourists are wildlife related (WTTC, 2007:48; DOT,

2010:15). The country brands itself as an ecotourism destination and is renowned for rich wildlife ecotourism experience that has been pivotal to economic growth and development. Over the past two decades, there have been increasing calls to diversify this rich ecotourism base to maintain a competitive edge over other African countries, and to keep pace with changing tourist tastes, while reducing pressure on fragile resources in the Delta, extending length of stay, and spreading tourism benefits to all communities (Leecher & Fabricius, 2004:29; Moswete & Mavondo, 2003:69; Mbaiwa, 2008, 2015; WTTC, 2007:49; HRDC, 2014:14; Saarinen, *et al.*, 2014:8).

These changes in tourist demand patterns and tastes are not limited to Botswana as reflected by changes in Europe where the aged population is currently around 125 million representing 25% of the total population and is projected to exceed 30% by 2060. In view of this development, SENINTER, a European Union funded project, is developing alternative products targeting senior tourists travelling with children (Dallari & Mariotti, 2016). Despite these factors indicating the need for diversification within the ecotourism sector, there is paucity of empirical demand side research, and lack of a comprehensive diversification framework that can be adopted. Available literature on product diversification is generic and supply-based, focusing on advantages of diversification; highlighting roles of stakeholders such as BTO, HATAB and Department of Tourism in facilitating diversification; identifying geographic areas for new tourism forms; and describing the potential of alternatives that can be developed such as community based, adventure, cultural, diamond, village and agro-tourism (Tourism Master Plan 2000; Mahachi & Ketshabile, 2013; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014; Mbaiwa, 2008; HRDC, 2014; Moswete & Lacey, 2015; Nare *et al.*, 2017).

Tourism in Botswana is nature-based, focusing on ecotourism. However, there is no detailed empirical study based on demand side that would form a basis for identifying specific diversification strategies/options that can be developed for ecotourism activities or products. It is against this background that the study seeks to develop a diversification framework of ecotourism products. Therefore, the problem that drives this study is the lack of a specific diversification framework for existing and new ecotourism activities and products.

## **1.4 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

### **1.4.1 Goal**

The study aims to address the following goal:

To develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana.



### **1.4.2 Objectives**

The achievement of the goal relies on the following objectives:

#### **Objective 1**

To analyse product development (including its link to marketing) and diversification in the tourism industry by means of a comprehensive literature study.

#### **Objective 2**

To identify and evaluate ecotourism principles, classification and products by means of a literature review, and to analyse possible diversification options within ecotourism.

#### **Objective 3**

To assess tourism development in Botswana, with special reference to ecotourism products and diversification, by means of a content analysis that; identifies and explains major milestones of tourism development in Botswana, evaluates status of ecotourism in the context of Botswana, and analyses current ecotourism activities and products in Botswana.

#### **Objective 4**

To determine the international demand (needs and preferences) of ecotourism activities/products in order to identify possible diversification options.

#### **Objective 5**

To draw conclusions, make recommendations and develop a framework towards diversification of ecotourism products for the Botswana tourism industry by means of a thorough assessment of empirical results and inferences deduced from review of literature.

## **1.5 METHODS OF RESEARCH**

The methods of research consisted of literature study and empirical survey explained below.

### **1.5.1 Literature study**

Literature review facilitated gap identification, enhanced understanding of the research topic and defined successful methods applied in the same study area to analyse topics (Creswell, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59). To this end, review of related literature in three chapters examined product diversification and related concepts in tourism, ecotourism and

tourism development in Botswana. The review discussed existing trends, strategies and models relating to diversification, and applied them to a tourism context. This was followed by a detailed examination of ecotourism concept pertaining its definition, principles, classification; and development of a framework for ecotourism products. The third part evaluated tourism development in Botswana focusing on compilation of actual and potential ecotourism products.

This was achieved through consultation of multiple secondary sources, mainly journal articles from e-journal aggregators such as Sage, Jstor, Emerald, Taylor and Francis, Ebscohost and Science Direct complemented primary data. Additional secondary sources included textbooks on diversification, product development and ecotourism. Magazines, newspapers and government documents such as Tourism policy, Tourism master plan, and ecotourism guidelines from different countries were also consulted. The following are some of the key words that were used in the research process; tourism product, product life cycle, product development, product diversification, diversification strategies ecotourism, ecotourism principles, ecotourism accommodation ecotourism in Botswana.

### **1.5.2 Empirical survey**

This section provides a summary of how the empirical survey was carried out.

#### **1.5.2.1 Research philosophy**

The study was based on positivist research philosophy to compare and determine tourist views and demand for current and potential ecotourism products. Positivism views the world as being guided by scientific rules where quantitative methods are employed to explain interaction of variables and how they shape events and cause certain outcomes (Neuman, 2003:71; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007, 2014). Positivism was selected because the study required a large sample for quantitative analysis to determine demand for ecotourism products. The philosophy was also selected because it allows replication and filled a research gap; lack of a comprehensive study based on statistical analysis.

#### **1.5.2.2 Research design**

In pursuit of the study goal, to develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products, the study was largely based on descriptive research design, blending causal design. Descriptive research aims to provide an accurate position and relationship amongst phenomena being studied by focusing on what, where, how and when (Bryman, 2004; Hair *et al.*, 2010:39; Malhotra, 2010). Descriptive research was employed to identify and describe product diversification from a tourism perspective, and demographic characteristics (age, gender, income status, purpose of

travel and country of origin) that laid the foundation for a more detailed analysis. Causal design was used to explain and determine form/type of diversification and ecotourism activities or products that could be added.

### **1.5.2.3 Sampling and data collection**

Sampling methods come in two forms, namely; probability and non-probability, depending on the research requirements. Purposive sampling was used to select data collection points as it enabled selection of knowledgeable and well-informed respondents on diversification issues (Patton, 2002; Gray, 2009:108; Palinkas *et al.*, 2013:3; Etikan *et al.*, 2016:2). The study initially targeted departing tourists at border posts, airports, hotel/lodges, and game reserves/national parks. However, low tourist volumes at border posts and very poor response rate in lodges meant that airports were the only viable places where data could be successfully collected from departing tourists. Airports were also convenient because the holiday experience would still be vivid such that most of the data collected would be reliable and accurate. Given that the study sought to determine demand for ecotourism products, probability sampling was the most appropriate technique for collecting data. Convenience sampling was used to select respondents in the departure lounge. Respondents were issued a questionnaire after answering a screening question on whether their visit to Botswana was for tourism purposes. Although completion rate was generally high, the process was at times slowed by tourists who requested to be assisted to answer almost all the questions.

The sample size for quantitative analysis was selected using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) graph that plots sample size against population. The graph is applicable to any type of population, and depicts that, as the population increases, the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly greater than 380. Consequently, a population that has ( $N$ ) = 1 000 000 has a sample size ( $S$ ) = 384. According to WTTC (2018), Botswana registered about 1.9 million tourist arrivals in 2017, the graph therefore, yielded a sample size of approximately 400 respondents.

A research assistant was engaged to assist in data collection from December 2018 to April 2019. Most of the data was collected between March and April 2019 because it took time to be granted permission to access Maun and Kasane airports' departure lounges. Also, the volume of departing tourists had increased significantly as the period of collection marked a transition from green to peak season. It took almost two months to reach the target of 400 respondents (Kasane-190; Maun 210). Details of data collection procedures are explained in detail in chapter 5.

#### **1.5.2.4 Development of questionnaire**

A self-administered questionnaire was developed based on relevant information derived from literature review. Using Hair *et al.* (2010) guidelines, the questionnaire was divided into 3 sections, namely; Section A: Socio-demographic information, Section B: Potential ecotourism products and Section C: Supporting services. Section A focused on demographic characteristics of respondents whilst Section B collected information on participation and level of interest using Yes/ No for participation and 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1- strongly disinterested to 5 – strongly interested. The respondents rated 92 items that were classified according to the framework of ecotourism pillars developed in literature review. Section C focused on supporting services that would enhance the diversification process. A Likert scale ranging from 1 – Not Important to 5 – Extremely important, was used to rate importance of the supporting service. This section also comprised other questions on recommending the destination, likelihood to visit again, communication medium to disseminate information, and what could be implemented to improve the destination.

#### **1.5.2.5 Data analysis**

The data was captured and analysed using Scientific Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24, and the Statistical Consultation Services of North -West University (Potchefstroom Campus) processed results for interpretation by the researcher. The data was analysed using the following techniques; descriptive analysis, exploratory analysis and independent *t*-tests.

### **1.6 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

Researchers are expected to familiarise themselves with, and be governed by, moral principles before, during and after data collection. This entails selecting the most appropriate research methodology, and carrying out research in a responsible and morally defensible way (Collins & Hussey, 2003:51; Gray, 2009:69; Veal, 2011:103). The study was governed by the ethical considerations discussed next.

#### **1.6.1 Survey Arrangements: Permission and Authority**

The study was evaluated and assigned research ethics number EMS/2015/07/30-02/02 by NWU Research Ethics Committee. The clearance enabled progression to data collection and analysis. A Botswana government study permit was obtained from Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP), a department under Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism (MENT). This enabled access to all tourism related enterprises such as Civil Aviation Authority of Botswana where data collection permission was requested for Kasane and Maun airports. Based

on ethical principles of informed consent, voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity, the study focused on respondents who agreed to participate.

### **1.6.2 Informed Consent**

Informed consent consists of four elements, namely; respondents fully understanding the purpose of the research, participation being voluntary, participants being free to withdraw from the research at any point, and research only being conducted after participants have agreed (Creswell, 2009:89; Gray, 2009:75; Veal, 2011:109). The purpose and nature of the study was explained, and data collection only proceeded with consent from the respondents. It was stressed that participation was voluntary, and the respondents could withdraw or refuse to answer questions. A number of requests were turned down as some respondents cited tiredness or withdrew midway due to the length of the questionnaire.

### **1.6.3 Anonymity and Confidentiality**

Anonymity refers to the protection of privacy by not disclosing the respondent's identity after information has been gathered (Royse, 2008). Anonymity was guaranteed since respondents were not required to write their names. Confidentiality ensures that collected data cannot be made accessible to the public or to any participant. The respondents were fully informed that all data collected was solely used for purposes of the research. Creswell (2009:91) recommends that once data has been analysed, it should only be kept for a reasonable period of time after which it is discarded to avoid miss-usage.

## **1.7 DEFINING CONCEPTS**

The terms defined below were important for the study.

### **1.7.1 Diversification**

The term has no agreed definition resulting in many ways of its conceptualisation and measurement (Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989:524; Luffman *et al.*, 1996; Peng, 2006:361; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:177). In most cases, the definition is related to the subject area and context under study. In tourism, it occurs when a firm or tourism enterprise; private or public, expands its business operations into new tourism products, functions, markets and technologies. In the context of research diversification, it particularly refers to venturing into new tourism forms and products to reduce reliance on one form of tourism through packaging and marketing of existing products to add new products related to existing or completely new ones. (Moutinho, 2011; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:217).

### **1.7.2 Tourism Product development**

Product development is a concept adopted from business and applied to tourism. In general, product development involves modification of an existing product or formulation of an entirely new product that will serve new customers (Choi & Cassill, 2005:4). In tourism, it refers to a process whereby the assets of a particular destination are moulded to meet the needs of national and international customers (World Tourism Organization, European Travel Commission, 2011).

### **1.7.3 Ecotourism**

TIES (2015) defines ecotourism as responsible travel to natural areas, that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education. Ecotourism is a term with multiple definitions and perspectives. However, the following key concepts are captured in most definitions focusing on traveling to destinations that have natural habitats: travel that has minimal to no disruption of the natural habitats and surroundings, preservation and protection of local cultures and communities, as well as sensitising and raising awareness of the environmental issues (Bjork, 2007:27; Fennell, 2008:22; Yeo & Piper 2011:12; Cobbinah, 2015). Since the first comprehensive definition by Ceballos-Lascurain (1987), more than 80 have been generated leading most countries and regions to define the term in their own specific context. In Botswana, ecotourism is defined as responsible travel to natural areas, that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people. Emphasis is placed on the country's cultural, natural heritage, and the active involvement of host communities and other Botswana, in all aspects of the industry's management and development (Stevens & Jansen, 2002: ii). The definition is derived from the one coined by the International Ecotourism Society.

### **1.7.4 Tourism demand**

The definition of demand differs according to the subject perspective. Cooper *et al.* (2017:33) and Mathieson and Wall (1982) identify three perspectives of demand, namely; geographical, psychological and economic. Psychologists, for example, view demand in terms of motivation and behaviour, whereas geographers define it as the total number of persons who travel or wish to travel to use tourist facilities and services at places away from their place of residence and work. With specific reference to tourism, Cooper *et al.* (2017:34) define demand in three ways; effective or actual demand, suppressed and no demand. It is important to note that all the perspectives are relevant to tourism. Given that in tourism, consumers physically travel to the place of production to acquire the product, other destination related and link factors such as quality of tourism products, cost of travel and exchange rates, influence demand for tourism products (Bull, 1995).

### **1.7.5 Tourism Products**

The term is complex and multifaceted hence the diverse views as to its nature, definition and uniqueness to warrant a different approach to marketing (Cooper & Hall, 2013:24). The multiple perspectives are now divided into traditional and modern views. The traditional view is based on an economic perspective as in Smith's (1994:591) view of a tourism product as a complex amalgam of elements such as physical plant (including natural features and weather), hospitality, services, freedom of choices for tourists, experience and involvement in service delivery. In the same vein, Middleton and Clarke (2001) identify two levels of the tourism product that is: the total level which refers to the tourist experience from time of departure from home, to time of return; and the specific level, which denotes a distinct product offered by a single business. The new perspectives as explained by Cooper and Hall (2013:24) are based on relationships, co-creation of value, and recognition of intangible products. Focus is now on marketing of services as opposed to marketing physical goods. The tourist is now a co-creator of goods and the use of technology in communication and delivery improves the interaction. Tourism product can thus, be defined as a bundle of tangible and intangible product attributes, where all products lie in a continuum between these types of attributes.

### **1.7.6 Tourism Supply**

The summation of tourism products sold by tourism industry to tourists. Tourism supply is viewed in terms of components such as Attractions, Transportation, Intermediaries and Activities. In broader terms, this encompasses showing how conditions that enable producers to provide goods and services to visitors are created, and describing the processes, production costs and the economic performance of the suppliers in the tourism industries (Leiper, 1979:400; United Nations, 2010). The components are interlinked and must work in harmony to guarantee tourist satisfaction and quality experience. For standardisation purposes, the tourism satellite account (TSA) has been adopted to define the tourism sector since it estimates the size of the tourism economic sector by measuring goods and services bought by visitors (Cooper *et al.*, 2017:13).

### **1.7.7 Framework**

Liehr and Smith (cited in Imenda, 2014:188) define a framework as a structure providing guidance for research through refining research questions, establishing methods for measuring variables, and planning how analyses are conducted. Frameworks are therefore, guiding paths of research providing basis for credibility (Adom *et al.*, 2018; Imenda, 2014). Frameworks come in two types; theoretical and conceptual.

Theoretical framework – theory or theories chosen to guide research and applied to explain phenomena or clarify research problems. It is also described as a “blueprint” adopted by the researcher to guide research and is based on existing theories (Adom *et al.*, 2018:438; Imenda, 2014:189).

Conceptual framework – end result of combining several concepts that are related to predict, explain or provide greater understanding of a research problem. It is also viewed as an integrated way of examining phenomena by providing an explanation of how the researcher addresses/tackles the research problem (Adom *et al.*, 2018:439; Imenda, 2014:189).

## **1.8 THESIS STRUCTURE**

The study comprises seven chapters outlined below

### **1.8.1 Chapter one**

The chapter provided an overview of how the study was carried out. It comprised introduction, background of study, setting out the research problem, goals and objectives. The chapter also discussed research methodology, definition of key terms and presents a summary of all chapters. The main purpose of the chapter was to outline the problem and foster an understanding of tourism product diversification basing on ecotourism.

### **1.8.2 Chapter Two**

The chapter reviews literature on tourism product diversification showing how it is related to marketing, product life cycle and product development. The literature studied includes review of product concept in marketing, leading to tourism product and models of product development. Having established the relatedness of concepts, the chapter analyses product diversification from definitional trends, strategies, models and conceptual framework for diversifying ecotourism products.

### **1.8.3 Chapter Three**

The chapter examines the Ecotourism concept in detail, outlining its location in the wider field of tourism, definitional controversy and relation to other forms of tourism such as nature, cultural, wildlife and adventure. The chapter also analyses possible diversification options within ecotourism. Also discussed are ecotourism diversification case studies with a focus to identify research gaps.

### **1.8.4 Chapter Four**

Chapter Four examines the evolution of tourism development in Botswana, paying attention to the impact of rapid economic transformation following discovery of diamonds shortly after independence. This chapter also analyses organisation of tourism in Botswana, supporting



infrastructure and competitiveness, especially in relation to neighbouring countries, policies affecting the tourism sector and how they have influenced development, and diversification of ecotourism products. Having established the status of tourism, the chapter provides a compilation of ecotourism activities in Botswana.

#### **1.8.5 Chapter Five**

The chapter outlines and justifies the philosophy, design and methods employed in the study to develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana. This includes aspects such as the sampling strategy, development of appropriate survey instruments, and elaborate explanation of how the data was collected and analysed.

#### **1.8.6 Chapter Six**

Chapter six presents, discusses and analyses empirical findings from the survey administered in Kasane and Maun. The first section focuses on detailed descriptive analysis based on categories in the questionnaire. The second section discusses factor analyses to identify important factors in determining preference for certain ecotourism products. The chapter also discusses independent *t*-test in relation to level of tourist interest in different ecotourism activities, purpose of travel and importance of supporting services. The analysis establishes demand trends and provides a basis for developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products.

#### **1.8.7 Chapter Seven**

The chapter outlines key conclusions, theoretical and practical contributions of the study. Also presented is the proposed framework for diversification of ecotourism products in Botswana. The chapter discusses research limitations, recommendations and areas of further research.

# CHAPTER 2

## LITERATURE REVIEW ON MARKETING, PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT AND DIVERSIFICATION

### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of diversification in tourism is intricately related to tourism marketing and product development, hence; the need for a detailed scrutiny of how the relationship amongst the concepts evolved over time. The first section of the review provides a brief overview of marketing as a discipline, focusing on how it influenced development of tourism marketing, especially the concept of a tourism product. The second part of the chapter examined the tourism product in detail, focusing on definitional perspectives, interpretation and application in relation to product development and diversification. Having established relatedness of the terms, the last section analyses diversification definitions, trends, strategies, and application, in a tourism context, as well as theoretical frameworks of diversifying ecotourism products.

### 2.2 MARKETING OVERVIEW

Marketing as a discipline has evolved for more than a century, refining and adding countless new concepts in response to economic, political, social and technological advancement; resulting in a plethora of contentious definitions and perceptions that reflect the influence of trends in the development of the concept (Kotler & Levy, 1969:1; Schoell & Ivy, 1982:17; Grönroos, 1989:57; Graham, 1993; Kotler, 1994:295; Wilkie & Moore, 2003:117; Kurtz, 2010:7; George, 2011:3; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:29; Lamp Jr *et al.*, 2012:5; Cooper & Hall, 2013:76; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:11; Nicolau *et al.*, 2014:167; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:513). The multiple ways of defining marketing stem from the long period of historical development, coupled with the fact that definitions by nature condense ideas and provide a limited view of a diverse subject (Grönroos, 2006:396; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:513). Although there is a plethora of definitions, it is important to note that they centre on the same core issues of customer needs, creation of value, exchange, and lately; societal needs; with differences arising on the relative importance assigned to each aspect (Levitt, 1983:3; Kotler 1984:4; Kotler, 1988:6; Grönroos, 1989:57; Graham, 1993:2; Grönroos, 2006:396; Kotler & Keller, 2006; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:30; Chartered Institute of Marketing (CIM), 2015:2). The detailed analysis of definitions and how they have changed as reflected in Grönroos (2006) is beyond the scope of this study. However, the general trend is

examined to provide a basis for explicit understanding of tourism products and tourism product diversification, whose foundation lies in marketing. For the purposes of this study, focus is on seminal definitions by Kotler *et al.* (2014) and American Marketing Association (AMA), that have constantly evolved over the past half century. As pointed out by Grönroos (2006:396), the definition of marketing should reflect reality and trends that the marketing phenomenon has undergone.

Before discussing the definitions, it is important to understand five key concepts that are pivotal to marketing, namely; needs, wants, demands, market offerings, customer value and satisfaction, exchange and relationships (Kotler, 1984:4; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:12).

All human beings require food, shelter, clothing and relaxation. Needs refer to a state of felt deprivation of these things, whereas wants are how people communicate their needs. In other words, wants are a step ahead of needs, and are not a mandatory part of life. Humans have unlimited wants but limited needs, so wants are converted to demands when a person is willing and has ability to pay or provide (Kotler *et al.*, 2014). Marketing, therefore, requires a thorough understanding of needs and how to convert wants for a targeted group to become needs. Tourism marketing is, however, largely considered as fulfilling human wants, thus creating unique challenges since it is largely regarded as a non-essential item where consumption depends on availability of discretionary income (George, 2011:4). The needs and wants are fulfilled through a market offering that is of different kinds of products that have both tangible and intangible elements.

Exchange is the essence of marketing and is defined as giving up something to receive something (Kurtz, 2010:7). It occurs if the following conditions exist:

- There must be at least two parties.
- Each party must have something that might be of value to the other party.
- Each party should be capable of communication and delivery.
- Each party should be free to accept or reject the exchange offer.
- Each party should believe that it is appropriate or desirable to deal with the other party (Kotler, 1988:6; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:6; Lamb *et al.*, 2012:9).

All the five conditions must be fulfilled for an exchange to exist. However, marketing can occur in the absence of exchange. For example, reading a brochure without necessarily purchasing the

holiday. Exchange creates value and relationships which are of great importance in tourism marketing (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:514; Kurtz, 2010:9; Cooper & Hall, 2013:76). Tourism by nature is an intensive and highly involving industry; therefore, prudent management of relationships and customer expectations, provision of superior value, and satisfaction of guests is core to marketing of tourism products. Customer value can generally be understood as the difference between the benefits that the customer gained from owning and/or using a product, and the cost of obtaining the product (Kotler *et al.*, 2014:13). It is important to note that there are multiple perspectives on the concept of value as it also depends on time or situation, and includes hedonic aspects such as pride, fun and experience (Holbrook, 2006; Agrawal & Rahman, 2015:144). Customers are, therefore, satisfied when their expectations are met. Marketing, therefore, involves creating precise expectations that will maintain and attract new clients.

The multitude of marketing definitions revolve around core issues reflecting the trends in marketing thought and concepts from production era to societal marketing. Wilkie and Moore (2007:269) note that the trends are clearly shown in the AMA definitions from 1935 to contemporary times as discussed below:

Marketing is:

1935 - the performance of business activities that direct the flow of goods and services from producers to consumers.

1985 - the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion, and distribution of ideas, goods and services, to create exchanges that satisfy individual and organisational objectives.

2004 - an organisational function and a set of processes for creating, communicating and delivering value to customers, and for managing customer relationships in ways that benefit the organization and its stakeholders.

2007 to present - the activity, set of institutions, and processes for creating, communicating, delivering, and exchanging offerings that have value for customers, clients, partners, and society at large.

Kotler defined marketing as:

1969:10 - a pervasive societal activity that goes considerably beyond the selling of toothpaste, soap, and steel (Kotler & Levy, 1969:10).

1972:52 –a descriptive science involving the study of how transactions are created, stimulated, facilitated, and valued.

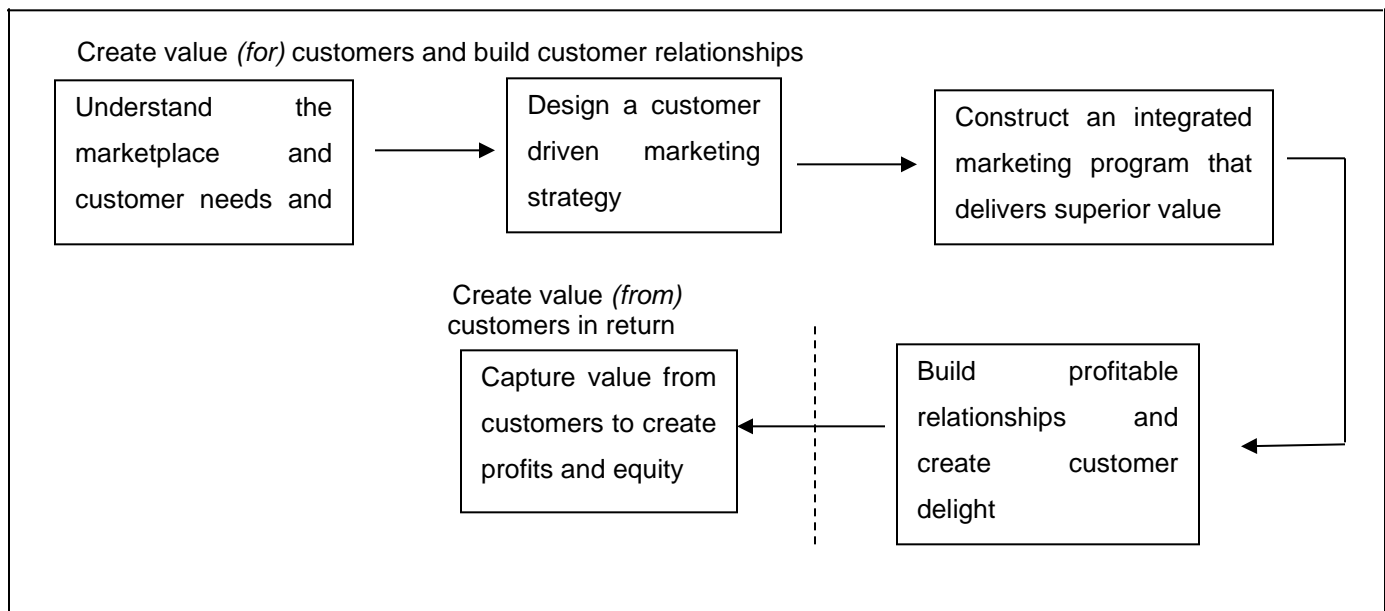
1991:9 - a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they want and need through creating, offering and exchanging products of value with others.

1994:295 - the process of planning and executing the conception, pricing, promotion and distribution of goods, services and ideas to create exchanges with target groups that satisfy customer and organisational objectives.

2010:19 – a social and managerial process by which individuals and groups obtain what they need and want, through creating and exchanging products and value with others.

2011:33 - a social and managerial process by which individuals and organisations obtain what they need and want through creating and exchanging value with others (Armstrong & Kotler, 2011:33).

2014:11 – a process by which companies create value for customers and society resulting in strong customer relationships that capture value from the customer in return (Kotler *et al.*, 2014:11) as shown in the Figure 2.1.



**Figure 2.1:** Flow chart defining marketing  
**Source:** Kotler *et al.* (2014:11)

Regardless of the diversity in meaning, marketing is gravitating towards greater inclusion of societal issues and value creation. The next section discusses the definition of marketing as applied to tourism and the context of the study.

### **2.2.1 Tourism Marketing**

Tourism marketing is a relatively recent concept attracting detailed study from the 1950s when rapid expansion and development in travel and tourism commenced. Tourism thus, benefitted from the accumulated knowledge and developments that occurred in the marketing of goods and services (Middleton & Clarke, 2001; George, 2011:9). It is against this background that concepts, definitions and theories are rooted in marketing, especially of services. Although tourism is regarded as a service, it is distinct in that, focus is on the consumer's voluntary spare time and discretionary income; hence, the need to understand dynamism over time and interaction of production and consumption elements (George, 2011:23, Cooper & Hall, 2013:3). As a late entry in the field, tourism marketing and theory development is in its infancy due to its fragmented nature and having largely small enterprises with limited abilities to uptake emerging trends and thoughts (Riege & Perry, 2000:1291; Li & Petrick, 2008; George, 2011; Cooper & Hall, 2013:79). Tourism related firms such as travel agencies and tour operators, car rentals and lodges are largely small run on sole ownership. Therefore, they cannot afford the luxury of marketing departments that are able to focus on research. This leads to continued dependence on traditional sources of marketing.

Despite this, tourism marketing has experienced dramatic transformation since the 1990s due to globalisation, technology improvements, changes in tourist tastes, and opening up of new markets such as China and India (Inkson & Minnaert, 2012:345). Just as in mainstream marketing, these changes have resulted in various definitions which try to capture trends in the evolution of tourism marketing. Dolnicar and Ring (2014:44) combine Gronnos (2006:407) and World Tourism (1995) definition to define tourism marketing as customer focus that permeates organisational functions and processes and is geared towards:

- making promises relating to products and services required when travelling to, and staying in, places outside one's usual environment for leisure, business and other purposes for less than one year;
- enabling the fulfilment of individual expectations created by such promises; and
- fulfilling such expectations through support to customers' value-generating processes.

The focus is still on customer needs and expectations. Latest definitions capture recent trends of societal marketing where environmental issues are at the forefront. This is especially true for tourism, given its heavy reliance on natural resources, which are usually finite. Despite the dramatic technological transformation, tourism marketing still has a strong marketing concept basis.

As evidenced by the multiple definitions of marketing, there is lack of consensus on categorising how the discipline evolved over time and literature is replete with arguments on whether the changes are just phases or paradigm shifts (Kotler & Levy, 1969:13; Kotler, 1972:46; Graham, 1993; Wilkie & Moore, 2003; Nicolau *et al.*, 2014). Despite these wide-ranging views, evolution of marketing can generally be categorised into two perspectives, namely; evolution by orientation of production/periodization, and evolution by marketing thought (Wilkie & Moore, 2003:117; Vargo & Lusch, 2004, 2005; Gummesson *et al.*, 2010; Park & Vargo, 2012; Cooper & Hall, 2013). Literature is dominated by production/periodisation orientation, and there are various terms describing the stages that range from three to six. The following section analyses four periods adopted by the study because of their dominance in marketing literature.

### **2.2.2 Production orientation**

The production era, largely viewed as having started from the industrial revolution to the 1930s, focused on internal capabilities of the firm to improve production capacity, improve quality and expand to satisfy increasing demand. Although assessment of capabilities was important, the main thrust was on developing a standardised product at the lowest price without considering whether the goods and services met the needs of the market. The market was price sensitive, hence, price differentiation was the most important factor amongst competing products, leading organisations to concentrate on cost control in order to bring prices down (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:14; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:7; Kurtz, 2010:9; George, 2011:5; Lamb *et al.*, 2012:10; Cooper & Hall, 2013:77; Cooper *et al.*, 2017).

In tourism, this inward-looking stage occurred from the 1950s to 1960s as organisations focused on availing the tourism product to meet the rapid rise in demand following improvements in transportation and end of Second World War. This marked the beginning of mass travel or what is commonly referred to as boosterism stage in tourism planning, where the main objective was economic returns (Wisansing, 2005:25; Hall & Page, 2006; Cooper & Hall, 2013:77). Therefore, focus was on what management thought rather than the needs of the market. It is important to note that, although related, there is a distinction between production and product orientation, where the latter denotes consumers preferring existing products. The marketing focus was on continuously improving product aspects such as quality and performance (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:15; George, 2011:6; Lamb *et al.*, 2012:10; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:16). This period was clearly exemplified by the Chinese economy between 1949 to 1979 when the government virtually controlled manufacturing and supply of goods and services. During this period, organisations

focused on improving the product, as production quotas were determined by the government (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:16).

### **2.2.3 Sales orientation**

With increasing technology and competition, the demand for goods and services was largely satisfied from the 1930s to 1950s; hence, focus shifted to aggressive sales techniques to convince consumers to purchase goods and services that may not be needed or wanted. The stage was characterised by strong sales departments focusing on exchange rather than building long term relationships (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:16; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:7; Kurtz, 2010:9; George, 2011:5, Lamb *et al.*, 2012:12; Cooper & Hall, 2013:77; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). In tourism, this period from the 1970s to the 1980s was characterised by declining demand and surplus capacity in resorts.

### **2.2.4 Marketing orientation**

The marketing orientation forms the foundation of current marketing philosophy. It is based on the idea that social and economic justification for an organisation's existence is the satisfaction of customer wants and needs while meeting the organisation's objectives. Consumers are not necessarily price driven but look for a total offering that best suits their needs (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:17; McDaniel, Lamb & Hair, 2008:7; Lamb *et al.*, 2012:12). The philosophy, now commonly referred to as the marketing concept, concentrates on consumer research in order to understand market needs in an environment characterised by intense competition. This enables the firm to distinguish its products from competitors', acquire data on customers, markets and competitors, and provide superior customer value (McDaniel, Lamb & Hair, 2008:7; Kurtz, 2010:10; George, 2011:6, Lamb *et al.*, 2012:12; Cooper & Hall, 2013:78).

It is important to note that, with changing customer tastes, increasing dominance of service industries and technology; relationship marketing is regarded as another paradigm shift in the evolution of marketing (Grönroos, 1994; Gummesson, 1997:271; Hunt & Arnett, 2006; Palmatier, 2008:8). Beginning in the early 1980s, focus of marketing gradually shifted from transactions based on the classical 4Ps model to relationships. Although relationship marketing has been defined and analysed in diverse ways, Grönroos's (1994:9) definition, which has remained widely used in literature, says "relationship marketing is to identify and establish, maintain, and enhance relationships with customers and other stakeholders, at a profit, so that the objectives of all parties involved are met; and that this is done by a mutual exchange and fulfilment of promises." Over the years, there has been continuous refinement of the term. However, the core aspects have remained centred on long-term relationships, customer retention, shared values, communication,



increasing profits, and mutual benefits (Palmatier, 2008; Barroso-Mendez, Galera-Casquet & Valero-Amaro, 2014:189; Yoganathan *et al.*, 2015:14). For the purpose of this study, relationship marketing is classified under the marketing concept.

In tourism, Cooper *et al.* (2017) argue that the shift to marketing orientation from the 1980s to 1990s occurred slowly, especially for small firms; hence, their potential to create problems related to delivery of quality service. The shift was triggered by stagnating demand, oversupply of aircraft seats and accommodation, increasing competition, new tourism products, changing consumer tastes and habits, increasing distance between tourists and tourism products, changing technology, and new market segments (Cooper & Hall, 2013:78; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). These changes required thorough research to understand consumer behaviour and satisfy the ever-changing tastes for tourism products. Given this background, it was vital to make a distinction between the related terms marketing and selling as shown in the Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Difference between marketing and selling**

	<b>Starting point</b>	<b>Focus</b>	<b>Means</b>	<b>Ends</b>
<b>Selling Concept</b>	Factory	Existing products	Selling and promoting	Profits through sales volume
<b>Marketing Concept</b>	Market	Customer needs	Integrated marketing to specific segments	Profits through customer satisfaction

Adapted from Kotler *et al.* (2014:17)

Despite the advocacy for a paradigm shift (Gronross, 1994:14; Gummesson, 1997:271) and criticism of marketing mix (Gronross, 1994:6; Gronross, 1996; Moller, 2006; Zeithaml *et al.*, 2013), the marketing concept has remained core to marketing philosophy in most organisations.

### **2.2.5 Societal marketing**

Societal marketing phase is described as an offshoot of market and consumer orientation, questioning possible conflicts between consumer short-run wants and consumer long-run welfare. The marketing concept was largely viewed as profit oriented, ignoring problems such as rapid resource depletion, increasing poverty and hunger, especially in developing countries, environmental pollution, and rapid population growth. Societal marketing, therefore, calls on organisations to balance conflicting areas of public interests, profit, and consumer wants by advocating products and business practices deemed environmentally friendly. It emphasises

taking society's well-being into consideration by taking action such as reducing ozone depleting substances, supporting local businesses, and using recyclable material (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:19; Jamrozy, 2007:121; McDaniel, Lamb & Hair, 2008:9; George, 2011:8; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:35; Cooper & Hall, 2013:78). This has resulted in increased usage and adoption of terms or concepts such as corporate social responsibility, eco-friendly marketing, sustainable tourism marketing, ethical consumerism, and mandatory labelling (Haywood, 1990; Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Cooper *et al.*, 2017; Pomeroy, Noble & Johnson, 2011:958, Lamb *et al.*, 2012:13; Kotler & Armstrong, 2012:35; Brown & Vergragt, 2015:4; Echegaray, 2015:3).

Societal marketing in tourism is closely linked to sustainability mirrored in Jamrozy's (2007:118) contention that, consumer-orientation largely focuses on profit and economic growth, paying scant attention to social, cultural and environmental concerns, resulting in an escalation of negative impacts. This necessitated sustainable marketing models (Jamrozy, 2007; Pomeroy *et al.*, 2011) that advocate increased consideration of societal needs.

An understanding of these characteristics forms the foundation of the marketing mix which brings into perspective the product concept. The diversification process is focused on the "ecotourism products"; hence, the next section discusses the marketing mix, mainly focusing on the product.

## **2.3 THE MARKETING MIX**

The marketing mix concept, originally coined by Borden in 1953 and popularised by McCarthy's 4 P's in 1960s, is defined as a set of controllable, tactical marketing tools, namely; product, price, place and promotion, blended by the firm to produce desired responses in the target market (Van Waterschoot & Van den Bulte, 1992:84; McDaniel, Lamb & Hair, 2008:48; Dominici, 2009; Zeithaml *et al.*, 2013:23; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:110). From the definition, it is crucial to identify the correct target market and this can be facilitated by prudent blending of the marketing mix (Cooper *et al.*, 2017). To adapt to continuous changes in technology and marketing thought, the original marketing mix was initially extended to 7 by Booms and Bitner (1981), with further additions of up to 10 mainly focusing on relationships and customer satisfaction (Lumsdon, 1997:138, Cooper *et al.*, 2017:606; Morrison, 2009; George, 2011: 38; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011:47, Kotler *et al.*, 2014:110). In addition to the four, current literature mainly concentrates on Booms and Bitner (1981) Ps, namely; people, physical evidence, process whilst partnership, programming and positioning have been added in tourism (Morrison, 2009). The extended P's are relevant for tourism and hospitality given the high intangible element, and the need to improve quality control and customer satisfaction.

The sweeping shifts in consumer power and needs due to economic, social and technological advancement resulted in an abundance of literature critiquing the relevance of the 4 Ps framework in contemporary times (Van Waterschoot, & Van De Bulte, 1992; Grönroos, 1994; Vignali, & Davies, 1994; Constantinides, 2006; Akroush, 2011:118; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:110; Londhe, 2014). The critique can be largely classified into two categories; that is conservative and revisionist. Conservatives are those adapting to change but maintaining the original 4 Ps, whereas revisionists discard the framework and formulate a new one (Dominici, 1990). However, it is important to note that Constantinides' (2006) seminal contribution offered a comprehensive and consolidated review of the 4 Ps focusing on Services marketing, Consumer Marketing, Retail Marketing, Relationship Marketing, Industrial Marketing, and E-Commerce. The assessment led to the emergence of 4 Vs, 4 Es, new 4 Ps, 4 values model, and 4 Ss (Constantinides, 2006:428; Londhe, 2014:336). Kotler *et al.* (2014:110) for example, observed that the 4 Ps are biased towards the seller's view of the market whereas contemporary trends of relationships, and customer value favours a buyer's view. Therefore, today's market demands consideration of 4 Cs, product – customer solution, price – customer cost, place – convenience and promotion – communication.

Despite extensive criticism, the 4 Ps have remained dominant in contemporary marketing management due to their simplicity of use, being useful decision making and teaching tool, their practical application, and ability to embed additional elements within the original framework (Yudelson, 1999:64; Grönroos, 1994:15; Constantinides, 2006:408; Cooper *et al.*, 2017; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:111; Londhe, 2014:337). Diversification of tourism products is intricately related to the marketing mix since new products are introduced to consumers utilising 4Ps to assist in identifying relevant market segments. The next section briefly outlines the Price, Place and Promotion components whilst the product concept is examined in detail, given that a detailed understanding of the “product” is fundamental to the study.

### **2.3.1 Price**

The pricing of products is very critical since it determines competitiveness and the type of tourist segments visiting any given destination. In tourism, pricing of products is problematic due to seasonality of demand, perishability, high elasticity, diverse segments with different tastes, and many substitutes making it easy to switch brands (Cooper, 2008). Pricing strategies come in two forms; for existing and new products. It is therefore, crucial to identify the correct strategy when diversifying tourism products to ensure survival and profitability (George, 2011:291; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:331). New products are priced using premium or prestige pricing, market skimming and

market penetration, whilst existing ones use discriminatory, yield management, product- bundle, tactical, promotion and psychological pricing. In Botswana, tourism products have been priced using premium strategy as reflected in the HVLV policy that aims to protect the fragile delta ecosystem (George 2011:29). As discussed earlier, this has limited growth of other tourism products, hence; the need for diversification.

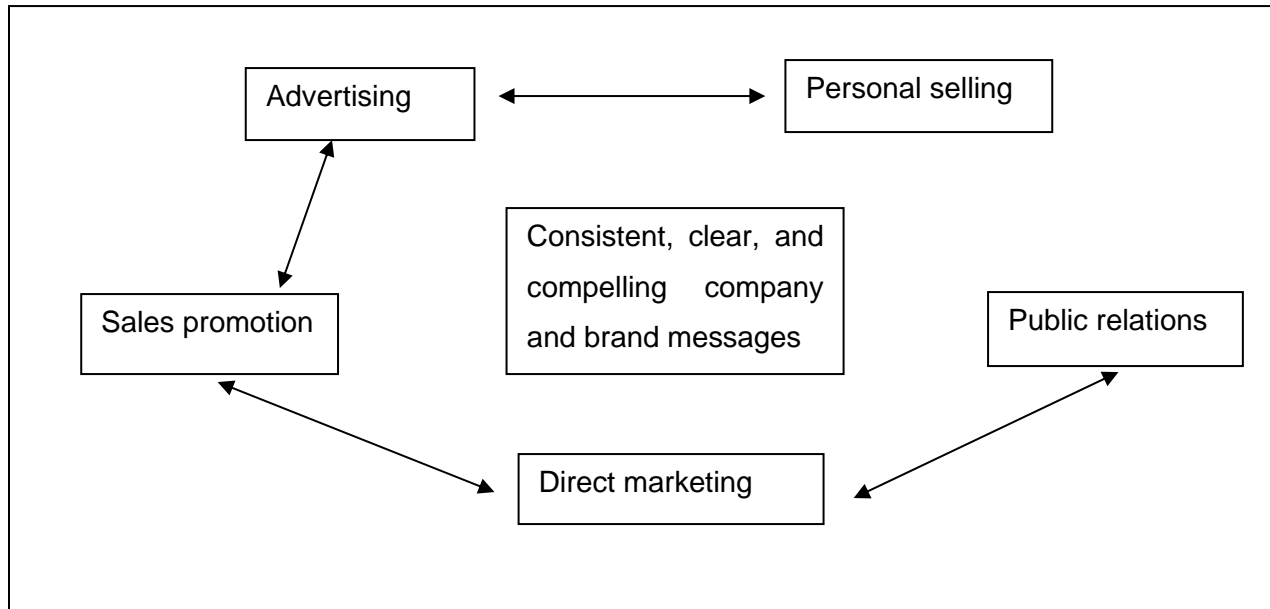
### **2.3.2 Place**

Place, commonly known as distribution, refers to the activities that make the product available to target customers. Tourism products are intangible; hence, have distinct distribution modes where the tourist has to travel to acquire the goods and, in this way, participates in the distribution process (Cooper *et al.*, 2017; George, 2011:300). Distribution has been immensely affected by improvements in technology and changes in consumption behaviour such that usage of the classical linear chain from principal to tour operator to travel agent and to the consumer has diminished significantly.

The advent of internet and other modes of communication, enabling online booking, have meant that tourists are increasingly dealing directly with the service provider thus, reducing the time and cost of transactions. This is reinforced by Cooper and Hall's (2013: 83) observation that, as the years go by, most tourists are falling in the generation-Y age group characterised by use of latest technology and favouring co-created experiential vacations with a general focus on environmental issues. The success of contemporary tourism products is therefore, determined by the ability to embrace these trends and relate to the tourists in developing and diversifying tourism products.

### **2.3.3 Promotion**

Promotion is key in diversification since it positions the product and creates an image ensuring that it is known to the market. There are multiple promoting products that have been evolving over time such that integrated marketing communication (IMC) is now the dominant form of promotion. Figure 2.2 shows the integration in promotion of tourism products.



**Figure 2.2: Promotion of tourism products**  
**Source: Kotler *et al.* (2014:385)**

If successfully implemented, promotion communicates value provided by the product and goes a long way in stimulating demand and consumption.

### **2.3.4 Product**

The product is the heart of the marketing mix since other elements cannot exist without it. Although the product has been defined in multiple ways (Levitt, 1980; Kotler & Keller 2006:372), the study adopts Kotler *et al.*'s (2014:251) definition of the product as, "anything that can be offered to the market for attention, acquisition, use, or consumption that might satisfy a want or need. It includes physical objects, services, places, organisations and ideas." In other words, products can be tangible or intangible and come in many forms such as consumer, convenience, shopping, speciality and unsought (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:288; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:284). Tourism is part of the tertiary industry; hence, the study is centred on service products.

Products are complex and have been classified and analysed at different levels. The basic anatomy of a product identified by Levitt (1980) was adapted by numerous researchers resulting in multiple views and terms for the different levels; such as generic or core, expected, formal or tangible, facilitating, augmented and potential (Levitt, 1980; Kotler, 1988; Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:16; George, 2011:264; Lamb *et al.*, 2012:239; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:252; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). The levels were identified using various terms and their number varies from 3 to 5, with similar characteristics being analysed in different ways. It is important to note that, although Levitt's (1980) original concept considered both goods and services as part of the product, most early

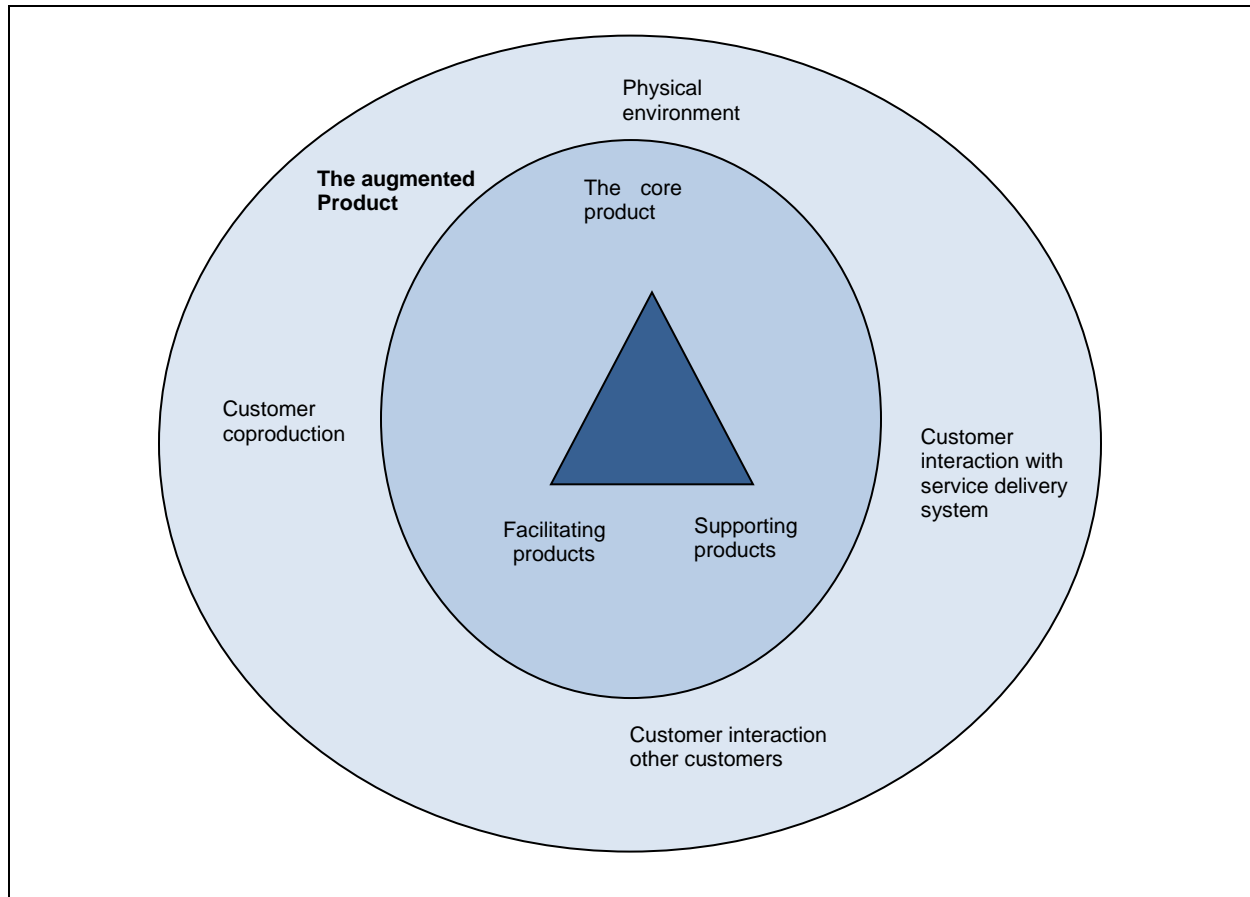
adaptations such as the widely used Kotler (1988) largely focused on physical goods (Prymon, 2014:904). The marketing theory at that time largely focused on physical goods. However, numerous models as contemporary ones incorporate services.

The generic or core product denotes the most basic or essential benefit a consumer gains from buying a product. In tourism, this might be enrichment in knowledge, relaxation, adventure, socialisation or excitement. The core product reflects what motivates the tourist to travel and does not give competitive advantage since it is likely to be similar in most destinations (Levitt, 1980; Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:288; McDaniel *et al.*, 2008:339; George, 2011:265; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:252; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). The differences in terminology and characteristics as noted earlier feature from second level onwards. Facilitating products are services or goods such as signage, check-in facilities, and front office staff that must be present for the tourist to use; whereas the third level of supporting products denote extras offered to add value to the core product and differentiate it from competitors'. These extras include services or goods such as free snacks, jogging maps, and I-pads in hotel rooms (Kotler *et al.*, 2014:254; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:580).

Levitt (1980) and George (2011:265) view the two levels as the expected product which represent customers' minimal expectations that have to be met for a product to be sold. In an ecotourism destination, this will include tour guides, interpretation and cultural village.

The augmented product refers to tangible and intangible added aspects or extras of the product that enable it to be competitive in the market. These add-ons such as friendliness of staff, extra show tickets and free educational pamphlets are extrinsic to the product but have an important role in influencing decision to purchase a product since they go beyond what tourists think they need or have become accustomed to expect. The augmentations can therefore, be used effectively to increase benefits and differentiate the product from competitors' (Levitt, 1980; Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:289; George, 2011:265; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:254; Cooper *et al.*, 2017:580).

The potential product, according to Levitt (1980), is everything that might be done to attract and hold customers. This entails a thorough comprehension of customers, competitors, markets changing attitudes and demographic patterns, which will help in developing the product. The study adopted the most current approach by Kotler *et al.*, (2014:252) which has been applied to a tourism setting in detail. Figure 2.3 depicts the product levels.



**Figure 2.3: : Product levels**  
**Source: Kotler *et al.* (2014:252)**

As shown in the diagram, the augmented product includes additional elements of co-production, co-creation and strong customer relationships that are now central in the creation of tourism products. This is reflected in contemporary destinations where the following interrelated augmented product elements; accessibility, atmosphere, customers as employees, customer interaction with the delivery system, and customer interaction with other customers are characterised by co-creation, co-production and increased use of SSTs (Oh *et al.*, 2013:692; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:255). A product must be accessible and presented in a conducive atmosphere to enhance the experience. An understanding of how customers interact with the service delivery system is crucial in maintaining positive feedback and retaining customers. This interaction has three steps that require prudent management, namely; joining stage, consumption phase, and detachment stage. Product characteristics are the foundation for understanding the tourism product. However, literature on diversification is limited to incorporating the elements when developing ecotourism products; hence, the need for further research.

To be complete, a product has to be branded so that it has identity, can be differentiated from competitors', and specifies what is to be gained from consumption (Brassington & Pettitt, 2006:301; Lovelock & Wirtz, 2011:117). Branding is often trivialised in the development of tourism products, yet it enhances uniqueness and competitiveness. As observed by Saarinen *et al.* (2014), Botswana is branded as an exclusive and expensive destination; hence, the need to diversify beyond wildlife ecotourism. Having discussed the product concept in marketing, the next section examines its application in tourism.

## **2.4 THE TOURISM PRODUCT**

The concept of tourism product is one area that has received extensive research such that literature is replete with heterogeneous ways of definition, measurement and classification. It is important to note that some authors and researchers view tourism products as tourism offerings because of the composite nature comprising tangible and intangible elements which cannot be simply classified as goods or products (Lumsdon, 1997:143; Saayman, 2006; George, 2011:25). The term tourism product is adopted for the purpose of this study.

The lack of a universal view of deconstruction emanates from the fragmented nature of tourism, dearth of tourism marketing theory, profound technological changes, as well as development and evolution of tourism in the past five decades that has been characterised by continuous segmentation with each new form seeking recognition (Gunn & Var, 2002:34; Koutoulas, 2004; Xu, 2010:607; Della Corte, 2012:301; Cooper & Hall, 2013:24; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:214; McKercher, 2015:196). This is compounded by two interrelated factors: firstly; prevalence of mixed terminology, where the same words are used to denote different things and different words refer to same ideas (McKercher, 2015:196), and secondly; tourism encompassing tangible and intangible aspects such as transport, accommodation, host population, experience and service that can be combined and utilised in multiple ways (Smith 1994:587; Gunn & Var, 2002:34; Koutoulas, 2004; Xu, 2010:609; George, 2011:24).

The problematic nature of defining and classifying tourism products is reflected by research that has, over the years, tried to develop a universal definition through consolidating existing literature on the subject (Smith, 1994; Koutoulas, 2004; Xu, 2010; Della Corte, 2012; Cooper & Hall, 2013; McKercher, 2015). Given the eclectic background of tourism products, the resultant definitions were aligned to the thrust of the research. For example, Smith (1994), Koutoulas (2004) and Xu (2010) focused on marketing, Della Corte (2013) concentrated on innovation in relation to



experience, and McKercher (2015) on tourism products. The summary of tourism product definitions, analysis and perceptions by Cooper and Hall (2013:24) reveal heavy reliance on marketing literature with disparities centring on how the components interact. With these divergent approaches, developing appropriate diversification strategies requires a comprehensive appreciation of what constitutes the “tourism product”.

Before examining these perspectives in detail, it is imperative to briefly examine the evolution of the product concept in tourism. Prior to Smith’s (1994) analysis, the tourism product was largely viewed as an assemblage of different components at specific or individual level (Medlik & Middleton, 1973; Middleton & Clarke, 2001). The components perspective, also termed the overall view (Middleton & Clarke, 2001) or total tourism product, regards tourism product as a mix or bundle of different components comprising attractions, transport, catering, accommodation and entertainment; that can be bundled in manifold ways according to tourist preference, and encompasses the entire experience from departure to returning home (Middleton *et al.*, 2009). Each component has a vital role to play in shaping the total tourism experience. For example, destination facilities and services embody elements such as restaurants, transport, accommodation and sport facilities that are required to make a destination comfortable for tourists. The image and price influence buying behaviour of potential tourists. This notion of the tourism product is still widely applied in literature although its usefulness is severely compromised by its breadth, which makes it a mammoth task to monitor and manage quality across diverse components such as transport, hotels and attractions supplied by different players with different motives. (Middleton *et al.*, 2009, Cooper & Hall, 2013:24). The different players can develop own products.

The tourism product from a customer or individual service perspective is defined as “components of overall tourist product that can be sold as individual offerings such as transport, attractions and accommodation.” (Middleton & Clarke 2001, Koutoulas, 2004). These specific products are offered by a single business. The specific service is centred on the needs and wants of the tourist and this dimension implies that the tourism product can be viewed on three levels; core, formal or tangible and augmented product, as highlighted in the discussion on characteristics of a product.

In consolidating literature, Smith (1994:586), using a model for illustration, argues that the marketing and supply perspectives are inexplicit, and fail to explain the nature of the tourism product in detail. Considering this background, the model identified five interconnected elements

(physical plant, services, hospitality, freedom of choice and involvement) whose importance varies with the type of product. The generic tourism product comes in different forms but serves the same purpose; to enable movement and activity of travellers from their usual environments (Smith, 1994:593). There is correlation of elements from the core to the outermost shell with corresponding diminishing influence of management control. However, customer involvement and intangibility increase. Quality experience is, therefore, attained when the five elements are provided at an exceptional standard.

Although the model highlights the complexity of the tourism product, it fails to analyse the product in detail. The model is also based on production era of marketing thought and does not adequately capture the experience aspect (Komppula, 2005, 2006; Xu, 2010:607). To capture the complexity and complete experience that provides benefits and satisfies numerous tourism needs, Xu (2010:608) defines tourism product as “whatever aim to cater to tourism needs and is promoted in the market place.” The physical plant retains its critical role. However, the other four elements do not form concentric circles but are complementary, facilitating production and consumption in one outer shell as shown in Figure 2.4.

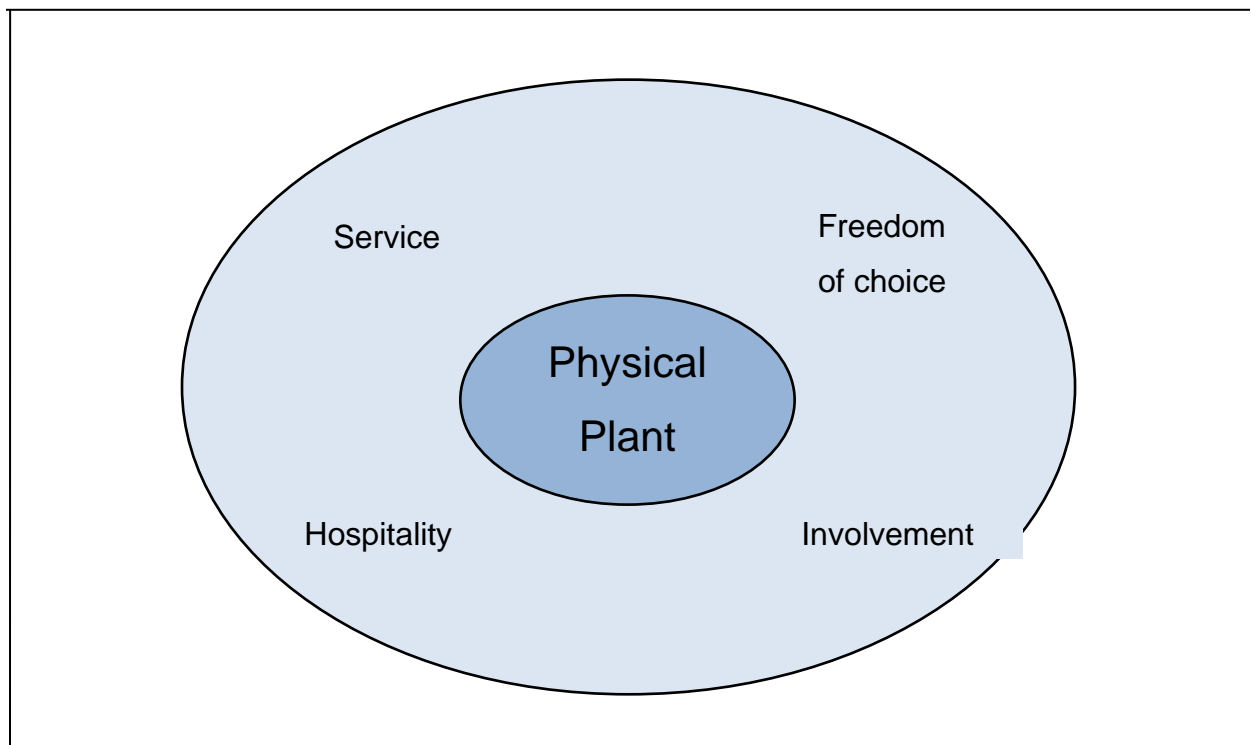


Figure 2.4: **The tourism product**

Source: Xu (2010: 609)

It can be noted that, though the relative importance of the support elements differs in relation to specific tourism products, there is need for integration to enhance the tourism experience.

Della Corte's (2012:306) tabular analysis of tourism product definitions identifies three main perspectives; offer, demand and overlapping. From the offer viewpoint, the tourism product is a combination of components such as accommodation, catering and transport; that can be offered to the tourist as exemplified by Middleton (1988), Smith (1994), and Hjalager (2002). In this category, Smith's (1994) definition is most comprehensive as it examines five components in detail (Della Corte, 2012:305). The demand side recognises the needs of the customer in shaping the tourism product, and underscores importance of experiential factors (Medlik & Middleton, 1973; Gunn, 1988; Pine & Gilmore 1998; Middleton & Clarke, 2001; Xu, 2010). The overlapping view, combining offer and demand perspective, defines the tourism product as a complexity of attractive factors (Martini (cited in Della Corte, 2012:307). A combination of the perspectives reveals that tourism product is an experience where tourists are active decision makers in selecting the service to be consumed. In light of this background, Della Corte (2012:312) defines tourism product as; "a bundle of local resources, firms' competences and tourists themselves' knowledge that can all become 'strategic', that means able to generate and sustain competitive advantage." The definition of tourism product is based on concepts drawn from resource-based theory and service dominant logic discussed in detail in section 2.7.4.4

McKercher (2015:196) observes that defining tourism product is a problematic issue to the extent that UNWTO does not have a classification framework for tourism products that exist in other sectors of tourism, such as transport, accommodation and transport used for compiling tourism satellite accounts. Most definitions reflect more of market segmentation than the true aspects of the tourism product. Based on these observations, the tourism product is broadly defined as the activities, attractions and interests consumed by tourists in a destination that satisfies their needs (McKercher, 2015:201).

From the evolutionary trends discussed above, it can be noted that defining tourism product revolves around the same theme of components (tangible and intangible), tourist experience and destination elements. However, differences arise on classification and how to explain relative importance of each factor and the nature of interaction.

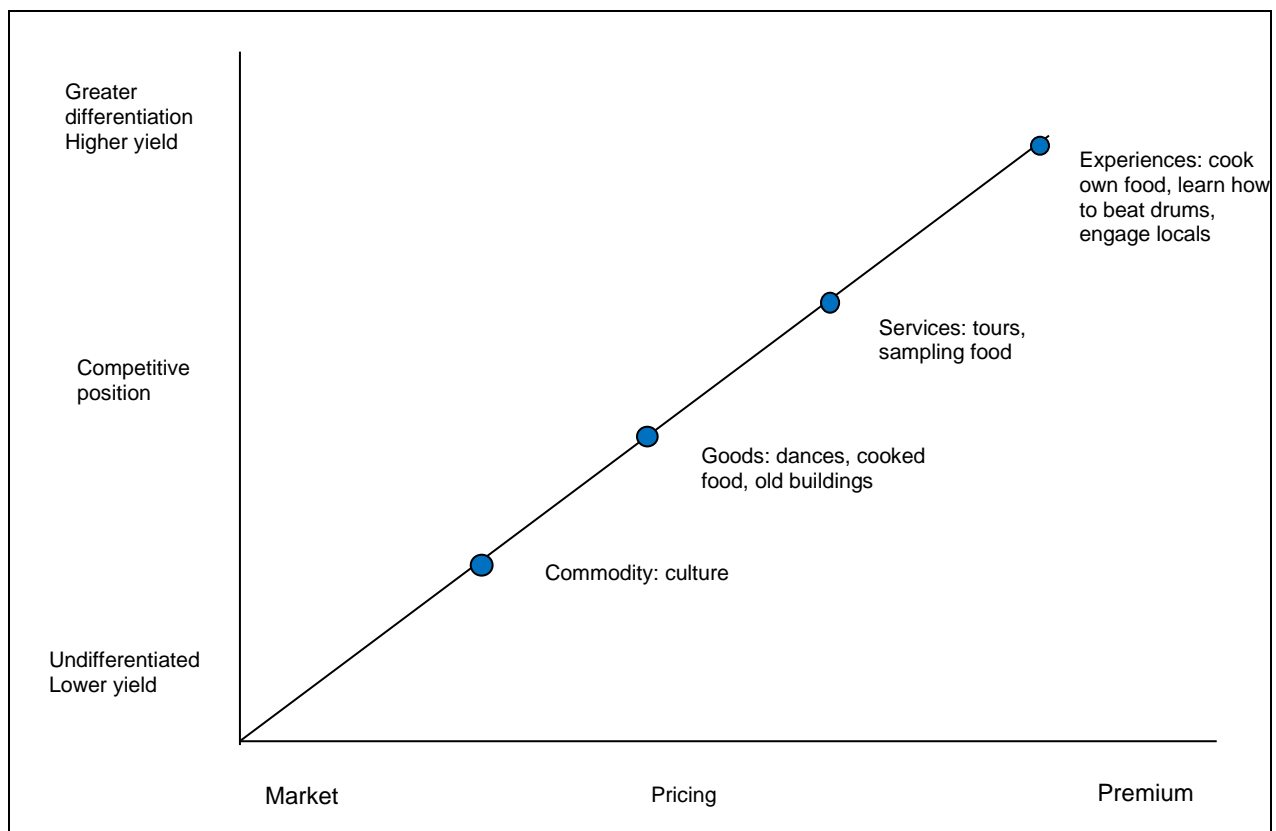
As noted earlier, profound technological advancement and evolution of marketing techniques over the years has contributed significantly to the change in perception and definition of tourism product. Tourists have become more sophisticated, desiring self-actualisation, demanding

unique, educative, interesting and interactive experiences (Shaw *et al.*, 2010:208; Park & Vargo, 2012:232; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216). Technological development from Web 1.0 to Web 2.0 has resulted in tourism organisations utilising consumer generated content to reach a wider audience at relatively low cost, and create adverts with a high personal touch (Kiralova & Pavlicecka, 2015:359, Buhalis & Foerste, 2015:153). This phase is characterised by increased usage of social media such as TripAdvisor, Hotel.com, The True Travellers Society, Facebook, YouTube and twitter, to make travel and purchase decisions based on pictures, videos and reviews whether positive or negative made by other tourists (Cooper & Hall, 2013:80; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:18; Buhalis & Foerste, 2015:153; Kiralova & Pavlicecka, 2015:359). The different social media platforms enable digitalisation and sharing of experiences in 'real-time'; thus, making them a powerful force in marketing and shaping tourist demand given the universal access to internet in most destinations (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014:47).

In view of this trend, perception of the tourism product has shifted to become more customer focused and experiential, characterised by high contact levels from production to consumption; hence, value is co-created through these interactions (Shaw *et al.*, 2010:208; Park & Vargo, 2012:232). Although experience has been constantly highlighted in defining and analysing tourism products (Medlik & Middleton, 1973; Gilbert, 1990; Smith, 1994; Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Middleton and Clarke, 2001; Xu, 2010), perception of the concept has changed to match trends in technology and consumer behaviour. Tourism experience in the traditional sense was considered a by-product as focus was on service provision, whereas in the contemporary view, it is created, organised and developed by tourists interacting with different elements of the destination (Stamboulis & Skayannis, 2003:39; Komppula, 2005:84). The consumption of tourism experience as pointed out by Arnould *et al.* (cited in Cooper & Hall, 2013:26) and Stamboulis & Skayannis (2003:38) occurs in stages, before and after the trip, that is; pre-consumption, purchase, core consumption and remembered/post purchase/nostalgia experience.

In contemporary times, tourists mainly look for tourism products that provide opportunities to create their own experiences, identity and social status. Destinations can be viewed as places where tourism product experiences are co-produced and co-created by the tourists, host community and employees in the tourism sector (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216). Given the evolution of demand, tourists now consider high quality and memorable experience as core considerations for tourism products (Du Plessis *et al.*, 2012). Diversification, therefore, implies development of high-quality experiential products to meet the ever-changing requirements of tourists.

The perception of tourism products as experiential is heavily influenced by Pine II and Gilmore's (1998) analysis that consumers are no longer satisfied with commodities, goods and services; hence, the desire for experiences in what has come to be known as the "experience economy." Experience comes in two perspectives; passive to active and absorption to immersion, resulting in four quadrants of experience types (Pine II & Gilmore, 1998:102). The first quadrant, entertainment encompasses passive participation and absorption of attending customers as in sport event such as the 2016 Cricket T20 World Cup competition. The second one, education, involves active participation and customer absorption. The third quadrant escapist is characterised by active participation and immersion of customers. In the fourth quadrant, aesthetic customers are passively engaged or immersed in the experience as in trekking or sightseeing. The best experience encompasses all four quadrants (Pine II & Gilmore, 1998:102). The transition from commodity to experience is reflected in the progression of economic value shown in Figure 2.5 using a tourism setting.



**Figure 2.5: Transition to experience economy**  
**Source: Adapted from Pine II and Gilmore (1998:98)**

From the diagram, many tourism destinations have the same product such as culture, ecotourism and wildlife; hence, experience now forms the basis for differentiation and branding. This is reflected in countries such as Australia, Canada and Tasmania which are now focusing on experiential travel as a tourism product (Canada tourism Commission, 2011; Tourism Australia, 2012; Cooper & Hall, 2013:30).

With this background, tourism products in the contemporary world are now defined as sets of commodified tourism experiences characterised by co-creation of value and interaction between consumers and suppliers (Li & Petrick, 2008:240; Shaw, Bailey & Williams, 2010:208; Du Plessis, 2012; Park & Vargo, 2012:232; Cooper & Hall, 2013:26; Hayslip *et al.*, 2013:304; Oh *et al.*, 2013:692; Blazquez-Resino *et al.*, 2015:707). Co-creation and continuous relationships between consumers and producers result in quality interactions that result in unique experiences that can be a source of competitive advantage for the tourism organisation (Prahalad & Ramaswamy 2004:5; Cooper & Hall, 2013:26). Co-creation has also been enhanced by increased use of Self-Service Technologies (SSTs) such as self-check-in at airports, self-service for hotel meals, and electronic tourist guides that are replacing human based transactions (Oh *et al.*, 2013:692).

The concept and characteristics of co-creation summarised in Table 2.2 below are central to the view of tourism product as an experience.

**Table 2.2: Characteristics of co-creation**

<b>Traditional View</b>	<b>Modern View</b>
Customer focus, customer is king or customer is always right	Co-creation is about joint creation of value by the company and the customer. It is not the firm trying to please the customer
Delivering good customer service or pampering the customer with lavish customer service	Allowing the customer to co-construct the service experience to suit her context
Mass customisation of offerings that suit the industry's supply chain	Joint problem definition and problem solving
Transfer of activities from the firm to the customer as in self-service	Creating an experience environment in which consumers can have active dialogue and co-construct personalised experiences
Product variety	Experience variety

**Source: Adapted from Prahalad and Ramaswamy (2004:8)**

Experience thus, can be viewed as core to tourism product used to satisfy rising tourist expectations and differentiate competing destinations with similar products such as wildlife (Mehmetoglu & Engen, 2011:238; Stasiak, 2013:59).

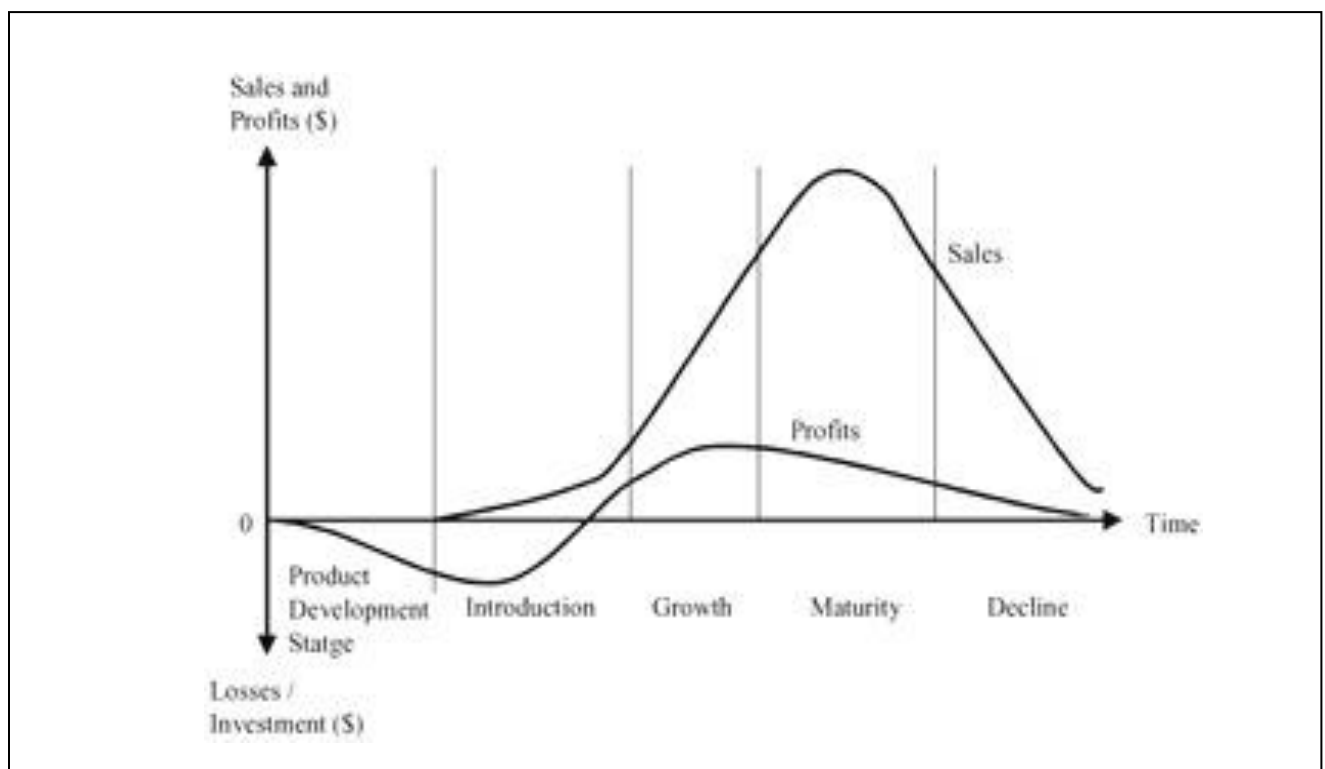
Although experience has many viewpoints (Duerden, Ward & Freeman, 2015:606; Kim & Fesenmaier, 2015:2), the advent of the concept has caused a shift in perspective from gaze to performance paradigm referred to in literature as performance turn (Campos *et al.*, 2015:19). The gaze paradigm is characterised by mass consumption where the tourist is docile and sight activities such as visits to parks and monuments dominate; whereas performance encompasses active involvement of tourists in creating interactive experiences that involve learning and application of knowledge (Blazquez-Resino, Molino & Esteban-Talaya, 2015:707; Campos *et al.*, 2015:19).

Given the multiple perspectives, the tourism product in the context of this study is defined as, commodified tourism experience resulting from co-creation of value during interaction between suppliers and consumers. Although development and diversification of tourism largely centres on primary tourism products such as physical landscape, history of the place and culture (Smith, 1994; Farmaki, 2012; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:213), the creation of appropriate experience has a crucial role in shaping the final product. In Botswana, literature on diversification from wildlife is supply oriented and dominated by general identification of potential segments such as culture, ecotourism, urban and adventure tourism. As noted in the discussion, experience starts before to post trip. However, research on the demand side, especially on tourist characteristics, ecotourism products desired, quality of service delivery, and overall experience created, is limited. Diversification of tourism products, therefore, requires a thorough understanding of the tourism product concept, role of co-creation, and recognition of other components such as accommodation, transport, accessibility, service delivery and customer segments (Middleton & Hawkins, 1998; Cooper & Hall, 2013:25). The next section discusses evolution of the product in relation to the product life cycle, highlighting links to diversification.

## **2.5 THE PRODUCT LIFE CYCLE**

The product life cycle (PLC) concept revolves around providing an account of stages and strategic measures applied to a new product in relation to marketing, pricing and advertising, from inception to market withdrawal (Levitt, 1965; Kotler, 1994; Cao & Folan, 2012:646). Diversification is closely related to the PLC since it is one of the strategies that can be employed when demand and appeal of the product begins to subside. Despite extensive scrutiny and criticism in literature (Dhalla &

Yuspeh, 1976; Cao & Folan, 2012), the PLC has stood the test of time and remains the dominant model in marketing to explain the rise and fall of products. The PLC has been adopted, modified and applied in different fields of study. In tourism, the model forms the basis of Butler's (1980) Tourism Area Life Cycle (TALC) explaining the rise and fall of tourism destinations. Although the TALC has been developed specifically for tourism, the study adopted the original PLC model given the strong bias towards marketing. The PLC model initially developed for tangible products consists of four stages; introduction, growth, maturity and decline that are examined in relation to diversification and tourism development in Botswana. The classic product life cycle is shown in Figure 2.6.



**Figure 2.6:Product life cycle**  
**Source: Kotler (2014)**

The 4 stages as shown in the diagram are briefly explained below:

- a) Introduction - a period of slow sales growth as the product is introduced in the market. Profits are non-existent due to high expenses of developing and introducing the new product.
- b) Growth – period of rapid market acceptance and substantial profit improvement.



- c) Maturity – slowdown in sales growth due to wide acceptance of the product. Profits stabilise or decline because of increased competition.
- d) Decline – sales show a downward spiral and profits erode.

Since the inception of the model, academic criticism and market changes have resulted in alternative models to explain the rise and fall of products. Kotler and Keller (2012:333) identify three other types, namely;

- a) Growth-slump-maturity pattern – sales grow rapidly after introduction but fall to a level sustained by late adopters and early adopters replacing it.
- b) Cycle-recycle-pattern – introduction of a new product when sales decline followed by aggressive advertising which raises the sales however not to the initial levels.
- c) Scalloped PLC – sales pass through a succession of life cycles based on the discovery of new product characteristics.

The model provides insights for marketing management and product diversification in terms of specific strategies that can be adopted at each stage as reflected in Table 2.3.

**Table 2.3: Strategies at PLC stages**

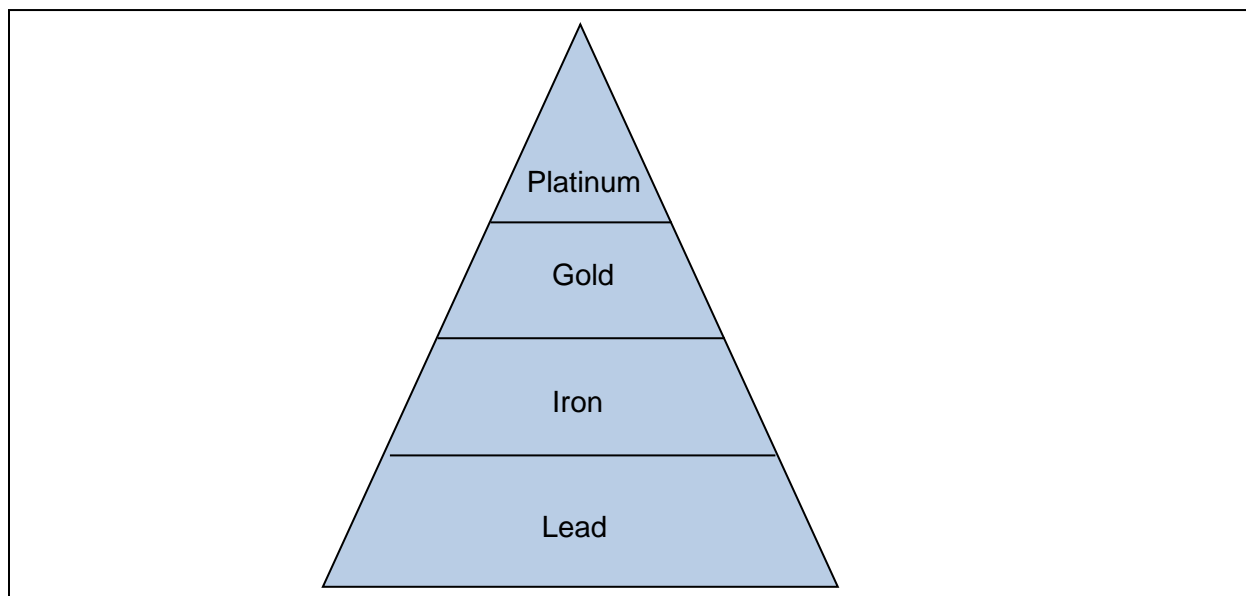
	<b>Introduction</b>	<b>Growth</b>	<b>Maturity</b>	<b>Decline</b>
<b>Characteristics</b>				
Customers	Innovators	Early adopters	Middle majority	Laggards
Competitors	Few	Increasing	Stable	Declining
<b>Marketing objective</b>				
	Create product awareness and trial	Maximise market share	Maximise profit whilst defending market	Reduce expenditure and market the brand
<b>Strategies</b>				
Product	Offer basic product	Offer product extension, service hierarchy	<b>Diversify</b> product offering, brand and models	Phase out weak brands
Advertising	Build product awareness, stress benefits and novelty	Build awareness and interest in mass market. Stress acceptance and word of mouth	Stress brand difference, benefits and modifications	Reduce to levels to retain hard-core loyals

Price	Use cost-plus	Price to penetrate market	Price to match or beat competitors	Cut price
Sales promotion	Use heavy sales to entice trial	Reduce to take advantage of heavy demand	Increase to encourage brand switching	Reduce to minimum level

**Source: Adapted from Kotler and Keller (2012)**

In tourism, the PLC concept is largely applied at destination level, and diversification strategies are applied when the destination product enters maturity stage as shown in Table 2.3. It therefore, requires perceptive managerial skills to identify signs of market saturation. Kozak and Martin (2012:189) observe that product appeal and quality fades when a destination reaches maturity setting the stage for gradual decline.

It is at this point that strategic choices to reposition the destination, such as modifying existing tourism products, service innovation, introducing new products and infrastructure development are considered. This is complemented by targeting tourist segments bringing highest returns. Research has shown that for most businesses, 80% of the profit is produced by 20% of the customers. To help in identifying the correct type of customers, Zeithaml *et al.* (cited in Kozak and Martin, 2012:190) developed a four-level customer pyramid describing tourist characteristics as shown in Figure 2.7.



**Figure 2.7: Tourist customer pyramid**  
**Source: Kozak and Martin (2012:190)**

The pyramid shows that there is an inverse relationship between the quality and number of tourists. The quality and spending patterns decrease with increasing numbers as explained in the following characteristics:

Platinum – frequent visitors, price insensitive, most profitable, desire separation from the masses demanding service excellence, self-contained resorts.

Gold – more price sensitive, expect price discounts, decreased loyalty, visit often.

Iron – lower spending patterns, loyalty and profitability.

Lead – a liability to the company, very demanding and quick to complain, little or no respect for local customs. In extreme cases, they can cause trouble or promote deviant behaviour for example soccer hooligans.

The framework assists in identifying the tourist segment to target in times of product stagnation and decline. When diversifying, the desire for tourism businesses is a high percentage of platinum tourists; hence; the need for incentive programmes and promotions to stimulate shifting of tourists to a higher level. A study of Turkey's tourism patterns by Kozak and Martin (2012:188) revealed that tourism receipts and arrivals were high and approaching maturity levels. Diversification strategies were, therefore, required to maintain sustainable economic growth from tourism. This entailed developing new products such as winter, thermal and cultural tourism to avert Spain's experience of spectacular decline after years of rapid development.

In comparison to western countries, tourism development in Botswana is still in infancy stage. However, since independence, tourism is heavily skewed towards the wildlife product. Although wildlife tourism retains cash cow status, increasing environmental strain, reduction of differentiating features as tourism in neighbouring countries expands and shifts in tourists' tastes, have amplified calls for diversification (WTTC, 2007:49; Mahachi & Ketshabile, 2013:38; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:9; Moswete & Lacey, 2015). The growth of wildlife product has slowed and is now approaching early maturity. However, available literature concentrates on identifying potential areas and products for diversification. There is a gap in empirical studies on nature of tourism demand for new products, and how the diversification is implemented. The next section discusses strategies that can be employed as the product reaches maturity stage of the cycle.

## 2.6 PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT AND DIVERSIFICATION

Product development and diversification are concepts in business studies, specifically strategic management and economics, that have been widely adopted and applied in tourism and hospitality discipline. Product development and diversification are part of corporate level strategies for growing businesses as explained in the Ansoff matrix. The matrix model identifies four growth strategies in relation to markets and products as illustrated in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4: The Ansoff matrix**

Market \ Product	Current products	New Products
	Current markets	Product Development
New markets	Market development	Diversification

**Source: Ansoff (1957:114)**

An organisation adopts market penetration strategy when it aims to increase market share using current products within current markets. The strategy is used when a company has experience and adequate knowledge of the market but lacks ability to break into new markets. Market development, however, entails using existing products to enter new markets that could be new customers, regions or segments. The strategy is applicable when existing products can be easily transferred to other markets showing signs of potential growth. Product development occurs when the organisation develops new products or improves current ones to an existing market. The strategy is suitable when customer tastes and demands change or when the introduction of new products boosts economic returns in an existing market. Diversification entails entry to new markets using new products. The strategy is adopted when products and markets are no longer profitable, resources and competencies are underutilised, or when the organisation desires more than one product or market segment.

Ansoff (1957:114) points out that in reality, companies employ more than one strategy, especially in the face of increasing competition. In view of this statement, distinction and identification of specific transition points from one strategy to another becomes blurred, especially in relation to tourism, where efforts to improve products often entail market and product development.

Given that the focus of the study is “product diversification”, the concepts of product development and diversification is examined in detail. As explained by Ansoff (1957), product development and

diversification are interconnected concepts since diversification depends on new products; whether completely new or modified. The new product has to be developed either through modification or new development, with or without a new brand name. It can thus, be concluded that some form of product development is requisite for diversification. Taking this into consideration, examining tourism product development processes and patterns is crucial in understanding diversification. Tourism product development is the first process towards satisfying tourist needs, competitiveness and diversification. Smith (1994:882) points out that satisfying evolving tourist tastes and long-term stability and profitability is premised on product development. Moutinho (cited in Cooper & Hall, 2013:94) observes that new products are vital to tourism firms since they can increase revenue, competitiveness and enhance diversification and growth. It is on this basis that the next section analyses product development in depth, focusing on a tourism perspective.

### **2.6.1 Tourism Product Development**

In generic terms, product development (PD) is the umbrella term embracing improvements, and at times, fundamental changes to product or service performance characteristics (Johne & Storey, 1998:189). The process of PD is essential for organisational survival due to continuous market changes in relation to consumer needs and tastes, desire to expand and boost profits, need to incorporate new technology, shortened product cycles, increasing demand to recognise environmental concerns, and intense local and foreign competition (Johne & Storey, 1998:189; Kyland *et al.*, 2009:534, Kotler & Keller, 2012:590; Cooper & Hall, 2013:94; Kim *et al.*, 2015:230). Additional factors in the context of tourism include emergence of new markets, and educated tourists demanding quality experience and sustainable products, improved knowledge of demographic and psychographic characteristics, increased sedentary life styles prompting the industry to develop extreme adventure products to cater for the wild-side of human beings (UNWTO & ETC, 2011; Cooper & Hall, 2013:95). In view of these factors, Tourism product development is defined as a process whereby the assets of a particular destination are moulded to meet the needs of national and international customers (UNWTO & ETC, 2011:4). It is a long term, process that is interlinked and continuous, involving coordination among different stakeholders to analyse market dynamics and develop products suitable to demand conditions (Romão *et al.*, 2018:736).

The process of developing new products, commonly referred as new product development (NPD), identifies six types of products (Booz, Allen & Hamilton, 1982) that have been adapted and modified for services by Zeithaml *et al.* (2013) and Lovelock and Wirtz (2011:122). Due to

advances in technology and knowledge, there are now multiple ways of classifying new products (Kim *et al.*, 2015:233). However, a detailed examination of the typology is beyond the scope of this study. Although some of the modified types specifically refer to services, the study focuses on typology of Booz, Allen and Hamilton (1982) due to its universal appeal and simplicity. The six types of new products are shown in Table 2.5.

**Table 2.5: Type of new product and degree of newness**

Type of new product	Degree of newness
New-to-the-world products	Entirely new
New product lines	New market survey
Additions to existing product lines	Supplements
Improvements and revisions to existing products	Additional 'value'
Repositionings	Into new market
Cost reductions	For same performance

**Source: Cooper and Hall (2013:96)**

In tourism, innovative or new-to-the-world products are very rare. They mainly come as additions to existing product lines or improvements and revisions to existing products. The number of truly new products is limited because tourism companies are generally small and inward looking; hence, lack capital, resources and technical expertise to conduct such expensive exercises. The tourism product as discussed earlier is intangible, meaning that it is difficult to test but easy to copy. Additionally, tourism resources are largely public owned, and some sources of revenue such as air routes and fares can be government regulated, so there is no commercial focus as some decisions are made by government (Cooper & Hall, 2013:95). Given this background, new tourism products are largely based on improvements and revisions to existing products (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216).

A brief historical review of NPD models and related modifications such as stage-gate processes (Cooper, 1983,1990), shows that initial focus was on developing new tangible products. However, the evolution of marketing thought, coupled with immense growth of services, gave rise to proliferation of New Service Development (NSD) models solely for the service industry (John & Storey, 1998; Dalton, Lally & Lynch, 2009). The various types of NSD models are largely based

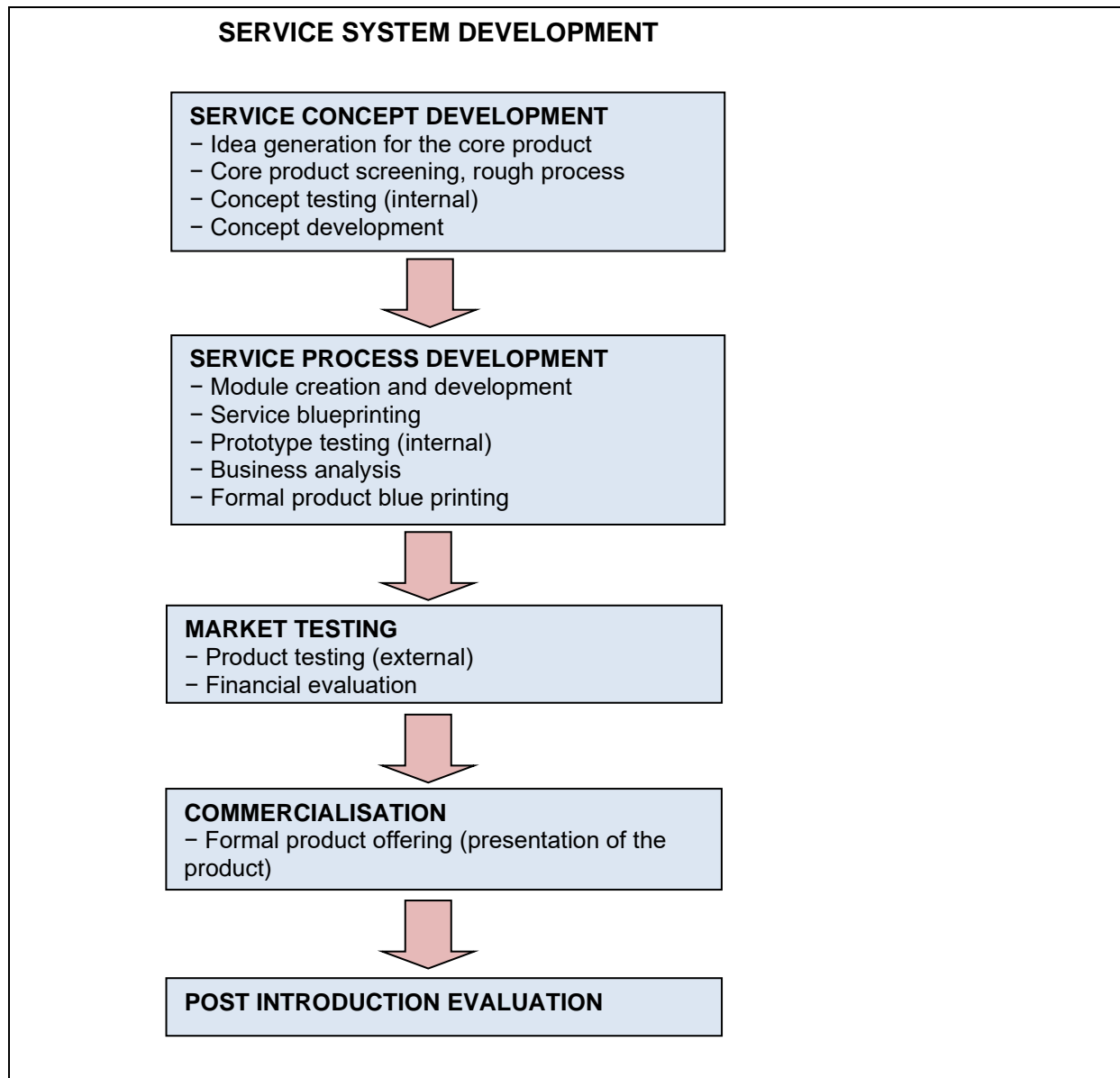
on the pioneering normative Scheuing and Johnson (1989) model comprising 15 stages. These are credited for differentiating design from delivery of service and highlighting involvement of customer and employee in the development process (Johne & Storey, 1998:202; Jayasimha, Nargundkar & Murugaiah, 2007:1). Considering the multiple, and at times divergent models on product development as reflected in NPD, stage gate processes and NSD, the study adopted the term NPD to refer to all the different processes and terminology used in developing new products. The next section examines the development of new products in detail.

### **2.6.2 New Product Development**

The process of NPD in generic terms is based on Booze, Allen and Hamilton's (BAH) (1982) seminal model that identified 7 linear stages, namely; new development strategy, idea generation, screening and evaluation, business analysis, development, testing, commercialisation. As noted earlier, the original model has, over the years, been extensively modified through expansion or reduction of stages and application in different disciplines. There is therefore, no agreement among academics on the number of NPD stages. However, the general range is 4 to 8. Troy *et al.* and Song and Montoya-Weiss (cited in Sandvik *et al.*, 2011) identify 4 and 6 stages respectively, whereas Song and Parry (1997) have 5 stages. Extant literature reveals that regardless of the multiple modifications, product development models generally retain the core ideas of BAH model, and follow a similar linear stage pattern; with differences emerging in terminology and the number of stages. Considering the late entry of tourism as a discipline, academic research on product development is generally limited and narrow in perspective despite the plethora of models in business management discipline (Komppula, 2001:2; Kylänen *et al.*, 2009:521). A notable contribution is by the UNWTO & ETC (2011) handbook that examines tourism product development as a holistic process rather than a model perspective. The process entails aspects such as compilation of destination resources, market research, Political, Economic, Social, Technological (PEST) and Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats (SWOT) analysis, development and planning strategies. Despite the broad outlook, the process incorporates most stages in product development models.

Considering multiple approaches to product development, the study focuses on Konu *et al.*'s (2010) approach of integrating NPD and NSD models and concepts to explain the Tourism Product Development process. The integration is biased towards NSD models, given that tourism is part of the service industry and has unique characteristics. Combining the two approaches allows detailed inclusion of customer involvement, and a critical part of co-creation concept, which

is core to development of contemporary tourism products. Figure 2.8 shows the development of a customer-oriented new tourism product.



**Figure 2.8: New tourism product development process**  
**Source: Adapted from Konu *et al.* (2010:132)**

The development of a new tourism product is divided into 5 cumulative stages. The first stage, service concept development, as shown in Figure 2.8, is composed of 4 processes also known as front-end phase or the “fuzzy front-end” (Komppula, 2001:11; Boukis & Kaminikis, 2014:349). The service concept, regarded as the core of the tourist product, is a description of customer



needs and how these are to be satisfied (Komppula, 2001:6, 2006:138; Konu *et al.*, 2010: 130). These needs are identified using processes in the first stage.

The development of new products is a continuous process; hence, there are numerous methods of generating ideas to suit contemporary trends. According to Edvardsson *et al.* (cited in Konu, 2015:3), ideas can be generated through user-involvement and customers as co-creators or innovators. User-involvement entails learning more about customers by collecting information on values and preferences to enable understanding of needs. In the tourism context, customers as co-creators or innovators, means engaging them in idea generation and creation of new services to meet identified needs. Tourist travel is voluntary, so the likelihood to invest time, and in some instances resources, to develop new service concepts, is high.

Cooper and Edgett (2008:3) identify 18 methods of idea generation that are divided into 3 broad groups, namely; open innovation, voice of consumer (VOC) and other approaches such as patent mapping and internal idea capture. VOC methods comprise lead user analysis, anthropological research and market trend analysis (Cooper & Edgett, 2008). Anthropological research entails engaging ecotourism customers to collect data on their needs, how they interact with the product, and challenges they face. Lead user analysis involves identifying and working with innovative customers, leading to development of more efficient innovative products. In market trend analysis, customer surveys and focus groups are used to identify areas of improvement. Other sources of ideas include analysis of competing products to identify areas of improvement, internal search using team members, and consulting reputable technical institutions that focus on related product development research (Ulrich & Eppinger 2012:128). From the discussion, VOC methods and co-creators refer to same thing. It is a matter of different terminology.

It is vital to note that in product development, not all methods can be used. Choice is determined by the nature of the product and setting. The tourism product is experiential; hence, idea generation largely relies on VOC methods or co-creation. The core ideas generated are divided into themes that are screened and tested in preparation for the next stage.

The ideas are screened based on Kotler *et al.*'s (2013) R – W – W (Real, Win, Worth doing) strategy. The R considers if there is real demand for an ecotourism product from the tourists. Win analyses whether resources are available, and whether the ecotourism product possesses unique competitive advantage to justify development. Worth doing considers the relevance of the new product to the overall tourism development strategy in Botswana. As noted earlier, Botswana has

a high potential for ecotourism products. However, empirical research to substantiate such a development, especially from demand side, is missing.

The next stage, service process, denotes the chain of activities that must function properly if the service is to be produced. This development stage involves planning and pricing the tourism product (Komppula, 2001:6). This entails coming up with a service blueprint and identifying costs, time schedules and all service quality factors such as reliability, tangibles and responsiveness (Konu *et al.*, 2010:130). The service process model is tested before developing the final blueprint.

This leads to the stage of market testing which involves taking the product to a sampled market population to mainly focus on a test of key experience components such as customer involvement. Testing will also help in determining the appeal of the ecotourism product.

Successful testing will lead to launching of the product in the market and identifying points of success and failures, to increase impact and acceptability of the product. Although presented in linear form, current literature suggests that this is a cyclic process with continuous improvements. Product development is a key component of diversifying tourism products. However, available literature concentrates on identifying potential avenues for expanding tourism without detailed empirical research.

Haanpää *et al.* (cited in Janhunen, 2014:16) offers a different perspective to explain the short history of product development in tourism by identifying three research streams, namely; product orientation, customer orientation and co-creation approach. The product-oriented view is typified by Smith's (1994) model where value of products is measured through transactions and sales (Komppula, 2001). In customer-oriented view, TPD is based on the satisfaction of wants and needs of customers (Konu, Tuohino & Komppula, 2010). The two perspectives, however, view TPD in a linear fashion, ignoring the socio-cultural dynamics, diverse and complex nature of tourism products (Garcia-Rosell *et al.*, 2007).

This has led to the birth of the co-creation approach, which recognises the significant role of consumers in planning and development of products. The social aspect as argued by Garcia-Rosell *et al.* (2007:449) encompasses views of the local community and interest groups that could possess valuable knowledge about the market; hence, the need for adequate representation. TPD is therefore, viewed as constantly evolving and on-going, rather than something that can be completed. The co-creation activities occur in three forms: co-creation amongst the tourist when they share information and experiences on websites, co-creation among suppliers and consumers

where suppliers afford customers chance to design products themselves, and co-creation between visitors and locals where ecotourists mix with local people and learn their style (Garcia-Rosell *et al.*, 2007:449; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216). In view of the co-creation approach, TPD becomes more participative and integrative in business and destination development rather than concentrating on a company-centred, managerial perspective. Different stakeholders are afforded an opportunity to negotiate, resist and reflect their actions and impact on the production and consumption of the destination (Garcia-Rosell *et al.*, 2007:455). The study adopted this inclusive approach of co-creation, where tourists were involved in determining what they needed in relation to diversifying ecotourism products. Once developed, the ecotourism products became part of the tourism experience. However, there are no empirical studies that have been devoted to collecting data from tourists; a crucial component of co-creation process. The next section examines product diversification and how the concept has been applied in tourism.

## **2.7 TOURISM PRODUCT DIVERSIFICATION**

Based on several perceived advantages, tourism in many developing countries has been identified as a vehicle for much needed economic and social development. Given today's hypercompetitive environment characterised by rapid technological changes resulting in shorter product and service cycles, tourism product diversification is viewed as a way of maintaining competitive advantage and boosting growth and development (Kim *et al.*, 2015:533). The concept of diversification has been extensively researched, particularly in Strategic Management and Economics. However, its application in the context of tourism is still considered young (Bacher, 2005:12; Wang & Xu 2010:192; Farmaki, 2012:186). The next section examines trends in the definition, classification, conceptualization of diversification and application in tourism studies.

### **2.7.1 Definition and trends of diversification**

Diversification originated in Strategic Management as part of corporate level strategy entailing action taken to gain a competitive advantage through the selection and management of a mix of businesses competing in several industries or product markets (Ansoff, 1957; Peng, 2006; Ireland *et al.*, 2013; Hitt *et al.*, 2017). The concept rapidly gained momentum when the end of World War II ushered an era of continuous peace that favoured rapid industrial and technological progress. This greatly heightened competition amongst firms such that diversification became a preferred alternative expansion strategy to enter new markets and exploit underutilised resources (Bergh, 2006).

Since inception in the 1950s, conception of diversification has markedly evolved and widened such that there is no universal definition, prompting countless ways of theorisation, classification and quantification. The remarkable expansion has resulted in multiple terminologies such as product, market, service, brand, image, regional and international diversification (Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989:524; Luffman *et al.*, 1996; Peng, 2006:361; Ireland *et al.*, 2013; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218; Hitt *et al.*, 2017; Weidenfeld, 2018:6). The lack of consensus is attributed to multiple viewpoints on aspects such as size and type of business entity, level (domestic, regional, international) and number of products in the corporate portfolio (Hall & Leed, 2002:28). The struggle to find a precise definition has also been aggravated by the adoption of concepts in other fields such as tourism, agriculture and human resources where other dimensions have been added (Sharpley & Vaas, 2006:1042; Benur & Bramwell, 2015; Evans, 2015).

Despite the diverse conceptions, concurrence is on the aspect that diversification involves venturing into some form of new business activity (Ansoff, 1957; Luffman *et al.*, 1996; Finlay, 2000; Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010:262; Ireland *et al.*, 2013). Based on these multiple viewpoint trends, diversification is often defined according to the context of issues being studied reflecting the multidimensional nature of the concept (Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989:524). In Strategic Management, definition is mainly applied at the level of the firm. Early definitions such as Ansoff's (1957), view diversification as entry of firms into new markets using new products. Johnson and Scholes (2002:297) simply define diversification as a strategy which takes the organisation away from its current markets or products or competences. A widely adopted, and more holistic definition incorporating types and classifications, regards diversification as "the entry of a firm or business unit into new lines of activity, either by processes of internal business development or acquisition which entail changes in its administrative structure, systems and other management processes" (Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989:525). The definitions generally imply that the decision of the firm to introduce new products is closely linked to mode of entry into that venture.

As indicated earlier, diversification as a concept has been embraced in other fields such as Marketing, Finance, Law, Economics, Agriculture and Tourism. In all the fields the term is applied, the basic notion of venturing into new product or service is maintained. In agriculture, Goorman *et al.* (2001:140) define agricultural diversification as "the development of on-farm, non-food activities" which provide "new sources of income and employment" and are "oriented at newly emerging markets." These activities include farm-based tourism focusing on accommodation and

attractions (Sharpley & Vaas, 2006:1042). This results in 'pluriactivity', that is, the generation of extra income from on-farm and off-farm activities (Hawkins *et al.*, 1993:279).

Although diversification literature is copious in other disciplines, particularly business, research in tourism is considered young and limited (Wang & Xu 2010:192; Farmaki, 2012:186; Weidenfeld, 2018:4). According to Moutinho *et al.* (2011:235), diversification in tourism occurs when a firm or tourism enterprise, private or public, expands its business operations into new tourism products, functions served, markets, and technologies. Just as in other disciplines, Weidenfeld (2018:6) observes that diversification in tourism can also be defined and analysed at different levels, namely; product/market, regional and sectoral. It is important to note that the basic notion of expanding a product into a new area is maintained. Current definitions take into consideration the concept of experience, diversity of tourism product, unique and fragmented nature of tourism industry. Diversification in the context of the research, refers to development of new related tourism products and services that have the potential to attract or widen the experiences of new and existing tourists (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:214). The definition is flexible and can be applied to components such as service provision, and specific activities that can be bundled and packaged in multiple ways and contribute to overall experience. Given the diversity of contextualising diversification, the next section examines perceptions of the concept.

#### **2.7.1.1 Perceptions and trends of Diversification**

The extensive and multi-perspective research on diversification has culminated in lack of a unified framework for theories, classification, types, reasons for diversification, strategies and relationship between diversification and outcomes such as performance (Hoskisson & Hitt, 1990:463; Bergh, 2006; Hauschild & Knyphausen-Auseff, 2013:329; Martinez-Campillo, 2016:89; Gyan *et al.*, 2017). Directly resulting from the diverse perceptions of diversification are a plethora of terminologies that are applied differently or interchangeably to the same set of factors. Some of the commonly used terms are diversification models, types, theories, directions, levels, strategies, causes, patterns, motives, antecedents and views. What may be regarded as a diversification theory or pattern by one author, is a diversification strategy or motive for another. In view of this, many articles, spanning the past five decades, have been written aiming to consolidate and establish commonality on diversification research. Prominent ones based mostly on citation include: Rumelt (1974), Palepu (1985), Ramanujam and Varadajaran (1989), Hoskisson and Hitt (1990), Montgomery (1994), Brost and Kleiner (1995), Palich *et al.* (2000), Bergh (2006), Wan *et al.* (2011), Hauschild and Knyphausen-Auseff (2013), and Gyan *et al.*, (2017). Despite the upsurge of viewpoints, most have been premised on impact of resources,

markets, managerial motives and explaining relationship between diversification and firm performance. With such profound variability on evolution of diversification thought, Table 2.6 summarises the major trends in diversification perspectives over the past five decades. Given the multiplicity of perceptions and innumerable articles consolidating diversification research, it is important to note that the selected literature is not exhaustive but represents a subjective representation of the most influential viewpoints.

**Table 2.6: Trends in diversification perspectives**

<b>Author</b>	<b>Contribution</b>
Ansoff (1957)	Introduced the terms vertical, horizontal and lateral to diversification literature.
Wrigley (1970)	Diversification strategy determined by unit of analysis and specialisation ratio. Combination of the factors produced four types of strategies: Single product firm, Dominant product firm, Related product firm and Unrelated product firm.
Rumelt (1974)	Modified Wrigley (1970) ratios and combined them with Ansoff (1957) terminology to come up with diversification strategies based on relatedness and specialisation. Classification showed relationship among diversification strategy, organisational structure and economic performance. Single business, Dominant Business (Dominant- vertical, Dominant-constrained, Dominant-linked, dominant-unrelated), Related business (Related-constrained, Related-linked), Unrelated business (Active conglomerates, Unrelated passive) Most influential research on diversification strategy since many strategies up to now are based or modifications on his classification.
Palepu (1985)	Quantitative examination of diversification-performance literature. Combined product-count measure used in industrial organisation and Rumelt (1974) classification used in strategic management. Developed a diversification index distinguishing related from unrelated diversification. Results confirm positive correlation for related diversification and performance and negative correlation for unrelated diversification and performance.
Ramanujam and Varadajaran, (1989)	First comprehensive review of more than 200 articles on diversification research. Review of diversification definitions. Their definition widely adopted. Devised a framework of 11 interlinked boxes depicting evolution of diversification thought and concepts.

	Boxes 1-3 and 11 generic (General environment, Industry environment, firm characteristics, Ex-Post and Ex-Ante performance). Boxes 4-10 specific themes to diversification (firm's decision to diversify, diversity status, management of diversity structure, management of diversity systems, management of synergy: research and development, marketing and finance). Tabulation of conceptual and empirical studies in each stream. Classification of approaches to measure diversification and performance.
Hoskisson and Hitt (1990)	Three perspectives to analyse diversification based on: firm resource heterogeneity, external and internal firm incentives and managerial motives (agency-stewardship) for diversification. Examined diversification and firm performance under 3 conditions: Diversification and performance under Relative market competition. Diversification and performance under Market and firm competition. Diversification and performance under Imperfections and managerial motives to diversify. Developed a diversification model combining all the 3 perspectives.
Montgomery (1994)	Synthesised research on reasons why firms diversify to come up with 3 perspectives: Market power view Agency theory Resource based view
Palich <i>et al.</i> , (2000)	Comprehensive theoretical and empirical review of 82 articles on relationship between diversification and performance. Implicit conclusions, especially on level and type of diversification. Review yielded two main perspectives. Linear models – based on market power and internal market efficiencies. Positive relationship between diversification and performance. Curvilinear models – increasing levels of diversification not positively related to performance. Two views: moderate levels of diversification positive relationship difference is on what occurs as level of diversification increase: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) The Inverted U-model – moderate or related diversification yields positive relationship due to synergies and economies of scope. Unrelated diversification yields negative relationship due to lack of synergies.</li> <li>b) The Intermediate model – point of difference is performance between related and unrelated industries. Synergies and economies of scope viewed as “exaggerated relatedness”. Related diversification outperforms unrelated to a certain degree and level off.</li> </ul> The Inverted U-model widely accepted and adopted.
Bergh (2006)	Trends of diversification. Identified 3 trends in theoretical perspectives.

	<p>1970s – 80s Structure-conduct-performance: based on industrial organisation economics literature. Industry structure has influence on diversification strategy.</p> <p>1980s Dominance and adoption of Resource-based view to explain diversification strategy. Applied to diversification strategy in 6 ways.</p> <p>Mid-80s – 90s Transaction cost economics to explain internal management of diversification strategy. Success in diversification linked to efficient organisation structures.</p> <p>Identified new challenges to diversification: multi-market competition, limits to growth (1960s – 70s diversification into unrelated business 1980s – 90s reorganisation to a focused type of diversification).</p>
Peng (2006)	<p>Amalgamated reasons why firms diversify. 3 perspectives.</p> <p>Industry-based considerations (market power/view).</p> <p>Resource- based considerations (resource-based view/theory).</p> <p>Institution-based consideration: literature on diversification focused on developed countries. Model applies to developing or emerging economies where there are formal and informal institutions. Conglomeration dominant form of diversification and is closely related to government of the country. Linear model applicable in most emerging economies.</p>
Benito-Osorio <i>et al.</i> , (2012)	<p>Analysis of diversification literature over the past four decades.</p> <p>No consensus due to different theoretical, methodological views, databases, sample sizes, time periods and operation of variables.</p> <p>Dominance of resource-based view in explaining diversification motives and performance.</p> <p>Tabulation of empirical evidence on relationship between product diversification and performance yielded 6 categories that highlight lack of harmony:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Positive and significant linear effects</li> <li>Negative and significant linear effects</li> <li>Related diversified firms overcoming unrelated diversified firms</li> <li>Unrelated diversified firms overcoming related diversified firms</li> <li>Significant curvilinear effects</li> <li>Not significant effects</li> </ol> <p>Research mainly conducted in USA over short time periods (cross section). Need to explore home environment and longer time period. Countries with weak institutional environment linear model dominates. Greater performance is positively related to high levels of diversity. If the institutional environment becomes stronger over time the Inverted U-model becomes dominant.</p>
Benur and Bramwell (2015)	<p>Conceptual model specific to tourism</p> <p>Tourism product diversification occurs in two ways; parallel and integrative.</p> <p>Parallel – individual promotion of primary tourism products.</p> <p>Integrative – interconnected development of tourism products.</p>
Hitt <i>et al.</i> , (2017)	Classification of diversification strategies.



	<p>Modification of Rumelt (1974) classification. DeVised 5 categories according to increasing levels of diversification.</p> <p>Low levels of diversification (Single and dominant business).</p> <p>Moderate to high levels of diversification: related constrained, related linked (mixed related and unrelated).</p> <p>Very high levels of diversification (Unrelated).</p>
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**Source: Author's own compilation**

Table 2.6 indicates that multiple perceptions of diversification are centred around the same set of factors that have been analysed, termed and interpreted in numerous ways. Premised on this background, Palich *et al.* (2000) posit that diversification as a research domain is regarded immature despite being one of the oldest fields of study in Strategic Management, due to lack of agreement and consistency on key findings. Differences are likely to persist since each review contributes a new line of argument to diversification research. Refining the concepts and trends, therefore, becomes imperative, to establish a systematic way of investigation. Table 2.7 shows themes that have consistently appeared in diversification research.

**Table 2.7: Common themes in diversification research**

Classification/Types	Levels of diversification, related (concentric), unrelated (conglomerate), vertical, horizontal, lateral.
Diversification-Performance relationship	Linear model, Inverted U model, Intermediate model.
Theories/Views/Models/Strategies	Market power, Agency (stewardship) theory, resource-based, institution-based, parallel, integrative.

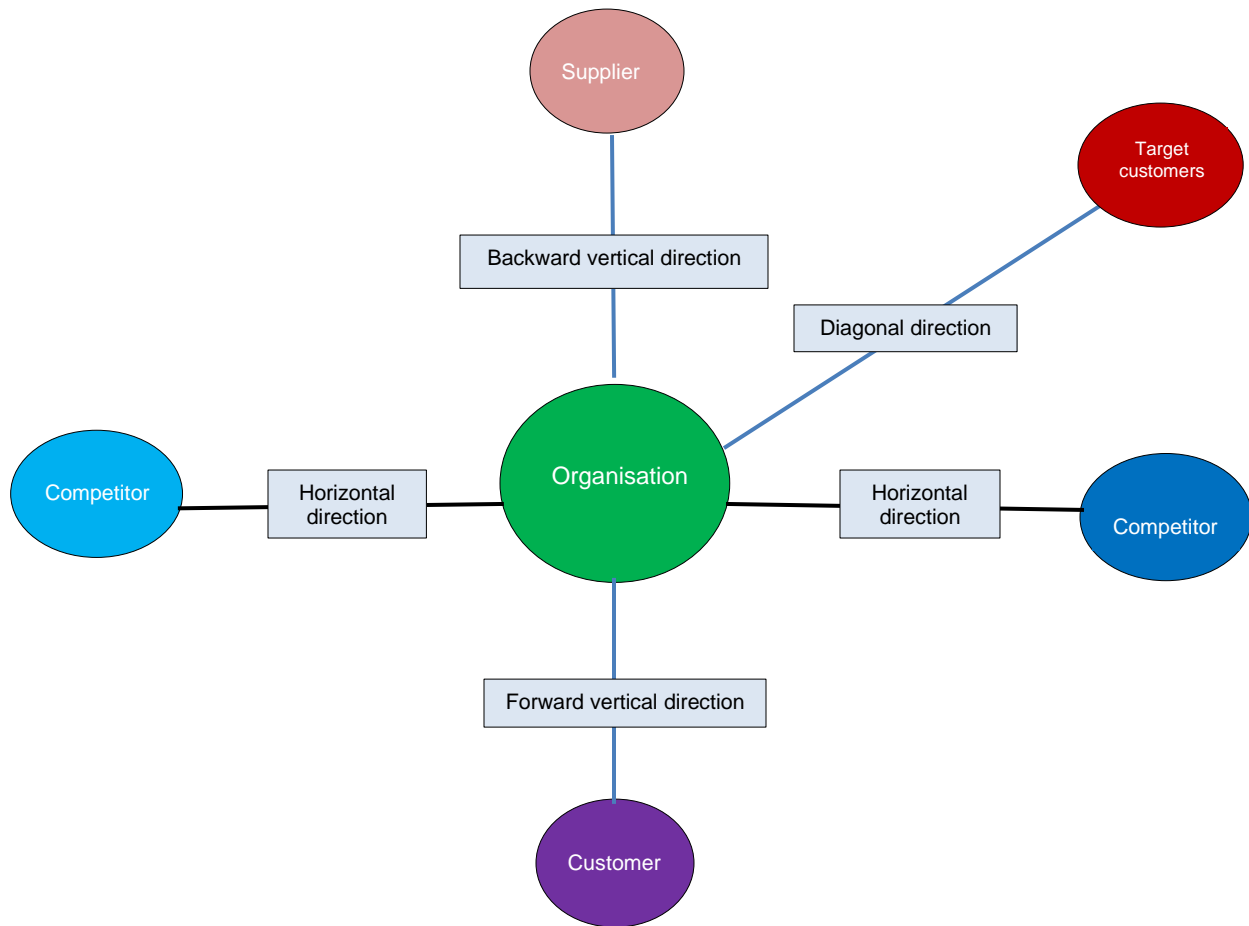
**Source: Author's own compilation**

The table is not exhaustive since there are many terms for the same processes. Although there are many theories, the resource-based view has been widely adopted and applied in many other disciplines. Theories are analysed in detail under diversification strategies. The next section examines types and classifications of diversification.

### **2.7.1.2 Types and Classification of diversification**

Diversification types have received extensive coverage in literature such that there are several ways of classifying them (Ansoff, 1957; Finlay, 2000; Evans *et al.*, 2003; Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010:263; Volberda *et al.*, 2011:242; Ireland *et al.*, 2013; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:217; Evans, 2015; Hitt *et al.*, 2017). Despite the numerous ways of classification, common characteristics or terminologies are; degree of relatedness and whether the diversification is vertical, horizontal or lateral. Although discussed separately, a very thin line separates “diversification type” from “diversification strategy”, and the terms are used interchangeably in some literature.

Diversification is classified into two broad groups, namely; related (concentric) and unrelated (conglomerate) (Morden, 1999; Finlay, 2000; Evans, 2015:359). In related diversification, the firm ventures into new products or markets utilising existing capabilities and value networks. The growth occurs in three forms of relatedness, namely; vertical (forward and backward), diagonal and horizontal diversification (Evans *et al.* 2003, Evans, 2015:359; Weidenfeld, 2018:7). Figure 2.9 shows types of related (concentric) diversification from a tourism perspective



**Figure 2.9: Types of related diversification**  
**Source: Evans (2015:361)**

From a tourism perspective, vertical backward diversification occurs when a firm creates new products using existing resources. For example, ecolodge expands services to health spa. In this case, supplies are guaranteed, and costs can be efficiently managed by the firm, such that competitors can be denied access or charged more. Vertical forward diversification, however, entails extending value chain by expanding into consumer markets as exemplified by a tour operator, establishing call centres to capture more customers and improve services (Moutinho *et al.*, 2011; Evans, 2015:361; Weidenfeld, 2018:8). Horizontal diversification as shown in Figure 2.9, involves a firm introducing new products or joining with other complementary firms to develop a superior product using current consumer base as potential customers. Firms take this route after establishing brand loyalty and acquiring adequate market knowledge to venture into new products for example a travel agent acquires a travel insurance firm (Moutinho *et al.*, 2011:254).

In this way, current customers are served in a new and different way. Poon (cited in Evans, 2015:363) posits that unique characteristics of service industry, especially intangibility and inseparability of consumption and production, create diagonal diversification as a fourth type of related diversification. It occurs when a firm utilises a common platform of information and technology to target customers with a closely related set of products; for example, a tour operator venturing into financial services, health and funeral insurance for the travellers (Evans, 2015:363).

Conglomerate (unrelated) diversification occurs when the firm ventures into a completely different form of activity that is operating at different centres of gravity (Mintzberg, 2003). This is considered the riskiest, as managerial and operational expertise is generally limited since there is little or no synergy with its core business or technology. Over the past decade, tourism in the Middle East has shifted from heritage-based tourism to a more hedonic oriented sun and sea-based tourism (Weidenfeld, 2018:7). Hitt *et al.*'s (2017:176) classification utilises the same concepts as Evans (2015). However, analysis is focused on level of diversification. The model derived from Rumelt's (1974) classification identifies 5 categories ranked according to increasing levels of diversification as shown in Table 2.8.

**Table 2.8: Diversification types**

Level	Type of activity
Low levels of diversification	Single business – 95% or more comes from a single business
	Dominant business – between 70-95% of revenue comes from a single business
Moderate to high levels of diversification	Related constrained – less than 70% of revenue comes from dominant business. All businesses share product, technological and distribution linkages
	Related linked (mixed related and unrelated) – less than 70% of revenue comes from the dominant business and there are only limited links between businesses
Very high levels of diversification (Conglomeration)	Unrelated – less than 70% of revenue comes from the dominant business and there are only limited links among businesses

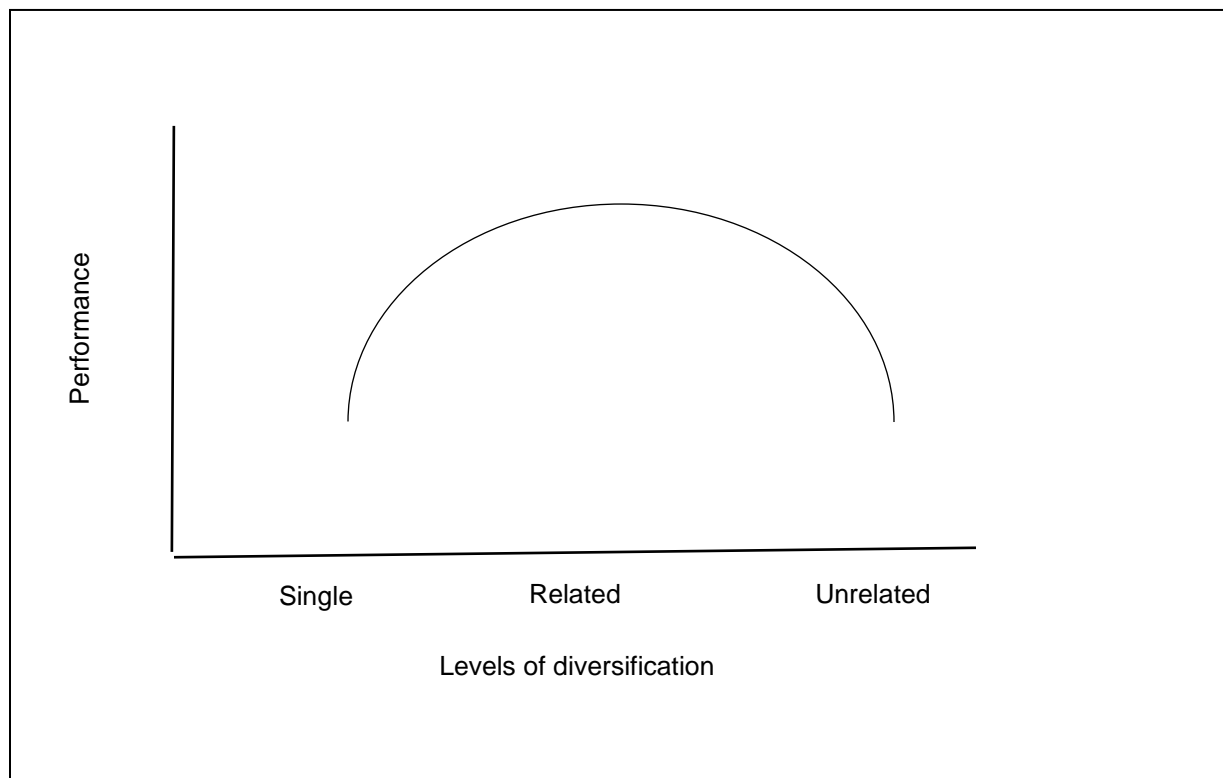
**Source: Hitt *et al.* (2017:176)**

The term “constrained” refers to the levels of linkages amongst businesses. The more links among businesses, the more constrained is the level of diversification. Linkages and relatedness

decrease as the level of diversification increases; thus, affecting performance as discussed in the next section.

### 2.7.1.3 Diversification-Performance relationship

The link between diversification and performance has been extensively researched such that literature is replete with quantitative studies that have generated intense debate and controversy due to conflicting findings (Palepu, 1985; Ramanujam & Varadajaran, 1989; Hoskisson & Hitt, 1990; Palich *et al.*, 2000; Benito-Osorio *et al.*, 2012; Purkayastha, 2013; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:187). Despite the diverse results, there is general consensus that the relationship exhibits; both positive and negative correlation, popularly known as inverted-U model depicted in Figure 2.10.



**Figure 2.10: Curvilinear diversification-performance relationship**  
Adapted from Hitt *et al.* (2017:189)

Diversification yields positive results to a certain point, after which increasing levels lead to lower benefits. Optimum results are obtained when type of diversification is related and constrained as businesses share resources, technology, knowledge and competencies (Benito-Osorio *et al.*, 2012; Purkayastha, 2013:3; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:177). Given this background, it is important to note that literature on tourism product diversification in Botswana is generic, lacks empirical research

and is silent on level and specific strategy to be followed. It is supply driven, focusing on identifying potential products such as culture and mining for expansion (Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:11; Mahachi & Ketshabile, 2013). Using Rumelt (1974) and Hitt *et al.*'s (2017:194) analogy, current literature encourages unrelated and geographic diversification as evidenced by emphasis on developing other products in different parts of the country. The study, therefore, fills this gap by developing an ecotourism product diversification framework premised on related constrained diversification.

### 2.7.2 Indicators for diversification

The choice of a diversification strategy is influenced by many factors that have been analysed in literature at firm level, using multiple terminologies such as; “motives”, “reasons”, “objectives”, “indicators”, “causes”, and “aims” (Mintzberg *et al.*, 2003; Wheelen & Hunger, 2010:263; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:180). Despite differences in approach, the overall desire remains the same; to improve value and performance of the organisation. Although indicators of diversification have been largely studied in relation to business firms, they are adopted to a tourism setting in this study, and analysed in terms of demand and supply as portrayed in Table 2.9.

**Table 2.9: Indicators of diversification**

Demand	Supply
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Evolution of tourist demand patterns: change in social values, ageing populations, millennials, X and Y generations</li> <li>• Increased educated tourists</li> <li>• Desire for informative tours</li> <li>• Increased focus on sustainable tourism activities</li> <li>• Migration</li> <li>• Increasing inclusiveness</li> <li>• Increased desire for varied activities</li> <li>• Higher disposable income</li> <li>• Increased desire for co-created holidays</li> <li>• Emergence of Eastern market</li> <li>• Greater demands for quality service and experience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increased competition offering similar products</li> <li>• Risk reduction</li> <li>• Government regulation</li> <li>• Seasonality</li> <li>• Conflict reduction</li> <li>• Environmental challenges</li> <li>• Profitability concerns</li> <li>• Managerial motives</li> <li>• Economies of scope</li> <li>• Climate change</li> </ul>

**Source: Farmaki (2012); Benur (2013); Evans (2015); Hitt *et al.* (2017); Weidenfeld (2018)**

Although analysed separately, indicators for diversification are interrelated. From the demand perspective, tourism firms diversify to keep pace with the ever-evolving tourist needs and market segments, such as constant increase of rich ageing populations in developed countries, whose

needs are distinct as compared to the young and more adventurous millennials. Richards and Wilson (2007:20) point out that there is an increasing shift towards creativity as demand changes from “having a holiday” to “becoming transformed by the tourism experience itself.” This trend was triggered by changes in tourist types and consumption patterns, directly related to increasing levels of education, disposable income, and desire to gain knowledge and become more cosmopolitan (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216). There has also been a rise in demand for activities that have a strong educative focus on protecting the environment. Destinations, therefore, respond by diversifying into multiple ecotourism related activities that satisfy the new tastes, with emphasis on sustainable development and poverty reduction. As discussed in section 2.4 of the literature review, tourist focus is gradually shifting from armchair tourism towards co-creation of products that enhance quality of tourism experience (Park & Vargo, 2012:232; Buhalis & Foerste, 2015:153; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216).

The past two decades have witnessed a significant increase in Muslim tourists at 121 million in 2016, and the number is expected to reach 156 million in 2020 (Vargas-Sanchez & Moral-Moral, 2018:1). The travel demands of Muslim market segment are strongly related to religion that stipulates daily practice of Islamic commitments even during travel. There are strict regulations regarding dressing; food and drink; religious practices; entertainment; personal and social relations such as separate facilities for men and women, beds and toilets positioned away from Mecca, prayer mats, copies of Qur'an, toilets fitted with a bidet shower (Jafari & Scott, 2014:16; Nassar *et al.*, 2015:39; Henderson, 2016:340). Because of this, firms and destinations have to develop products with provisions for all these attributes. Battour *et al.* (cited in Carboni *et al.*, 2017:90) describes this trend as “Islamisation” of tourism characterised by diversification to Halal and sharia-compliant products. Egypt, Turkey and United Arab Emirates have responded by diversifying tourism products to capture this trend by offering separate recreational amenities, swimming pools and prayer rooms for men and women (Carboni *et al.*, 2017:88).

With the continuous change in perceptions, product diversification in tourism is also focusing on increasing inclusiveness by targeting senior citizens, physically challenged individuals, young families and children. Weidenfeld (2018:8) observes that the “Holiday Participation Centre” in Flanders, Belgium increases year-round tourism by negotiating special off-season deals for physically challenged markets. People with disabilities represent an emerging niche market that is instrumental in reducing effects of seasonality, since they travel off-season to avoid crowds, stay longer at a destination requiring more services, and usually spending more money (Chikuta, 2015:5).

UNWTO yearly statistics reveal an increasing share of international tourists from the Eastern markets, especially in China, Japan and South Korea. The culture is different from Western markets culture such that product diversification has become a necessity to cater for this market, which generally prefers group travel, is cost conscious and less adventurous.

From a supply perspective, tourism product diversification is adopted because of the potential to spread risk and achieve greater satisfaction of tourists as their desires are covered by different tourism product types. Trunfio *et al.* (cited in Benur, 2013:37) noted that tourists are motivated by the diversified products to visit Southern Italy. The region, traditionally focusing on sea and culture, added gastronomic tourism activities such as food and wine tasting of local products. Literature reveals that dependence on one product, a common characteristic in many developing countries, is problematic. as reflected by gorilla tourism in Rwanda (Mazimhaka, 2007, Anbalagan & Lovelock, 2014:89), heritage tourism in Cambodia (Reimer & Walter, 2013), and wildlife tourism in Kenya (Akama & Oradimu, 2001; Mayaka & Prasad, 2012), In Kenya, over-reliance on wildlife is viewed as one of the main reasons for the slump in tourism receipts and development when the product reached maturity stage (Rotich *et al.*, 2012).

Diversification can promote peace amongst diverse ethnic groups. Benur (2013:37) observes that Western and Muslim cultures are so different that potential for hostile conflict amongst domestic and international tourists is very high, especially where there is interaction. Diversifying tourism products creates multiple activities that can be developed in distinct zones to cater for the different cultural tastes and requirements. Countries such as Saudi Arabia, where implementation of sharia is stricter and rigidly observed, have specific zones to cater for international tourists where western dress codes and activities such as drinking, smoking and public affection are permissible. In this way, friction and contact is minimised by provision of alternative products in separate areas for the diverse and polarised markets (Battour *et al.*, 2010; Vargas-Sanchez & Moral-Moral, 2018:3).

Diversification minimises seasonality risks through synergy of activities that has potential to increase earnings through extended length of stay and positive word of mouth (Petkova & Marinov, 2014:37). The SW Wales Regional Tourism Partnership in United Kingdom embarked on an “Open All Year” strategy in 2004 that managed to increase off season visit from below 26% in 2006 to around 32.5% of total arrivals in 2011 (Weidenfeld, 2018:8). Such strategies to improve tourism receipts and enhance competitive advantage can be adopted by Botswana in view of the fact that neighbouring countries (Zambia, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe) offer the same



wildlife product. In this regard, Botswana is relatively disadvantaged since the product portfolio in other countries is relatively diverse. Smith and Puczko (2009) note that tourism product diversification based on nature, is difficult to differentiate since nature is ubiquitous, hence the need for innovative diversification strategies based on aspects such as service, image and branding.

The pattern of tourism development in many regions of developing countries reveal enclavic patterns. Product diversification, therefore, opens new frontiers for tourism activities that can boost tourism value chain with local communities, especially employment creation (Rotich *et al.*, 2012; Mbaiwa, 2015). Tourism in Kenya is highly enclavic, centred around sea, sex, safari and sun; hence, the adoption of a diversification strategy to establish new products around Lake Victoria and Kisumu regions (Rotich *et al.*, 2012:111). Sustainable tourism development is promoted, given that regions dominated by wildlife tourism have high ecological sensitivity. Moswete and Dube (2009) argue that wildlife tourism in Botswana is based on the fragile Delta ecosystem that is prone to the ever-increasing threat of climate change witnessed by intensification of flooding and drought episodes. This risk can therefore, be minimised by developing alternative tourism products.

In view of the envisaged advantages, tourism product diversification has become a plausible development strategy. However, it is important to discuss the potential challenges that may derail successful implementation, that are often ignored or given scant attention in literature.

### **2.7.3 Diversification challenges**

The risks associated with diversification strategy as documented in literature indicate that success rate diminishes with increasing levels of diversification. This implies shifting to new products and markets that require higher capital investment, new technology and expertise (Ansoff, 1957; Palich *et al.*, 2000; Bergh, 2006; Hitt *et al.*, 2017). Tourism is multi-sectoral and thus, requires knowledgeable research and planning personnel. Product diversification can result in loss of inimitable destination brand and image qualities, especially if the level and strategy are not clearly defined. Farmaki (2012) contends that the loss of destination uniqueness can create image confusion to tourists accustomed to a specific brand. Botswana is known as a prime wildlife and wilderness destination; hence arbitrary introduction of new products might distort the exclusive trademark, resulting in loss of tourist market, bearing in mind that time is required for adjustment.

Weaver and Lawton (2006) observe that product diversification can be a challenge if supply capacity is not aligned to market needs. This calls for detailed demand-supply analysis to determine product relevance and acceptability. Literature on diversification in Botswana is one-sided concentrating on supply side issues hence stalling chances of success in diversification efforts. Product diversification has the potential to amplify resource conflicts that may hinder establishment of vital linkages and synergies among tourism stakeholders. Overcoming the challenges requires detailed demand and supply study in relation to available resources to come up with a diversification strategy framework.

## **2.7.4 Diversification Strategies**

The lengthy period of diversification research has yielded multiple strategies that are closely related to indicators, types and levels of diversification. The study focused on the following strategies; agency theory, market power, resource and parallel and integrative model derived from the consolidation of literature in *Table 2.6*.

### **2.7.4.1 Agency theory**

Panda and Leepsa (2017:76) observe that the agency theory is one of the oldest in Economics and Management; traced to the writings of Adam Smith (1776) and Berle and Means (1932). The theory, also referred to as “hubris hypothesis” was adapted to Strategic Management to explain diversification strategy. Agency theory is premised on the fact that leadership style has an impact on diversification strategy and managers are viewed as economically rational people desiring to entrench their interests at the expense of corporate growth (Montgomery, 1984:166; Martinez & Campello, 2016). As firm business matures, managers safeguard their positions and wealth by promoting unrelated diversification as this ensures additional benefits and higher remuneration due to difficulties associated with managing large and complex firms (Hitt *et al.*, 2017:194). Chances of success are generally limited as diversification strategy is largely based on value-reducing self-enriching egoistic tendencies.

In contrast, the stewardship theory views managers as rational people, promoting the firm and its shareholders (Martinez & Campello, 2016). Managers pursue related diversification strategies to ensure profit maximisation through synergies amongst businesses. Within this theory, Martinez and Campello (2016:91) note that managers are viewed as stewards of the firm promoting growth strategies that generate higher profits and business. The influence of managers can, therefore,

exert significant negative or positive influence on diversification strategy pursued by firms, especially conglomerates.

#### **2.7.4.2 Market power**

Large firms use their massive economic and financial power to diversify, and at times push smaller competing firms out of business (Montgomery, 1984:165; Hitt *et al.*, 2017). Considerable market power is used to promote anti-competitive behaviour such as cross-subsidisation, reciprocal buying, and collusion. Conglomerates therefore, use resources and capital to diversify, by killing competition and undermining competitors. Although market power theory yields significant influence, it has been criticised for predisposition to emphasising diversification effects over what motivates it (Montgomery, 1984:165).

#### **2.7.4.3 Parallel and Integrative strategy**

Benur and Bramwell's (2015:218) strategy developed specifically for diversification of tourism products is premised on two points; that primary tourism products (landscapes, climatic conditions, ecology, monuments, socio-cultural history) are the key elements to attract tourists to a destination, and contemporary tourism is now based on experience. Diversification, therefore aims to employ primary products to offer differentiated experiences that can be packaged according to the needs of specific customers (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218; Romão *et al.*, 2018:736). The experience, as discussed in section 2.4, is complex, co-created and shared by tourists, service providers and locals. Co-creation is an interactive learning process where service providers use acquired knowledge for innovative product development aimed to diversify and improve quality of experience (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216). Diversification happens in two ways; parallel and integrative.

Parallel diversification occurs when primary tourism products are expanded and promoted individually in geographically separate areas, thereby attracting significantly different customers. This can take place as natural development or intentional policy exemplified by some Muslim countries where distinct facilities and products have been developed for "halal" and "western" tourism. Hedonistic activities, forbidden in Islamic culture, such as gambling, drinking, smoking and public affection, are permissible in areas reserved for western tourism (Jafari & Scott, 2014:14; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218). To match the increasing number of Muslim travellers, firms have diversified to products such as sharia-compliant hotels. Turkey now offers halal cruise with separate sports centre, prayer rooms, spa facilities, and ban on alcoholic beverages and pork

products (Battour *et al.*, 2010; Nassar *et al.*, 2015:39; Henderson, 2016:340; Carboni *et al.*, 2017:88). Another form of parallel diversification common in developing countries is enclavic tourism which promotes development of well-defined and luxurious isolated tourist areas frequented by international tourists with locals having access mainly for employment. Typical examples are beaches in Mauritius and Zanzibar, Egyptian Red Sea resorts and Maldives tourist Islands (Mbaiwa, 2005b:159; Wineaster, 2011:365; Naidoo & Sharpley, 2016:18). Tourism products in other parts of the country are less developed, attracting generally low-income tourists. Consequently, in both forms of parallel diversification, synergies and complementary linkages amongst the products are non-existent.

Integrative product diversification occurs when tourism products are interconnected, paving the way for collaboration among product suppliers. This takes place in multiple ways aimed to maintain or attract new markets, that is; modifying existing products to create new bundles, mixing existing products, developing completely new products, and combining these options. The integration rests on availability of complementary features and collaboration amongst different suppliers. A study in Phuket region of Thailand revealed that ecotourism depends on mass tourism sites in urban areas. The integration stems from the fact that the ecotourists stay in the cities utilising mass tourism structures but they engage local guides and travel agents for ecotourism trips (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:218). In Botswana, cultural and community-based tourism development in villages adjacent to Okavango Delta can be said to be largely dependent on wildlife tourists visiting attractions in the Delta. Integrative tourism product diversification becomes very effective when well managed since additional products can provide unique experiences that enrich the holiday. Tourism organisations in the Phuket region have adopted marketing techniques that highlight authenticity and remoteness where guides use traditional gear and serve traditional foods. It is interesting to note that despite usage of different terminology in a tourism context, the basic concepts of related and unrelated diversification can be linked and applied to parallel and integrative concepts.

In view of the product combinations, three ideal diversification strategies can be identified based on mass or niche tourism. Diversified parallel/integrative niche tourism entails diversification of primary products based on niche market and small-scale products, whereas diversified parallel/integrative mass tourism focuses on primary products that are intensively used and developed to attract large tourist volumes. The third ideal type, diversified parallel/integrative mass and niche tourism, combines all the strategies of mixing primary products (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:221). The advantage of the framework is its flexibility and how it takes into

consideration experience as well as the unique, fragmented and dynamic nature of tourism as firms can choose one or a combination of strategies depending on the nature of primary tourism resources and organisation of the industry. Success is also dependent on strong collaboration amongst the different stakeholders. Given the nature of tourism development in Botswana, integrative parallel diversification is ideal. However, there is need for demand side empirical studies to assist in determining suitability and viability.

#### **2.7.4.4 Resource based view**

The resource-based view of the firm is a theory based on Penrose's (1959) seminal ideas that were consolidated by Wernerfelt (1984) and further refined by Barney (1986, 1991) and Grant (1991). It was adapted in strategic management to explain and understand how firms use resources and capabilities at their disposal to maintain competitive advantage for long term organisational success. The theory reinforced perspective of relatedness between firm level of diversification and performance (Wan, *et al.*, 2011:1338; Kim, *et al.*, 2015:533). Due to extensive research on diversification that yielded diverse terminology, the terms "view" and "theory" as in "resource-based view (RBV)" and "resource-based theory (RBT)" refer to the same thing and are interchangeably used in literature (Grant, 1991:115).

Based on universal appeal of RBV, Barney *et al.* (2001) and Wan *et al.* (2011:1339) observe that the theory has been widely applied to explain organisational performance in various fields such as human resources management, international business, economics, finance and entrepreneurship. In many developing countries, primary resources are the core asset for tourism development, and the ability to develop a unique combination of tangible and intangible resources provides the basis for competitive advantage (Massukado-Nakatani & Teixeira, 2009:67; Presenza, Minguzzi & Petrilla, 2010:47). In view of this background, the theory has been adopted for the study because its application in tourism product diversification, especially ecotourism products, is very limited (Bacher, 2005:12; Wang & Xu, 2010:192; Farmarki, 2012:184).

The RBV views the firm as a collection of unique resources (tangible and intangible) and capability pools that can be used to create and preserve sustained competitive advantage when utilised in a distinctive way (Barney, 1991:102; Campbell *et al.*, 2004; Andreu *et al.*, 2008; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:114; Horng & Tsai, 2012:278; Ireland *et al.*, 2013; Line & Runyan, 2014:92). These resources and capabilities determine how efficiently and effectively organisations are able to achieve functions such as selling holiday packages, taking tourists on a guided tour, conducting

a boat cruise, and serving guests in a restaurant. In order to achieve this sustained competitive advantage, firms must employ unique value creating strategies not used elsewhere by competitors, and also understand the concepts of “resources” and “capabilities”. The concept of ‘resources’ has been studied in a number of ways (Wernerfelt, 1984:172; Grant, 1991:101; Ray *et al.*, 2004:24; Barney & Arikan, 2005:129). The study adopts Barney’s (1991:101) definition of resources as including all assets, capabilities, the firm’s attributes, information and knowledge that enable the firm to plan and implement strategies that improve efficiency and effectiveness. The resources are categorised into 3 types:

Tangible assets – these are easy to identify and include historic buildings, wildlife and waterfalls. They only have value when they are fully utilised and able to generate demand.

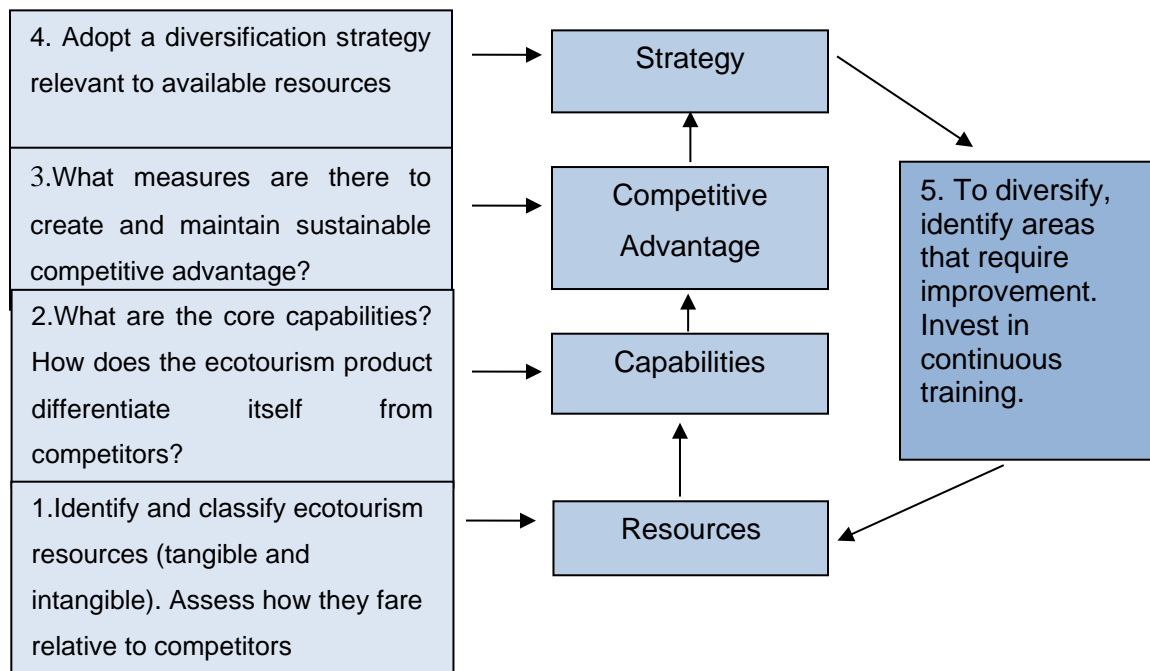
Intangible assets – they include knowledge, skills, reputation, service quality and delivery, perception of product, brand names and innovation. They are critical assets that create real competitive advantage since they cannot be easily copied or understood by competitors. For example, the reputation and brand name of Coca cola explains its competitive advantage over Pepsi (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:115).

Organisational capabilities – they are firm-specific resources defined as the complex network of processes and skills that determine how efficiently and effectively the inputs of an organisation will be transformed to outputs (Makadok, 2001:389; Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:115). The skills, tacit knowledge, innovativeness, effective communication and expertise of employees form the basis of capabilities in an organisation. The success of a firm is therefore, largely determined by developing distinctive capabilities. For example, BMW specialises in design and engine technology whilst McDonald restaurants are reputed for quick service and delivery (Ehlers & Lazenby, 2010:116). Firms operate in an evolving environment; hence, the need for dynamic capabilities to remain competitive and match contemporary trends. Successful diversification requires expertise in utilising resources and capabilities to develop new products.

Barney (1991:102) and Peng (2006:370) point out that, to attain sustainable competitive advantage, the resources and capabilities must meet the (valuable, rare, inimitable and non-substitutable) VRIO or VRIN criteria. The resource has value when the firm is able to formulate and implement strategies that enhance efficiency and effectiveness. A firm creates value for customers by effectively using capabilities (Hitt, *et al.*, 2017). If a resource is difficult to imitate,

then revenue is likely to be sustainable. However, managers have to develop strategies since inimitability cannot last forever (Desset *al.*, 2007).

To gain competitive advantage and modify performance, Grant (1991) devised a 5-step strategic framework, as shown in Figure 2.11, that has been adapted to a tourism setting.



**Figure 2.11: Strategic framework to diversify and gain competitive advantage**  
Adapted from Grant (1991:115)

The strategic framework can be merged with development of tourism products since the processes have similar characteristics.

Taking cognisance of trends in marketing thought, the RBV runs short of fully explaining the diversification process since it is largely static, and fails to address how capabilities and resources are integrated in a dynamic environment. The theory also considers the firm as the unit of analysis, with capabilities and core competencies residing at the level of the individual firm and many applications of the theory in different fields followed a similar approach. There is, however, a paucity of literature on how firms collaborate in creating and utilising resources, especially inclusion of customers (Haughland; Bjorn-Ove Gronset; Aarstad, 2011:273; Kim, *et al.*, 2015:534). Given that service firms operate in a dynamic environment interacting with multiple stakeholders,

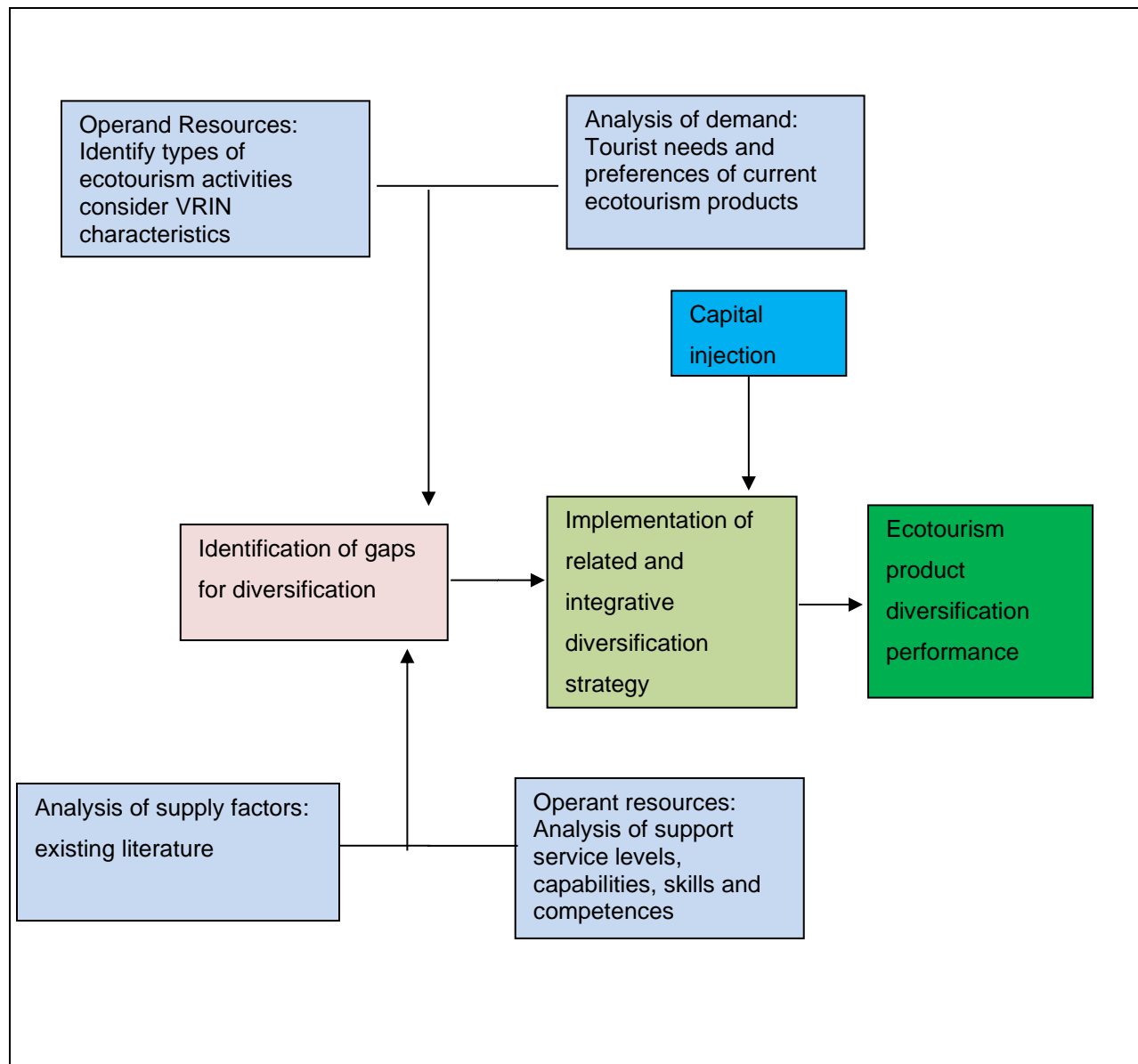
and the fragmented nature of tourism, it is imperative to study how competencies can be integrated across different tourism enterprises. In view of this fact, and of continuous changes in marketing thought and technology, the RBV is merged with tourism product development process and service-dominant (S-D) logic, to fully explain tourism product diversification.

The service-dominant (S-D) logic focuses on intangible resources, co-creation of value, and relationships (Vargo & Lusch, 2004:1; Vargo, Maglio, *et al.*, 2008:146; Vargo, Lusch, *et al.*, 2010:136; Dolnicar & Ring, 2014:33). It provides a new perspective by redefining resources and categorising them into operand and operant. Operand are resources upon which an operation or act is performed to produce an effect exemplified by physical resources, such as minerals; whereas, operant are resources that produce effects, primarily knowledge, competencies and skills. They are largely intangible and invisible, forming the core competency of the organisation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004:2; Gummesson *et al.*, 2010:10; Park & Vargo, 2012:232). Line and Runyan (2014:93) highlight that operand resources have low marginal utility since they are common, and so require action to have value. Using RBV terminology, operand resources, therefore, do not possess strong sustainable competitive advantage since they can be easily imitated or substituted. Destination attributes such as culture, heritage, climate and infrastructure can be regarded as operand resources. Line and Runyan (2014) add that destinations such as urban areas and seaside resorts are increasingly becoming homogeneous due to technological improvements; thus, making them highly substitutable resources. This is compounded by the fact that tourism firms at times cannot effectively exploit destination resources since they have had little or no control over them.

Given this background, product diversification is largely based on prudent utilisation of operant resources (co-creation of value, skills, stakeholder relationships and knowledge) to create long lasting experiences. Value is no longer created from the firm's perspective but from the interaction of tourism organisations and stakeholders. This concurs with Garcia-Rosell *et al.*'s (2007:455) approach that emphasizes increased participation and integration of stakeholders from demand and supply sides during the development of new tourism products. Current tourism product diversification literature in Botswana is generic, supply-based, largely qualitative, and focuses on identifying potential operand resources such as cultural, mining, sport and agro-tourism (Mbaiwa, 2008; Moswete & Dube, 2009, Mahachi & Ketsabile, 2013; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014; Nare *et al.*, 2017). Empirically based research literature on specific diversification strategy, demand analysis, and impact of operant resources, is limited.



Based on tourism's dependence on primary resources, the study integrates RBV, parallel and integrative concepts, S-D logic and tourism product development process, in developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products of Botswana as illustrated in Figure 2.12.



**Figure 2.12: Proposed diversification framework for ecotourism products**  
**Source: Adapted from Hitt *et al.* (2017:195)**

As shown in Figure 2.12, the VRIN criteria is used to identify and classify current ecotourism products. A detailed demand analysis focusing on tourist needs, preferences of current products and analysis of service level, was conducted. This was because available literature on ecotourism diversification largely focuses on supply driven identification of alternative products.

Contemporary development of tourism products entails consultation and coordination of different stakeholders (private and public) with diverse goals and strategies for ecotourism product development and diversification.

The quality of service levels, capabilities and competencies are assessed from tourist perspectives to identify areas for improvement. An examination of the four groups of factors identifies gaps in the diversification process, that inform the choice of related and integrative diversification strategy.

## **2.8 SUMMARY**

The chapter examined tourism product diversification and suggested a theoretical framework for developing new products based on RBV, product development and S-D logic. To fully appreciate the diversification process, the review first traced the evolution of marketing, relating it to trends in tourism. An analysis of the evolution from various lenses revealed a gradual shift from production to societal orientation characterised by an increasing focus on services, value and greater relationship between consumers and business (co-creation) in provision of service. Considering that tourism is part of the service industry, and there are high contact levels from production to consumption of products, the S-D logic is very relevant to the study.

The review scrutinised the “product” concept from a business perspective and linked it to tourism with particular focus on ecotourism. In light of the fragmented nature of tourism, constant segmentation and impact of new technology literature established that the tourism product is defined and classified in a number of ways (Cooper & Hall, 2013:24; Benur & Bramwell, 2015:214; McKercher, 2015:196). Taking into consideration the different perspectives and trends, the tourism product is defined from an experiential point of view, emphasising the co-creation of value. The concept was applied to ecotourism and narrowed to the Botswana context.

The second part of the review assessed product development comparing and contrasted it to diversification of ecotourism products. The two processes are intertwined since diversification entails developing some kind of new product or process. Developing new products, commonly known as NPD, is based on the classical BAH model that has been extensively modified resulting in multiple models. The process of developing new tourism products was, therefore, explained by combining relevant perspectives from NPD and NSD models. The review also examined and applied the product life cycle to tourism in order to assist in identifying when to introduce new

products. The maturity stage represented the most appropriate time to present new products since sales are still high.

The review also analysed the diversification concept tracing evolution and emergence of divergent opinions, especially in relation to strategy and performance. Despite the differing points of view, there was general consensus on related diversification yielding positive results in comparison to unrelated diversification. In view of the multiple typologies, levels and strategies; the study adopted Rumelt's (1974) modified classification that focuses on related constrained diversification. This implies that when diversifying, the new product must be closely related to the existing one to ensure higher chances of success. Strategic Management literature dwells on diversification at firm level, which is difficult to apply in tourism due to highly fragmented nature of the industry. The RBV fused with S-D logic, product development, parallel and integrative concepts, formed the basis of theoretical framework to assess diversification of ecotourism products focusing on aspects such as service provision, pricing and image (Aarstad, 2011:273; Line & Runyan, 2014; Kim, *et al.*, 2015:534).

Although diversification has been part of tourism development in Botswana, extant literature reveals that no significant progress has been achieved as focus has been on generic identification of potential tourism forms that could be developed without elaborating a specific strategy. There is a gap in comprehensive empirical study on demand patterns, specific level, types and strategies of diversification. The next chapter examines the concept ecotourism since it forms the basis of diversification exploring the multiple definitions and interpretations.

# CHAPTER 3

## REVIEW OF LITERATURE ON ECOTOURISM CONCEPT

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Ecotourism is now recognised as one of the fastest growing sectors of tourism and is expected to be the dominant sector in the next 20 years (Wight, 2001; Diamantis, 1999; Donohoe & Needham, 2008:15; UNWTO, 2013). Despite its appeal, popularity and phenomenal growth; ecotourism as a concept has perpetually been typified by controversy and ambiguity (Blamey, 1997; Fennell, 2001; Mckercher, 2010; Walter, 2013:15; Cobbinah, 2015). In view of this, and building from chapter two, diversification requires a detailed understanding and clarification of the basic ecotourism product. The chapter, therefore, opens with an examination and location of ecotourism within the wider ambit of tourism. This entails differentiating ecotourism from closely related tourism forms such as nature-based, wildlife and adventure tourism. Following is an analysis of ecotourism definitions and principles showing evolution over time, and divergent interpretations and applications in different parts of the world. The last part explores ecotourism classification and impact on the diversification process.

### 3.2 DEFINITIONS OF ECOTOURISM

Since its inception, the concept of ecotourism has continuously evolved such that literature is now characterised by myriad and diverse definitions, contextualisations, classifications and types of ecotourism (Diamantis, 1999; Fennell, 2001; Jamal *et al.*, 2006; Donohoe & Needham, 2006; Fennell, 2008:20; Donohoe & Lu, 2009; Saayman, 2009; Yeo & Piper, 2011; Weaver & Lawton, 2007; Mckercher, 2010; Reimer & Walter, 2013; Walter, 2013:16; DeWitt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015; Das & Chatterjee, 2015; Mgonja *et al.*, 2015). Gallie (cited in Yeo and Piper, 2011:12) observes that the lack of agreement and perpetual disparity qualifies ecotourism in the category of “essentially contested definitions.” A definition becomes essentially contested when different authors come up with diverse definitions, perceptions and classifications, which they vigorously defend. Although explanations of ecotourism revolve around the same variables of education, sustainability, preserving the primary natural attraction drawing tourists, and benefits to locals; definitional development has been hindered by intense debate, conflicting viewpoints and multifaceted analysis stemming from broad based historical origins, and different values and

interests of stakeholders, such as researchers, industry and institutions (Jamal *et al.*, 2006:149). The raging debates are better understood by examining the definitional trends.

Although Ceballos-Lascurain (1987) officially defined ecotourism for the first time, Fennell (2008:21) argues that the concept was first applied by Hetzer (1965) as ecologists and environmentalists were alarmed by the skewed focus on economic impact of tourism and disregard for natural resources and biodiversity protection. The concept was applied to explain the complex relation of tourists, culture and the environment in which they operate. Hetzer cited in (Page & Dowling, 2002:26) identified 4 central pillars;

- minimise environmental impact,
- minimise impact on host culture and maximise respect for host cultures,
- maximise the economic benefits to the host country's grassroots, and
- maximise recreational tourist satisfaction.

Academic interest and research continued throughout the 1970s prompting Card and Vogelsong (cited in Rahemtulla & Well, 2001:1) to attribute origins of ecotourism to growth of responsible tourism movement that was a reaction to rapid proliferation of negative economic, socio-cultural and environmental effects. Boo (1991b) directly linked ecotourism to environmental tourism that focuses on conservation of natural resources, taking into consideration economic needs of host populations. These developments culminated in Ceballos-Lascurain's (1987) consolidation of literature to come up with the first comprehensive definition; "responsible travel to relatively undisturbed natural areas, with the object of studying, admiring and enjoying the natural landscape and its wild plants and animals, as well as existing cultural manifestations (both present and past) found in these areas" (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1987:14).

Ever since, literature on ecotourism has, and continues to, exponentially increase, characterised by intense debate centring on differing interpretations and application of ecotourism components such as education, impacts, conservation and sustainability. Today, there are multiple and diverse perspectives such that definitions of the concept stand at over one hundred. Table 3.1 is an arbitrary selection of definitions revealing the trends and diversity of perceptions.

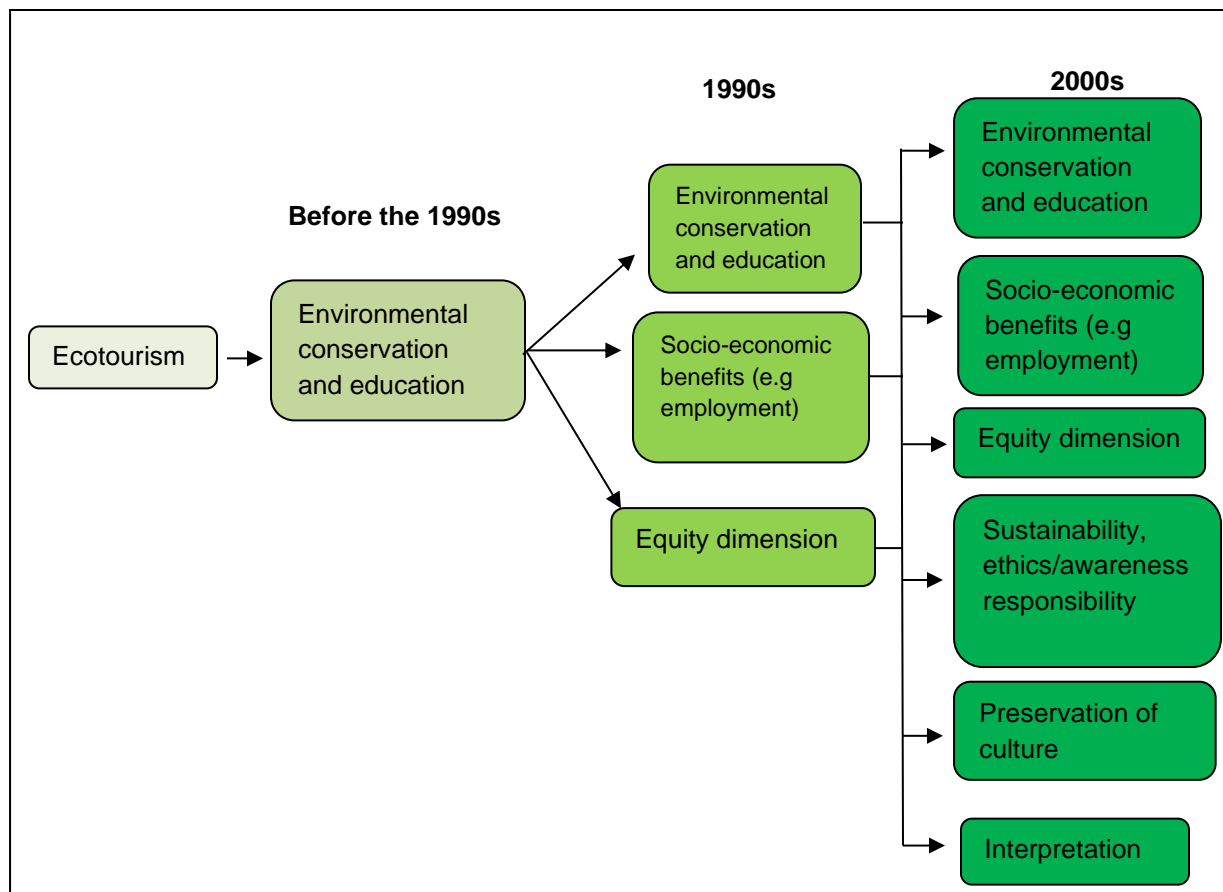
**Table 3.1: Ecotourism definitions**

<b>Source and Year</b>	<b>Definition</b>
Ziffer (1989) (cited in Björk, 2000:190)	A form of tourism inspired primarily by the natural history of an area, including its indigenous cultures. The ecotourist visits relatively undeveloped areas in the spirit of appreciation, participation, and sensitivity. The ecotourist practices a non-consumptive use of wildlife and natural resources and contributes to the visited area through labour or financial means aimed at directly benefitting the conservation of the site and the economic well-being of the local residents.
Boo (1991b:4)	Ecotourism is a nature of tourism that contributes to conservation, through generating funds for protected areas, creating employment opportunities for local communities, and offering environmental education.
Wight (1993:3)	Ecotourism is an enlightening nature travel experience that contributes to conservation of the ecosystem, while respecting the integrity of host communities.
Australian National Ecotourism strategy (1994) (cited in Herath, 1997:442)	Ecotourism is nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable. The definition recognises that the, “natural environment” includes cultural components and that “ecologically sustainable” involves appropriate returns to local community and long-term conservation of the resource.
Ballantine & Eagles (1994)	A niche market of sustainable tourism. It is one of the four non-consumptive forms of sustainable tourism. It involves travel to discover and learn about wild natural environments. It has a strong focus on learning and discovering nature.
Ceballos-Lascurain (1996:20)	Ecotourism is environmentally friendly responsible travel and visitation to relatively undisturbed natural areas, in order to enjoy and appreciate nature (and any accompanying cultural features – both past and present) that promotes conservation, has low negative visitor impact, and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations.
Lindberg & McKercher, (1997:67)	Ecotourism is tourism and recreation that is both nature-based and sustainable.
Blamey (1997:125)	An ecotourism experience is one in which an individual travel to what he or she considers to be relatively undisturbed natural area that is more than 40km from home, the primary intention being to study, admire, or appreciate the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas.

Thailand Institute of Scientific and Technological Research (1997b:8) (cited in Leksakundilok. 2004:114)	Ecotourism is responsible travel in areas containing natural resources that possess endemic characteristics and cultural or historical resources that are integrated into the area's ecological system. Its purpose is to create an awareness among all concerned parties of the need for, and the measures used to conserve ecosystems; and as such, is oriented towards community participation as well as the provision of a joint learning experience in sustainable tourism and environmental management.
The National Ecotourism Plan, Malaysia (1997) (cited in Jaafar & Maiden, 2012:685).	Travel and visitation that is environmentally responsible to relatively undisturbed natural areas in order to enjoy and appreciate nature. (including any accompanying cultural features, both past and present). Promotes conservation, has low visitor impact and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local populations.
Honey, (1999)	Ecotourism is travel to fragile, pristine and usually protected areas that strive to be low impact and (usually) small scale. It helps educate the traveller; provide funds for conservation; directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities; and fosters respect for different cultures and for human rights.
Weaver (2001:15)	Ecotourism is a form of tourism that fosters learning experiences and appreciation of the natural environment, or some component thereof, within its associated cultural context.
Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy (2002:ii)	The country's cultural as well as natural heritage, and that great importance is placed on the active involvement (as opposed to mere participation) of host communities and other Botswana in all aspects of the industry's management and development.
Björk (2007:197)	Ecotourism is an activity where the authorities, the tourism industry, tourists and local people cooperate to make it possible for tourists to travel to genuine areas in order to admire, study and enjoy the nature and culture in a way that does not exploit the resources, but contributes to sustainable development
Fennell (2008:24)	Ecotourism is a sustainable form of natural resource-based tourism that focuses primarily on experiencing and learning about nature, and which is ethically managed to be low-impact, non-consumptive and locally oriented (control, benefits and scale). It typically occurs in natural areas and should contribute to the preservation of such areas.
The International Ecotourism Society TIES (2015)	Responsible travel to natural areas, that conserves the environment, sustains the well-being of the local people, and involves interpretation and education.

Diverse interpretations, classification and analyses of ecotourism components form the genesis of multiple definitions and principles. The broad spectrum of definitional viewpoints as portrayed in Table 3.1 has resulted in many research articles consolidating literature in attempts to establish trends and commonalities. Some of the prominent ones are; Blamey (1997), Diamantis (1999), Fennel (2001), Weaver (2005), Donohoe and Needham (2006), Jamal *et al.* (2006), Higham (2007) and Cobbinah (2015). Reviewing these articles is beyond the scope of this study. However, some critical viewpoints are highlighted. Diamantis (1999:94) places ecotourism on a spectrum due to usage of multiple terms that describe the same phenomena. The spectrum is composed of supply (resources, accommodation types, local community) and demand (activities, experiences, degree of interest) factors.

Cobbinah (2015:180) observes that defining ecotourism has remained an area of intense deliberation as components under discussion have gradually increased over the years. Figure 3.1 shows evolution of ecotourism conceptualisation since the inception of the term.



**Figure 3.1: Trends in meaning of ecotourism**  
Source: Adapted from Cobbinah (2015:181)



As perceptions continue to widen, ecotourism definitions are linked to state of national development. Understanding and application of ecotourism in developing countries is strongly biased towards poverty reduction and local development, whereas developed countries focus more on conservation and tourist satisfaction whilst minimising impacts.

Mckercher (2010:15) observes that ecotourism has gone through 3 phases, namely; new dawn, crisis of legitimacy, and sustainable niche product. The first phase was characterised by wishful thinking, hope and idealism, whilst during crisis of legitimacy, criticism of ecotourism intensified as intended objectives were missed. This led to the last phase which is more realistic on what can be achieved focusing more on sustainability (Mckercher, 2010:15).

Reimer and Walter (2013:123) argue that ecotourism is a complex concept because humans live in most of the areas earmarked for its development; thus, broadening the issues to include rights of indigenous populations, community development and environmental conservation. The concept becomes very contentious if the local people are forcibly removed from the areas assigned for ecotourism development.

A radical perspective views ecotourism as a subtle western neo-colonial project fostering cultural domination and capitalism under the guise of conservation and development in Third world countries. Biodiversity is commodified whilst locals supply labour that is, in most cases, exploited for the benefit of the western world (Cater, 2006; Duffy, 2015:530; Hunt *et al.*, 2015:341; Korstanje, 2017:3; Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:134). The practical application of ecotourism concept is mired in controversy and has been hijacked by the profit-making business as opposed to genuine protection of the environment, especially in remote locations of developing countries. According to Duffy (2015:530), ecotourism, as part of nature-based tourism, is portrayed as a “clean industry”, masking the wider environmental effects and contribution to climate change emanating from eco-tourists’ flights from Western countries to destinations largely in the southern hemisphere. The perception is bolstered by fragmentation of ecotourism interpretation and glut of literature that is greatly biased towards tourist needs, instead of what should be done to protect the environment (Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:134). In other words, there is a persistent gap between theory and practice despite Ross and Wall’s (1999:26) framework of reducing the gap between the two. Challenges of minimising the gap also stem from diverse definitions that emphasise different aspects (Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:144). Considering this background, usage of Ecotourism concept as a buzzword to promote commercial interest has intensified, resulting in most forms of activities related to tourism being prefixed with “eco” as in; eco-safari, eco-adventure, eco-

expedition, eco-cruise, eco-lodging, eco-events and eco-cycling. This has created ambiguity and confusion as it is now very difficult to differentiate genuine ecotourism from “greenwash” forms and mass tourism activities (Wight, 1993:4; Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:135).

Within this framework of profound diversity in perceptions, Diamantis (2011:7) used the common aspects of nature-based education and sustainability to come up with 4 categories of definitional strength shown in Table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Strength of ecotourism definition**

<b>Definition</b>	<b>Elements</b>
Very weak	<b>Core emphasis</b> Natural based component: protected and non-protected area
Weak	<b>Core emphasis</b> Natural based component: protected and non-protected area <b>Less emphasis</b> Educational component: interpretation and training programmes Sustainability component: economic and/or socio-cultural elements
Strong	<b>Core emphasis</b> Natural based component: protected and non-protected area Educational component: interpretation and training programmes Sustainability component: equal emphasis economic and/or socio-cultural elements
Very strong	<b>Core emphasis</b> Natural based component: protected and non-protected area Educational component: interpretation and training programmes Sustainability component: emphasis on socio-cultural elements rather than on economic elements

**Source: Diamantis (2011:7)**

The aspect of being nature based applies to all definitions. However, strength is determined by level of emphasis on education and sustainability components. A definition becomes very strong if the sustainability elements focus on preservation of socio-cultural aspects as compared to economic benefits. In view of this diversity, definitions have also been operationalised to suit interests of researchers, countries and institutions as reflected in Australian, Botswana, Malaysian and Thailand definitions in Table 3-2. Given this background, the study adopted the Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy (2002) definition derived from The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) (1991) definition. Ecotourism in Botswana refers to;

The country’s cultural, as well as natural heritage, and great importance is placed on the active involvement (as opposed to mere participation) of host communities and other Batswana in all aspects of the industry’s management and development (Stevens & Jansen, 2002:5).

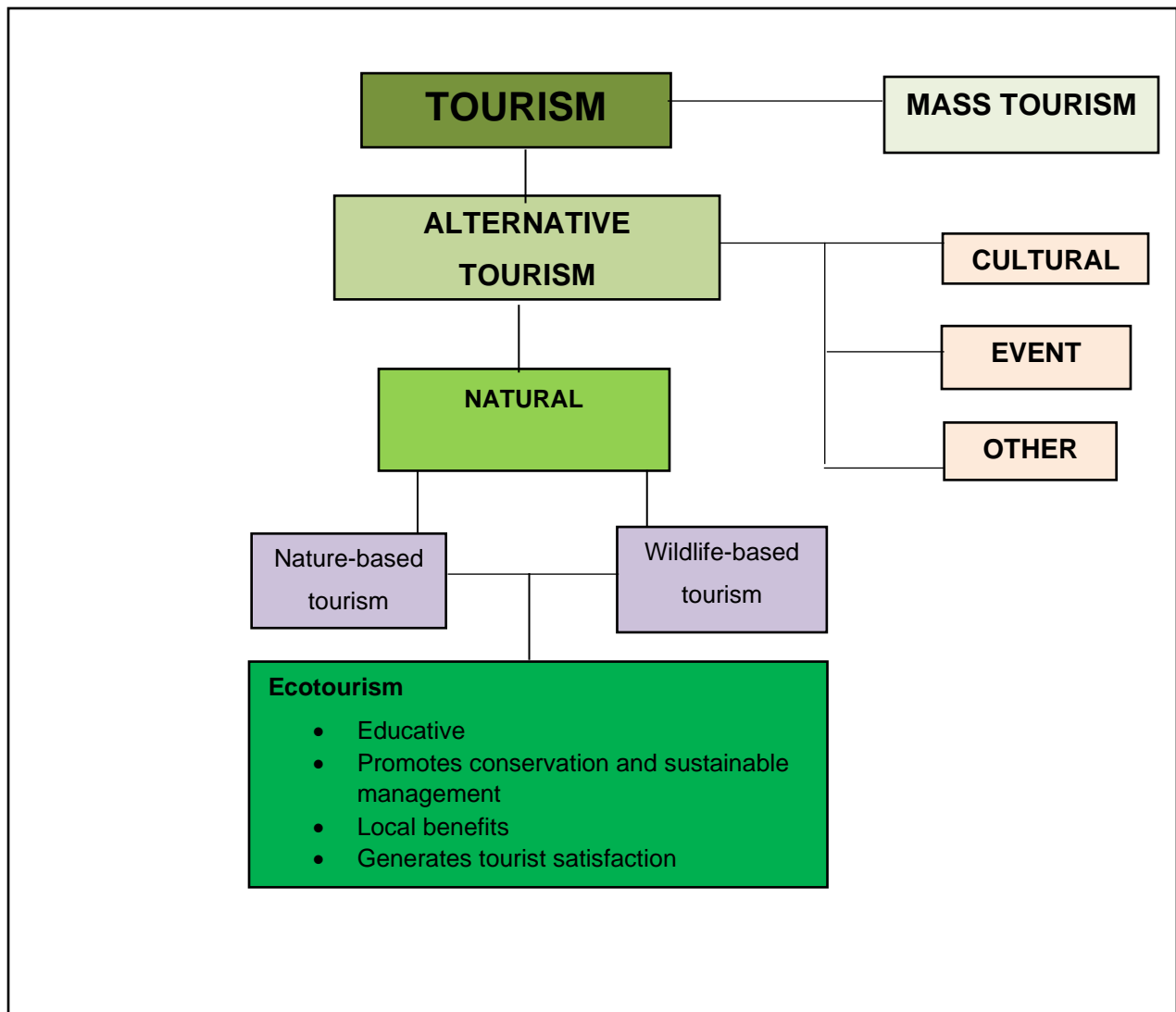
The ecotourism strategy for the country is mainly to enhance local participation and increase direct benefits. This partly explains why forms of tourism associated with local communities are often regarded as ecotourism (Mbaiwa, 2013; Centre for Applied Research, 2016). Since the definition was formulated in 2002, there is need for revision to make interpretation, education, preservation and sustainability more explicit. It is interesting to note that, although culture and natural heritage are considered primary components of the ecotourism product, these elements have remained largely undeveloped attracting very few tourists despite availability and huge potential. Despite the adoption of Botswana's perspective, it is important to note Blamey's (1997:111) argument that the multi-dimensional nature of ecotourism components such as basis on nature, and being educational and sustainable, implies a continuum of multiple possibilities for each dimension such that an operational definition remains elusive. Considering this background, different definitions can be adapted to suit distinctive situations (Blamey, 1997:127). The next section discusses ecotourism in relation to the wider field of Tourism.

### **3.3 ECOTOURISM VIEWED IN THE WIDER DOMAIN OF TOURISM**

Regardless of this controversy, ecotourism has been viewed as one the fastest growing tourism products given the appeal of key characteristics; visitor learning, education, conservation and sensitivity to local culture (Donohoe & Needham, 2008:15; UNWTO, 2013; Fennell, 2008, The International Ecotourism Society (TIES), 2015). According to TIES (2015), ecotourism has the potential to reach 25% of global travel within the next decade and account for US\$470 billion per year in revenues. This trend towards ecotourism is directly related to the changes in consumer behaviour since the late 20<sup>th</sup> century, where tourists have been gradually shifting from seeking hedonic (rest, pleasure and relaxation) to eudemonic tourism products. Eudemonic travel entails taking sustainability considerations and desiring self-development, increasing knowledge, personal transformation and minimising impact when making travel decisions (Matteucci & Filep, 2015:3; Pyke *et al.*, 2016:95). The shift is also attributed to rise in ageing population in the key western markets, that is affluent, has more leisure time, and desires natural experiences (Wight, 2001:29).

Given the concept's importance and multiple viewpoints, it is essential to first identify ecotourism's place in the wider sphere of tourism. Weaver (2008:18) observes that ecotourism has been equated to, or used as a synonym for nature-based, sustainable, alternative, wildlife, adventure and cultural tourism. This creates confusion and misunderstanding; hence, the need to clearly differentiate ecotourism from other forms of tourism. Although numerous typologies have been developed to categorise and distinguish ecotourism using flow charts and Venn diagrams, there

s convergence of conception on the aspect that ecotourism is a subset of nature-based tourism (NBT) and wildlife tourism which all fall under the wider group of alternative tourism (Page & Dowling, 2002:23; Weaver, 2008; Diamantis, 2011:4; De Witt *et al.*, 2014:182). Figure 3.2 locates ecotourism in relation to other forms of tourism.

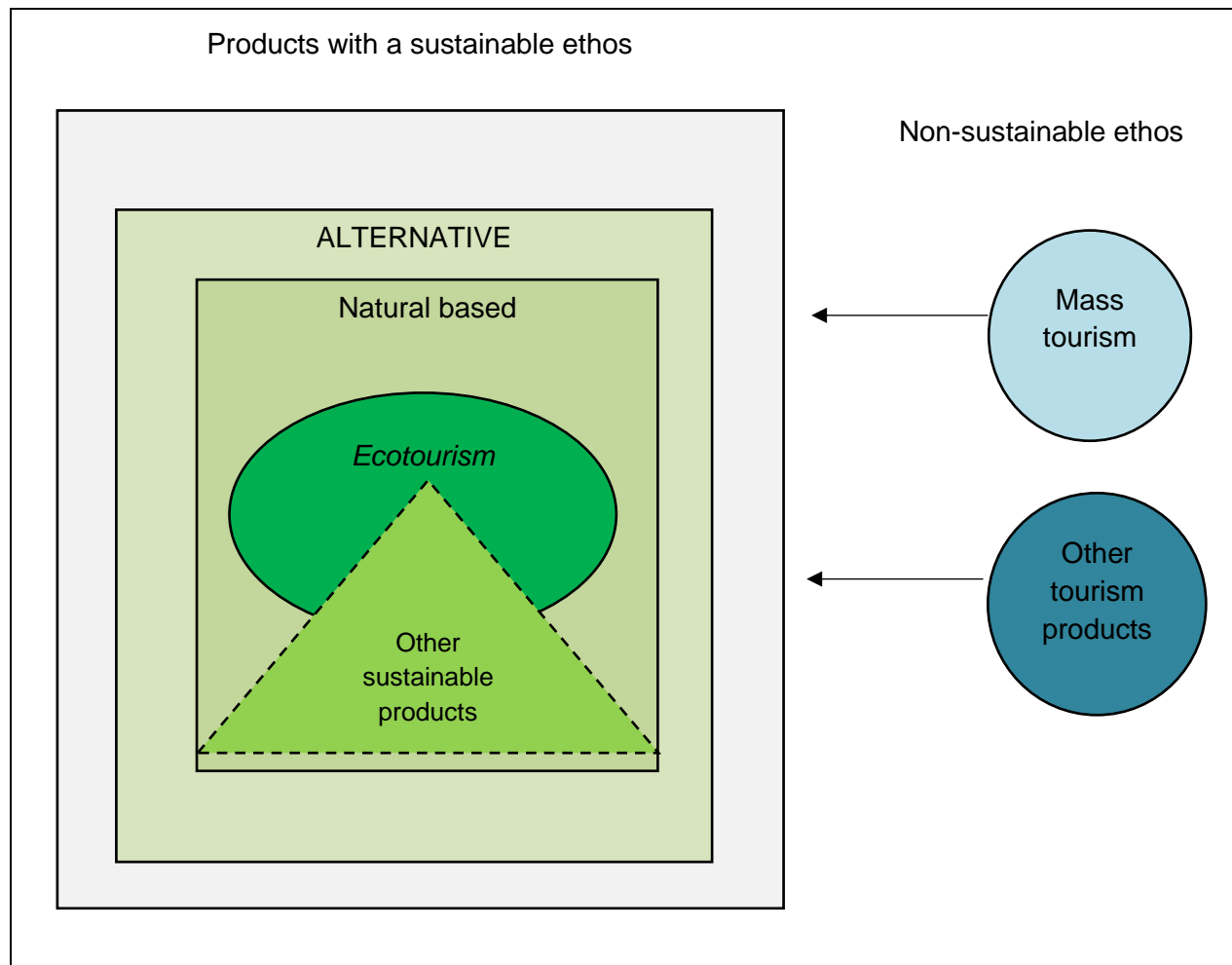


**Figure 3.2: Ecotourism in the wider domain of tourism**  
**Source: Adapted from Page & Dowling (2002:23)**

Figure 3.2 shows that Alternative tourism is the overarching term used to describe types of tourism that have a strong sustainable element. Ecotourism is a product of both nature-based and wildlife-based tourism. Differences also exist between nature-based and wildlife-based tourism. Next is an examination of each type to clearly distinguish ecotourism.

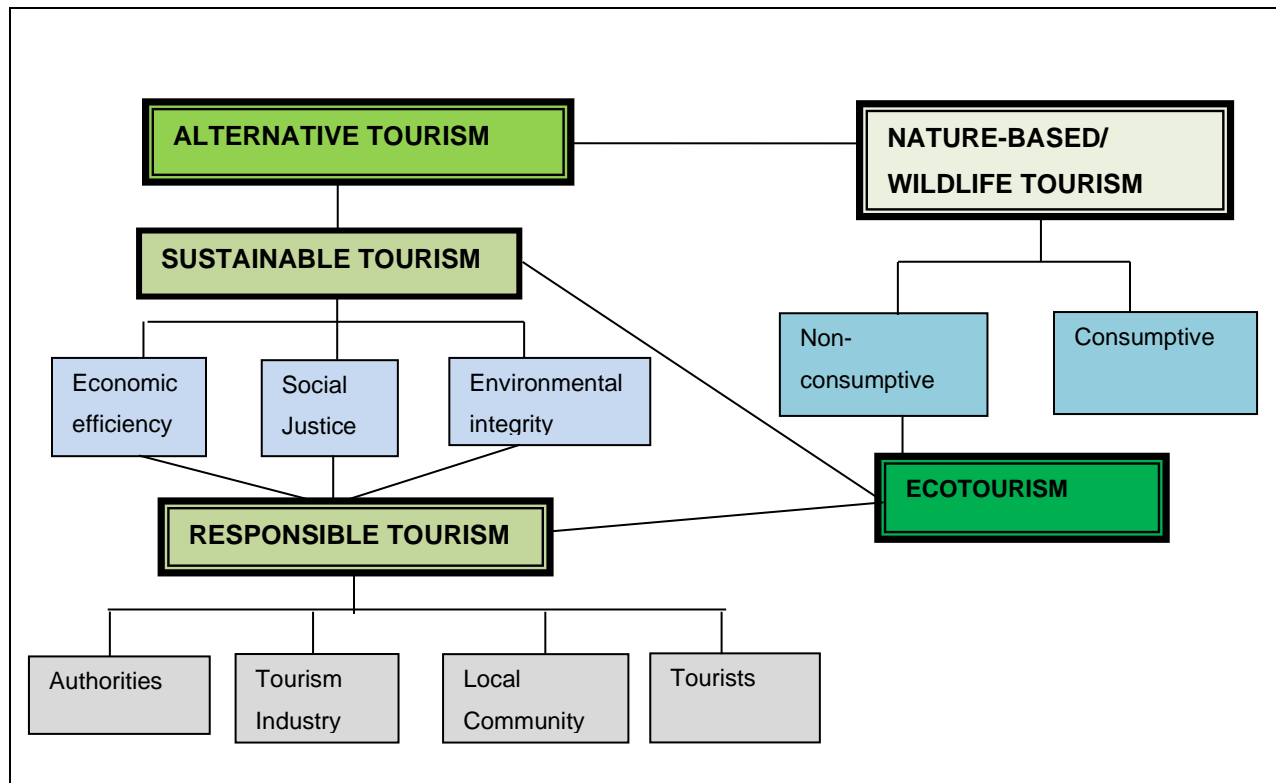
Medlik (1993:10) defines Alternative tourism as forms of tourism that strive to avoid adverse effects and enhance positive social, cultural and environmental impacts. It is usually characterised by small scale; individual, independent or small group activity; slow, controlled and regulated development; as well as emphasis on travel as experience of host cultures and on maintenance of traditional values and societies. Fennell (2008), however, views Alternative tourism as a general term encompassing a chain of strategies such as “appropriate”, “eco”, “soft”, “responsible”, “people to people”, “controlled”, “small scale”, “cottage”, “green” and “nature” tourism that support a different and sustainable inclined notion to conventional mass tourism in some destinations. Ecotourism is therefore, a type of alternative tourism that falls under the sub-groups of nature-based and wildlife-based tourism.

The word “Alternative” clearly differentiates it from mass tourism which refers to large numbers of tourists visiting destinations such as national parks and game reserves, beaches, cities, zoos and amusement parks. The tourists desire replication of their own culture and norms characterised by minimum interaction with indigenous populations (Fennell, 2008; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). This approach has, over the years, resulted in countless negative effects; hence the birth of Alternative tourism. Diamantis, (2011:4) captures this relationship between Alternative, Natural and Ecotourism in a different format as portrayed in Figure 3.3.



**Figure 3.3: Ecotourism as part of Alternative tourism**  
**Source: Diamantis (2011:4)**

Other forms of tourism such as business and cruise are located outside the box because they are still searching for a sustainable ethos. Although presented differently, there is similarity in that ecotourism is part of natural tourism; which is, in turn, a branch of alternative tourism. Given the multiple perspectives of ecotourism, De Witt *et al.* (2014:182) highlight the prominent role sustainable tourism and responsible tourism as portrayed in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 3.4: Ecotourism in the wider scope of Alternative, Sustainable, Responsible and Nature based tourism**

**Source: De Witt *et al.* (2014:182)**

Despite the various viewpoints, there is concurrence on the fact that ecotourism is part of nature-based tourism, and the following section examines this relationship in detail.

### 3.3.1 Nature Based Tourism and Ecotourism Relationship

Nature Based Tourism (NBT) has been examined in several ways due to the diversity and multiple activities it encompasses. An analysis of NBT definitions by Fredman and Tryv inen (2010:181) revealed that the breadth has made it difficult to establish common ground in meaning and conceptualisation of the term. The analysis yielded four recurrent themes, namely; visitors to a nature area, experience of a natural environment, participation in an activity, and normative components related to sustainable development and local impacts. Fossgard and Fredman (2019) observe that the definitions range from describing the place of a tourism product in nature to focusing on how activities are performed. The study adopted Fredman and Tryv inen's (2010:181) definition where NBT is human activities occurring when visiting nature areas outside the person's ordinary neighbourhood. Adoption is based on the definition being flexible and allowing description of NBT sub-categories in relation to type of activity, risk level, environment and enjoyment level (Fossgard & Fredman, 2019). Although focus is on examining the link

between NBT and ecotourism, a brief analysis of definition trends is important in bringing out this relationship. Given the multi-perspectives, Coghlan and Buckley (2012:335) categorised analysis of NBT into supply and demand based. Supply side definitions focus on selling nature in relatively undisturbed areas to create experiences that are nature related. The activities can be centred on adventure, outdoor recreation, fishing, hunting, viewing of landscapes, wildlife and vegetation (Coghlan & Buckley, 2012:334; Newsome *et al.*, 2013; Margaryan & Fredman, 2017:85). Valentine (1992:108) defines NBT as tourism primarily concerned with the direct enjoyment of some relatively undisturbed phenomenon of nature in activities such as bird watching, hiking and kayaking; whereas, according to Weaver *et al.* (1999:8), NBT refers to forms of tourism which maintain a dependent, enhancing or incidental relationship with the natural environment, or some aspects thereof, in terms of their utilised attractions and/or settings. It is broad, encompassing tourism forms such as adventure, ecotourism, captive, 3S (sun, sand and sex), and health. Buckley (2011:399) divides NBT into consumptive (hunting and fishing), adventure and non-consumptive (activities based on enjoying scenery, watching flora or fauna), whereas Newsome *et al.* (2013) segments NBT into wildlife tourism, ecotourism, adventure and geotourism. There are some reservations on inclusion of adventure tourism because it is perceived to focus more on the activity as compared to nature exemplified by sky diving or rafting. Although the definitions reveal that NBT is characterised by breadth and sustaining ecological systems, it differs from ecotourism in the inclusion of both consumptive and non-consumptive use of natural resources. Ecotourism is therefore, a component of NBT that is strictly non-consumptive.

NBT has been largely defined and analysed from a demand perspective such that literature is characterised by a plethora of tourist typologies or segmentations (Arnegger *et al.*, 2010:922; Coghlan & Buckley, 2012:335; Newsome *et al.*, 2013; Margaryan & Fredman, 2017:86). Lindberg (cited in Coghlan & Buckley, 2012:335) distinguishes four types of nature tourists, namely; hard core, dedicated, mainstream and casual. There is a general decrease of intensity to study and understand nature from hard core to casual. Vespestad and Lindberg (2011:570) identified four ontological perspectives to describe nature-based tourist experience, namely; genuine NBT experience, NBT experiences as entertainment, NBT experiences as state of being and nature-based experiences representing a socio-cultural community. Strasdas (cited in Arnegger *et al.*, 2010:920) identifies six segments of tourists thus; committed nature tourists, interested nature tourists, casual nature tourists, nature tourists with specific cultural interests, sports/adventure tourists, hunting/fishing tourists. Arnegger *et al.* (2010:922) observe that most typologies of NBT are demand based, focusing on travel motivations and paying scant attention to equally important

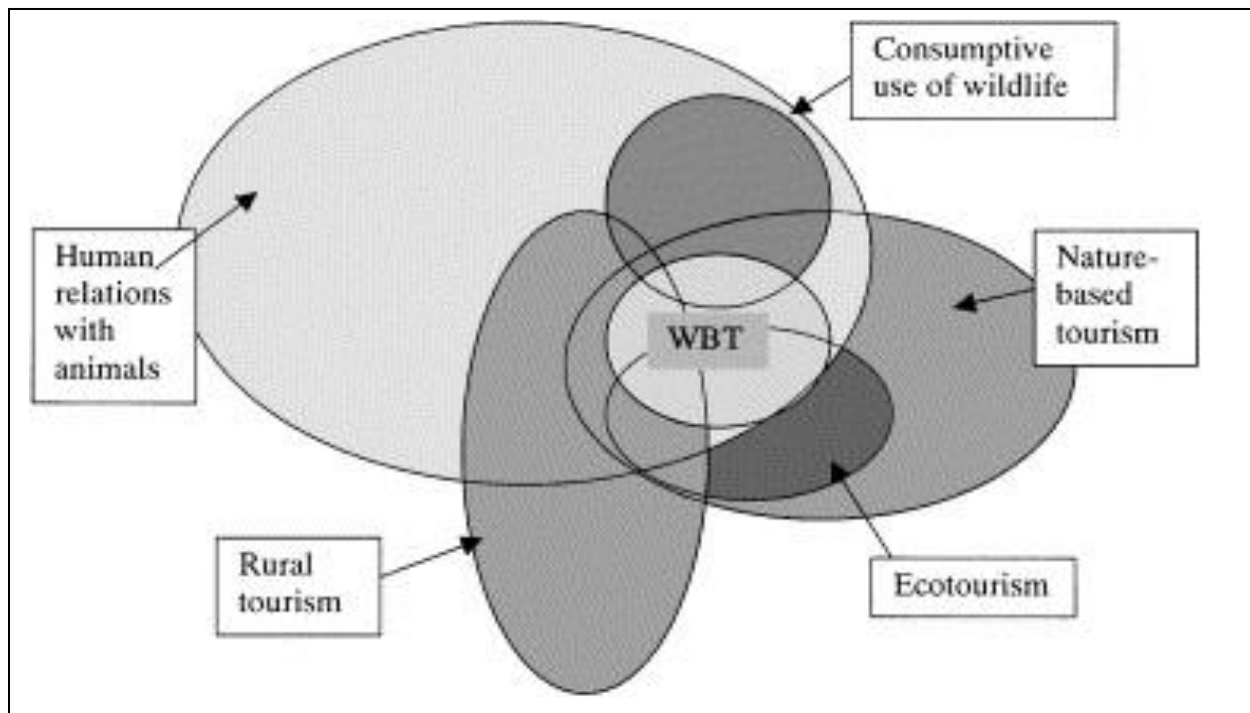


supply factors. To address the gap, Arnegger *et al.* (2010:923) developed an NBT classification framework combining travel motivations and service arrangements to come up with a product-based typology. The travel motivators are divided into 4 types of NBT and the importance of the nature element diminishes along the scale as shown in Table 3.3. The vertical scale differentiates NBT products according to how the package is organised; that is degree of individuality ranging from independent to fully standardised. Combination of these characteristics yielded 16 types of NBT. Boundaries between NBT types are dotted because product types tend to merge as tourists can engage in multiple activities. Purely ecotourism activities are in the quadrant where travel motivation is nature protection whilst services are individually arranged. Ecotourism, therefore, occurs in a continuum diminishing as motivations and service arrangements become hedonistic and standardised.

Based on the demand and supply perspective, ecotourism is an integral part of NBT which is separated by unique focus on non-consumptive activities. With continuous change in technology, number of tourist and demands, Coghlan and Buckley (2012:335) observe that focus is now more on management of nature-based experiences as compared to taxonomical and terminological debates, resulting in emphasis on ecotourism and conservation of the environment.



Although falling under the same ambit of NBT, it is important to distinguish ecotourism from wildlife-based tourism. Reynolds and Braithwaite (2001:31) define wildlife tourism as an area of overlap between nature-based tourism, ecotourism, consumptive use of wildlife, rural tourism, and human relations with animals. It inherits traditions which include aspects of ecology, psychology, physiology, ethics and other aspects of social science research including tourism. Specific activities include wildlife watching, fishing tourism, captive-wildlife tourism and hunting tourism. Wildlife tourism is different from ecotourism in that, it can be consumptive and broader, encompassing a number of activities in its ambit as shown in Figure 3.5.

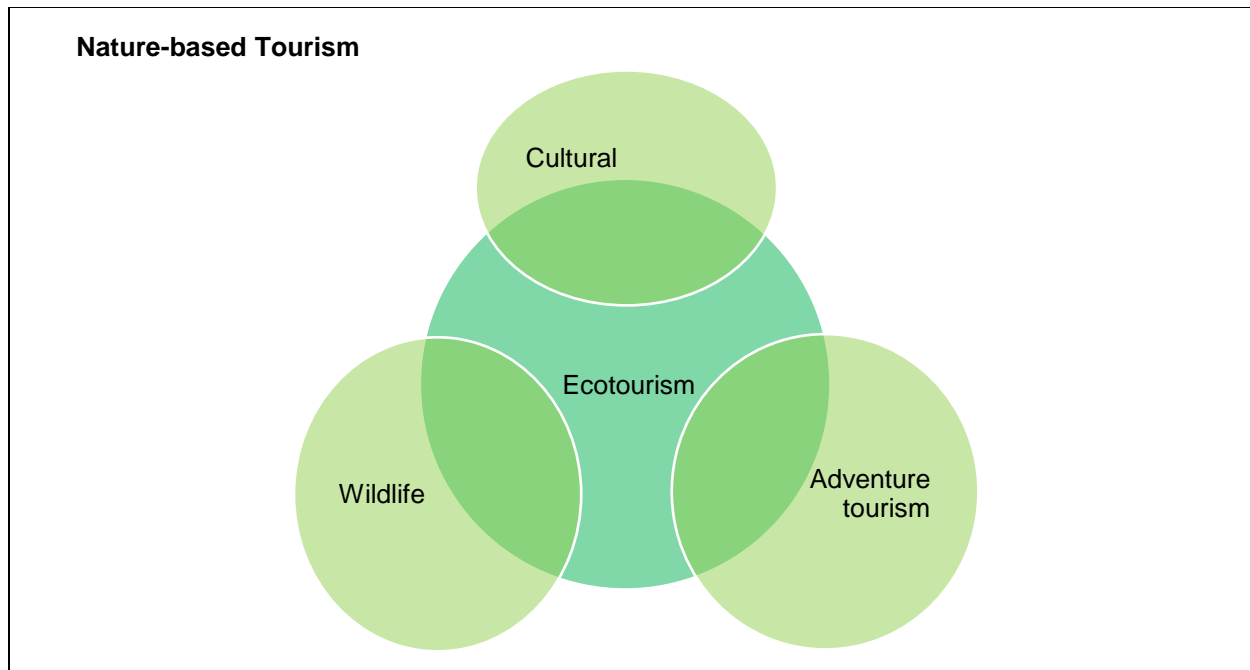


**Figure 3.5: Ecotourism in relation to wildlife-based tourism**

**Source: Reynolds & Braithwaite (2001:31)**

Ecotourism is more compact, being distinguished by focus on conservation, learning, and respect for indigenous culture. The distinction is important since some consumptive wildlife tourism such as hunting have generated immense debate on whether they are ecotourism or not.

Weaver (2008) offers a different perspective in explaining how ecotourism is related to other types of NBT as shown in Figure 3.6.



**Figure 3.6: Relationship of ecotourism to other types of Nature-based tourism**  
**Source: Adapted from Weaver (2008)**

Ecotourism is central, and the intersections indicate that it encompasses some aspects from other forms of tourism. The distinguishing factor is that other types do not require a learning or sustainability component. The size of overlap indicates degree of commonality. For example, Wildlife and Cultural tourism have more characteristics in common with ecotourism as compared to adventure tourism. Other forms of tourism must adequately satisfy all the ecotourism principles or pillars to be termed, "*Cultural ecotourism*", "*wildlife ecotourism*" or "*Adventure ecotourism*".

Hall (1992:143) defines adventure tourism as a broad spectrum of outdoor touristic activities, often commercialised and involving an interaction with the natural environment away from the participant's home range, and containing elements of risk, in which the outcome is influenced by the participant, setting, and management of the tourist experience. Over the years, the definition has shifted from risk paradigm to include play, flow and lately, rush. Adventure tourism also seeks heroism, conservation and knowledge; hence, the overlap with ecotourism (Cheng *et al.*, 2016:3). The overlap as contended by Weaver (2008) is small since there is limited focus on conservation and education. The discussion reveals that ecotourism is intricately related to nature-based, wildlife-based, and cultural tourism, making it difficult at times to practically draw boundaries. It is important to note that the discussed types are not exhaustive as ecotourism can be linked to other forms such as aqua tourism, birding and agritourism. Ecotourism is, therefore, distinguished by

being exclusively non-consumptive and always bearing a learning or interpretation, conservation and preservation focus as opposed to merely reducing or avoiding impacts (Honey, 2008; Diamantis, 2011; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015). To successfully diversify requires thorough knowledge of these characteristics, which form the basis of identifying ecosystem products currently available and those that can be introduced. The next section examines the principles of ecotourism.

### **3.4 PRINCIPLES OF ECOTOURISM**

Literature reveals that ecotourism activities predominantly occur in environmentally sensitive areas prone to degradation and loss of biodiversity (Fennel, 2001; Honey, 2008; Saayman, 2009; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015; TIES, 2015). In view of this background, principles of ecotourism have been developed to guide development and minimise negative impacts in these fragile ecosystems. If implemented correctly and consistently, principles define the uniqueness of ecotourism. Given the voluminous research on ecotourism, principles are known in multiple terms such as; 'characteristics', 'dimensions', 'criteria', 'pillars' and 'themes' (Donohoe & Needham, 2006:194). Although approaches and wording is different, there are manifest similarities in the principles that generally range from 4 to 8 depending on the author. Weaver and Lawton's (2007) detailed review of ecotourism, spanning a twenty-year period, identified three core themes, namely; learning or education forms the basis of interaction between visitors and attractions, attractions are largely nature-based, and the principles of economic, socio-cultural and ecological sustainability guide product management and experience. Other prominent scholars who have identified themes include; Page and Dowling (2002) – 5 principles, Donohoe and Needham (2006:192) - 6 tenets of ecotourism, Higham (2007) - 8 key principles and Honey (2008) – 7 principles. The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) (2015) revised ecotourism definition and expanded the principles from 5 to 8 and now includes interpretation. Education has expanded to include staff and guest. TIES (2015) principles emphasise responsible travel, sustainability and encompassing views from other researchers;

- Minimise physical, social, behavioural, and psychological impact.
- Build environmental and cultural awareness, and respect.
- Provide positive experiences for both visitors and hosts.
- Produce direct financial benefits for conservation.
- Generate financial benefits for both local people and private industry.

- Deliver memorable interpretative experiences to visitors that help raise sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental, and social climates.
- Design, construct and operate low-impact facilities.
- Recognise the rights and spiritual beliefs of the Indigenous People in your community and work in partnership with them to create empowerment (TIES, 2015).

Based on common aspects, Cobbinah (2015:182) consolidated the principles to come up with five fundamental ones, namely; environmental conservation, cultural preservation, community participation, economic benefits and empowerment of vulnerable groups. Environmental conservation is the cornerstone principle encompassing education, all nature-based activities, protection and minimisation of impact. Cultural preservation focuses on importance of promotion, interpretation and respect for cultural values during ecotourist and host community interactions. Community participation strives to ensure host community involvement in community activities to enhance tourist satisfaction and perpetuate ecotourism activities. Economic benefits focuses on stimulation of economic development through ecotourism activities in host areas; and empowerment of vulnerable groups promotes marginalised groups especially women who usually are the majority especially in developing countries. Empowerment through ecotourism has multiplier effects that enhance socio-economic cohesion in host communities (Honey, 2008; Cobbinah, 2015:182).

As indicated earlier, many countries have defined ecotourism and developed principles to suit the local context. Drawing from TIES (1991) definition, ecotourism development in Botswana is guided by the following principles;

- Minimising negative social, cultural and environmental impacts.
- Maximising the involvement in, and the equitable distribution of economic benefits to, host communities and citizen entrepreneurs.
- Maximising revenues for re-investment in conservation.
- Educating both visitors and local people as to the importance of conserving natural and cultural resources.
- Delivering a quality experience for tourists (without which tourists will not continue to visit, and so the benefits to conservation and development will not be sustained) (Stevens & Jansen, 2002:6).

The principles are biased towards citizen empowerment and enhancing local ownership of ecotourism enterprises with little emphasis on the important aspect of interpretation. An

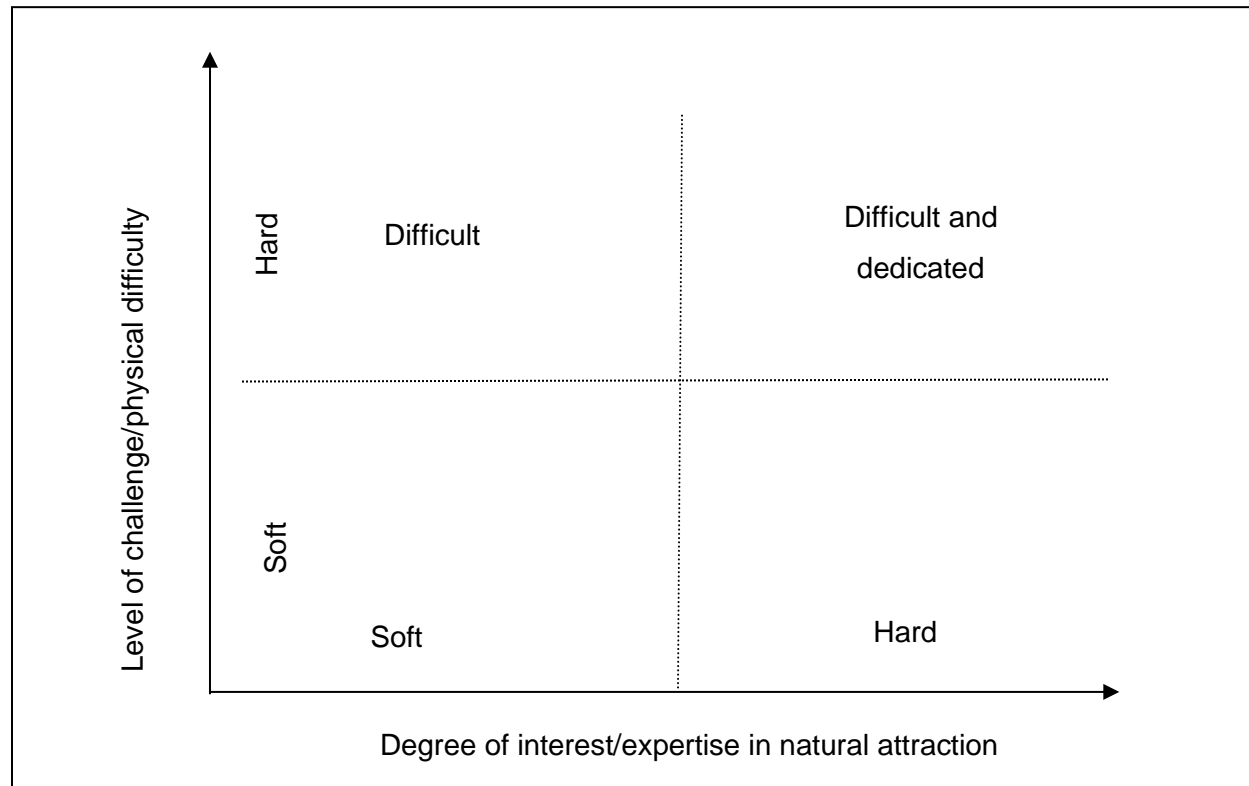
understanding of these principles, especially demand side preferences is vital in determining nature of ecotourism product desired. Having analysed principles that guide development, the next section examines classification of ecotourism.

### **3.5 CLASSIFICATION OF ECOTOURISM**

The multiplicity of tourist experiences and continuous evolution of ecotourism concept has generated a glut of classifications largely based on the perspective adopted (Blamey, 1997; Rahemtulla & Well, 2001; Arnegger *et al.*, 2010:918; Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018). It is therefore, an insurmountable task to analyse all classifications; hence, discussion is based on a subjective selection of those that are dominant in literature such as participant, operator, resource manager perspective (Bottrill & Pearce, 1995), active and passive ecotourism (Orams, 1995), deep and shallow ecotourism (Acott *et al.*, 1998), hard-soft ecotourism continuum (Weaver, 2001), ecotourism and type of attraction (Bjork, 2007), Nature and Ecotourism Experience Classification Schema (Jurowski, 2010). It is important to note most ecotourism classifications rely on the same factors and principles, with differences only emerging in nature of naming, grouping and analysis.

Bearing in mind trends of that time, Bottrill and Pearce (1995:47) operationalised ecotourism by classifying it into three perspectives. The participant perspective focuses on demand and views ecotourism as a product or market segment. Ecotourism is classified by identifying characteristics of ecotourists in respect to motivation, behaviour, education and behaviour. Education is regarded as a key component as it positively changes tourists' attitudes towards conservation. The operator perspective is supply oriented and focuses on provision of environmentally responsible (green) management and sustainable economic management required for sound environmental protection and conservation. To achieve these, operators focus on positive practices such as recycling, efficient fuel and energy consumption, proper waste disposal and reinvestment of profits in the community (Bottrill & Pearce, 1995:48). The third perspective postulates that successful ecotourism hinges on effective planning and protection of resources, and thus, must be practiced in areas with designated protection status. The classification, therefore, covers the major elements that make up ecotourism. Acott *et al.*'s (1998:251) deep and shallow classification divides ecotourism into categories using philosophical and economic arguments denoting different environmental and sustainability positions. The positions lie along a continuum where deep ecotourism emphasises small scale activities, minimal environmental damage, economic development benefits and respect for local communities; whereas shallow ecotourism is characterised by a strong business orientation exploiting the environment to maximise human

benefit giving issues of sustainability and conservation secondary status (Acott *et al.*, 1998:245). Although using different terms, Acott *et al.*'s (1998) deep and shallow ecotourism classification can be likened to Laarman and Durst's (cited in Orams, 2001:28) soft and hard dimensions or Weaver's (2005) soft-hard ecotourism continuum. The soft – hard dimensions as noted by Orams (2001:28) describes ecotourist experience in relation to level of dedication, interest in the natural attraction and degree of physical challenge. Hard-core ecotourists have deep level of interest, expertise in the subject matter and are willing to forgo living comforts in search of a true and challenging nature experience that can last for long time periods. Soft-core ecotourists, however, are casual and unwilling to experience the hardship and discomfort, preferring multi-dimensional short duration trips that involve mixing with other tourists (Orams, 2001:28). Figure 3.7 shows the soft – hard dimension.

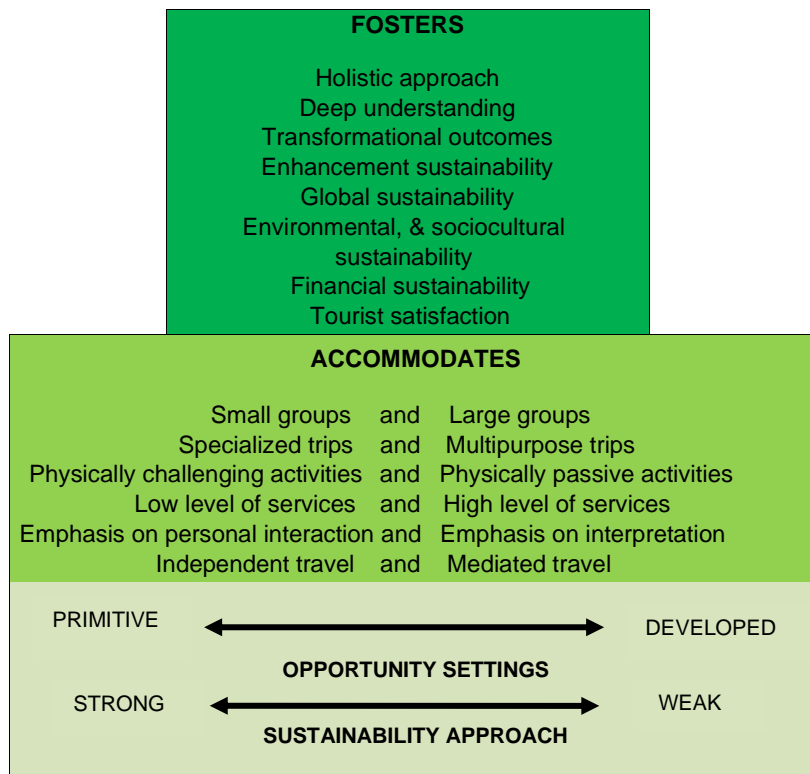


**Figure 3.7: Hard and Soft ecotourism**  
**Source: Orams (2001:28)**

Weaver (2005:447) contends that, rather than having two extremes, ecotourism occurs in a hard-soft continuum where there is gradual change from one form to another. Citing rigidity, Weaver (2005:449) modified the hard-soft continuum to come up with comprehensive model for classifying



ecotourism activities. The model offers a holistic approach incorporating hard and soft elements such as physically challenging activities and passive ones to both small and large destinations. Issues pertaining to sustainability are prioritised as both the hard and soft elements have negative and positive impacts as portrayed in Figure 3.8.

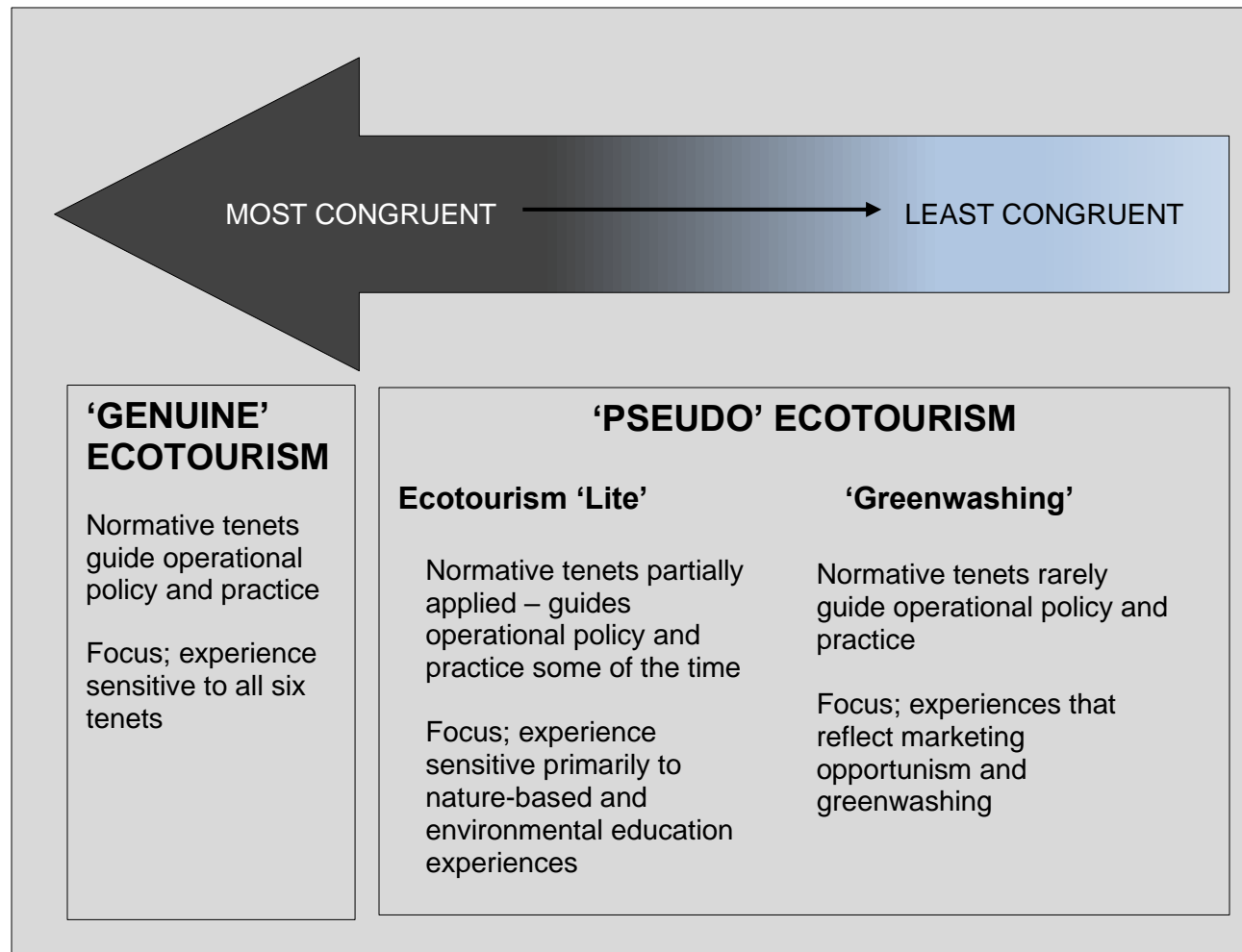


**Figure 3.8: Modified comprehensive ecotourism classification model**  
**Source: Weaver (2006:204)**

The comprehensiveness is also reflected by the inclusive approach to accommodate multiple aspects in an attraction. These include education and transformation of ecotourists, wide range of activities that cater for large and small groups, emphasis on financial sustainability, and overall satisfaction of visitors Weaver, 2005:449). The model can be applied in large parks such as Grand Canyon and Kruger National Park, where some parts accommodate soft (developed) while other areas cater for hard (primitive) ecotourists.

In the same vein of “continuum” approach, Donohoe and Needham (2008:34) developed a classification based on the relationship between ecotourism activities and tenets or principles namely; nature-based, preservation/conservation, environmental education, sustainability,

distribution of benefits and ethics/responsibility. Diversity in definitions has resulted in heterogeneous ecotourism products that apply guiding tenets differently. The continuum, therefore, identifies three classes of ecotourism based on the degree to which providers of ecotourism activities satisfy tenets, as shown in Figure 3.9.

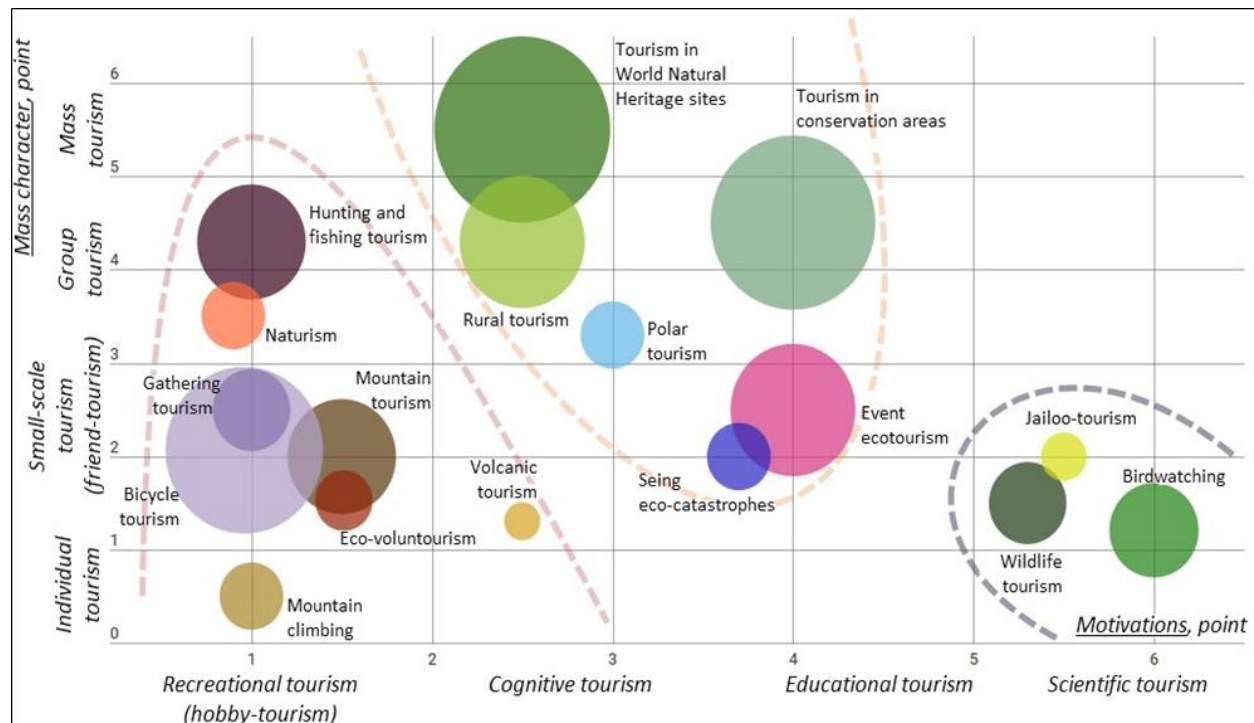


**Figure 3.9: Ecotourism tenets and operational congruency continuum**  
**Source: Donohoe and Needham (2008:34)**

Greenwashing ecotourism refers to organisations that exploit ecotourism tenets for financial gain without practical application to minimise impact, whereas ecotourism lite are operators that adopt and apply cosmetic environmental practices. Genuine ecotourism refers to full application of responsible environmental and social practices (Donohoe & Needham, 2008:34). Pseudo ecotourism generates negative impacts whilst genuine ecotourism is associated with positive

outcomes. Although the classification is useful, it requires the collection of primary data to enable effective classification of ecotourism activities.

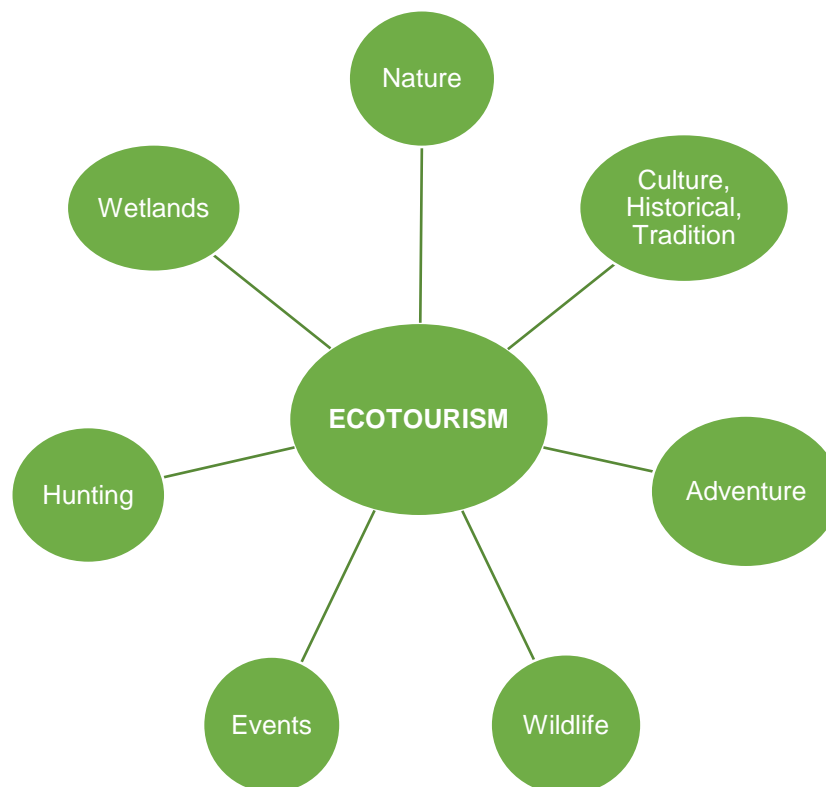
Despite intense criticism of Ecotourism concept, Afanasiev *et al.* (2018:137) developed a classification framework that endeavours to include the entire range of ecotourism activities. It is based on 16 ecotourism types that were selected on the basis of subjective worldwide appeal and popularity as shown in Figure 3.10.



**Figure 3.10: Classification of ecotourism**  
**Source: Afanasiev *et al.* (2018:137)**

The classification combines three aspects, mass character ranging from individual to mass, relative size in terms of number of tourist participants depicted by size of circle and motivations broadly grouped as recreational, cognitive, educational and scientific. Combining the aspects yielded three classes of ecotourism (Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:137). The first type; cognitive–educational ecotourism, takes place mainly in mass and group forms such as event, rural, polar, heritage area ecotourism. This sector is dominated by ecotourism related to conservation as seen by the comparatively large circle. The second type; recreational-cognitive ecotourism is characterised by small groups or people travelling individually as in bicycling, hunting, hiking, eco-voluntary, naturism, mountaineering and volcanic tourism. Lastly; scientific ecotourism is also

characterised by individual travel or small groups travel, and differs by largely focusing on research as exemplified by Jailoo tourism, wildlife and birding (Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:138). “Jailoo” is a term used in Russia and Caucasus region for ecotourism activities that involve shepherding herds of sheep and learning survival techniques and adaptations to hostile and frigid environments. Regardless of the differences in terminology and categorisation, ecotourism frameworks reveal ways in which the complexity and multi-dimensional nature of the concept has been addressed in different parts of the world, being influenced by destination cultural demand and supply factors. With such a profound background, it becomes very pertinent for purposes of the study, not only to identify the areas for possible diversification within ecotourism, but also to identify possible activities that can be related to ecotourism; based on the principles, definitions and classifications discussed in literature. From an in-depth literature study, seven broad diversification option areas were identified namely; Culture/Historical/Traditional, Adventure, Wildlife/Wilderness, Eco-events, Hunting, Wetlands and Nature shown in Figure 3.11. The next section discusses how each of these areas are related to ecotourism so that they qualify as eco-diversification options.



**Figure 3.11: Possible ecotourism diversification option areas**

### **3.5.1 Culture/Historical/Traditional**

The relationship between Culture/Historical/Traditional and ecotourism is strong, since there are many shared characteristics resulting in multiple overlapping areas (Weaver, 2008). The degree of interaction with both the environment and indigenous community is high, such that learning and interpretation levels are intense. In view of these characteristics, non-consumptive Culture/Historical/Traditional activities seamlessly fit into the ecotourism ambit. Ideally, cultural ecotourists normally stay in a destination for relatively longer periods of time during which they engage in activities such as sampling local food, learning about local medicine and other traditional practices, participating in local festivals, and learning the local language (Walter, 2013:19). These activities, if well managed, satisfy ecotourism principles of economic benefit to local communities, preservation of local customs and enriched tourist experience, that improve knowledge and appreciation of other cultures. Based on this background, Culture/Historical/Traditional was adopted as a possible diversification option for ecotourism and possible cultural/historical or traditional diversification activities are listed within Table 3.4.

### **3.5.2 Adventure**

As discussed earlier in this chapter, adventure is manifest in outdoor activities that involve interacting with the natural environment and containing elements of risk. Inclusion of adventure as ecotourism is based on the understanding that it is a component of nature-based tourism and adventure tourists at times also seek learning (knowledge), interpretation and conservation (Walter, 2013:17; Cheng *et al.*, 2016:3). The motivation for “eco-“is derived from tourists being in pursuit of challenges blended with the prospect of learning natural issues and environmental concerns. Also gained are technical and survival skills such as teamwork, leadership skills and group dynamics, to conquer demanding situations. According to Weaver (2008), this is akin to hard ecotourism. However, the area of overlap is small since there is limited focus on conservation and education. Adventure ecotourism covers activities such as trekking in mountains (Alps, Atlas, Drakensburg, Polar areas), hiking sand dunes (Kalahari, Sahara, Namib), rafting, skiing and mountain biking. Through these activities, tourists can learn about greenhouse gas effects and resultant climate change, impact of melting ice in Polar areas, reduction of tropical rainforests, impact of pollution in rivers, and killing of whales in oceans (Walter, 2013:17). In addition, conservation awareness and knowledge is increased. It is important to note that classification is arbitrary since adventure ecotourism activities can be split into land or water-based, hard or soft adventure, and what is regarded as wetland-related might be considered adventure-related. For the purposes of this study, the list in Table 3.4 represents activities that have been classified as adventure ecotourism diversification options.

### **3.5.3 Wildlife/Wilderness**

Wildlife tourism, as defined earlier, describes an area of overlap between nature-based tourism, ecotourism, consumptive use of wildlife, rural tourism, and human relations with animals. Honey (2008) views wildlife tourism as observing wildlife (animals, birds, fish) in their native locations. It becomes ecotourism when the consumptive element is removed. Walter (2013:17) defines it as travelling for the purpose of viewing marine or land based wild animals. Using Weaver's (2008) terminology, it is a form of soft ecotourism that is passive and educational, with guides focusing on interpretation and conservation of environment. Wildlife tourism, therefore, becomes a diversification option as there are many non-consumptive activities that satisfy the principles of ecotourism such as photographic tours, trekking, learning about animal behaviour and passive viewing.

### **3.5.4 Events**

Getz (2008:404) notes that events come in many forms and there are colossal classifications; hence, the need to define boundaries and specify area of focus. Events can be classified into eight broad groups, namely; cultural, political, arts and entertainment, business, science and education, sporting, recreation and private occasions (Getz, 2008). From this list, focus is narrowed to those that are tourism related. Janiskee (cited in Hernandez *et al.*, 2014:85) defines tourism events as short time periods of interesting and attractive activities confined to a geographic area for the purposes of celebrating historic or current fact. Over the years, studies of events have evolved such that focus is now concentrated on impact and sustainability resulting in the concept of green events. Merrilees and Marles (2011:4) observe that green events have a sustainability policy that has special focus on management and operations. Events generate a lot of waste and greater effort is devoted to minimising negative effects on the environment. Sustainability from a tourism perspective entails using local products (food, equipment, suppliers, labour) where possible, minimising energy use, and providing education on impacts (Merrilees & Marles, 2011:7; Hernandez *et al.*, 2014:88). It is from this perspective that Events were included as an eco-diversification option since adoption of sustainability resonates with ecotourism principles. There are many types of events but the study is confined to eco-Events with strong sustainability focus, such as charity walks, cultural festivals and annual biodiversity and conservation workshops.

### **3.5.5 Hunting**

Inclusion of hunting as an ecotourism diversification option has always stirred controversy because injury or death of wildlife is against principles of ecotourism. Nowaczek and Mehta (2018:202) argue that any form of hunting is not ethical since it causes pain, and at times, death. It therefore, does not qualify to be classified as ecotourism. The controversy is strengthened by the fact that, in most cases, millions of dollars generated as revenue are largely reinvested in preserving species preferred by hunters, thereby missing a key principle of promoting diversity. On the other perspective, controlled hunting activities, especially in developing countries, such as Zimbabwe and Botswana, are seen as a way of regulating wildlife populations in congested parks and areas where human-wildlife conflict is high (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005; Hunting Africa, 2019:6). The income generated from hunting activities is invested in the local area, thereby satisfying ecotourism principles of conservation, employment creation and community development. Despite being controversial, hunting was included as a diversification option to determine its suitability using data collected from respondents.

### **3.5.6 Wetlands**

Wetlands are defined by International convention on Wetlands as natural or artificial, permanent or temporary wetlands, peatlands, water areas, static or flowing, fresh, brackish, saltwater, including the sea water whose depth at low tide does not exceed 6 metres. Campbell (2019:1) observes that they are known by multiple names worldwide such as slough, bottomland, moor, marsh, wet savannah, muskeg, fen, swamp and dambo. Turner *et al.* (cited in Ryan *et al.*, 2012:188) points out that only 6% of the earth's surface is covered by wetlands, but freshwater ones are home to 40% of the world's species, 12% of all animals, and most receive protection under UNESCO Ramsar Convention. Wetlands are distinct in that they have features of both aquatic terrestrial ecosystems. However, this makes them fragile, unstable and sensitive such that destruction and degradation easily sets in when exposed to any kind of human development, including tourism (Hailun & Dong, 2008:1; Ryan *et al.*, 2012:189; Mitsch *et al.*, 2015:2; Diaz-Christiansen, 2016:47; Campbell, 2019:2).

Mitsch *et al.* (2015:1) describes wetlands as “kidneys of the landscape” and “natures’ supermarkets” because of characteristic functions such as flood control, huge water storage, groundwater recharge (especially aquifers), rich biodiversity, extensive food chains, water cleansing, nutrient enrichment, support agriculture, climate stabilisation and distinct habitats for plants and animals. The uniqueness of wetlands has made them focal points for tourism development, especially in developing countries where they are part of experience desired by

tourists as exemplified by Santay Island in Ecuador and Okavango Delta in Botswana (Diaz-Christiansen, 2016:48). Given this background, ecotourism naturally becomes the preferred type of tourism because of its key focus on development that protects resources allows benefits to locals, and promotes education and conservation. Wetlands are capable of supporting all forms of tourism. However, literature shows that countries have deliberately chosen ecotourism to promote sustainable development and management of this delicate resource (Campbell, 2019). Based on this, wetlands were considered an ecotourism diversification option.

There are many types of wetlands resulting in multiple forms of ecotourism that can be developed, such as birding, wildlife and landscape viewing, trekking, canoeing, boating, camping, angling, botanic tours, photography and cultural villages (Hailun & Dong, 2008:2; Ryan *et al.*, 2012:190; Mitsch *et al.*, 2015:3; Diaz-Christiansen, 2016:50). Despite the various types of tourism, Ryan *et al.* (2012:188) notes that due to the nature of wetlands, birding is one of the most prominent as exemplified by Ras Al Khor in Dubai which supports about 3 500 migratory Flamingos from as far as Russia, Afghanistan and Iraq. In view of multiple classification frameworks, the study considered activities that are water based, such as bird watching, canoeing, fly fishing, wind surfing, kayaking, rowing, sailing and boat cruising. Table 3.4 lists activities considered as wetland ecotourism diversification options.

### **3.5.7 Nature**

Nature as discussed in literature describes travelling to natural areas usually well preserved, to enjoy scenery. It has grown over the years to cover many tourism experiences including ecotourism (Fossgard & Fredman, 2019). Nature ecotourism is distinctive in that it is solely based on non-consumptive activities such as tours in forest or volcanic areas, focusing on enhancing conservation and tourist knowledge. In view of this background, Nature ecotourism was adopted as a diversification option for the purposes of this study. Based on the classification framework, Table 3.4 lists generic ecotourism activities under each area, that can be used as possible diversification options. Although not exhaustive, it is important to note that the common underlying factor is that activities are only viewed as ecotourism upon satisfying the following principles during consumption; contribute to conservation, foster environmental education, based on natural destinations, provide economic benefits, and empower local communities (Honey, 2008; Diamantis, 2011; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015).



**Table 3.4 Possible ecotourism diversification activities**

<b>Culture/Historical/Traditional</b>	<b>Adventure</b>	<b>Wildlife/Wilderness</b>	<b>Events</b>	<b>Hunting</b>	<b>Wetlands</b>	<b>Nature</b>
Viewing or buying local artifacts and souvenirs	Caving Hiking Backpacking	Archery using traditional bow and arrow	Participation in fly fishing festival	Bow hunting	Bird watching	Sunset viewing
Visit to traditional healer	Donkey cart rides Cycling Ballooning Swimming	Animal trekking	Attending Cultural festivals	Trophy hunting	Canoeing	Participation in tree planting and conservation activities
Learning dance and music	Powered Paragliding Camel riding	Photographic tours	Participation in indigenous food festivals	Biltong/ game meat hunting	Fly fishing	Visiting organic farms
Sampling local food products and recipes	Wilderness training survival courses	Guided walks	Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops	Learning traditional hunting methods	Wind surfing	Scenic flights over natural landscapes
Staying in cultural village	Mountain biking Quad biking Jet skiing	Self-drive mobile safaris	Participation in annual race for wildlife conservation		Kayaking	Botanic tours in forest reserves
Visit to historical and heritage sites	Rope courses	Guided mobile safaris	Fun run		Rowing	Volcanic tours
Visit to traditional court	Obstacle courses Ziplining	Interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding	Arts and crafts markets/festivals		Sailing	
Story telling learn about traditional culture	Orienteering (foot/trail) Jungle exploration	Horseback riding	Desert walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation		Boat cruising	
Viewing or participation in traditional or ethnic events: festivals	Observations and planetariums	Participation in wildlife conservation programs				

Learning local language	Landform and landscape viewing	Learn about Ostrich rearing programs				
Interactive craft workshop activities listed below;	Scuba diving with crocodiles Motorboat rides	Eco-volunteering				
Basketry	Underwater photography	Equitrekking				
Pottery	Rafting and tubing					
Ceramics	Team building games and activities					
Weaving	Walking expeditions					
Canvas painting	Stargazing					
Participation in farm activities; harvesting, ploughing, yoking, milking, wine tasting	Sky diving 4x4 trails Paintballing					

**Sources:** Bottrill & Pearce (1995:49); Blamey (1997); Rahemtulla & Well (2001); Orams (2001); Nzengy'a (2004); Weaver (2005, 2008); Honey (2008); Horton (2009); Lawton (2009); Rutter (2009); Saayman (2009); Arnegger *et al.* (2010:918); Bien (2010); Haaland & Øystein (2010:383); Hunt *et al.* (2015:348); Jaafar & Maiden (2012:689); Reimer and Walter (2013); De Witt *et al.* (2014); Cobbinah (2015:182); Mbaiwa (2013, 2015); TIES (2015); Centre For Applied Research (2016); Afanasiev *et al.* (2018:137); Far and Wide (2018); Kruger *et al.* (2018:17); Kleszcynski (2016:35)

Despite general consensus in literature on principles, activities that constitute ecotourism as listed in Table 3.4 are hotly debated, especially with reference to hunting, naturism and fishing. Arguing from the perspective of ethics and authenticity, Nowaczek and Mehta (2018:202) contend that hunting and fishing cannot be truly branded as ecotourism since they fail the philosophical and ethics test by inflicting pain. In most literature, catch-and-release or fly fishing is considered ecotourism, totally ignoring the stress and trauma during catching, taking pictures and during release. Studies have indicated that the process can lead to immediate or delayed death as the fish struggles to get free (Nowaczek & Mehta, 2018:212). Duffy (2015:534) observes that dolphins at ecotourism resorts in Western Australia interact with humans (swimming and controlled feeding). However, problems stemming from the encounters such as poor health and consequently shortened lifespan, are concealed. Based on this notion, Nowaczek and Mehta (2018:215) concur with the perspective that regards ecotourism as part of politicised, profit-centred and western neoliberal agenda. Genuine ecotourism is; thus, facing an increasingly worrying prospect of being attenuated and greenwashed as reflected by emergence of classifications such as mass- or consumptive ecotourism (Wight, 1993; Cater, 2006; Hunt *et al.*, 2015:340; Korstanje, 2017:3; Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:133).

Despite the controversies and multiple classification viewpoints, compilation of ecotourism activities in Table 3.4 provided guidance to select activities relevant in Botswana for questionnaire used to collect primary data that helped to determine strategic ecotourism products that can be pursued and creating a comprehensive diversification framework. Consumption of ecotourism products is closely related to accommodation which is discussed in the next section.

### **3.6 ECOTOURISM ACCOMMODATION**

Given the nature and fragility of environment, ecotourism products are intertwined with accommodation for ecotourists that is built, taking into cognisance environmental considerations (Kwan *et al.*, 2010:2; Kruger *et al.*, 2017b:3; Saayman *et al.*, 2017:68). Directly related to this background, the concept of ecotourist accommodation rapidly gained momentum as hotels were generally viewed as highly resource consumptive. Ecotourism accommodation, as argued by Osland and Mackoy (2004:110), encompasses facilities and services established within or close to natural areas visited by ecotourists and hence, must satisfy the principles of ecotourism to become a component of the ecotourism product. Mehta (cited in Erdem & Tetik, 2013:86) observes that the term ecolodge, formally adopted in 1994, is generically applied to denote most types of ecotourism accommodation, and has greatly evolved to suit the persistently dynamic

tastes and preferences of ecotourists. Based on this background, ecotourism accommodation is now regarded as part of the ecotourism product and one of the key factors motivating ecotourists to travel to ecotourism destinations (Saayman *et al.*, 2017; Kruger *et al.*, 2018). In this research, ecotourism accommodation is viewed as an ecotourism product.

Russel *et al.* (cited in Chan & Baum, 2007:353) define ecolodge as a nature dependent tourist lodge that meets the philosophy and principles of ecotourism, emphasising ecological sensitivity. It is characterised by a series of add-ons such as nature walks, hiking, game drives and conservation. Ecolodges are, therefore, a vital aspect of ecotourism, given their direct impact on natural environment, local community and ecotourism experience (Osland & Mackoy, 2004:110). Based on Laarman and Durst's (1987) and Weaver's (2002) hard to soft ecotourist dimensions, ecolodges were classified into 4 types as shown in Table 3.5. The classification takes into consideration primary ecotourist activities and location of the ecolodge (Osland & Mackoy, 2004:111).

**Table 3.5: Types of eco-lodges**

Type	Description
Dedicated	Serves hard tourists focusing on specialised activities such as birding. Limited infrastructure and hard to access.
Casual	Located in well-serviced accessible areas. Ecotourists engaged in general nature observation and relaxation.
Scientific	Ecotourists involved in research or educational activities. Located in privately owned reserves.
Agri-lodges	Agriculture or ranch setting, farms, community-based ecotourism. Focus on providing learning experience of farming activities.

**Source: Osland and Mackoy (2004:111)**

Although there has been no significant adoption of the classification by academics or tourism and hospitality industry, the division is important in identifying the diversity of ecolodges. In line with the continuous changes and developments, Mehta (cited in Erdem & Tetik, 2013:87) consolidated various perspectives of ecolodges to come up with the following definition; “an ecolodge is a 5 – 75 room, low-impact, nature-based, financially sustainable accommodation facility that helps protect sensitive neighbouring areas; involves and benefits local communities; offers tourists an interpretive and interactive participatory experience; provides a spiritual communion with nature and culture; and is planned, designed, constructed and operated in an environmentally and socially sensitive manner”.

Since ecolodges are a critical component of ecotourism experience, Erdem and Tetik (2013:87) point out that the ecolodges are guided by the following principles:

- Conserve the surrounding environment; both natural and cultural.
- Have minimal impact on the natural surroundings during construction.
- Fit into its specific physical and cultural contexts through careful attention to form, landscaping and colour, as well as the use of localised architecture.
- Use alternative sustainable means of water acquisition and reduce water consumption.
- Provide careful handling and disposal of solid waste and sewage.
- Meet its energy needs through passive design and combines these with their modern counterparts for greater sustainability.
- Endeavour to work together with the local community.
- Offer interpretative programs to educate both its employees and tourists about the surroundings natural and cultural environments.
- Contribute to sustainable local development through research programs.

With these principles in mind, ecolodges have greatly evolved such that they now come in multiple forms such as tree houses, bungalows, caravans, cabins and tents. Despite the dramatic rise of numerous typologies for ecolodges, development of ecotourism accommodation strives to satisfy the principles.

Closely related to ecolodges, camping is another important component of ecotourism accommodation that has also significantly transformed over time. Camping is a form of nature based special interest outdoor recreation that serves as both an activity and accommodation (Brooker & Joppe, 2013:1; Brochado *et al.*, 2017:77; Mikulic *et al.*, 2017: 226). Traditionally, camping accommodation was characterised by closeness to nature, in remote wilderness and generally difficult to access areas with plenty of wildlife and fascinating landscapes (Hrgovic *et al.*, 2018:623). Retaining some of these characteristics, camping has evolved from an inexpensive short period travel to include more sophisticated affluent travel that combines luxury, nature and respect for the environment. Accommodation for camping now encompasses recreational vehicles (RV), caravans, yurts and safari tents (Brooker & Joppe, 2013; Brochado *et al.*, 2017). The transition has resulted in change of terminology from camping to glamping, derived from combining two terms “glamour” and “camping”. Brochado *et al.* (2017) and Hrgovic *et al.* (2018) point out that glamping removes the negative attributes of camping replacing them with homelike comfort, high quality food and service. These developments have blurred the distinction between

luxury safari tents and ecolodges. Given this background, Table 3.6 lists types of ecotourism accommodation used in this study. As noted in the discussion, the key aspect is striving to satisfy ecotourism principles.

**Table 3.6 Ecotourism Accommodation**

<b>Ecotourism Accommodation</b>
Campsite
Bungalow
Tree top eco-lodge (tree house)
Cabin
National Park
friendly accommodation establishment (hotel)
Tented camp
Lodge
Backpackers
Guesthouse
Eco-certified accommodation

**Source: Authors' own compilation**

It is important to note that, although literature abounds on camping types, motivations, transformation of camping culture and experience; focus of the study is on camping as a form of ecotourism accommodation. In view of the evolution, camping accommodation now ranges from basic tents with minimal facilities to luxurious tents capable of accommodating families. Despite the developments, the camping has to adhere to the principles to qualify as ecotourism accommodation. Mehta *et al.* (cited in Kwan *et al.*, 2010:2) observes that the multiple variants of ecolodges and campsites are only described as ecotourism accommodation facilities if they satisfy ecotourism principles of conservation, benefit the local community, and provide interpretation to both locals and guests. In view of this background, diversification of ecotourism products requires data on ecotourists' knowledge of ecolodge preferences and characteristics to determine the nature and type of ecolodge accommodation (Kwan *et al.*, 2010:18; Kruger *et al.*, 2017b:5; Saayman *et al.*, 2017:70). Research conducted on accommodation needs and preferences of ecotourists visiting Kruger National park revealed a heterogeneous market that considers factors such as cooking area and facilities, children activities, application of ecofriendly practices and interpretation, as very important in determining type of ecolodge (Saayman *et al.*, 2017:75). Diversification of ecotourism products, therefore, requires knowledge of ecotourist accommodation requirements as they are strongly related to ecotourism principles. It is important to note that most research on preferences and motivation is aligned to marketing, with limited literature on preferences in relation to product development and diversification of ecotourism

products; hence, the need for more studies (Kwan *et al.*, 2010:4; Kruger *et al.*, 2017b:3; Saayman *et al.*, 2017:68). The next section examines case studies from different parts of the world examining various ways the concept has been understood and implemented.

### **3.7 ECOTOURISM PRODUCT DIVERSIFICATION CASE STUDIES**

Although there is paucity of empirical research on diversification of ecotourism products in Botswana, related studies focusing on various aspects of demand have been conducted in other countries (Nzengy'a, 2004; Powell *et al.*, 2008; Reimer & Walter, 2013; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Botha *et al.*, 2016; Kruger *et al.*, 2017a; Saayman *et al.*, 2017). Diversifying ecotourism products is now an area of increasing research interest due to its huge potential as lucrative market segment that strives to minimise negative impacts, and be abreast with changes in consumer patterns and needs that are becoming strongly sensitive to environmental matters (Reimer & Walter, 2013; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015:182; Mgonja *et al.*, 2015:271; Moswete & Thapa, 2015:246).

#### **3.7.1 South African National Parks: South Africa**

A study on visitors' perspectives concerning critical ecotourism factors applicable to South African National Parks (SANParks) identified 6 factors namely; local community involvement, ethical behaviour, food, activities, environmentally friendly practices and policies; as important in determining ecotourism development (De Witt *et al.*, 2014:192). Although the factors were consistent with ecotourism pillars, tourists place high emphasis on ethical behaviour, regular monitoring to ensure adherence to prescribed standards, and community involvement in ecotourism activities. The visitors' perception therefore, endows park managers with parameters to diversify and develop ecotourism products and services matching ecotourists' needs, thereby promoting sustainable ecotourism attractions (De Witt, *et al.*, 2014:181). In a related research, Kruger *et al.*'s (2017a:334) comprehensive demographic segmentation of Kruger National Park tourist markets enabled development of precise ecotourism products and services to the relevant market segment. Although focus of the research was on segmentation, conception of the three market clusters; *Marulas* (primary), *Tambotis* (secondary) and *Baobabs* (niche), has an important bearing in determining the choice of diversification strategy. Kruger *et al.*'s (2018) study on adventure activity preferences in relation to socio-demographic and behavioural variables in Kruger African National Park informed SANParks management of sustainable and profitable diversification options. The largest proportion of income in SANParks derives from accommodation. However, changes in operating environment is causing costs to gradually exceed income; hence, the need to diversify by developing new adventure products (Kruger *et al.*, 2018:3). The study identified three adventure activities; adrenalin rush, adrenalin sport and

wilderness training, as well as survival courses as products that could be developed on a small-scale basis with emphasis on interpretation and education to support principles of ecotourism (Kruger *et al.*, 2018:17). The research findings from studies in Kruger National Park clearly underscore that successful diversification also requires comprehensive demand side empirical research which is lacking in Botswana. The findings are useful in questionnaire development and identification of potential eco-activities.

### **3.7.2 Nyanga National Park: Zimbabwe**

Nyanga National Park located in the eastern highlands of Zimbabwe was established in 1900 through grants from Cecil Rhodes, making it the oldest in the country. Ecotourism has been based on wildlife, historical artefacts and the scenic landscape of mountains, valleys and waterfalls. Activities include birdwatching, fly fishing, nature walks, game trekking, hiking and swimming in natural river pools (Nzengy'a, 2004). Research on visitation trends by Nzengy'a (2004:133) reveal fluctuating tourist visitation which progressively declined as the economic situation of the country worsened. Partial economic and political reform resulted in improving tourist arrivals and increased the need to diversify ecotourism products. Using the natural environment, Far and Wide company diversified to eco-adventure activities, namely; rope courses, sky walks and ziplines over the Mtarazi falls; the second highest in Africa at 762 metres. Other eco-adventure activities include kayaking, and river rafting in Pungwe river. The diversified activities have managed to widen the ecotourism product base. However, research is required on fulfilment of ecotourism principles (Far and Wide, 2018).

### **3.7.3 Chi Phat Community-based ecotourism project: Cambodia**

The Chi Phat community-based ecotourism project based in the Cardamom mountain range is one of the most successful in Cambodia. The ecotourism project is located in one of the world's 34 internationally recognised biodiversity hotspot tropical rainforest areas in South East Asia where large species such as Asian elephants, tigers and bears live without restrictions (Reimer & Walter, 2013:125). Established in 2007 with the assistance of Wildlife Alliance non-governmental organisation, the project initially focused on wildlife ecotourism specialising in activities such as trekking, nature walks, wildlife photography and birding.

Over the years, the project focused on related ecotourism product diversification, resulting in rise of eco-cultural tourism centred on learning of local language, local cooking, dance, music, art and historical artefacts (Reimer & Walter, 2013). Today, the project is featured as Cambodia's best ecotourism destination based on multiple active eco-adventure and 'green' laidback activities such as wildlife viewing and trekking, cruising Piphot river, participation in reforestation programmes, home-stays, nature walks based on learning indigenous ways of life, medicines,



foods and burial ceremonies in jars and wooden tombstones dating more than 500 years (Reimer & Walter, 2013:130). Despite challenges of pollution, illegal logging and poaching; Chi Phat community ecotourism project is rated as one of the most diversified and successful in Cambodia and the region. This is evidenced by numerous awards such as Best ecotourism destination in Cambodia in the Top Ten Must See destinations by Lonely Planet, 2010, Clean resort by Ministry of Tourism, Cambodia, 2014, Best practice to improve the living environment, Dubai International Award by United Arab Emirates, 2015, and Best Practice social wellbeing and Cultural heritage, Prime minister awards Cambodia, 2015 (Reimer & Walter, 2013:125; Tieng, 2016:14). The findings from the research discussed clearly reveal the importance of demand side analysis in coming up with comprehensive and informed strategies to establish new products.

#### **3.7.4 Costa Rica**

The stagnation and fixation on wildlife related ecotourism in Botswana clearly contrasts with ecotourism development in Costa Rica, now a leading destination in ecofriendly tours (Rutter, 2009; Bien, 2010:49). Research indicates that the country attained prime ecotourism destination status due to creative and entrepreneurial approach despite relative disadvantage of having fewer cultural resources as compared to well-developed Aztec and Inca heritage of neighbouring Mexico and Peru respectively (Lumsdon & Swift, 1998:157; Bien, 2010:50). Tourism currently generates 12.5% of GDP, which is more revenue than combined exports of coffee, bananas and pineapples. Ecotourism alone is responsible for over 50% of income derived from tourism (Kleszcynski, 2016:37). Private sector investment and government efforts to promote ecotourism in the 1980-90s prompted growth of dolphin watching, educational tours, bird watching, white water rafting, jungle tours and surfing lessons. Focus was on construction of eco-lodges that utilised local material and ecofriendly practices of using solar power, bio-degradable soap, recycling of glass and plastic, water purification using enzymes, bacteria and water lilies (Lawton, 2009; Rutter, 2009; Haaland & Øystein, 2010:383, Kleszcynski, 2016:35).

Although the country thrived as one of the pioneer ecotourism destination, increasing competition from both developed and developing countries such as Australia, United Kingdom, India, Namibia and Botswana created the need for innovation and diversification of the existing products. Empirical research reveals that Costa Rica has remained a top ecotourism destination in the world by constantly coming up with new products and striving to become the first destination going green by 2021 (Horton, 2009; Hunt *et al.*, 2015:352). The existing products still have a market appeal just as in Botswana. However, Costa Rica has largely been successful in creatively using

the same natural resources to attract a different market segment interested in eco-adventure holidays.

The private sector companies, backed by strong government support, focused on different aspects of ecotourism. Aventuras Naturales and Rios Tropicales for example, captured the single professionals market and families with more disposable income by introducing zip wires over the rainforest canopy and water sliding at one of the longest slides in the world covering up to 450m (Rutter, 2009; Hunt *et al.*, 2015:348). There are also ranches and eco-friendly lodges such as Rancho Mastatal and Selva Bananito respectively, that have promoted agritourism, community development, and educational activities that allow tourists to participate in tree planting, basic farming, and use of renewable energy. Other ecotourism activities include kayaking and rafting on challenging rapids, organic farming, horse riding involving mud baths near active volcanoes, full galloping in the plains, canopy adventures like walking through treetops using harnesses and ropes (Bien, 2010; Kleszczynski, 2016:37). The eco-adventure holidays appeal to multiple segments such that the country has remained highly competitive and a front runner in ecotourism despite problems such as pollution, waste disposal, changes in animal behaviour and increased construction. Although there have been major strides in diversification of ecotourism activities, foreign ownership and associated leakage in Botswana remains a major challenge as most of the companies are based in United States of America (Koens *et al.*, 2009:1231).

### **3.7.5 Malaysia**

A study of small and medium island chalets in Malaysia revealed that, to be successful, ecotourism products should be constantly innovative, incorporating destination mix of attractions (natural and human-made) and other amenities such as transport, hotels, tour operations and food. The popularity of the four islands stems from the positive correlation with variety of ecotourism products such as snorkelling, turtle trip, surfing, and banana boat ride and canoe (Jaafar & Maiden, 2012:689).

Although these case studies reveal that related diversification of ecotourism activities whilst retaining its core principles of small tourist numbers and focus on education, conservation and preservation is attainable; literature in Botswana is characterised by deficiency of empirical study. Current research on ecotourism is largely supply led, focusing on aspects such as women empowerment (Lenao & Basupi, 2016), collaborative partnerships (Stone, 2015) and impacts in the Okavango Delta and surrounding areas (Mbaiwa, 2002, 2005a & b; Mmopelwa & Blignaut, 2006; Mbaiwa, Thakadu & Darkoh, 2008; Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011; Mbaiwa, 2015). Although the

Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy was formulated more than 15 years ago to spearhead development, empirical research on actual ecotourism activities, nature of demand, ecotourist profiling, accommodation preferences, interpretation, diversification strategies and service provision is limited. In line with the study objectives, the variables are key in designing questionnaires that will inform development of a diversification framework to successfully expand ecotourism market.

### **3.8 SUMMARY**

The chapter discussed ecotourism positioning in relation to other tourism forms using multiple frameworks available in literature. Despite various frameworks, the common aspect is that ecotourism is a component of Alternative tourism, and it overlaps, to varying degrees, with other types of tourism such as wildlife, adventure and cultural. With such a diverse background, ecotourism is distinguished from other types by prime focus on education, preservation, learning and conservation. The second part examined conceptual evolution of ecotourism that has culminated in more than one hundred definitions, largely determined by the perspective of the researcher, location, culture and time period. Botswana's definition is centred on enabling active and equitable indigenous participation that will yield economic benefits. Despite the multitude of definitions and perspectives, ecotourism activities are guided by principles summarised in five core areas, namely; environmental conservation, cultural preservation, community participation, economic benefits and empowerment of vulnerable groups. Based on the diversity of ecotourism, many classification frameworks have been developed to group ecotourism activities selected on the basis of fulfilling principles. Classification is mostly grounded on a spectrum determined by the degree of adherence to principles such that activities range from hard (high, active) to soft (low, passive). Irrespective of the controversy, multiple meanings, classifications and interpretations; this chapter identified possible ecotourism diversification areas, namely; Culture/Historical/Traditional, Adventure, Wildlife/Wilderness, Events, Hunting, Wetlands Nature and eco accommodation options. The next chapter focuses on tourism development and the status of ecotourism in Botswana.

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **TOURISM IN BOTSWANA**

### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter examines the evolution of tourism in Botswana, paying attention to diversification and identification of gaps in literature. The first part traces tourism development in relation to rapid economic transformation, following the discovery of diamonds shortly after independence. This is followed by a detailed analysis of policies affecting the tourism sector and how they have influenced development, leading to the country declaring itself an ecotourism destination and ecotourism becoming the core tourism product. In view of this background, the chapter reviews organisation of tourism in Botswana, focusing on ecotourism products and need for diversification within the ambit of ecotourism. The chapter also examines the state of the supporting infrastructure and competitiveness crucial for enabling diversification efforts. Lastly, the chapter analyses existing ecotourism activities that can be used as a basis for developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products.

### **4.2 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN BOTSWANA**

The state of tourism in Botswana is closely linked to the colonial history of the country and subsequent rapid development after discovery of diamonds. Prior to independence, no meaningful tourism development occurred because of limited economic interest due to the largely semi-arid climate, infertile soils, lack of mineral resources and protectorate status. Because of these factors, Botswana experienced contact type of colonialism, where few settlers were used to govern, resulting in minimal investment and interaction with the locals (Hlavac, 2010). Beaulier (2003) coined the term “benign neglect” to refer to this type of colonial rule, where economic interests were very weak, and governance was administered from South Africa. The colonial status as a “British protectorate” meant Britain’s prospects of losing the country to South Africa remained relatively high, hence; investment and commitment efforts were negligible. Infrastructural development was therefore, very marginal during the entire colonial period from 1885 to the beginning of self-rule in September 1966 (Beaulier, 2003; Hlavac, 2010; Seidler, 2010). These circumstances meant that at independence, Botswana was one of the poorest countries in the world, with per capita income of about US\$80, 8 kilometres of tarred road, 22

university graduates, about 6 000 civil servants, and no meaningful tourism (Beaulier, 2003; Robinson, 2009; Seidler, 2010).

The subsequent discovery of diamonds after independence triggered a well-documented swift transformation of Botswana's economy from one of the least economically developed in the world, to an upper middle-income country in a space of three decades (Beaulier, 2003; Washington & Hacker, 2009; Cook & Sarkin, 2010; Sebudubudu, 2010:250; Seidler, 2010:4). Literature is abounding with statistics of this dramatic growth which averaged 10% per annum between 1966 and 2005, enabling the country to overcome the 'resource curse' where many developing economies with rich supply of minerals failed to develop due to mismanagement, corruption and civil war (Washington & Hacker, 2009:8; Sebudubudu, 2010:250; Seidler, 2010:5). The amazing transformation and highly celebrated outstanding strides in economic development, however, overshadow fundamental structural weaknesses and vulnerability of the economy that is almost exclusively dependent on diamond mining (Manatsha & Maharjan, 2009; Sekwati, 2010, 2017:2). This can be confirmed by a cursory look at government statistics revealing that between 2006 – 2007, diamond mining sector accounted for 75% of national export earnings, 42% of GDP and 48% of government revenue. The rapid development has created a mono-economic structure characterised by low levels of industrialisation, large public sector, small domestic market, inadequate skilled personnel, weak agricultural sector due to the semi-arid climate, and prevalence of geologically old, highly leached poorly structured soils. Only about 5% of the country's soils can viably support agriculture (Beaulier, 2003; Washington & Hacker, 2009; Cook & Sarkin, 2010; Sekwati, 2010).

Tourism, just like the mainstream economy, has since independence, experienced rapid growth that is also largely dependent on wildlife and wilderness. Today, tourism is now the second highest contributor to GDP at 10%, with wildlife accounting for 80 – 90% (Sekwati, 2017; WTTC, 2007. 2018; Mbaiwa, 2008, 2015). Given the highly skewed nature of the two most important sectors, diversification has been, and is still, a key focus area of the government. The diversification is two pronged; national and sectoral, where the former aims at reducing reliance on diamonds whilst the latter is confined to widening tourism forms and activities. The detailed examination of diversification at national level that is decreasing dependence on diamonds by expanding other sectors of the economy such as agriculture, tourism and manufacturing, is beyond this study. Focus is concentrated on diversification within the tourism industry.

A brief overview of national strategies reveals that from the 1970s, a series of policies have been promulgated by the government to stimulate diversification and promote industrialisation. These include Financial Assistance Plan (FAP) (1982), National Policy on Agricultural Development (1991), Botswana Export Development and Investment Authority (1997), Local Procurement Programme (1997), Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA) (2001), 6-year National Development Plans (NDP's), Botswana excellence: a strategy for economic diversification and sustainable growth (2008), Vision 2016 and recently Vision 2036. Despite the several policies, programmes and strategies; economic diversification has remained constrained due to lack of proper coordination, specific time frames and performance indicators (Sekwati, 2010:84).

Similarly, various policies, plans and strategies have been formulated to develop and diversify the tourism sector. The Tourism Policy (1990) was established with the same objective; to reduce dependence on diamonds and promote diversity within the tourism sector. The policy describes tourism as the new “engine of growth” and its development was based on three issues; tourism sector not being fully recognised and appreciated, the need to capitalise on growth potential, and absence of a policy resulting in minimal benefits (GOB, 1990). Based on this background, the general objective of the policy is to obtain, on a sustainable basis, the greatest possible net social and economic benefits for Botswana from their tourism resources, scenic beauty, wildlife and unique ecological, geological and cultural characteristics.

The specific objectives are to:

- increase foreign exchange earnings and government revenues;
- generate employment, mainly in rural areas;
- raise incomes in rural areas to reduce urban drift;
- generally, promote rural development and to stimulate the provision of other services in remote areas of the country;
- improve the quality of national life by providing educational and recreational opportunities; and
- project a favourable national image to the outside world.

To stay abreast of contemporary trends in the tourism industry, the policy was reviewed in 2008. However, it has remained stuck at the draft stage; thus, creating bottlenecks for effective development. The revised policy prioritises ecotourism and sustainable development framework for promoting ecotourism. It is sad to note that the review was never completed, and in 2018, the

policy was sent to stakeholders again for a review since ten years had passed without progress. The Department of Tourism notes that major recommendations were suggested and only time will tell whether the review of the 2008 draft policy will not experience the same fate. This stagnation in policy development has contributed to lack of effective tourism development strategy that also affects diversification (DOT, 2018).

In addition to the tourism policy, guidelines for developing the sector are determined by statutory frameworks, namely; Botswana Tourism Regulations (1996), Gambling and Gambling paper number 6 (2002), Tourism Act (2009) and strategic policies, Tourism Master Plan (2000), Tourism Development Framework (2001) and NDPs. There are also a series of district specific tourism development plans with the overall aim of widening the sector. These include Okavango delta management plan 2007, Makgaskadi Development Framework 2001 and Kazungula-Kasane redevelopment plan 2014. The policy papers reveal that diversifying the tourism product has been a key government concern for a lengthy period. The Tourism Master Plan is the most comprehensive policy paper detailing how tourism should be developed. A SWOT analysis carried out following the master plan guidelines proposes the following strategies; product diversification, community/citizen participation, private/public sector partnerships and ecological sustainability to develop the tourism sector (GOB, 2000). The plan also advocates maintaining the HVLV strategy for the delta but promotes a low to medium policy for other parts of the country to stimulate domestic and independent travel tourism (GOB, 2000). The Tourism Development Framework (2001), however, was established to assist implementation of Tourism Master Plan by the Department of Tourism. The framework primarily focused on diversifying tourism and product development in the southern parts of the country. This entailed identifying 5 development areas and proposing concepts for expanding tourism linked to the main tourist hub in the northern parts of the country. The 5 areas are; The East, Gaborone and surrounds, The pans, Central Kalahari and Southern Kalahari. The proposals are innovative, but the lack of detailed market study, practical implementation, feasibility and market viability makes it difficult to assess progress (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:29).

To offset the inherent weaknesses of the tourism master plan and other documents, the government, at the turn of the century, adopted a human resource development-based approach that takes into consideration market conditions and plans for developing human resources in the tourism sector in line with wider policy agenda and ambition for diversifying the economy. The resulting Tourism Sector Human Resource Development (HRD) Plan's study on industry needs and diversification, carried out by Human Resources Development Council (HRDC), identifies

three operational diversification levels, namely; primary, secondary and tertiary (HRDC, 2014:14). The primary level focuses on the natural environment and wildlife. It is premised on tourism being currently concentrated in the north and based on wildlife. Diversification will, therefore, be two-pronged, based on geography and products. Geographic diversification entails increased utilisation of tourist sites in some parts of the country such as Tuli block, Gaborone, Central Kalahari Game Reserve, Old Palapye, Khawa and Francistown (HRDC, 2014:14). As tourism is stimulated in some areas, emphasis will be on promoting domestic tourism and developing other products such as business, culture, ecotourism and adventure. Such expansion, if well managed, will have a positive trickle-down effect on employment, reduce leakages and increase local ownership.

Currently, the HVLV policy has maintained the value of the Okavango but has restricted the market to mainly affluent South African tourists who come fully equipped with supplies, either by air or using 4-wheel drive vehicles (HRDC, 2014; Mbaiwa, 2005). Due to these circumstances, the leakage factor has consistently remained very high; estimated to be over 80% because most tourism enterprises are foreign owned. Skills demanded by business owners to satisfy high value guest requirements are largely imported, and bookings and payments are mainly made in South Africa and other overseas markets. The country, therefore, only benefits from tourist spending which, in most cases, is limited due to lack of diversity in activities (Leechor & Fabricius, 2004:51; Mbaiwa, 2005, 2008, 2015; Moswete & Lacey, 2015:599). Considering this context, Botswana is often regarded as an expensive destination, and diversification will, therefore, concentrate on other segments such as independent, special interest and domestic markets.

The secondary level focuses on providing services and products arising from expansion of current tourism base. There will be increased demand for local crafts, services and infrastructure, such as accommodation. The tertiary level is indirect as it focuses on positive effects stemming from infrastructure development which will promote development of knowledge-based tourism activities such as conferences, exhibitions, meetings and incentives. (HRDC, 2014:16). Currently, this form of tourism hardly exists in Botswana. The inaugural expo dedicated to tourism, such as Indaba in South Africa or Hlanganani/Sanganai World Tourism Expo in Zimbabwe, was held in 2016 on a small scale. The new human resource development-based approach makes a crucial observation that human resource capacity in the tourism industry is low compared to other countries, thus; negatively affecting quality of service and experience. This has been mainly ascribed to poor work ethic, lack of experience, skilled and qualified labour (HRDC, 2014:26;



World Economic Forum, 2017:92). The year on year Africa competitiveness report consistently singles out poor work ethic as the most problematic factor of doing business in Botswana reflected in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1: Problematic factors for doing business in Botswana**

<b>Factor</b>	<b>Rank out of 20</b>
Poor work ethic in national force	16.2
Access to financing	13.3
Inadequately educated labour force	10.8
Inadequate supply of infrastructure	10.1
Inefficient government bureaucracy	9.5
Restrictive labour regulations	8.6
Insufficient capacity to innovate	8.1
Corruption	7.9
Crime and theft	3.8
Political instability	2.8
Inflation	2.8
Tax rates	1.9
Poor public health	1.5
Government instability/coups	1.4
Foreign currency regulations	0.7
Tax regulations	0.6

**Source: Adapted from World Economic Forum (2017:92)**

The factors ranked out of 20 portray the dominance of issues related to inadequate skills training, poor quality service delivery, government bureaucracy and restrictive labour policies (WEF, 2017:92). Musikavanhu's (2017:227) study on employee, customers and management perspectives confirms that poor service quality is a deep rooted problem in Botswana that is negatively affecting tourism and hospitality sector. Despite these comprehensive observations and intentions, the HRDC report has remained largely theoretical just like other developmental plans.

At a strategic level, the recently elapsed NDP10 section on tourism, covering the period 2009 – 2016, specifically focused on product development and diversification strategy. Part of the goals included; increasing GDP contribution of tourism from 5-12%, increasing the number of ecotourism enterprises from 5 – 10, ensuring product development and diversification, focusing on citizen entrepreneurship, and enhancing capacity building and skills development by constructing a hospitality and tourism training school (NDP10, 2008:201). Minimal success was registered during the 6-year period and the goals were carried over to NDP11, that covers the period 2017 – 2022 (NDP11, 2016:116).

The discussion reveals that, despite the rapid economic development and measures to diversify the economy, dependence on diamonds still retains a stronghold, and the same status quo applies to the tourism sector where wildlife tourism has remained dominant. Although a raft of policies, regulations and statutes were promulgated to stimulate development and diversify the tourism sector, Leechor and Fabricius (2004:7) observe that the frameworks and practices were largely developed in isolation, hence; do not fit into a focused competitive strategy that forms the foundation for unique positioning. Some policy tools that are crucial to tourism are now old and outdated; for example, the tourism policy and master plan are now 27 and 17 years old respectively. Although the tourism policy was revised in 2008, it has remained stuck at the draft stage without specific time for implementation. The 2018 policy review was based on 2008 draft revealing lack of commitment to define tourism development at policy level. In addition, the approach is supply-led, lacking specifics on how and where to diversify, excluding business tourism, and not providing benchmarks to assess level of progress. The approach is, therefore, deficient of a strong domestic and international demand orientation that is currently the dominant factor influencing tourist travel patterns and choice of products. The situation is compounded by paucity of detailed tourism statistics, especially on domestic tourism. Currently, sources of data availed by DOT are the 2006 – 2009 tourism statistics report and Accommodation Statistics of 2013. Data in the tourism report only relate to immigration, expenditure, length of stay and type of tourists (Spencely *et al.*, 2015:57; Morupisi & Mokgalo, 2017:3). Given the background of wildlife-based tourism dominancy, profusion of, at times, repetitive supply-led development plans and limited empirical research to guide diversification strategy and sectoral investment; the study intends to fill this gap by focusing on the demand side in developing a comprehensive ecotourism-based diversification framework. The next section examines how tourism is organised in Botswana.

#### **4.3 ORGANISATION OF TOURISM IN BOTSWANA**

Tourism receipts and visitors in Botswana have generally been on an upward trend, increasing from about 520 thousand in 1994 to around 1.9 million in 2017 (WTTC, 2018). The gradual increase in economic importance resulted in tourism shifting from being managed as a department to become part of an independent ministry that was established in 2002, then known as Ministry of Environment Wildlife and Tourism (MEWT). Reorganisation and expansion resulted in change of name to Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism (MENT). The key result areas of the ministry include efficiently managing policies, programmes and strategies related to the Environment, Natural Resources and Tourism under one roof. This

is achieved through sustainable utilisation of natural and cultural resources, fostering an environmentally conscious nation and building resilience to climate change. The ministry is divided into 10 units comprising 8 departments, 1 parastatal (Botswana Tourism Organisation) and 1 autonomous government agency (Forest Conservation Botswana). The 8 departments are Corporate Services, Wildlife and National Parks, Environmental affairs, Tourism, Meteorological Services, Waste Management and Pollution Control, Forestry and Range Resources and National Museum and Monuments. WTTC (2007) report observes that issues related to tourism are addressed in 4 of the units, creating challenges in tourism development as pertinent issues are difficult to coordinate, given that the 4 units have different mandates and operate independently as discussed below:

Department of Tourism (DOT) – compiles national tourism statistics in relation to receipts, arrivals, spending patterns and accommodation used. The department formulates, monitors and implements strategies that promote sustainable tourism development. Applications and approvals to operate tourism related businesses, for both local and international investors, are handled by the department.

Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) – is mandated to manage and conserve wildlife resources in partnership with local, regional and international stakeholders for the benefit of present and future generations. It promotes and facilitates sustainable utilisation of fish and wildlife resources in conjunction with private sector. At its core, is active participation of citizens.

Department of National Museums and Monuments (DNMM) –is custodian of Botswana’s cultural and natural heritage, focusing on its protection, preservation and sustainable utilisation. This is achieved through active research, conserving and exhibiting for public education and appreciation. The department is currently focusing on 100 monuments project launched to enhance the protection, conservation, and management of heritage sites such as Old Palapye, alleviating poverty through heritage tourism. This project is in line with the diversification drive focusing on ecotourism related to heritage, culture and historical sites (Mbaiwa, 2013:48)

Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) – is a parastatal that changed its name from Botswana Tourism Authority to BTO in 2009, and is responsible for product development, promoting investment, grading tourist facilities, and marketing the country as a destination to local, regional and international travellers.

The operation of units as separate entities has compounded problems of responsibility, as issues can be thrown from unit to unit without any solution being achieved. Some departments like DNMM focus most on preservation although most of the sites under their custody could be actively used for tourism purposes. WTTC (2007:6) notes that the institutional structure is too complex and bureaucratic since it can require up to 15 different government authorisations to set up and operate a tourism related business. This is a huge drawback to diversification and development efforts by both local and international investors since approval process can be long and tedious. Progress has been slow in setting up BTO as a one stop shop for tourism investors.

There are many private sector organisations representing tourism interests in Botswana such as Kalahari Conservation Society, Birdlife Botswana however the most visible and dominant is Hotel and Tourism Association of Botswana (HATAB) which represents about 50% of regulated tourism businesses. More than 70% of tourism enterprises in Botswana are privately owned; hence, HATAB focuses on marketing, product development and diversification, conservation issues and specific needs of its members such as manpower and training. Public sector organisations focus more on regulation and investment promotion. The country prides itself as an ecotourism destination, and the following section examines the status of ecotourism development.

#### **4.4 ECOTOURISM IN BOTSWANA**

The ecotourism sector in Botswana is based on several comprehensive policies and legislative frameworks for tourism development. However, effective implementation has consistently been a major challenge (Mbaiwa, 2015; Spenceley *et al.*, 2015). The development of ecotourism has been particularly affected by the following legal instruments; Wildlife Conservation Policy (1986), Tourism Policy (1990), National Conservation Policy (1990), Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act (1992), National Ecotourism Strategy (2002) and Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) Policy (2007). All these policies, Acts and Strategies regulate the utilisation of wildlife and natural resources and call for increased opportunities and participation of local communities to benefit from them through tourism development (Twyman, 2001; Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:66; Mbaiwa, 2015:214).

Ecotourism development in Botswana can be broadly classified into public and private sector. Development and management of public sector ecotourism is generally regarded as being in its infancy, and largely based on CBNRM model; whereas private sector ecotourism is relatively well developed, highly organised and coordinated as evidenced by Botswana being voted the best

ecotourism destination in 2010, Wilderness Safari, and winning twice the Tomorrow Tourism Award.

Ecotourism development in the public sector is predominantly based on The Wildlife Conservation Policy (1986) that subsequently led to creation of CBNRM model in the 1990s; aimed to alleviate poverty and conserve natural resources by strengthening rural communities and empowering them to manage their resources (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:65; Mbaiwa, 2008, 2015; Moswete & Thapa, 2015:4). The Wildlife Conservation Policy (1986) is important in that, it led to the setting up of Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) in most districts to promote wildlife management as primary land use, and safeguard national parks and game reserves, by functioning as buffer zones between the protected areas and communal areas. The WMAs adjacent to national parks and game reserves are divided into 163 rezoned smaller units termed Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs). The CHAs are numbered in such a way that they bear district reference. For example, CH3 for Chobe, KD4 for Kgalagadi and NG5 for Ngamiland (Perry & Campbell, 1990:65; Twyman, 2001; Arntzen, 2003; Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:65; Barnett & Patterson, 2005:8; Mbaiwa, 2015:214). Communities in CHAs located within or nearby WMAs established CBNRM projects that enabled them to lease part of their land to safari companies that engaged in either consumptive or non-consumptive tourism (Twyman, 2001; Arntzen, 2003; Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:65). The Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act (1992) allowed DWNP to issue permits for commercial exploitation of wildlife with the revenue from hunting fees being directed to local communities. Artzen (2003) notes that income generated from the hunting fees and distributed to various CBNRM projects amounted to P64 million in 2001. In line with ecotourism principles, supposed decline of wildlife species and other factors, the government of Botswana banned commercial hunting in January 2014, restricting it to privately owned concessions with stringent conditions. This generated intense debate on the impact of the ban, and stimulated interest in developing alternative forms of tourism (Centre for Applied Research, 2016). Given the controversy stirred by the ban, especially in relation to an upsurge in poaching, loss in income for marginal communities and increase in human – wildlife conflict, the government instituted a two-month countrywide consultative process to review the ban (Somerville, 2018:12). These consultations resulted in the official lifting of the 2014 hunting moratorium covering all species on Schedule 7 which included elephant, buffalo, leopard, large antelopes such as eland, kudu, and zebra, by the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism in May 2019 (Hunting Africa, 2019:6). It is important to note that both processes (banning and lifting it) at times generated emotional controversy and debate necessitating more empirical studies in this area.

From the discussion, CBNRM projects are largely wildlife based despite the 2007 policy review that expanded the scope of activities to include veld products, historic sites, landscapes and other natural resources (Mbaiwa, 2013; Centre for Applied Research, 2016:8).

To effectively implement and manage CBNRM projects, Community Based Organisation (CBOs), also known as Community Trusts (CTs), were established in the CHAs. The terms CBO and CT are used interchangeably in this study. The CBNRM concept encompasses many types of resources. However, the context of the study restricts the meaning to ecotourism activities. Mbaiwa (2015:210) notes that for communities to engage and benefit from resources, it is mandatory for them to form CTs. The CTs that are entirely based on ecotourism activities are commonly referred to as Community Based Ecotourism (CBE) in tourism literature. The ecotourism activities are defined using the 2002 Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy guidelines. CBOs in Botswana come in three types:

- those composed of one village
- those composed of more than one village
- individuals who form an association.

The operations of CBOs are guided by constitutions that elaborate membership, duties of the trust, powers of the board, resource usage, governance and sanctions of the trust (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:69; Mbaiwa, 2015:210). Membership is open, for example, to all people over 18 years, having resided in the village for over 5 years. The Board of Trustees is the focal point of CBOs since it handles all business issues related to ecotourism development such as permit application, processing of legal documents, financials, regulations and distribution of benefits. In most trusts, the board is composed of 10 elected members who also act as intermediaries between local community and interested parties; government, private sector and non-governmental organisations (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:69; Mbaiwa, 2015:211).

The number of registered CBOs has steadily increased from 45 in 2000 to around 105 in 2012 (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:69; Mbaiwa, 2015:210; Moswete & Lacey, 2015). The latest CBNRM review for 2015/16 period reveals an increase to 147. However, only 53 are active (Centre for Applied Research, 2016:13). Table 4.2 below shows the 2003 – 2016 statistical trends of CBOs in Botswana.

**Table 4.2: Community Based Organisation trends in Botswana**

	2003	2006	2009	2012	2015/16
<b>Active</b>	26	26	31	33	53
<b>Registered</b>	67	67	79	80	94
<b>Not registered</b>	16	16	16	16	16
<b>Not indicated</b>	0	13	10	10	37
<b>Total</b>	83	96	105	106	147

**Source: Centre for Applied Research (2016:13)**

An analysis of the trends revealed that more than 90% of functional CTs rely on tourism related activities. The development of ecotourism in the community is strongly linked to partnership agreements between private sector and CBOs. Mbaiwa (2013:42) notes that CBOs were guided by two joint venture models crafted by DWNP (1999), namely;

- i) Joint venture agreements – agreement between a private sector company and CBO that excludes merging of assets (DWNP, 1999:12), and
- ii) Joint venture partnerships – involves merging of assets between the parties (DWNP, 1999:13).

Due to limited technical know-how and financial expertise, most CBOs opted for first model characterised by the private company just paying annual fees for the lease. There was no transfer of skills and expertise, resulting in minimal ecotourism development. Prior to hunting ban, CBOs sold their hunting quotas to safari companies that, in most cases, negotiated in bad faith resulting in low payouts. Given this background, BTO in 2009 developed a new model for joint venture partnerships to foster diversification of ecotourism and increase CBO earnings. The model enabled BTO to negotiate on behalf of CBO, ensuring that maximum benefits would accrue to the community. As a starting point, BTO adopted 7 CBOs across the country with the primary aim of diversifying ecotourism and enhancing benefits (Mbaiwa, 2013:44; Centre for Applied Research, 2016:9). The seven are; Seboba Nature and Recreational Park, Moremi Gorge Project, Nata Sanctuary Project, Tsabong Pilot Camel Project, Lepokole Hills Project, Gcwihaba Caves Project and Tsodilo Hills Project. Although the project commenced in 2009, no study has been conducted to evaluate demand side of BTO partnership programmes in diversifying ecotourism products. Available information exists in the form of grey literature from online publications and newspaper articles. Although encompassing different types of products, the CBNRM programme lays the basis of ecotourism development in communal areas. As highlighted earlier, ecotourism is highly developed in the private sector, and so is appropriately discussed in the section on tourism products. The next section discusses certification of ecotourism in Botswana.

#### **4.4.1 Ecotourism certification in Botswana**

The country brands itself as an ecotourism destination; hence, conservation and sustainability are given top priority in planning and development. It is in this vein that Botswana is part of countries such as Australia, Costa Rica and Sweden that have come up with a comprehensive certification system for ecotourism to regulate development and combat greenwashing (Koens *et al.*, 2009; Haaland & Øystein, 2010; Kleszczynski, 2016:30). The Botswana Ecotourism Certification System (BECS) adopted in 2010 was developed based on the National Ecotourism strategy to ensure that establishments provide superior eco-friendly products to tourists (BTO, 2009; Mbaiwa *et al.*, 2011:262).

The system uses a three-tiered structure (levels); Green, Green+ and Ecotourism, that is designed to cover the entire range of tourism operators whilst distinguishing an urban facility from a true ecotourism product in a pristine natural environment. The three-tiered structure promotes progress and is designed to encourage operators to improve their performance towards achievement of the next higher level. The certification, with about 240 performance standards for environmental responsibility, considers achievements in the areas of nature conservation, environment management, involvement with local communities, and interpretation of the environment to the visitor (BTO, 2009).

Based on these factors, standards are classified into two broad groups:

- i) Accommodation standards – apply to all fixed accommodation facilities.
- ii) Eco-tour standards – apply to non-fixed tourism operations that provide guide tours or use the services of another company to provide guided tours in wilderness areas (Mbaiwa, *et al.*, 2011:266).

The certification process is conducted by Quality Services committee (QSC), a department within BTO. Applications for assessment are voluntary and organisations are expected to publicly display the BECS logo and use it for marketing. Currently, there are about 20 certified private operators out of about 45 that have applied for assessment, mainly due to voluminous paperwork and associated high cost. The BECS certification has also been criticised for focusing entirely on nature-based enterprises (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015:62). Certification systems are widely used in countries such as Australia, Sweden, Costa Rica and New Zealand that prioritise ecotourism. Costa Rica, often regarded as a “poster child” of ecotourism, is guided by one of the first and most rigorous Certification System for Sustainable Tourism (CST) promoting vibrant local participation and sustainability (Honey, 2008; Koens *et al.*, 2009:1233; Hunt *et al.*, 2015:340; Kleszczynski, 2016:24). The importance of ecotourism is reflected by the country having the largest percentage



of protected areas in the world relative to her size. The certification system uses a 5–leaves grading system determined by a 4-levels sustainability index, namely; interaction between business and biological elements, business infrastructure and management, involvement of guests in sustainability practices and company interaction with the community (Kleszcynski, 2016:25). Tourism enterprises are evaluated at each level with strong emphasis on local interaction. There are more than 226 certified hotels that can use the system for marketing purposes. Just like BECS, CST is characterised by exorbitant cost and intense paper work. This confines impact on improving quality of ecotourism products to private companies. Although usage of certification system is a noble idea, there is lack of demand side empirical research to determine compliance with guidelines, selection of destination, and type of activities (Mbaiwa, *et al.*, 2011:266). As observed earlier, private sector ecotourism is highly organised and is discussed in the next section on tourism products in Botswana.

#### **4.5 TOURISM PRODUCTS IN BOTSWANA**

Diversification in tourism requires detailed understanding of the core product, co-creation process and other product components such as accessibility, accommodation, transport, customer segments and attractions. Endeavours to systematically analyse tourism supply elements such as quality of development, services and experience provided by destinations culminated in the development of the ‘A’s framework (Buhalis, 2000; Zabkar *et al.*, 2010; Morrison, 2013; Lee & King, 2016; Cooper *et al.*, 2017). The idea of destination attributes can be traced to Jafari’s (1982) 3 main types of destination features, namely; tourism-oriented products, resident-oriented products and background tourism elements. These were subsequently modified by Cooper *et al.* (1983) who identified 4 fundamental attributes that complement each other; Attractions, Access, Amenities and Ancillary services (Zabkar *et al.*, 2010:538; Lee & King, 2016:3). The factors were perfected and widened to 6 ‘A’s by Buhalis (200:6) to include Activities and Available packages as key features of the destination. Morrison (2013) remodelled and expanded them to 10 ‘A’s; Awareness, Availability, Attractiveness, Access, Assurance, Appreciation, Appearance, Activities, Accountability and Action. According to Lee and King (2016:4), usage and application in Morrison’s 10 ‘A’s has generally been limited due lack of rigorous empirical testing that constrained implementation. The study adopted the 6 A’s framework to evaluate tourism products in Botswana. It is vital to note that due to technological improvements and tourists being increasingly involved in co-creation, interlinkages among the attributes have greatly increased, such that one by one, analysis of the factors is difficult, hence the combined evaluation.

#### 4.5.1 Attractions as part of tourism product

The tourism industry is dominated by national parks and game reserves which cover 17.5% of the country. An additional 22% of land adjacent to national parks and game reserves is designated as Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs). The WMAs are divided into smaller Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs), set aside for conservation, wildlife utilisation in the form of concession areas and community-based activities, mainly related to tourism. Table 4.3 details land categories in Botswana.

**Table 4.3: Botswana Land categories and area related to Tourism**

<b>Land Tenure Category</b>	<b>Land area (km<sup>2</sup>)</b>	<b>Percentage (%) of country</b>
Communal Land	318 997	54.8
Freehold Land	19 429	3.4
<b>State Land</b>		
National Parks	45 900	7.9
Game reserves	60 558	10.4
Forest reserves	4 555	0.8
WMAs	128 574	22.1
Botswana Livestock Development (BLDC) Quarantine	3 717	0.7
<b>Total</b>	<b>581 730</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source: Barnett & Patterson, 2005:7**

The high percentage of land for wildlife purposes as shown in the table makes Botswana one of the countries with highest proportion of land reserved for conservation, parks and game reserves (Twyman, 2001; Arntzen, 2003; Maude & Reading, 2010; Mbaiwa, 2018:52). The nature of ownership for national parks and game reserves is shown in Table 4.4.

**Table 4.4: Ownership and location of major national parks and game reserves**

<b>Government owned national parks and game reserves</b>	
<b>Name</b>	<b>Location</b>
Chobe National Park	Kasane
Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	Tsabong
Makgadikgadi Pans National Park	Boteti
Nxai Pans National Park	Boteti
Khutse Game Reserve	Molepolole
Central Kalahari Game Reserve	Ghanzi
Moremi Game Reserve	Okavango Delta
<b>Educational Game reserves</b>	
Gaborone Game Reserve	Gaborone
Manyelanong Bird sanctuary	Otse
Maun Educational Park	Maun (currently closed)
Francistown Game Reserve	Francistown (not yet in use)
<b>Privately owned game reserves</b>	
Mokolodi Nature Reserve	Gaborone
Nata Bird Sanctuary	Nata
Jwana Game Reserve	Jwaneng
Orapa Game Reserve	Orapa
Mokolodi Nature Reserve	Gaborone
Mashatu Game Reserve	Tuli Block
<b>Community owned game reserve</b>	
Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust	Paje

**Source: Botswana Tourism Organisation (2015)**

The country has few privately-owned game reserves due to the nature of land ownership and its allocation for tourism purposes. As noted earlier, the country is divided into WMAs, which are further subdivided into 163 CHAs, mostly operating as concessions (or commercial lease-able units) that are named according to districts (Mbaiwa, Ngwenya & Kgathi, 2008:164; Mbaiwa, 2018). Local authorities, with guidance from Ministry of Wildlife, Environment and Tourism, enter into renewable 15-year lease agreements with private companies and, at times CBOs, to operate designated tourism activities in the concession areas. The lease agreements can also be in form of joint operations between private companies and CBOs. The management structure of concession areas is therefore, multi-sectoral; encompassing central government departments and parastatals such as DWNP and BTO respectively, district authorities (Land Boards), private (commercial) sector and at times CBOs. Considering this background, tourism activities in the northern districts are dominated by many private commercial tour and safari companies operating in concessions based on 15-year lease agreements. Figure 4.1 shows the spatial location of major parks and game reserves.



The northern region (Ngamiland and Chobe) concession areas, parks and reserves; Chobe (composed of Serondela or Chobe river front, Savuti Marsh, Linyanti Swamps and Nogatsaa - the hot, dry central hinterlands) and Moremi respectively, account for more than 80% of tourists visiting, mainly for wildlife related ecotourism products. The Okavango Delta, mostly referred to as “Jewel of the Kalahari” covering up to 15 000 km<sup>2</sup>, was officially granted World Heritage Site status on 22 June 2014 and is also recognised as a Ramsar Site under the International Union for Conservation of Nature (IUCN) (BTO, 2016; 2017b). Moremi Game Reserve, entirely situated within the delta, is host to most ecotourism activities. Given that the country brands itself as an ecotourism destination, the next section discusses the nature of ecotourism product in the core regions.

#### **4.5.2 Ecotourism products in Ngamiland and Chobe - Kasane region**

Literature reveals that parks, reserves and concession areas in the Ngamiland – Chobe region are the most developed in terms of ecotourism infrastructure, quality of product, service and experience. However, these characteristics deteriorate rapidly outside this region, hence the enclavic status (Mbaiwa, 2005b, 2015; Spenceley *et al.*, 2015:56). According to HATAB (2016:38), compilation of tourism and hospitality facilities, the main ecotourism hub of Ngamiland and Chobe has a combined total of about 130 camp sites and lodges operated by different private companies of which almost half are located within the concession areas of Okavango Delta. Discover Africa (2018) observes that activities offered by private operators largely operating in concessions have distinct advantages over public operations. Private tour and safari operators have strict limitations on the number of ecotourists; hence, prior booking is mandatory. Therefore, the quality of experience is superior due to limited number of vehicles, enabling off-road drive to view game at close range. Unlike public parks, there are fewer restrictions as walking safaris are permitted and there are no stipulated opening and closing times, paving the way for night game driving that has its own unique challenges and experiences (Discover Africa, 2018). Despite the exceptional standards, concentration of multiple activities has resulted in many impact studies that have consistently documented problems of overcrowding, human wildlife conflict, and pollution (litter, sewage disposal, oil from boats), especially during peak periods (Mbaiwa, 2005b:163).

As noted earlier, the camps and lodges are diverse in terms of size and service quality, and there are common characteristics, namely; dominance of expatriate private ownership up to around 80%, expensive and generally similar wildlife-based ecotourism products (Mbaiwa, 2015; Stone *et al.*, 2017:59). The packaging of the products vary from company to company, revolving around largely similar activities like mobile safaris, animal trailing, boat cruise, interpretation of flora and fauna, scuba diving, bird watching, quad biking, kayaking, guided walking, mokoro trips, game drives, horseback safaris, air/ground photography, fly fishing and hunting in licensed concessions (Hatab, 2016; Lonardi, 2016; BTO, 2017; Letaka safaris, 2017; African budget safaris, 2018; Gondwana Tour and Safari, 2018; The Old Bridge Tours and Safaris, 2018). For purposes of analysis, the ecotourism products offered by the private sector were classified as shown in Table 4.5.

**Table 4.5: Private operators generic Ecotourism packages**

Type	Category	Activities	Accommodation	Average Duration	Average Cost US\$
Photographic	Wildlife Nature	Game drives focusing on taking photographs of animals, landscape and water. Specialist safari focus on training to capture animal behaviour; fighting, feeding, hunting and birds in flight. Can involve flight by helicopter or small planes at additional costs.	Camp/lodge	4 – 6 days	5500
Walking	Wildlife	Guided walks with experts focusing on tracking wildlife, learning about vegetation, understanding behaviour of wild animals. At times combined with mokoro (traditional dug-out canoe) rides. Can involve locals and San.	Camp/lodge	4 – 6 days	4000
Family	wildlife	Game drives with specialist guides focusing on educating and entertaining children. Can be combined with mokoro safaris. Offered by a limited number of lodges.	Camp/lodge	4 – 6 days	14 250 – 20 650
Mobile (Guided/self-drive)	Wildlife adventure	Moving from place to place utilizing private campsites in national parks and game reserves. Itinerary can include crossing to Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe. Combines game drives and other activities.	Camp/lodge	5 – 14 days	1 600 – 5 000
Riding (Horse)	Wildlife adventure	Horse riding introduced in 1986 and restricted to experienced riders not exceeding the weight restrictions. Ride and walk combined with mokoro, swimming and walking.	Camp/lodge	4 – 6 days	4 600
Balloon	Wildlife adventure	Scenic views of delta for stipulated time. Air photography. Can be combined with air game drive, kayaking, mokoro and walking safaris.	Camp/lodge	4 – 6 days	5800
Boat cruise	Wildlife adventure	Wildlife and scenic viewing for a stipulated time frame. Can be combined with walking, photographic and riding safari. Fly fishing (catch and release). Budget 3-hour cruise also available on daily basis.	House-boat/Camp/lodge	3 – 6 days	6000
Diving	Adventure	Scuba diving interacting with Nile crocodiles, Underwater photography. Can include nature walks, game drives and kayaking.	Camp/lodge	3 – 6 days	12 000 – 18 000

**Sources: Hatab (2016); Lonardi (2016); Letaka safaris (2017); African budget safaris (2018); Big Fish Expeditions (2018); Bookmundi (2018); Responsible Travel (2018); Siyabona Africa (2018); Wotif (2018)**

The packages in the table are generic, reflecting the prevalent types of products that individual operators use to come up with their own unique package names and combinations in line with market trends. Mobile safaris for example, are offered by more than 60 HATAB affiliated operators coming in four broad classes (luxury, comfortable, budget and participation) determined by consumer preference and financial resources (HATAB, 2016). A specific example of operator, Letaka safaris, offers the following packages; Blooming desert, Delta explorer, Miracle rivers and Nördliche Höhepunkte for German speaking tourists (Letaka safaris, 2017). Despite the distinctive package names, composition and itineraries, wildlife is the focal point of all the activities. The desktop analysis of package structures across different operators reveals minimal interaction with locals and limited activities related to cultural ecotourism; hence, the need for comprehensive empirical investigation to determine demand for such eco-products.

In Botswana, the HATAB (2016) compilation reveals that ecolodges range from 3 to 5-star and a few cater for families. Girling *et al.*'s (2015) study indicates that the ecolodges focus on quality ecotourism experience and 15 camps and lodges have been eco-certified, with 13 attaining the highest level of "Eco" status since inception of BECS in 2010. The camps and lodges strive to adhere to best practices in pursuit of maintaining the highest status that can be used as a strong marketing point. Chobe Game Lodge is at the forefront and now uses solar powered boat, silent electric safari, biogas for heating and cooking, and recycling water. These developments have increased the cost of staying in these lodges. It is important to note that no empirical study has been carried out on how tourists perceive adherence to ecotourism status, which has an important bearing on drive towards product diversification. The next section examines ecotourism products located in other parts of the country.

#### **4.5.3 Ecotourism products in other parts of Botswana**

National parks and game reserves in other parts of Botswana, either government or private owned, are characterised by a narrow product range concentrating mainly on game drives and walking safari, accounting for about 20% of tourists. The Central Kalahari Game reserve, established in 1961, is the largest and most remote in southern Africa (BTO, 2017c). Due to sandy terrain that makes access a challenge, tourism activities are very low and only organised tours and self-drive trips restricted to four-wheel drive vehicles with high clearance are allowed. The low visitation also resulted from controversy surrounding relocation of the San who have historically inhabited the area and living without influence from outside world, as well as the closure of the park for about 30 years, only reopening in the 1990s (Sapignoli & Hitchcock, 2015). The government planned to divert tourism activities from Chobe and Okavango region through



offering concessions for lodge development within, and at the periphery of the reserve. The plan has received minimal uptake such that the reserve has remained very remote. Access is limited to a small number of self-drive trips as compared to the northern region (BTO, 2017c).

Botswana is part of three Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCA), namely; Kgalagadi, Kavango-Zambezi (KAZA) and Greater Mapungubwe located in south west, north east and south east respectively. The Kgalagadi TFCA, officially opened in 2002, is a result of merging South Africa's Kalahari Gemsbok National Park and Botswana's Gemsbok National Park to create 37 000 km<sup>2</sup> of completely unfenced, protected area to enable unhindered movement of wildlife along traditional migration routes vital for survival in arid conditions. It is Africa's first TFCA and the only one with free tourist movement across national border lines (BTO, 2017a). Due to remote location and largely sandy terrain, access is restricted to only 4-wheel drive vehicles with large clearance for wilderness drives (BTO, 2017a). Although three quarters of the park is in Botswana, most of the tourists are from South African side where access is easier and amenities more developed. The KAZA TFCA incorporating Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe is still at inception stage. Once fully operational, it will be the world largest TFCA at approximately 520 000 km<sup>2</sup> encompassing 36 protected areas, game reserves, 36 national parks and community conservancies (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015:19). Greater Mapungubwe, formerly known as Limpopo-Shashe is a cultural TFCA spanning three countries; South Africa (53%), Botswana (28%) and Zimbabwe (19%). Currently, the park is in its infancy, with a memorandum of understanding signed amongst the countries. However, when fully developed it will cover 5 909 km<sup>2</sup> (Peace parks foundation, 2018). In addition to wildlife-based tourism, the park is endowed with products critical for diversification, namely; dramatic landscapes, as well as cultural and historical sites where archaeological discoveries in 2012 point to over 1 500 years of human habitation. There are also rock paintings and relics of ancient trade with Egypt, Arabia and India. (Peace parks foundation, 2018; Wilderness Safaris, 2018). The annual 4-day Nedbank Tour de Tuli cycling challenge is now a major adventure activity drawing worldwide participants. Traversing the three countries for more 300km, the race is organised by Wilderness Safaris to raise funds for Children in a Wilderness programme aimed at developing future leaders who are fully environmental conscious and possessing requisite life skills (Wilderness Safaris, 2018). Given the increasingly popular cycling adventure and rich cultural heritage, the TFCA potential to diversify the ecotourism product is very strong.

Amongst the privately-owned game reserves, only two; Mokolodi and Mashatu, are moderately developed and attract a significant number of tourists. The same kind of product as in the northern parts are offered; mainly game drives, guided walking safaris, photography and animal tracking. Mashatu Game Reserve is unique in that it is the only designated game reserve where night game drives are permitted (BTO, 2017a). Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust is the only community owned game reserve that has proved to be very successful through its intense and primary focus on protecting the highly endangered black and white rhino.

#### 4.5.4 Community Based Ecotourism products

Apart from wildlife-based activities in national parks and game reserves, the other tourism products in the country are largely related to culture and operated in most cases by CTs that struggle to provide professional and high-quality service; hence, the low tourist volumes. The tourism products as shown in Table 4.6 are dominated by cultural activities, adventure and heritage.

**Table 4.6: Tourism products - CBO culture and heritage**

Type	Activities	Location
Cultural villages	Artefacts, traditional dancing, storytelling, crafts, traditional games, indigenous food, traditional lifestyle	Bahurutse, Sexaxa, Shandrika cultural tourism centre
Cultural festivals	Celebrating local culture and food stuff.	Domboshaba, Kuru Dance festival Dithubaruba, Letlafula
Events: adventure, Sports	Motor racing, quad bikes, air show, 1000km Toyota desert race, Khawa Dune challenge, Y-care walks, Makgadikgadi epic	Jwaneng, Khawa, Makgadikgadi, Moremi gorge
Heritage	Rock paintings, historical buildings, ancient dwellings	Manyana, Tsodilo hills, Gcwihaba Caves, Old Palapye, Three chiefs' monument
Mixed	Photographic, game drives, handicrafts, mokoro safaris, basket making, camp sites	CTs adjacent to Okavango Delta, Parks and game reserves in Kasane and Chobe

**Source: Mbaiwa (2013); BTO (2015); Centre for Applied Research (2016)**

The destinations generally have free access or very low entry charges as compared to the wildlife product in the Okavango Delta region due to limited development in infrastructure, product quality and service. This is attributed to the fact that private sector involvement or ownership is very minimal. With exception of products in the events category, more than 96% of the sites operate

as ecotourism-based CBOs supported by BTO, non-governmental organisations or joint ventures with private companies (Centre for Applied Research, 2016).

The Tsodilo hills located in the north-western corner of the country are part of the CTs adopted for the pilot BTO program to promote cultural ecotourism. The hills, declared as the country's second heritage site in 2002, are renowned for rock paintings dating from stone age to as late as the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Archaeological dating records non-continuous human habitation for the past 100 000 years (BTO, 2015).

Despite the cultural significance, financial support from Diamond trust, and BTO adoption; geographical distance from main urban areas, remote location and subdued publicity have restricted tourist visitation. It is only in 2016 that meaningful upgrading of the road commenced (Mbaiwa, 2013:15; BTO, 2015; Spenceley *et al.*, 2015).

The periodic review of CBNRM programmes reveal that Okavango Delta, Kasane and Chobe regions are home to more than 70% of viable tourism oriented CTs benefitting from proximity to the wildlife and natural resources, notable one being Okavango Community Trust, Chobe Enclave Conservation Trust, Sankoyo Tshwaragano Management Trust, Okavango Polers Trust, Kwai Development Trust and Mababe Community Trust (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005; Mbaiwa, 2013; Centre for Applied Research, 2016). Prior to the 2014 hunting ban, nearly all CTs endowed with wildlife resources, especially “the big five”, leased their concessions to private safari operators for trophy hunting which, by then, was considered an ecotourism activity on the basis that most of the revenue generated from the sales was channelled towards community development. Current tourism products on offer, albeit at subdued level in comparison to private operators, are photographic tourism, handicrafts, cultural villages, mokoro safaris, harvesting of grass and reeds for sale and basket making. The lack of significant CBE development stems from lack of effective marketing, minimal entrepreneurial skills, limited capital, misappropriation of funds and poorly negotiated joint ventures that benefit the private company more than the community (Mbaiwa, 2013, 2015; Centre for Applied Research, 2016; Stone *et al.*, 2017:65). Although some of the CTs have websites, internet research found that most were down or had obsolete information dating up to ten years ago, making it difficult to get information about contemporary or potential products. This is in direct contrast to well-resourced private operators' websites that beam with current information on pricing, existing products and itineraries.

Despite the myriad problems and associated low level growth, there are few CTs that operate cultural villages, lodges, campsites and photographic tourism ventures, whose facilities and

service matches those offered by private operators (Mbaiwa, 2013:45, 2015:211). The Sankoyo Tshwaragano Community Trust, legally registered in 1995, has exclusive user rights over two concessions in Ngamiland, NG33 and NG34, occupying 6 000 hectares and 87 000 hectares respectively. The Trust owns the 16-bed Santawani safari lodge, Kazikini campsite, and operates, at a small scale, Shanderika Cultural Village. The village provides interpretative nature walks and portrays Bayeyi ethnic group way of life through traditional dances, wood carving techniques, traditional doctor demonstrations, curios, basket weaving, ancient grain storage methods, and hunting practices. To stay abreast of contemporary trends, the village closed for renovations in September 2016 and reopened in April 2017. Guided by BTO model of joint venture partnership, the Chobe Enclave Conservation Trust and Ngoma Management Company offer non-consumptive tourism products in CH1 and CH2 concession areas. The joint venture comprises 4-star, 16-bed Ngoma Safari Lodge offering products that include game drives, bird watching and boat cruise (Mbaiwa, 2013:45; BTO, 2017d). Other CTs with relatively successful joint venture partnerships include Khwai Development Trust, Okavango Community Trust and Okavango Kopano Mokoro Community Trust. The pattern of joint venture partnerships clearly shows that they thrive in concession areas with abundant wildlife and strong ecotourism potential. Despite the notable milestones in northern Botswana, ecotourism products and development are limited in other parts of the country (Kgathi & Ngwenya, 2005:68; Mbaiwa, 2008; Moswete & Lacey, 2015).

An analysis of CBE for the past 30 years in the Okavango Delta, reveals some encouraging results for well managed CTs as evidenced by reduction of rural poverty, collective conservation of resources, positive change of attitudes towards tourism, and promotion of biodiversity. The Khwai CT provided scholarships, built houses for the elderly, and installed running water for the communities; whilst Khama Rhino Trust built community chiefs court and provided complete set of uniforms for a primary school in Paje (Mbaiwa, 2013:18; Centre for Applied Research, 2016:33). A similar study in Costa Rica also established tangible benefits derived by communities such as doubling of local employment, and increased access to health, education and conservation (Hunt *et al.*, 2015:352).

Despite CBE in the Delta region being largely based on cultural and heritage resources that provide avenues for related diversification, research has consistently focused on other areas like livelihood impacts and management aspects such as governance and marketing (Mbaiwa, 2015; Moswete & Lacey, 2015:599). It is on this premise that the study fills the gap by focusing on empirical research to determine tourist demand for ecotourism products and services related to

culture, heritage and adventure, that will form the basis for diversification. The identified eco-cultural and related products are used to develop a questionnaire. As indicated in cited demand-based studies on ecotourism, such as Botha *et al.* (2016), Saayman *et al.* (2017) and Kruger *et al.* (2017b), findings are critical in determining what, where and how to diversify. The next section focuses on minor tourism products in Botswana.

#### 4.5.5 Minor tourism products

The impact of other forms of tourism not related to wildlife is very minimal. It is important to note that, although wildlife accounts for about 80% of tourism, no study has been carried out to establish the specific contribution of the other forms. Spenceley *et al.* (2015) point out that urban tourism hardly exists in Botswana, with the capital city Gaborone serving mainly as a business and administrative centre. According to Dewah (2014), Gaborone has strong potential to be a major tourism centre in the southern part, especially as evidenced by Table 4.7 listing current tourism activities in the city and surrounding areas.

**Table 4.7: Tourism activities in Gaborone and surrounding areas**

Location/Type	Category	Activities
Gaborone dam	recreation	Sailing, rowing, obstacle courses, fishing
Gaborone Game Reserve	Wildlife/Recreation	Game drive, picnicking, nature walks
National Museum	Cultural/historical	Interpretation, Historical and archaeological collection of Botswana, guided tours
Botanical Garden	Cultural	Interpreting indigenous plants, sightseeing,
Lion Park	Recreation/wildlife	Wildlife viewing, amusement park (roller coaster, water slides, ferris wheel), camping
Mokolodi Game reserve	Wildlife/Education	Game drives, nature walks, animal trekking, conservation workshops, camping, cycling, conferencing
Kgale hill	Adventure	Hiking, fitness programmes, panoramic views
Botswana Craft	Cultural	Craft centre (basketry, pottery, carpentry) Promotion of indigenous food (Letlafula festival), traditional music
Thapong Arts centre	Cultural	Art exhibition (painting, ceramics, sculpture, drawing), fashion shows, Curios and souvenirs
Birdlife Botswana	Wildlife	Birding and interpretation

Three Dikgosi Monument	Cultural	Cultural and heritage interpretation
Hotels	MICE	Conferences, events
Malls	Shopping	Fashion shows, music festivals, shopping
Diacore Gaborone Marathon	Sport	Annual 42.2km marathon, 21.2km half marathon, 10km race and 4km fun race for the whole family. Event attracts more than 6 000 participants across the world.

**Sources: Dewah (2014); Africa business (2018); Diacore Gaborone Marathon (2018)**

Despite abundance of tourism related activities, it is sad to note that most of them generally operate at very subdued levels, and the city does not have a concrete drive or coherent strategy to market and develop tourism in its planning. Currently, museum and art gallery renovations that commenced in 2016 are still incomplete, whilst the Botanical garden is not marketed at all.

Over the years, some annual events such as Toyota 1000km desert race, Khawa dune challenge (motor and quad bikes racing), Makgadikgadi epic (sky diving and quad bikes), Y-Care fitness walks for charity, and “Letlafula” indigenous food festival, are gaining popularity and recognition, especially from domestic visitors (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015:22). The Toyota 1 000km desert race, whose name is derived from the largest sponsor, Toyota South Africa, is now one of Botswana’s major annual sporting event. The race was first held in 1975, changing location to South Africa between 1981 and 1990, and returning to Botswana in 1991. The race has been steadily gaining stature and significance, such that in 2012, it was accredited as a feeder race to the world-renowned Dakar Rally. It was anticipated that accreditation will generate increased local and international interest in the race as winners are guaranteed automatic qualification (BTO, 2016b; Toyota, 2012).

The high cost of participation and limited publicity of sporting and adventure events in Botswana, especially the desert race, Makgadikgadi Epic and Khawa Dune Challenge has led to limited growth of international participants and spectators (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015:22). Even though the race is now in its 26<sup>th</sup> year, Botswana has struggled to effectively market it as reflected by continued dominance of international participants from South Africa accounting for more than 90% participants.

Although the country possesses attractions and activities that offer potential for diversification, there is a consistent demand perspective gap that provides insights into service provision,

perception and satisfaction critical for diversification to be successful. The spatial location of some ecotourism products in various stages of development is portrayed in Figure 4.2. It is important to note that due to challenges of scale, all the relevant sites cannot be shown on the map. Tourism, as noted in literature review, is shifting from service to experience-oriented economy, where tourist expectations are now high, especially in terms of service delivery and products offered (Wang, 2016). Knowledge of these trends therefore, becomes very critical in shaping the process of diversification.

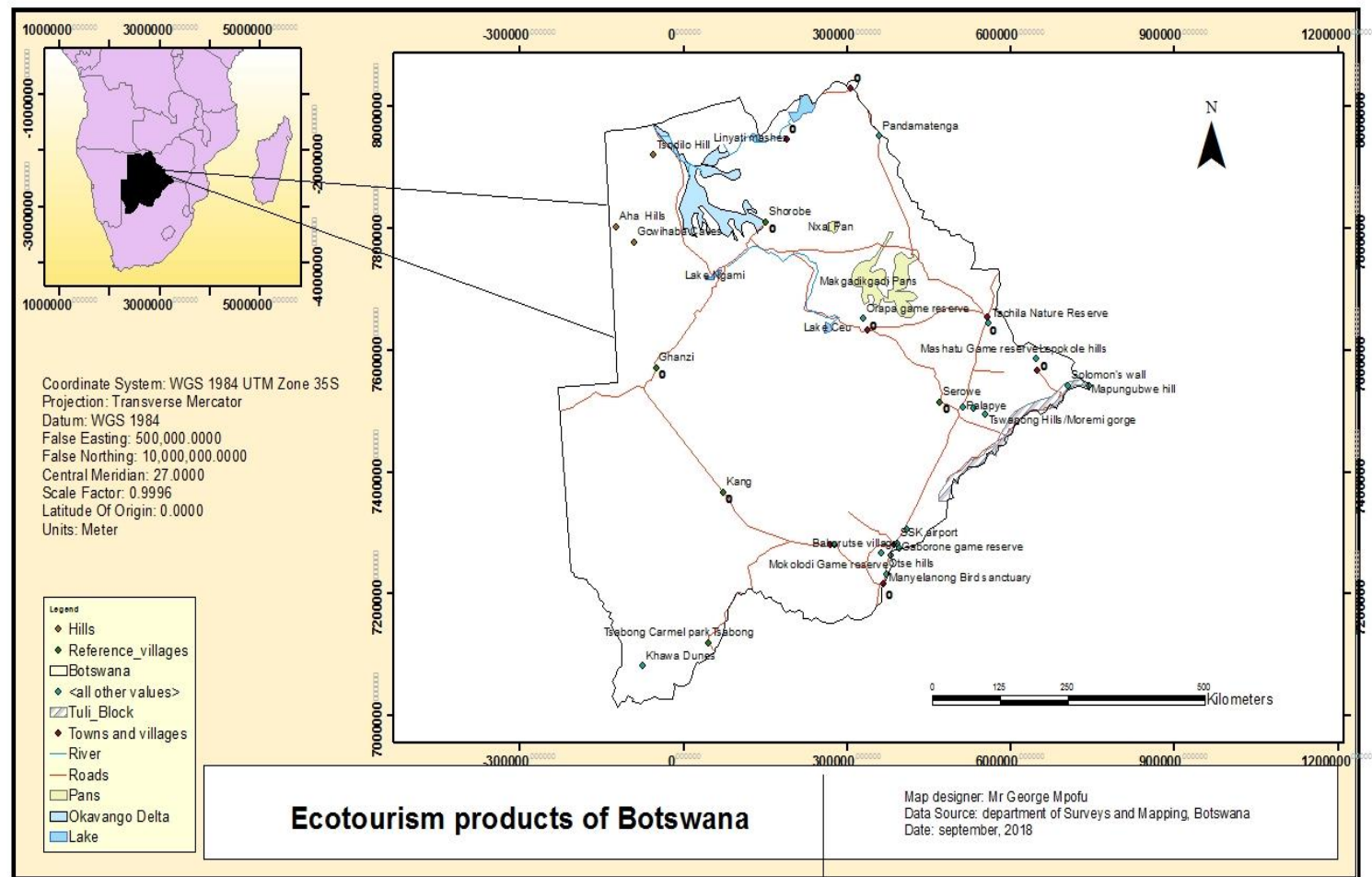


Figure 4.2 Ecotourism products of Botswana



## 4.6 ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS OF BOTSWANA

The discussion has revealed existence of numerous ecotourism products as shown in Figure 4.2, that can form the basis for diversification. Table 4.8 indicates a fuller picture of the current state of ecotourism activities and where they are situated within the country. These activities are grouped according to the different ecotourism diversification option areas as identified in Chapter 3.

**Table 4.8 Existing ecotourism related activities of Botswana**

Type	Activity	Location
<b>Adventure</b>	Camel riding	Tsabong
	Hiking hills and sand dunes	Tsodilo hills, Tswapong hills, Khawa sand dunes, Tuli bloc
	Powered Paragliding	Tsodilo hills
	Donkey cart riding	Bahurutse village
	Mountain biking	Tuli block, Otse, Kanye, Selebi Phikwe
	Quad biking	Khawa, Ghanzi, Salt pans, Kgalagadi transfrontier
	Cycling	Tuli Block, Gaborone
	Orienteering (foot/trail)	Okavango Delta, Tuli block, Tswapong hills
	Caving	Gcwihaba
	Scuba diving with crocodiles	Okavango delta
	Backpacking	Okavango Delta, Chobe, Tuli block
	Wilderness survival	Makgadikgadi pans, Tuli block, Chobe, Okavango Delta
	Ballooning	Okavango Delta, Salt pans, Tsodilo hills
	Rope and obstacle courses	Tuli Block, Tswapong hills
	Ziplining	Tsodilo hills, Gaborone hills
	Jet skiing	Major dams
	Swimming	Countrywide in places with facilities
	Underwater photography	Okavango delta, Chobe river
	Rafting and tubing	
	Team building games and activities	Countrywide in areas of tourist activity
	Motor boat rides	Okavango Delta, Chobe river, Major dams

	Star gazing	Countrywide in places with other tourist activities
	Walking expeditions	Countrywide especially in the Delta, parks and concession areas
	Paintballing	Gaborone, Kasane
	4x4 trails	Wilderness areas
	Sky diving	Makgadikgadi pans
	Landform and landscape viewing	Old Palapye, Aha, Tsodilo and Tswapong hills, Tuli block
<b>Culture/Historical/Traditional</b>	Learning about traditional medicines, consulting traditional healers, Learning and participation in traditional games	Bahurutse village, Maun, Kasane, Old Palapye, Okavango delta, Domboshaba
	Visiting museums and former settlements: remnants of churches, prisons, stores	Old Palapye, Gaborone
	Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, pottery, weaving, Ostrich eggshell ornaments, Wood carving techniques	Tsodilo hills, Maun Maun, Chobe, Bahurutse
	Learning about desert survival techniques	CKGR, Ghanzi, Maun
	Visiting museums	Gaborone, Maun, Serowe, Mochudi
	Visiting and learning about spiritual beliefs, local languages, sacred shrines and myths, rainmaking	Tswapong Hills, Tsodilo Hills,
	Sampling traditional dishes, Learning preparing traditional dishes, Learning local languages, Traditional healer demonstrations, Traditional wedding, Traditional court sessions (kgotla), Traditional dancing	Bahurutse, Old Palapye, Tswapong hills, Chobe, Sexaxa
	Viewing and learning about ancient art: grain storage, artefacts, iron smelting, paintings	Maun, Chobe, Tuli Block Tswapong hills, Old Palapye, Tsodilo hills, Manyana rock art

	Homestay in cultural village (yoking, planting, ploughing and harvesting)	Bahurutse, Sexaxa, Maun, Chobe
<b>Events (Cultural/Adventure)</b>	Walking expeditions: Y-care, Tsodilo desert bush walk	Makgadikgadi pans, Tsodilo
	Race for rhinos	Makgadikgadi pans, Tsodilo
	Green meetings and festivals (biodiversity, wildlife conservation)	Gaborone, Okavango Delta, Chobe
	Khawa dune challenge	Khawa
	Fly fishing festival	Okavango delta, Chobe river, major dams
	Attending cultural festivals: Kuru dance, Domboshaba, Dithubaruba	Ghanzi, Domboshaba, Molepolole
	Indigenous food	Gaborone, Domboshaba, Lobatse
	Fun run	Gaborone, Francistown, Selebi-Phikwe
	Arts and craft market/festivals	Gaborone, Maun, Francistown
<b>Wildlife/ Wilderness</b>	Eco-Volunteering	Okavango Delta, Chobe, Kgalagadi
	Equestrian ecotourism: horse riding, Animal trekking	Kasane, Okavango Delta, Tuli block, CKGR, Kgalagadi transfrontier
	Archery using bow and arrow	Parks, game reserves and concession areas
	Photographic tours	Parks, game reserves and concession areas, cultural villages, other areas of tourist interest
	Guided walks	Kasane, Okavango Delta, Tuli block, CKGR, Kgalagadi transfrontier
	Self-drive mobile safaris	Kasane, Okavango Delta, Tuli block, CKGR, Kgalagadi transfrontier
	Guided mobile safaris	Kasane, Okavango Delta, Tuli block, CKGR, Kgalagadi transfrontier
	Interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding	Okavango delta, Caracal, Mokolodi game reserve
	Wildlife conservation programs	Maun, Khama Rhino Sanctuary, Mokolodi game reserve, Caracal

	Ostrich rearing	Ghanzi, Dibete, Maun
<b>Nature</b>	Botanic tours	Gaborone,
	Sunset viewing	Chobe river, Okavango Delta
	Visiting organic farms	Pandamatenga, Maun, Gaborone
	Tree planting and conservation activities	Countrywide
	Scenic flights over the delta	Okavango delta
	Botanic tours in forest reserves	Chobe, Kasane, Okavango delta, Pandamatenga
<b>Hunting</b>	Bow hunting	Parks, concession areas, game reserves
	Trophy hunting	Parks, concession areas, game reserves
	Biltong/game hunting	Parks, concession areas, game reserves
	Learning traditional hunting methods	Cultural villages, Okavango delta, Kasane
<b>Wetland</b>	Rowing	Gaborone, Dikgatlhong, Shashe and Letshibogo dams
	Sailing	Gaborone, Dikgatlhong, Shashe and Letshibogo dams
	Kayaking	Okavango delta, Gaborone, Shashe and Letshibogo dams
	Bird watching	Parks, salt pans, game reserves, concession areas,
	Canoeing	Okavango delta, Chobe river
	Fly fishing	Chobe, Maun, Okavango Delta, Major dams (Dikgatlhong, Gaborone, Thune, Shashe)
	Boat cruising	Okavango delta, Chobe river, Gaborone dam
	Wind surfing	Major dams

Sources: Kgathi & Ngwenya (2005); Mbaiwa (2013); BTO (2015); Mbaiwa (2015); Centre for Applied Research (2016); HATAB (2016); BTO (2017a); BTO (2017d); Stone *et al.* (2017); Mbaiwa (2018)

#### 4.7 TOURISM SUPPORT INFRASTRUCTURE

The state of infrastructure greatly benefitted from the swift economic development following the discovery of diamonds. Today, over 80% of tourists travel using the relatively well-developed tarred road network linking all the major resort areas. However, the parks and wilderness areas are characterised by sandy gravel roads such that they are best accessed by 4 X 4 vehicles. This is a deliberate move to restrict volumes and help retain the fragile ecosystem in a pristine state (BTO, 2015; Spenceley *et al.*, 2015). Despite the developed road infrastructure, transport services

are largely designed to service local populations in the major villages and urban centres; hence, it is of little to no value to international tourists since most attractions are located in sparsely populated and distant areas with very limited or no service. Although the cost of local transport is low, great distances between attractions necessitates the need for own transport or making prior arrangements (BTO, 2015).

The use of air transport is mainly restricted by low business volumes and small airports that cannot accommodate large commercial aircraft. The country's national carrier, Air Botswana is the sole domestic scheduled airline providing daily links to Maun and Francistown. Internationally, it only serves the South African market on a daily basis whilst flights to Zambia and Zimbabwe were cancelled in 2016 due to low demand (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015, BTO, 2017b). Direct scheduled international flights by other providers are limited to South African and Ethiopian airlines that fly daily and three times a week respectively. The persistent low demand and related operational challenges resulted in Kenyan airlines terminating Gaborone route in 2016 after eight years in operation (Admin, 2016).

The Okavango Delta region, as the hub of tourism, has numerous chartered flights managed by different tour operators in addition to Air Botswana scheduled service. Given the challenges of remoteness and permanent water logging, some of the resort areas in the Delta are only accessible by air, making securing return tickets a mandatory part of the package. The air tickets come as additional package costs, thus; restricting travel to the high income tourist segment. (BTO, 2017b). Considering this background, access by air in Botswana will generally remain expensive in the foreseeable future due to limited direct flights, persistent low demand linked to the national population of 2 million, and long geographic distance between the main tourism attractions and the largest airport in Gaborone.

The use of rail transport is insignificant in tourism since there is only one track linking urban centres between Lobatse and Francistown, mainly used for goods transportation. Passenger service only resumed in 2016 after a 7-year suspension to strategise and refurbish the aged fleet (Serite, 2017).

According to DOT (2013), there are about 528 accommodation facilities of diverse quality with an estimated 8 362 rooms and 15 697 beds, whose average room and bed occupancy for 2013 was 47% and 37% respectively. The occupancy, concentrated in the Delta region, increases during peak periods. Accommodation facilities are generally adequate; however, due to limited numbers,

prior booking is required in the Delta region. There is need to increase length of stay by widening the range of activities.

Although the state of support infrastructure is generally good, there is need for improvement to cater for the diverse needs of tourists. At present, facilities, especially in the Delta, are heavily biased towards high end market (Spenceley *et al.*, 2015).

#### **4.8 SUMMARY**

The chapter assessed tourism products in Botswana, tracing development from colonial to contemporary times. The analysis revealed that the contact type of colonialism resulted in minimal investment such that tourism activities and development were negligible prior to independence. The discovery of massive diamonds deposits immediately after independence in 1966 and consequent prudent exploitation, sparked an economic paradigm shift that triggered swift transformation and development of the economy resulting in the country attaining middle income status within 30 years. Subsequently, the tourism sector also expanded rapidly to become the second largest earner of foreign currency after diamond mining and processing. The review also noted that just as the economy is dependent on diamonds, the tourism sector is heavily reliant on wildlife, accounting for about 80% of all activities. For this reason, diversification of tourism products and activities was adopted as an effective way of reducing the dependence on wildlife and stimulating sectoral growth in different parts of the country. Accordingly, a raft of policies and development programmes, notably Tourism Policy, Tourism Master Plan, NDPs and Human Resources Development Plan, were formulated to guide the diversification process. Despite the plans being comprehensive, and on average more than ten years old, evidence on the ground indicates minimal progress and maintenance of status quo. Additionally, the plans largely identify diversification approaches without singling out a specific one to be adopted. Lack of implementation strategy and effective coordination amongst stakeholders were highlighted as some of the major drawbacks hindering progress.

The second part of the chapter, focusing on tourism products and attractions in the country, established that they are generally located in remote parts and distant from each other. The country considers itself as an ecotourism destination. However, tourism activities are largely related to wildlife concentrated in the Delta and Chobe - Kasane region. Given that over 90% of tourism operations in the Delta are operated by the private sector, quality of product in terms of service and experience declines significantly outside these main areas of attraction. From the discussion, it emerged that other attractions, despite the limited development they have, remained

relatively unknown attracting limited numbers of tourists. Although infrastructure is relatively well developed, especially the roads, they mainly serve the local population but are of little use to budget tourists since it is restricted major population centres.

An analysis of research on diversification revealed a strong bias on supply side, focusing on impacts, especially in the Okavango Delta, identifying types and places that alternative tourism products could be developed. In view of contemporary trends, tourism demand has gained strong significance in influencing diversification process (Cooper & Hall, 2013; Wang, 2016). The content analyses indicated that Botswana offer a range of ecotourism activities. However, most of the products are quite limited to the activities they offer. Another problem that the content analyses revealed is that most of the products offer the same kind of activities. The questions now are: Is there a demand for other activities? Must the products diversify to more activities and if so in which activities will there be a high interest? Currently, a big gap exists as reflected by dearth of literature on demand, especially tourist perspective on current products, service levels, quality and satisfaction. The absence of specific diversification strategy and paucity of empirical research on tourism demand in Botswana highlights the need to develop a comprehensive framework to diversify ecotourism products. The next chapter examines how data was collected and analysed to address the issues identified in the review.

# CHAPTER 5

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter explains the philosophy, design and methods employed in the study. The study adopted a positivist philosophy and descriptive research design to investigate and develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana. The chapter evaluated the research design and explained the rationale behind the selected format. The next section details the sampling strategy and development of appropriate survey instruments for effective data collection. This is followed by an explanation of how the collected data was analysed.

### 5.2 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The diversity and complexity of phenomena in social sciences has resulted in many ways of conducting research. The specific way in which data is collected and analysed and used is known as research philosophy (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Jennings, 2001:20; Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Researchers must select specific processes guided by a paradigm that generally determines the ontological, epistemological and methodological stance used in the investigation. The quality of the research is severely compromised if these key aspects are not clearly elaborated (Armitage, 2007; Gray, 2009; Creswell, 2009; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The concept of paradigm has been the subject of intense academic debate; mainly in natural and social sciences, such that there are multiple meanings and perspectives. Morgan's (2007:51) seminal consolidation of literature on the paradigm concept identified four ways to classify the plentiful perceptions, namely, paradigms as; worldviews, epistemological stances, shared beliefs and model examples. Despite the various notions, a common historic aspect is that ontology, epistemology and methodology emerge as fundamental concepts in determining a research paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:108; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Krauss, 2005:758; Scotland, 2012:9; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Ontology is the study of being and is concerned with what constitutes reality; hence, researchers acquire a stance of how things really are and how they work (Crotty, 1998:8; Collis & Hussey, 2003; Krauss, 2005:758; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Epistemology is concerned with the nature and forms of knowledge; that is how knowledge can be created, acquired and communicated (Crotty, 1998:8; Scotland, 2012:9; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Epistemology asks the following questions; What is the relationship between the would-be



knower and what can be known? How do we know what we know? What counts as knowledge? (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:108; Krauss, 2005:759). Methodology is the plan or strategy of action using specific techniques and procedures (methods) to address why, what, from where, when and how data is collected and analysed (Collis & Hussey, 2003; Veal, 2011; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The methodological question refers to how the knower discovers whatever he or she believes can be known, and by which means the would-be knower becomes the knower. It also addresses what constraints or knowing capacity will shape the path to an understanding of truth or reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:108; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Historical academic debate on the concepts created a situation in which research is distinguished according to the view it belongs. Traditionally, research paradigms have been divided into two groups identified by various names, the notable ones being “scientific” and “naturalistic” as applied by Guba and Lincoln (1988); whilst Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) use “positivist” and “constructivist”. Guba and Lincoln (1988) buttresses this view by identifying specific philosophical differences between positivistic and naturalistic research based on ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology.

The study adopted the research philosophy of positivism to determine and compare tourist views and demand on ecotourism products (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Morgan, 2007, 2014). Positivism views social science as an organised way of combining deductive logic with accurate empirical observations of individual human behaviour, to discover and confirm laws that can be applied to predict generic patterns of human activity pattern (Neuman, 2003:71). Positivism is grounded on realist ontology where the social world exists, externally requiring measurement through objective methods as opposed to instinct or sensation (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Easterby-Smith, 2002). The researcher is objective and independent of the issues being investigated. Over the years, debate has raged on associating a paradigm with specific methodology referred in literature as “the paradigm-method fit issue” (Creswell, 2003, 2009; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:14; Harison *et al.*, 2005:225; Florczak, 2014; Morgan, 2007, 2014; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). Positivism is aligned to quantitative methods, explaining interaction of variables and how they shape events and cause certain outcomes (Saunders *et al.*, 2015).

Surveys (questionnaires) and experiments are some of the primary data collection techniques used to facilitate theory testing and consequently resolve research problems. Table 5.1 summarises the characteristics of positivism in comparison to naturalistic/Interpretive and pragmatic approaches (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004:18; Morgan, 2007:71).

**Table 5.1: Comparison of research paradigms**

<b>Characteristic</b>	<b>Naturalistic approach</b>	<b>Quantitative approach</b>	<b>Pragmatic approach</b>
Connection of theory and data	Induction	Deduction	Abduction
Relationship to research process	Subjectivity	Objectivity	Intersubjectivity
Inference from data	Context	Generality	Transferability
Methodological basis	Qualitative	Quantitative	Mixed

**Source: Adapted from Morgan (2007:71)**

In line with the characteristics highlighted in the table, the study follows the positivist paradigm, to determine tourist perspectives and demand for ecotourism related activities and products. A large sample was required to increase credibility and reliability of statistical analysis; hence, the quantitative approach was most appropriate. Hair *et al.* (2010) observes that quantitative methods enable asking of exact questions in the same way to every participant, thus; increasing consistency. In this study, the positivist paradigm allowed for detailed insight and analysis of current ecotourism activities and products and ecotourism options, which was instrumental in developing a diversification framework.

### **5.3 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Bryman, 2004; Tshuma & Mafa, 2013:73). It is a blueprint to guide the process of research by showing study procedures from research purpose /questions to outcomes. This entails detailed planning to collect and analyse data to increase understanding of a given research problem (Babbie, 2004; Creswell, 2009; Abutabenjeh & Jaradat, 2018:237). Research designs come in many forms. However, Abutabenjeh and Jaradat, (2018:239) observe that there are many similarities despite the different steps and terminologies. Although more than ten types of research design have been identified, an analysis of research design literature by Abutabenjeh and Jaradat, (2018) reveals the dominance of three categories, namely; exploratory, descriptive and causal (explanatory).

In line with the philosophical stance, the study largely adopted descriptive research design with some elements of causal design. Descriptive research aims to describe phenomenon as it exists (current situation) by focusing on what, where, how and when. The design provides an accurate position of the situation and relationship amongst phenomena being studied (Bryman, 2004; Hair

*et al.*, 2010:39; Malhotra, 2010). Zikmund and Babin (2013:52) further explain that descriptive research aims to describe the phenomenon and relationship amongst variables being studied without explaining reasons for the relationship. It is, however, important to note that the variables and relationships described lay the groundwork for causal analysis. In the context of the study, description enabled detailed understanding of specific issues being investigated, which include ecotourism products, diversification and ecotourism.

Descriptive research was employed to define and describe product diversification in the context of tourism, analyse, apply and identify trends of ecotourism as a concept. The design was also used to describe demographic characteristics of tourists, determine demand/preference for ecotourism products, and discuss factors derived from exploratory factor analysis. Based on the knowledge of these characteristics, causal design was used to determine type of diversification, ecotourism activities, and products that could be added. It was also used to examine how purpose of visit affected choice of activities and products. The next section examines the importance of literature review.

#### **5.4 LITERATURE REVIEW**

Literature review, according to Hair *et al.* (2010:52), is a directed search and detailed analysis of existing (secondary) data sources, discussing theory that may include current empirical results important to the research topic at hand. Literature review enables; identification of gaps, improved understanding of the topic under investigation, and outlining successful methods that have been used to analyse topics covering same subject area (Creswell, 2009; Hair *et al.*, 2010; Zikmund & Babin, 2013:59). Literature review was employed to examine theoretical framework of product diversification in tourism, product development and ecotourism and tourism in Botswana. For this study, there were 4 parts that reviewed literature as explained below.

Chapter 2 examined product diversification in relation to tourism. This was achieved by discussing the link between marketing and tourism in relation to the product concept. Attention shifted to the tourism product, analysing how the definition, interpretation and application of the concept has evolved. Defining the concepts provided background for a comprehensive analysis of product life cycle, product development and product diversification. The major thrust was on trend, strategies and theoretical frameworks for diversifying tourism products.

Chapter 3 focused on providing a comprehensive evaluation of ecotourism, that is definitional controversy and principles classification. The discussion culminated in the examination of

potential diversification options within ecotourism. Also examined were ecotourism case studies around the world.

Chapter 4 provided a detailed analysis of tourism development in Botswana, concentrating on ecotourism product diversification, and identifying gaps. An overview of how tourism evolved was provided, illustrating role of policies, economic development and location of resources in determining current forms of tourism. Based on the analyses of potential diversification options identified in chapter 3, a comprehensive inventory of ecotourism activities in Botswana was developed and it provided items that were used in the questionnaire. The following are some of the key words that were used in the review of literature process; *tourism product, product development, product diversification, diversification strategies ecotourism, ecotourism principles, ecotourism accommodation ecotourism in Botswana*.

The review was based on detailed research and consultation of a wide variety of secondary sources namely; e-journal aggregators such as Sage, Emerald, Taylor and Francis, Ebscohost and Science Direct complemented primary data. Additional secondary sources included textbooks, magazines, newspapers and government documents such as Tourism policy, Tourism master plan and ecotourism guidelines. The next section discusses research methods used.

## **5.5 RESEARCH METHODS**

The study sought to develop a specific diversification framework that addresses demand and supply interactions for existing and new related ecotourism products. Current diversification literature in Botswana is generic, highly skewed towards supply side, mostly qualitative, focusing on identification of potential operand resources like cultural, mining, sport and agro-tourism. This calls for comprehensive empirically based demand side analysis to develop the diversification framework. Over the years, the involvement of tourists in the creation of tourism products has greatly increased (World Tourism Organization, European Travel Commission, 2011:38). It is in this vein that an understanding of the profiles, tastes, trends of demand become critical in product development, since this has a strong bearing in determining acceptability of new offerings. The objective of this part is an explanation of data collection using quantitative methods to address the research problem. The following section explains sampling design and data collection methods used in the study.

### **5.5.1 Sampling design**

Sampling design comprises providing information on the research target population, determining sample size, and explaining methodology of sample selection. The design can be divided into: sampling scheme, which refers to explicit strategies used in selecting respondents; settings and events; and sampling size, denoting the number of respondents to be considered for study (Patton, 2002; Collins *et al.*, 2007:273; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007:290). Given the paucity of demand side empirical research, the target population focused on tourists (international & domestic). Having established the design, the next section explains determination of sample size and sampling method used in the study.

#### **5.5.1.1 Sample size**

Determination of sample size for demand (quantitative) was based on the target population. Two methods that yield the same result, Yamane (1967) formula or Krejcie and Morgan (1970) graph, could be used to calculate sample size for quantitative analysis. The study adopted Krejcie and Morgan (1970:609) graph that plots sample size against population. The graph, applicable to any type of population, depicts that as the population increases, the sample size increases at a diminishing rate and remains relatively constant at slightly greater than 380. Consequently, a population that has ( $N$ ) = 1 000 000, has a sample size ( $S$ ) = 384. Using the WTTC (2018) report for Botswana, the graph yielded a sample size of approximately 400 respondents based on about 1,9 million international tourist arrivals for 2017.

#### **5.5.1.2 Sampling method**

The Department of Tourism (2010) reports that the Okavango Delta, Chobe and Kasane regions account for 80% of leisure travellers, and lodges are the preferred type of accommodation. Tourist volumes for Gaborone and other destinations are very low. It was on this basis that purposive sampling was used to select Kasane and Maun as places for collecting tourism demand data. Purposive sampling enabled selection of proficient and well-informed respondents who provided reliable data (Patton, 2002; Gray, 2009:108; Palinkas *et al.*, 2013:3; Etikan *et al.*, 2016:2). In order to maintain diversity and increase representativeness, the initial strategy targeted departing tourists at three data collection points, namely; airports (Kasane and Maun), lodges (Kasane) and border posts (Zambia and Zimbabwe in Kazungula 10km from Kasane). Lodges in the Delta were dropped due to lack of accessibility. The Okavango Delta is about 120km from Maun airport. However, transfers from the airport to final destination are mainly by small chartered planes due to permanent swamps that restrict road construction. Road transport is mainly used by self-drive

tourists and tour groups who have their own unique itinerary, such that it is difficult to capture them. It is important to note that other potential data collection points such as Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park, Central Kalahari Game Reserve and Mashatu Game Reserve were not considered due to irregular number of tourists and their remote location.

Citing privacy and client confidentiality, many lodges declined to be part of the research. Only three agreed to participate on condition that questionnaires were placed in rooms occupied by tourists who were requested to complete them before checking out. The response rate was very poor as most of the questionnaires were either lost or partially completed such that they were discarded due to many blank spaces. The Zambia and Zimbabwe border posts in Kazungula are not busy; hence, very few tourists agreed to participate given that there were no immigration delays, whereas it required an average of 20 - 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The low response rate was further compounded by the fact that, most of the tourists were transferred by tour operators who assisted in immigration formalities and immediately handed over to counterparts on the Zambian or Zimbabwean side. In light of these challenges, lodges and border posts were dropped, and data collection was confined to departure lounges of Kasane and Maun airports. Martin *et al.* (2019:5) note that use of departure lounges allows collection of authentic and novel data about holiday experiences. Permission was sought from Civil Aviation of Botswana and access was granted on payment of P250 departure fee for each airport (Appendix B & C). Collection of data in departure lounge, as observed by Kozak (cited in Martin *et al.*, 2019:5), is very effective, given that holiday memories or experiences will still be vivid when responding to various questionnaire elements such as activities engaged in, experience or costs incurred. Completion rate was also very high, given that clarification could be provided, or tourists kindly requested to answer all questions by the research assistant.

Selection of respondents was based on convenience sampling. A screening question on whether visit was tourism orientated, helped in identifying respondents who were issued questionnaires. Participation rate was generally high, although requests were at times turned down as tourists cited fatigue or lack of interest. With the help of a research assistant, data was collected from December 2018 to April 2019. Most of the data was collected between March and April 2019 after granting of permission to access departure lounge. The volume of departing tourists increased significantly as the period of collection marked transition from green to peak season. It took almost two months to reach the target of 400 (Kasane-190; Maun 210) due to nature of flights and competition for respondents. The times available for data collection were limited to only 2 hours and 3.5 hours daily for Kasane and Maun airports respectively. Kasane airport has one daily

(14.00 hours) international flight to Johannesburg; hence, data was collected between check-in and boarding time from 11.30 – 13.30 hours. Maun airport is the gateway to Okavango Delta and a major hub for pre-booked itineraries. There are three daily international flights; one to Cape Town (14.00 hours) and two to Johannesburg (14.30 hours and 15.00 hours) operated by Air Botswana and Air Link. Air Botswana Johannesburg flight is supposed to operate daily; however, the airline experiences periodic delays or cancellations. Although the check-in to boarding time stretched from 11.00 – 14.30 hours, progress was hampered by the small departure lounge that quickly filled to capacity making collection difficult due lack of space. The Department of Tourism was conducting a tourist survey during same period; thus, there was competition for respondents. Despite the challenges, tourists were largely very responsive.

## **5.6 DATA COLLECTION**

The study primarily focused on establishing demand for ecotourism products with the aim of developing a framework for promoting product diversification. Based on the review of literature, there is paucity of empirical demand side research, despite it being core to developing an effective diversification framework for ecotourism products. The process of data collection described in the following section.

### **5.6.1 Desktop study – Ecotourism products of Botswana**

A comprehensive desktop study was conducted that culminated in listing of existing and potential ecotourism activities and products in Botswana. The list provided the base for questionnaire development as it provided activities that were eligible for inclusion.

### **5.6.2 Questionnaire**

The questionnaire (Appendix E) was primarily based on objective four which intended to collect data on the demand and needs of tourist in terms of eco-tourism products in Botswana. International and domestic tourists provided the demand side data. Hair *et al.* (2010) guidelines were used to design the questionnaire that was divided into 3 sections capturing the following aspects:

- Section A: Socio-demographic information
- Section B: Potential ecotourism products
- Section C: Supporting services

Section A captured socio-demographic and behavioural details such as gender, age group, level of education, length of stay, nature of travel party, and expenditure. The variables for section A were based on related research focusing on preferences by Kwan *et al.* (2010); De Witt *et al.* (2014); Botha *et al.* (2017); Kruger *et al.* (2017b); Saayman *et al.* (2017); and Kruger *et al.* (2018). As indicated in the literature review, the essential ingredient for successful product development is a detailed understanding of tourist characteristics and preferences.

Section B captured participation and level of interest in different activities to help in determining demand for potential ecotourism products. Abdurahman *et al.* (2016:361) notes that, despite the multiple definitions of ecotourism, the following aspects; basis on nature, sustainability, history, culture, education and community have been identified as key generic product attributes. Using a 5- point Likert scale from strongly interested to strongly disinterested, the ecotourism products were divided into seven options/areas discussed in chapter three and four. In line with Hair *et al.* (2010:158), content validity of the section was based on literature reviewed from Nzengeya (2004), Honey (2008), Weaver (2008), Arnegger *et al.* (2010), De Witt *et al.* (2014), TIES (2015), Kruger *et al.* (2017a & b) and Saayman *et al.* (2017). The last part on potential ecotourism products captured eco-accommodation preferences of the tourists. The review of literature revealed a close and interdependent relationship between ecotourism products and eco-accommodation as ecotourists preferred to reside in ecological sensitive lodges or camps (Erdem & Tetik, 2013; Kwan *et al.*, 2010, De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Botha *et al.*, 2016). The preferences informed the eco-accommodation characteristics desired by the tourists.

To fulfil the objective of developing a framework for ecotourism diversification, Section C focused on evaluating the importance of supporting services such as; provision of facilities for children, availability of facilities for the physically challenged, outdoor recreation area, facility for outside cooking, value for money of eco-tourism products, affordable and easily available internet services, quality and efficiency of customer service, availability of business facilities (conference facilities), restaurant/open air restaurant. Knowledge of these characteristics assisted in identifying areas requiring improvement and aspects to include when establishing related ecotourism products. The variables were developed based on literature from Kwan *et al.* (2010); Farmaki, (2011); Lu & Stepchenkova, (2012); Reimer and Walter, (2013); Botha *et al.* (2016); Tieng, (2016); Saayman *et al.* (2017); and Kruger *et al.* (2018).

The questionnaire was refined by conducting a pilot test in Gaborone. Pilot testing is vital to establish validity and reliability of the instrument since an inappropriate or poorly designed



instrument leads to inconclusive results (Hair *et al.*, 2010:158). The testing enabled critical review, justification of methodology and identification of data linkages to enhance depth of analysis (Secomb & Smith, 2011:32). The pilot testing resulted in two changes. Firstly, the currency for question 11 was changed from Botswana Pula (BWP) to United States dollars (US\$) for consistency, given that currency for number 10 was US\$. Secondly, the statement on Hunting (Question 68) initially read as follows; “[l]earning about San traditional hunting methods”. The statement was modified to “[l]earning traditional hunting methods” on the basis that there are many ethnic groups and the word San is considered inappropriate in Botswana. To ensure credibility of the study, reliability of the questionnaire was established using Cronbach's Alpha. Reliability refers to consistency of a measure and it gives an output value of between 0 and 1. An instrument is said to be reliable when the value of the Cronbach's Alpha is more than 0.70 but a value at least 0.60 is also acceptable (Cohen & Sayag, 2010:301, Hair *et al.*, 2010:158; Zikmund & Babin, 2012:285). The Cronbach alpha measures the extent to which all items in a test measure the same concept; hence, it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within a specific test. In addition, testing ascertained appropriateness of sampling procedure, time taken to complete questionnaire, sensitive issues, need to modify questions, readiness of researcher, and logistical challenges. This increased validity and reliability of the research (Gudmundsdottir & Brock-Utne, 2010:361; Kim, 2010:193).

## **5.7 DATA ANALYSIS**

The primary data collected using questionnaires was quantitatively analysed. The following section details the procedure of analysis that was used.

### **5.7.1 Quantitative Analysis of Data**

Data analysis requires the application of procedures and techniques that describe and bring out information and patterns of behaviour. The study adopted the approach of describing variables of interest in the analysis, examining relationships among the variables, and establishing cause and effect interactions between variables (Rose & Sullivan, 1993; Burns & Groove, 2005; Walliman, 2005). The statistical consultation services department (North-West University - Potchefstroom Campus) was engaged to process raw data to usable information. Data capturing, cleaning and analysis, based around research objectives was done using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 24. The techniques used are explained in the section below.

#### **5.7.1.1 Descriptive Statistics**

Preliminary analysis of the data obtained from the survey was conducted using descriptive statistics. This entailed describing demographic and all variables in the questionnaire using summary statistics and means, where applicable. The descriptions were enhanced by frequency tables and graphic illustrations. Demographic variables helped in summarising the key attributes of the sample such as country of origin, income, purpose of travel, and percentages of males and females who participated in the study. This was important for establishing patterns and trends that might influence policy formulation and design of products relevant to the findings.

#### **5.7.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Nine Factor analyses using varimax rotation were conducted; eight for section B (Potential ecotourism product) and one for Section C (supporting services). The analyses in section B were based on the ecotourism options discussed in literature. This was done to reduce the ecotourism activities and supporting services into smaller constructs that generalised findings under each category (Hair *et al.*, 2010; Field, 2013). The analysis was conducted using Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure for sampling adequacy. Results revealed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling adequacy of 0.879. The data was suitable for factor analyses because the measure of sampling adequacy was above the 0.60 and the p-value for Bartlett's test was  $< 0$  showing that data was significantly correlated (Clark & Watson, 1995; Field, 2013). The analyses yielded acceptable factors loadings of at least 0.3 indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). Important factors that determined preference for certain activities were identified, and these contributed to the development of a diversification framework for ecotourism products.

#### **5.7.1.3 The independent *t*-test**

Two *t*-tests were conducted for the study. The first *t*-test compared mean scores between tourists who participated in ecotourism activities offered, and those who did not, to explain significant differences in the levels of interest. For purposes of clarity, the *t*-tests were done per category of potential ecotourism products. The means were calculated based on test variable, level of interest to participate in an ecotourism activity using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Strongly disinterested to 5 = Strongly interested. A higher mean showed greater interest and importance of the activity to the tourists, whilst a lower one indicated lower interest and importance.

Differences in means were statistically significant at  $p \leq 0.05^*$ . Findings revealed significant differences in the average level of interest between participating and non-participating tourists.

The second independent *t*-test conducted was between tourist purpose of travel and all the factors that were derived from explanatory factor analyses of potential ecotourism products and supporting services. The *t*-test only focused on purpose of travel because other variables such as country of origin, age, gender and income failed to yield any significant outcomes when compared against potential ecotourism products and supporting services. The variable and purpose of travel were important in determining differences of opinion in relation to the factors. The test considered the following variables; purpose of travel, participation, non-participation, level of interest in a particular activity, and level of importance for a supporting service. This helped in informing the level and extent of modification to be done on ecotourism products offered to tourists; hence, complementing ecotourism product diversification efforts. The analysis also considered effect sizes at three levels; 0.3 – small, 0.5 – medium and 0.8 - large (Field, 2013). The study therefore, only considered effect sizes that were 0.3 or higher.

## **5.8 SUMMARY**

The chapter described the research process that was employed in coming up with a diversification framework for ecotourism products. The study was based on positivism as a research philosophy, and the descriptive design. This was followed by an explanation of sampling framework, data collection methods and analysis. Emphasis was placed on sampling procedure, formulation of research instruments and how the data was analysed quantitatively. The next chapter focuses on presentation and analysis of the empirical data.

# CHAPTER 6

## EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter presents and discusses empirical findings from the survey administered in Kasane and Maun from December 2018 to May 2019. The first section focuses on descriptive results presented using mean scores, frequency tables and graphs. The descriptive analysis focused on demographic profile, participation and level of interest in ecotourism products, level of importance for supporting services, preference for ecotourism products, and likelihood for repeat visit. The second section discusses independent *t*-test with regards to level of tourist interest in different ecotourism activities. The third section focuses on factor analyses to identify critical factors that determined preference for certain ecotourism products. The last section discusses independent *t*-test between main purpose of travel and all the variables that were extracted using factor analyses, namely; ecotourism products and support services. The tests were based on tourists' particular purpose of travel and level of interest in a particular product and level of importance for supporting services.

### 6.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

This section presents demographic profile, travel patterns and motivation. The patterns of travel and motivation sought to determine sources of information about the destination, frequency and mode of travel, purpose and duration of travel, income, spending patterns, and nature of travel.

#### 6.2.1 Demographic profile of respondents

The survey had a total of 400 respondents whose gender, country of origin, and level of education are summarised in Table 6.1 below.

**Table 6.1: Demographic profile of respondents**

Variable	Category	Frequency	Valid percent (%)
Gender	Male	210	53
	Female	190	47
Country of origin	Botswana	13	3
	South Africa	81	21
	United States of America	75	19
	Germany	16	4
	United Kingdom	34	9
	Australia	23	6
	France	22	5
	Other	130	33
Level of education	High School	26	7
	Diploma	74	18
	Degree	181	45
	Postgraduate	110	27
	Other	11	3

Table 6.1 depicts that more males (53%) visited compared to females (47%). Most of the tourists were from South Africa (21%), followed by United States of America (19%), United Kingdom (9%), Australia (6%), France (5%), Germany (4%), Botswana (3%) and other (31%). The level of domestic tourism was very low. Tourists from other countries were dominated by developed countries such as New Zealand, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Norway, Czech Republic, Netherlands and Austria. There were few tourists from eastern countries such as China, India and South Korea. Excluding South Africa, very few tourists originated from other African countries.

The level of education was high as reflected by 45% of the respondents holding degrees, 27% postgraduate, 18% diploma, 7% high school and 3% other. The other category was mainly composed of those who specified qualifications such as Advanced diploma or Doctorate.

Respondents were required to state year of birth, and the age ranged from 19 to 79 years. The average age was 45 years, an indication that most of the tourists visiting Botswana are middle aged.

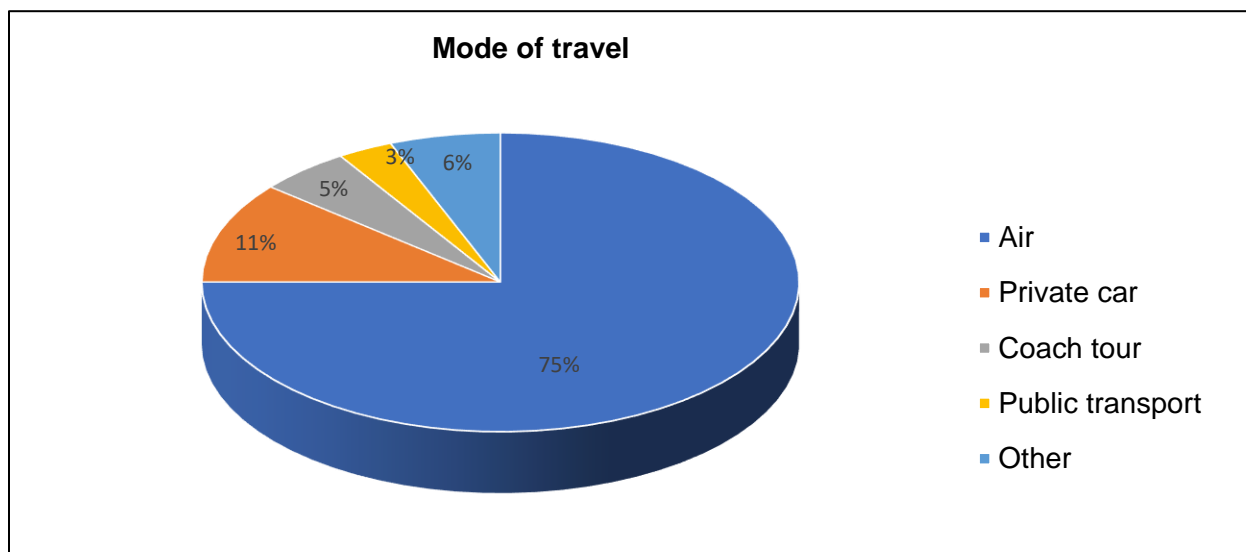
## **6.2.2 Sources of information, frequency and mode of travel**

The tourists' sources of information about Botswana and frequency of visit are shown in Table 6.2 below.

**Table 6.2: Sources of information**

Variable	Category	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Source of information	Word-of-mouth (friends and family)	207	52
	Brochure	45	11
	Website of Botswana Tourism	76	19
	Travel Agency	145	37
	Social media (facebook, twitter)	43	11
	Radio	18	5
	Television	32	8
	Internet blogs	41	10
Frequency of visit	1	256	65
	2	58	15
	3	20	5
	4	18	5
	5	17	4
	6	10	3
	7	3	0.8
	8	4	1
	9	1	0.3
	10	3	0.8
	12	2	0.5
	15	1	0.3
	20	1	0.3
	33	1	0.3
<b>Mean</b>		<b>2.11</b>	

Word-of-mouth was the major way in which respondents got to know about Botswana tourist destinations (52%) followed by travel agencies at 37%. This shows that tourists generally get first-hand information about tourist destinations. Both electronic and print media are infrequently used as reflected by the low percentages of 11% for both brochure and social media, 10% internet blogs, 8% television and 5% radio. Most of the respondents (65%) were visiting Botswana for the first time. The high frequency of first timers was attributed to the survey being conducted during transition from off peak to peak season when prices were still lower. Repeat visits were generally low, with 15% having visited twice, 10% having visited 3-4 times, 9% having visited 4-5times, 8.8% having visited 5 – 8 times. Only 2.5% had visited more than 9 times. The mean for frequency of visit was 2 days. There was need to market the country to improve repeat visitation as it contributed to higher economic returns.



**Figure 6.1: Mode of travel**

The majority of respondents (75%) travelled by air to Botswana, indicating that source markets were generally long haul. Eleven percent travelled by private car, and literature notes that these were mostly from South Africa, whose geographical proximity made car travel a convenient option. The use of coach tour (5%) and public transport (3%) was very low, mainly due to long geographic distances between destinations and locations in remote areas that were difficult to access. Six percent of the respondents used other modes of travel such as specially arranged transfers from neighboring countries.

### 6.2.3 Purpose, Duration and Nature of travel

Most of the respondents, as shown in Table 6.3, travelled for holiday/leisure (78%), followed by for Wildlife tourism (38%), then for Nature based tourism (22%), then for Ecotourism (18%), and lastly for Adventure tourism (15%). It is important to note that the percentage exceeds 100 because some respondents identified more than one purpose of travel, for example, holiday/leisure and business.

**Table 6.3: Purpose of travel**

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Holiday/Leisure	310	78
Wildlife	155	39
Nature based	88	22
Ecotourism	71	18
Adventure	59	15
Business	35	9
Education	16	4

Cultural events	14	4
Visiting friends and relatives	11	3
Shopping	3	0.8
Other	3	0.8

The high percentage of leisure related travel shows that Botswana is largely a holiday destination since other purposes of travel had less than ten percent each; Business (9%), Cultural events (4%), Education (4%), Visiting Friends and Relatives (3%) and shopping (0.9%).

The duration of stay was 6 days on average. Tourists spent almost a week in the country, hence measures were required to ensure that a wide variety of activities were available to maximise lengthy duration of stay.

In visiting Botswana, travelling alone (28%) was the dominant nature of travel, closely followed by travelling with spouse (26%). Table 6.4 shows the pattern for nature of travel.

**Table 6.4: Nature of travel**

Variable	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Alone	112	28
Spouse	105	27
Family	49	13
Friends	72	18
Colleagues	30	8
Tour group	13	3
Other	12	3

Travelling with friends and family accounted for 18% and 13% respectively. Respondents generally preferred to travel with someone they were close to, possibly for safety, security and sharing experiences. The least common was travelling with colleagues (8%), with Tour group (3%) and Other (3%).

#### **6.2.4 Income and nature of spending**

Income levels with largest percentage of respondents (25%) ranged between US\$30 001 – US\$45 000 followed by those earning US\$15 001 – US\$30 000 at 24%. Table 6.5 below shows the income pattern earned by respondents.



**Table 6.5: Annual income of respondents**

Income range (US\$)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
0 – 15 000	39	11
15 001 – 30 000	88	24
30 000 – 45 000	92	25
45 001 – 60 000	62	17
60 001 – 90 000	31	8
90 001 – 120 000	15	4
120 001+	38	11

The pattern reveals that Botswana is visited by high and middle income earners since 17% earned US\$45 001 – 60 000, 8% earned 60 001 – 90 001, 4% earned 90 001 – 120 000 and 11% earned more than US\$120 000 translating to more than a million Pula in local currency. Only 11% earned US\$0 – US\$15 000. Botswana is an expensive destination that can only be afforded by affluent tourists. This is consistent with the prohibitive 'High Value – Low Volume' (HVLV) strategy that aims to attract fewer tourists with high spending patterns (Rozemeijer, 2001; Mbaiwa, 2005)

Related to income, was the nature of spending which was captured in the actual amounts. Table 6.6 shows the mean amount spent per category.

**Table 6.6: Mean income spent per activity**

Activity	Frequency	Percentage (%)	Mean amount spent (US\$)
Accommodation	71	20	171
Transport	58	16	91
Food and Beverage	60	17	51
shopping	39	11	36
Souvenirs	34	10	33
Activities	44	12	32
Admission to attractions	20	6	11
Conservation fees and tourism levies	15	4	3
Package tours	270	78	7 565

Visiting Botswana is quite expensive. On average, a package tour costs US\$7 565, which is more than P70 000 in local currency. It is important to note that the mean was affected by mobile tours and family travel that tend to be expensive. Mobile tours generally last for more than the average 6 days, whilst children increase the cost of family travel even if it is for few days. Typical tours range between US\$3 000 – US\$5 000, which is still expensive. This explains why the country is visited by middle- and high-income earners. Taking into consideration the duration of stay, this

amount covers 4-6 days depending on type of facility booked. The other amounts spent, especially US\$171 for accommodation, US\$91 for transport and US\$3 for conservation and tourism levies (4%), are generally not a true reflection of the costs since all-inclusive packages are the most dominant and preferred form of holiday purchase. The booking and purchase of packages is usually done months or a year in advance because the accommodation facilities dominated by lodges have maximum capacity of mostly less than 20 guests, in line with restrictive development and conservation policies (Mbaiwa, 2005). The tourism bed levy at 10% per person per night is usually included in the total cost of the package. In addition, tourist spending on other activities such as shopping US\$36 and souvenirs US\$33 is low, given the location of most destination sites in remote and wilderness areas. The high pricing naturally restricts the number of tourists; thus, aiding conservation efforts and minimising negative tourism impact (Mbaiwa, 2015; Stone *et al.*, 2017).

### **6.2.5 Participation and level of interest in ecotourism products**

This section examines descriptive statistics of respondents' participation and non-participation, level of interest in each activity and mean value for the level of interest. The means for level of interest to participate in an ecotourism activity were calculated based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from Strongly disinterested (1) to Strongly interested (5). A lower mean indicated less interest to participate by the respondents whilst a higher mean indicated the respondent's greater interest to participate in an activity. Given the wide range of activities, it was impossible for respondents to participate in all of them. However, level of interest was indicated even in activities they did not participate in during the visit. It is important to note that the total number of respondents for participation and non-participation is not consistent due to missing data. The results are discussed based on the ecotourism categories identified in literature.

#### **6.2.5.1 Descriptive analysis of Culture/Historical/Traditional products**

According to Weaver (2008), culture/historical and traditional products, are generally non-consumptive, promote conservation and acquisition of knowledge, and are beneficial to locals, thus; satisfying the principles of ecotourism. Participation in Culture/Historical/Traditional activities was generally subdued, ranging from 2% for consulting traditional healers to a highest 65% for sampling local food as shown in Table 6.7 below.

**Table 6.7: Participation and level of interest in Culture/ Historical/Traditional products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Culture/ Historical/Traditional	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Staying in a cultural village	12	88	11	18	26	27	18	3.23
Sampling local food	65	65	6	12	14	26	42	3.86
Preparing traditional dishes	7	93	12	16	26	31	15	3.19
Learning local language	18	82	10	12	25	32	21	3.41
Learning about desert survival techniques	8	92	15	13	22	30	20	3.27
Participation and learning about traditional dancing	18	82	16	20	26	22	16	3.04
Consulting traditional healers	2	98	35	20	20	14	11	2.45
Learning about traditional medicines	11	89	22	19	22	24	13	2.88
Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs	16	84	11	10	33	30	16	3.28
Attending traditional wedding ceremonies	4	96	20	9	36	25	10	2.95
Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings	8	92	11	10	26	35	18	3.39
Attending traditional court sessions (Kgotla)	5	95	21	13	35	21	10	2.86
Visiting museums	8	92	11	12	35	23	19	3.25
Learning and participation in traditional games	3	97	10	19	30	23	18	3.19
Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving	5	95	13	19	29	23	16	3.09
Farm stay: experience farm life (milking, yoking, ploughing, harvesting)	4	96	18	18	31	22	11	2.88

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

The low participation is portrayed by the 10 activities (63%) which had less than 10% of the respondents participating. The activities that had the lowest percentage of participation were attending traditional court sessions (Kgotla) (5%), farm staying and attending traditional wedding ceremonies at 4%, learning and participation in traditional games 3%, and consulting traditional healers 2%. In this category, activities that most respondents participated in were sampling local food (65%); learning local language; and participating in, and learning about, traditional dancing

(18%); learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs (16%); and staying in a cultural village (12%).

Despite the generally low rate of participation, interest in the activities was relatively high since, on average, more than 20% of the respondents were either interested or strongly interested. This is reflected in an activity such as learning about desert survival techniques, where only 8% of the respondents participated. However, 30% and 20% were interested and strongly interested respectively. Based on the mean values, the following activities were considered most important in relation to the level of interest; sampling local food ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ), learning local language ( $\bar{x} = 3.41$ ), viewing and learning about ancient art ( $\bar{x} = 3.39$ ), learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs ( $\bar{x} = 3.28$ ), learning about desert survival techniques ( $\bar{x} = 3.27$ ), and visiting museums ( $\bar{x} = 3.25$ ). The pattern of interest reveals that preference was high for activities that are non-consumptive, that contribute to economic well-being, and that improve their knowledge about the culture and tradition of the locals. This is also supported in literature where research has established tourist inclination for cultural or traditional activities that contribute to conservation, improve knowledge of local resources, provide economic benefits, and empower local communities (Honey, 2008; Dimitrios, 2011; Reimer & Walter, 2013:130; De Witt *et al.*, 2014; Cobbinah, 2015).

#### **6.2.5.2 Descriptive analysis of adventure products**

Although linkage of Adventure products to ecotourism is not as pronounced as that of culture, they fit into ecotourism spectrum when the activities are conducted in such a way that there is minimal damage to the environment and, at times, part of the income is invested in the local community (Donohoe & Needham, 2006:194; De Witt *et al.*, 2014). As depicted in Table 6.8, adventure products registered low percentage of participation, averaging less than 5%, the lowest being obstacle courses (0%), powered paragliding (1%), rope courses (1%), mountain biking (2%) and jet skiing (2%). Respondents mainly engaged in the following activities; landform and landscape viewing (47%), 4 x 4 trails (41%), motorboat rides (38%), stargazing (33%), swimming (22%), and walking expeditions (22%). The nature of participation indicates that extreme and hard-core adventure activities such as obstacle courses, powered paragliding, jet skiing and scuba diving with crocodiles were the least preferred. Additionally, activities such as mountain biking, jet skiing, and obstacle courses were offered in areas far away from where most tourists congregate that is Okavango Delta and Kasane.

**Table 6.8: Participation and level of interest in Adventure products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Adventure	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Caving	7	93	23	19	18	25	15	2.89
Donkey cart rides	3	98	28	18	27	18	9	2.61
Powered Paragliding	1	99	29	17	28	19	7	2.59
Wilderness training survival courses	3	97	16	11	30	25	18	3.18
Cycling	7	93	21	12	29	25	13	2.96
Ballooning	5	95	19	9	29	27	16	3.13
Hiking	9	91	15	12	20	32	21	3.31
Mountain biking	2	98	23	17	23	24	13	2.87
Quad biking	5	95	25	21	22	18	14	2.74
Rope courses	1	99	29	19	25	15	12	2.62
Obstacle courses	0	100	28	20	24	17	11	2.63
Ziplining	4	96	23	19	19	25	14	2.88
Orienteering (foot/trail)	4	96	17	22	30	17	14	2.89
Backpacking	5	95	29	21	26	13	11	2.57
Jet skiing	2	98	34	18	23	14	11	2.49
Scuba diving with crocodiles	3	97	23	18	23	21	15	2.85
Swimming	22	78	21	12	27	24	16	3.03
Underwater photography	2	98	20	20	21	24	15	2.93
Rafting and tubing	7	93	22	15	27	18	18	2.95
Team building games and activities	3	97	26	22	25	14	13	2.66
Sky diving	8	92	30	18	26	15	11	2.59
Motor boat rides	38	62	14	9	22	26	29	3.45
Stargazing	33	67	13	10	21	25	31	3.52
Walking expeditions	22	78	13	14	17	26	30	3.46
Camel riding	9	91	24	14	23	22	17	2.93
Paintballing	3	97	35	11	19	19	16	2.69
4x4 trails	41	59	19	12	18	20	31	3.33
Landform and landscape viewing	47	53	9	11	21	22	37	3.67

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

The level of interest in adventure products was low since the mean values for 19 activities (68%) were below ( $\bar{x} = 3.00$ ). Only 9 activities generated relatively high levels of interest for tourists. These were; landform and landscape viewing ( $\bar{x} = 3.67$ ), stargazing ( $\bar{x} = 3.52$ ), walking expeditions ( $\bar{x} = 3.46$ ) motorboat rides ( $\bar{x} = 3.45$ ), 4 x 4 trails ( $\bar{x} = 3.33$ ), hiking ( $\bar{x} = 3.31$ ), wilderness training and survival courses ( $\bar{x} = 3.18$ ), ballooning ( $\bar{x} = 3.13$ ) and swimming ( $\bar{x} = 3.03$ ).

The list clearly shows higher preference for less strenuous adventure activities which could be partly attributed to the fact that the average age of respondents was 45 years, an age prone to

participation in slow-moving activities. The strong appeal of unchallenging adventure was reflected in that, though participation in ballooning (5%) was subdued, the percentage of those interested and strongly interested was relatively higher at 27% and 16% respectively. In this category, overall participation and level of interest were low, except for unchallenging adventure activities that registered moderate demand.

### 6.2.5.3 Descriptive analysis of wildlife/wilderness products

Wildlife/Wilderness products are strongly linked to ecotourism given that contemporary trends of related activities focus on promoting non consumption and conservation of resources through activities such as guided walks and passive game viewing. Table 6.9 shows that wildlife/wilderness activities were the most desired, since they registered the highest percentage of tourist participation compared to activities in all categories; with 81% taking part in guided mobile safaris, 46% photographic tours, 45% animal tracking and 40% guided walks. There was remarkable contrast since the following activities in the same category had very low percentages of tourist participation; 3% for learning about Ostrich rearing programmes, eco-volunteering (4%), and archery using traditional bow and arrow (5%). Tourist participation was also low in the other activities like self drive mobile safaris (16%), participation in wildlife conservation programmes (13%) and 17% each for horse riding and interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding. The pattern of participation shows greater preference for activities that involved direct engagement with wildlife.

**Table 6.9: Participation and level of interest in Wildlife/Wilderness products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Wildlife /Wilderness	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Archery using traditional bow and arrow	5	95	29	17	15	21	18	2.83
Animal trekking	45	55	5	11	14	31	39	3.86
Photographic tours	46	54	5	3	17	31	44	4.05
Guided walks	40	60	7	6	19	29	39	3.87
Self-drive mobile safaris	16	84	11	9	25	20	35	3.57
Guided mobile safaris	81	19	7	4	18	23	48	4.02
Interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding	17	83	16	14	20	26	24	3.28
Horseback riding	17	83	18	11	22	22	27	3.27

Participation in wildlife conservation programs	13	87	8	9	24	27	32	3.66
Learn about Ostrich rearing programs	3	97	20	11	30	27	12	3.01
Eco-volunteering	4	96	19	15	30	20	16	2.97

**Key: STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.**

Popularity of wildlife/wilderness products was reflected in that activities that registered large percentage of participants had correspondingly high mean values greater than those of culture and adventure, photographic tours ( $\bar{x} = 4.05$ ), guided mobile safaris ( $\bar{x} = 4.02$ ), guided walks ( $\bar{x} = 3.87$ ) and animal trekking ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ). This indicated high levels of interest from participants and non-participants. Despite the low percentage of tourists engaging in the following activities; participation in wildlife conservation programmes (13%) and self-drive mobile safaris (16%), the mean values ( $\bar{x} = 3.66$ ) and ( $\bar{x} = 3.57$ ) respectively reveal relatively high interest, especially from non-participants. The level of interest was low for eco-volunteering ( $\bar{x} = 2.97$ ) and archery using traditional bow and arrow ( $\bar{x} = 2.83$ ). The trend of participation and degree of interest revealed greater taste for activities involving encountering wildlife directly, promoting conservation, and facilitating a learning experience. Reputation and attractiveness of wildlife/Wilderness activities is a confirmation of literature that Botswana is a predominantly wildlife-based ecotourism destination (Saarien *et al.*, 2014; Mbaiwa, 2005).

#### **6.2.5.4 Descriptive analysis of events products**

Weaver (2008) observes that events occur in many forms. Some fit into ecotourism by emphasising ecotourism principles such as promoting community development, tourist learning and culture conservation. Participation in events as portrayed in Table 6.10 is very low, with arts and crafts markets/festivals achieving a high of just 7%. The rest of the events had a participation rate below 5%, the lowest being participation in fly fishing festival (1%), desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation (1%), attending biodiversity and conservation workshops, participation in annual race for rhinos, and fun run, all at 2%. This was attributed to the fact that events occurred at a fixed time and might not be running at time of visit.

**Table 6.10: Participation and level of interest in Events products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Events	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Participation in fly fishing festival	1	99	29	13	23	21	14	2.78
Attending Cultural festivals (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba and Kuru dance)	3	97	16	12	28	27	17	3.18
Participation in indigenous food festivals	4	96	14	14	31	21	20	3.20
Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops	2	98	16	13	27	28	16	3.15
Participation in annual race for rhinos	2	98	20	14	26	29	11	2.97
Fun run	2	98	24	16	29	18	13	2.79
Arts and crafts markets/festivals	7	93	16	11	30	25	18	3.18
Desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation	1	99	26	12	26	21	15	2.89

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

Based on the means, respondents showed greatest interest to participate in indigenous food festivals ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.20), arts and craft markets/festivals ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.18), attending cultural events (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba, Kuru dance) ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.18), and attending biodiversity and conservation workshops ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.15). Although participation was very low, there was considerable interest in Events products, especially activities that have a strong cultural and conservation element, such as taking part in indigenous food and cultural festivals. In comparison to culture, adventure and wildlife activities, festivals did not prove to be a much-desired activity.

#### 6.2.5.5 Descriptive analysis of hunting products

As pointed out by Nowaczek and Mehta (2018:202), hunting products have generated debate on whether they fit into ecotourism domain or not. However, the broad definition permits inclusion, since the activities promote conservation and economic well-being of local communities. Results in Table 6.11 indicate minimal participation by tourists in hunting activities as reflected by 1% for bow hunting, 3% for trophy hunting, and 6% for biltong/game meat hunting. Learning traditional hunting methods, however, registered a marginally higher participation rate of 11%.



**Table 6.11: Participation and level of interest in Hunting products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Hunting	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Bow hunting	1	99	56	15	15	9	5	1.92
Trophy hunting	3	97	58	13	13	10	6	1.91
Biltong/ game meat hunting	6	94	59	9	14	12	6	1.99
Learning traditional hunting methods	11	89	38	9	18	23	12	2.61

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

The mean values were also very low for bow hunting ( $\bar{x} = 1.92$ ), trophy hunting ( $\bar{x} = 1.91$ ) and biltong or game hunting ( $\bar{x} = 1.99$ ); revealing intense lack of interest in Hunting products. Tourists were clearly against activities that could result in injury or death of wild animals. Although the mean for learning traditional hunting methods was marginally higher ( $\bar{x} = 2.61$ ), tourists were still not interested in the activity. Compared to the rest of product categories, hunting products registered the lowest percentage of tourists who engaged in the activities. Both participants and non-participants were strongly disinterested as reflected by the low mean values.

#### 6.2.5.6 Descriptive analysis of wetland products

As discussed in literature, wetland products mostly involve passive participation, and generally have a strong conservation element such that they readily fit into the ambit of ecotourism. Table 6.12 shows that tourist participation in wetland products was generally high, coming second to Wildlife/Wilderness. Bird watching (73%), boat cruising (60%) and canoeing (23%), registered the highest percentage of participants.

**Table 6.12: Participation and level of interest in Wetland products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Wetland	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Bird watching	73	27	11	7	18	27	37	3.72
Canoeing	23	77	15	10	18	28	29	3.45
Fly fishing	8	92	29	10	22	21	18	2.89
Wind surfing	3	97	34	13	29	16	8	2.52
Kayaking	4	96	27	13	24	17	19	2.87
Rowing	3	97	23	12	24	24	17	3.01
Sailing	10	90	19	11	20	34	16	3.16
Boat cruising	60	40	11	6	13	30	40	3.81

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

The other activities in this category which recorded low percentage of participants were; sailing (10%), fly fishing (8%), kayaking (4%) and 3% each for rowing and wind surfing. The pattern of participation showed that tourists' preferences were oriented towards activities offering relaxation such as bird watching, and boat cruising, as compared to those requiring physical exertion such as rowing and wind surfing.

The activities that registered high percentage of participants also had a correspondingly high level of interest as revealed by the following mean values; boat cruising ( $\bar{x} = 3.81$ ), bird watching ( $\bar{x} = 3.72$ ) and canoeing popularly known as mokoro rides in local language ( $\bar{x} = 3.45$ ). Despite having very few tourists engaging in rowing (3%) and sailing (10%), the means for rowing ( $\bar{x} = 3.01$ ) and sailing ( $\bar{x} = 3.16$ ) indicated relatively higher interest in the activities. Tourist level of interest was low for the other activities like fly fishing ( $\bar{x} = 2.89$ ), kayaking ( $\bar{x} = 2.87$ ) and wind surfing ( $\bar{x} = 2.52$ ).

#### 6.2.5.7 Descriptive analysis of nature products

Nature products are an integral part of ecotourism, given that the activities readily satisfy principles of promoting local development, education conservation, and minimal environmental damage (Weaver, 2008; Cobbinah, 2015). Results in Table 6.13 portray that sunset viewing (83%) was the most sought-after activity since it attracted the highest percentage of participants compared to all the other activities. Participation in the other nature activities, scenic flights over the Delta (25%), botanic tours in forest reserves (14%), and tree planting and conservation (10%) was generally low.

**Table 6.13: Participation and level of interest in Nature products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Nature	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Sunset viewing	83	17	3	4	12	23	58	4.30
Participation in tree planting and conservation activities	10	90	11	13	26	27	23	3.37
Visiting organic farms	8	92	12	8	29	31	20	3.39
Scenic flights over the Delta	25	75	8	5	14	39	34	3.86
Botanic tours in forest reserves	14	86	10	10	26	30	24	3.47

**Key:** STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.

Despite the low percentage of participation for some of the activities, the mean values reflected moderate to high levels of interest and importance placed on nature activities. Sunset viewing was quite high ( $\bar{x} = 4.30$ ), as well as scenic flights over Delta ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ), botanic tours in forest reserves ( $\bar{x} = 3.47$ ), visiting organic farms ( $\bar{x} = 3.39$ ) and tree planting and conservation activities ( $\bar{x} = 3.37$ ). From literature, Botswana experiences spectacular sunsets due to the effect of large water bodies in Okavango Delta and Chobe river, hence the high level of interest in the activity from both participants and non-participants (Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO), 2015).

#### 6.2.5.8 Descriptive analysis of ecotourism accommodation products

Ecotourism accommodation products fit into ecotourism since the design and construction satisfy philosophies and principles of ecotourism by giving emphasis to ecological sensitivity and associated supplements like nature walks, hiking and conservation. Ecotourism accommodation is therefore, a vital aspect of ecotourism given the direct impact on natural environment, local community and ecotourism experience (Osland & Mackoy, 2004:110; Kwan *et al.*, 2010:2; Kruger *et al.*, 2017b:3; Saayman *et al.*, 2017:68). Accommodation is also considered part of eco-products, based on Kruger *et al.*'s (2018:3) research revealing that accommodation was the greatest generator of income and one of the reasons motivating tourists travel to SANParks. Table 6.14 shows the types of accommodation used by tourists during their visit to Botswana.

**Table 6.14: Participation and level of interest in Ecotourism Accommodation products**

Activity	Participation		Level of interest					Mean
	Yes	No	STD	DID	INT	IND	SID	
Ecotourism Accommodation	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	
Staying at a campsite	34	66	8	12	20	27	33	3.64
Staying at a bungalow	13	87	12	12	29	25	22	3.34
Staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house)	10	90	12	7	23	30	28	3.54
Staying at a cabin	13	87	10	12	28	26	24	3.43
Staying at a National Park accommodation	46	54	5	6	12	35	42	4.01
Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment	35	65	5	6	21	31	37	3.90
Staying at a tented camp	35	65	10	5	23	32	31	3.69
Staying at a lodge	65	35	5	7	14	27	47	4.03
Staying at a backpackers	12	88	18	17	30	16	19	3.03

Staying at a guesthouse	10	90	14	13	28	24	21	3.23
Staying at eco-certified accommodation	28	72	12	5	17	33	33	3.70

**Key: STD: Strongly Disinterested. DID: Disinterested. INT: Indifferent. IND: Interested. SID: Strongly Interested. %: percentage.**

All forms of accommodation were utilised to some extent. However, respondents mainly stayed in lodges (65%), National parks (46%), tented camp (35%), eco-friendly accommodation establishment accommodation (35%), and campsite (34%). 28% of the tourists consider staying in an eco-certified accommodation a top priority. Usage of other accommodation types was generally low, with 13% each for staying at a bungalow and staying at a cabin, staying at backpackers (12%), and 10% each for staying at a guesthouse and staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house). Tourists, therefore, favoured staying in accommodation bringing them closer to nature.

Regarding level of interest, accommodation types preferred by tourists as reflected by the high mean values were, staying in lodge ( $\bar{x} = 4.03$ ), staying in National park accommodation ( $\bar{x} = 4.01$ ), staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment ( $\bar{x} = 3.90$ ), staying in eco-certified accommodation ( $\bar{x} = 3.70$ ), staying in tented camp ( $\bar{x} = 3.69$ ) and staying at campsite ( $\bar{x} = 3.64$ ). Interest in other types of accommodation was marginal; as in staying at a guesthouse ( $\bar{x} = 3.23$ ), and staying at backpackers ( $\bar{x} = 3.03$ ). Tourists were mostly interested in types of accommodation that they used, given that accommodation registering low usage percentage also had low level interest with the exception of staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house). Although just 10% of tourists stayed at tree top eco-lodge (tree house), there was considerable interest in this type of accommodation as reflected by mean ( $\bar{x} = 3.54$ ). From the description, the pattern of interest showed tourists' inclination to accommodation with minimal effects on the environment.

#### **6.2.6 Reasons for not participating in most of the ecotourism activities**

Respondents strongly identified the following reasons for non-participation; it was not part of my tour (41%  $\bar{x} = 3.92$ ), I did not have time (31%  $\bar{x} = 3.62$ ), I was not aware of the activities (19%  $\bar{x} = 3.34$ ), I was not in the area of certain activities (16%  $\bar{x} = 3.36$ ) and it was not offered to me (16%  $\bar{x} = 3.11$ ). Details of the reasons are shown in Table 6.15.

**Table 6.15: Reasons for non-participation in activities in most of the ecotourism activities**

Reason for not participating	Level of agreement					Mean
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
	%	%	%	%	%	
I did not have time	10	11	17	32	31	3.62
I did not have the budget	20	21	27	18	14	2.86
I was not aware of the activities	8	18	24	31	19	3.34
I was not in the area of certain activities	8	15	26	35	16	3.36
I did not have interest in these activities	12	15	28	34	11	3.16
It was not offered to me	14	19	26	25	16	3.11
It was too expensive	17	17	30	22	14	3.02
It was not part of my tour	6	5	21	27	41	3.92

Key: freq – frequency % - percentage

There is need to be more aggressive in marketing all activities since combining agree and strongly agree indicates that 50% of the respondents were not aware of the activities. This partly explains the high mean ( $\bar{x} = 3.92$ ) for not including the activities in the tour since they did not know about them. Botswana is generally considered an expensive destination ( $\bar{x} = 3.02$ ); hence, the need for packages that attract middle to low earning tourists.

### 6.2.7 Supporting services

Although there was diversity in relation to importance of supporting services, the general trend revealed that respondents highly rated services that directly affected their experience. The following services were highly ranked and considered extremely important; knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives (58%), introduction of a variety of game (46%), green practices (waste management) (41%), education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines (40%). Table 6.16 shows details of services in relation to modifying the ecotourism products.

**Table 6.16: Importance of supporting services in modifying ecotourism products**

Supporting services	Level of importance					Mean
	Not important	Slightly important	Important	Very important	Extremely important	
	%	%	%	%	%	
Facility must be graded and eco-certified	6	9	25	27	33	3.73
Provision of facilities for children	27	18	27	12	15	2.70
Availability of facilities for the physically challenged	19	15	26	19	21	3.07
Outdoor recreation area	10	14	28	28	20	3.33
Facility for outside cooking	18	20	24	20	18	3.01

Usage of environmentally friendly water and energy saving techniques	6	9	22	31	32	3.74
Souvenirs are readily available for purchase	22	19	27	20	12	2.80
Information centres in strategic places such as camps and lodges	3	10	32	27	28	3.68
Knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives	2	2	10	28	58	4.38
Green practices (waste management)	2	6	17	34	41	4.06
Value for money of ecotourism products	2	6	23	38	31	3.89
Affordable and easily available Internet services	5	12	19	27	37	3.80
Education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines	2	6	22	30	40	4.01
Quality and efficiency of customer service	5	10	19	32	34	3.81
Availability of business facilities (conference facilities)	30	22	19	15	14	2.61
Accessibility to different tourism attractions	6	10	24	37	23	3.61
Introduction of a variety of game (e.g. the big 5)	2	6	23	23	46	4.05
Water holes/hides	4	12	25	32	27	3.67
Bird hides	6	13	33	26	22	3.44
More modern accommodation facilities	12	15	33	21	19	3.19
Restaurant/open air restaurant	15	15	32	18	20	3.13
Golf course	46	17	21	9	7	2.16
Gym facility	40	17	23	10	10	2.35
Spa facility	41	11	20	18	10	2.45
Water facilities (pool/ water slides/super tubes)	37	19	20	10	14	2.45
Cinema facilities (Wildlife education videos)	45	14	20	13	8	2.27
Amusement park (roller coaster, ferris wheel)	55	17	13	8	7	1.97
Interpretation centre	34	22	18	21	5	2.40
Theatre facilities with cultural performances	26	20	23	21	5	2.69
Combined tour packages with other tourism products/attraction	15	10	28	26	21	3.28

**Key: freq – frequency    % - percentage**

Supporting services with high means, namely; knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives ( $\bar{x} = 4.38$ ), introduction of a variety of game ( $\bar{x} = 4.05$ ), green practices (waste management) ( $\bar{x} = 4.06$ ), education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines ( $\bar{x} = 4.01$ ), value for money for ecotourism products ( $\bar{x} = 3.89$ ), quality and efficiency of customer service ( $\bar{x} = 3.81$ ), affordable and easily available Internet services ( $\bar{x} = 3.80$ ) and

facility must be graded and eco-certified ( $\bar{x} = 3.73$ ), indicated that respondents greatly value ecotourism principles related to conservation, nature and education.

Supporting services not related to ecotourism and requiring land for development, thereby negatively affecting habitats and the environment, were ranked least important. These included amusement park (roller coaster, ferris wheel) ( $\bar{x} = 1.97$ ), Golf course ( $\bar{x} = 2.16$ ), and Cinema facilities (Wildlife education videos) ( $\bar{x} = 2.27$ ). Respondents were more concerned about learning, conservation, and products with minimal environmental impacts.

### 6.2.8 Preferred ecotourism products

Based on the ecotourism products discussed in literature, Table 6.17 shows that the extremely important product to tourists was overwhelmingly dominated by wildlife (80%), followed by nature (67%), wetland (46%), adventure (42%) and culture (27%). Hunting was the least preferred product since 65% of the tourists viewed it as not important at all.

**Table 6.17: Ecotourism products preferred**

Ecotourism aspects	Level of importance					Mean
	Not important	Slightly important	Important	Very important	Extremely important	
	%	%	%	%	%	
Wildlife	2	4	4	10	80	4.62
Nature	9	1	1	22	67	4.37
Wetlands	3	4	13	34	46	4.15
Adventure	10	11	16	21	42	3.74
Cultural	9	6	21	37	27	3.70
Hunting	65	11	6	11	7	1.85

**Key: freq – frequency    % - percentage**

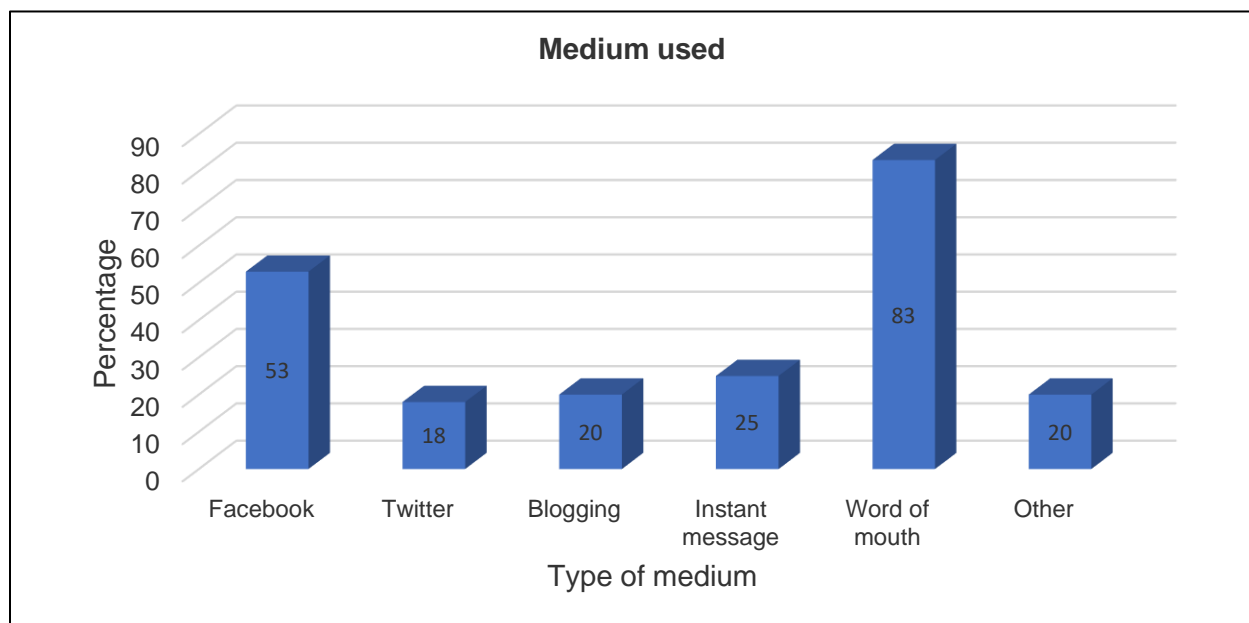
The inconsistency in policy and controversy surrounding hunting as an ecotourism product has contributed in making it the least preferred product. Despite the low participation in most adventure activities, they have high potential for development given that 42% of the respondents ranked them as extremely important. Cultural products were also significant, given that they had the highest percentage of being very important (37%). The means for importance level revealed the same pattern of preference; wildlife ( $\bar{x} = 4.62$ ), nature ( $\bar{x} = 4.37$ ), wetlands ( $\bar{x} = 4.15$ ), adventure ( $\bar{x} = 3.74$ ), cultural ( $\bar{x} = 3.70$ ) and hunting a distant ( $\bar{x} = 1.85$ ). Despite wildlife, nature and wetlands being the most preferred ecotourism products, adventure and culture were also significant products. Although the government has lifted the hunting ban, the product is least preferred, and the low mean depicts strong resentment.

### 6.2.9 Likelihood to recommend destination

Botswana is a popular destination for its raw wildlife since 96% of the respondents indicated willingness to recommend the destination to potential visitors. This is a positive factor that must be continuously worked on to attract and retain visitors.

### 6.2.10 Communication medium used

The most preferred method of disseminating information about the destination was word of mouth (83%). The use of Facebook was average at 53%, whilst the remaining mediums were infrequently used as they were all below 30%. Figure 6.2 below details methods of information sharing about Botswana.



**Figure 6.2 Medium used to disseminate information**

Although word of mouth is the easiest and most efficient way of sharing information, there is need to promote other methods given the rapid rise of communication technologies. Tourism is now characterised by increased usage of social media such as TripAdvisor, The True Travellers Society, Facebook, YouTube and Twitter to make travel and purchase decisions based on pictures, videos and reviews made by other tourists; whether positive or negative (Cooper & Hall, 2013:80; Kotler *et al.*, 2014:18; Buhalis & Foerste, 2015:153; Kiralova & Pavlicecka, 2015:359). The different social media platforms enable digitalisation and sharing of experiences in “real-time”; thus, making them a powerful force to disseminate information given the universal access to internet in most destinations (Munar & Jacobsen, 2014:47). Such developments justify the need



to promote contemporary mediums with low percentages such as twitter (18%), blogging (20%) and instant message (25%).

#### **6.2.11 Likelihood to visit again**

The likelihood to visit again was very high (94%), indicating that Botswana remained a very popular destination despite the current hunting controversy. With such high interest, the country must focus on maximising repeat visits through effective marketing and diversifying the ecotourism products to appeal to different tourist segments.

### **6.3 T-TEST COMPARISON BETWEEN PARTICIPANTS AND NON-PARTICIPANTS IN ACTIVITIES**

The study conducted an independent *t*-test to compare mean scores between tourists who participated in different ecotourism activities and those who did not, and to explain any significant differences. It helped to show the differences in the levels of interest between those who participated and those who did not participate in each ecotourism activity. The study conducted a 2-tailed test to test for equality of means against the alternative hypothesis that means are not equal. The groups were created based on whether one participated in the activity or not, in which case they were answering yes or no. The test variable upon which means were calculated was the level of interest to participate in an ecotourism based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Strongly disinterested to 5 = Strongly interested. A low mean indicated low interest to participate and low importance of the activity/product to the respondents, whilst a high mean indicated great interest and importance of the activity to the respondents. Differences in means were statistically significant at  $p \leq 0.05^*$ . There were significant differences in the average level of interest between tourists who participated and those who did not participate in different ecotourism products at the time of their visit. The next section discusses the comparisons per category as discussed in literature.

#### **6.3.1 *t*-test comparison for Culture/ Historical/Traditional activities**

Tourists who participated in culture/historic/traditional products regarded them as more important than those who did not participate as portrayed in Table 6.18 and displayed in the different activities within this category. The mean values for tourists who participated ranged from 2.83 to 4.26, while for those who did not participate, the range was from 2.39 to 3.37. Generally, those who participated showed stronger interest in the ecotourism activities. The activities that had strong significant differences ( $p \leq 0.05^*$ ) were; staying in a cultural village, sampling local food, learning local language, learning about desert survival techniques, participation and learning

about traditional dancing, learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs and visiting museums.

**Table 6.18: *t*-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Culture/Historical/Traditional products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No			
Culture/ Historical/Traditional	n	mean	n	Mean	P-value	F-value
Staying in a cultural village	41	3.98	320	3.12	<b>0.000*</b>	3.344
Sampling local food	231	4.14	127	3.37	<b>0.000*</b>	12.685
Preparing traditional dishes	24	3.08	328	3.21	0.633	0.466
Learning local language	67	4.19	292	3.25	<b>0.000*</b>	0.056
Learning about desert survival techniques	30	4.07	315	3.23	<b>0.000*</b>	5.607
Participation and learning about traditional dancing	67	3.88	284	2.83	<b>0.000*</b>	9.226
Consulting traditional healers	6	2.83	337	2.39	0.326	4.520
Learning about traditional medicines	34	2.91	309	2.86	0.785	4.397
Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs	57	3.84	305	3.23	<b>0.000*</b>	14.934
Attending traditional wedding ceremonies	13	3.31	336	2.94	0.162	2.070
Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings	27	3.96	324	3.35	<b>0.005</b>	4.679
Attending traditional court sessions (Kgotla)	18	3.44	327	2.81	0.072	0.303
Visiting museums	27	4.26	326	3.17	<b>0.000*</b>	0.305
Learning and participation in traditional games	12	3.83	336	3.17	<b>0.033</b>	1.922
Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving	17	3.76	334	3.03	<b>0.030</b>	0.150
Farm stay: experience farm life (milking, yoking, ploughing, harvesting)	13	3.54	334	2.83	0.057	0.075

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.98$ ,  $n=41$ ) were slightly more interested in staying in a cultural village than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.12$ ,  $n=320$ ). This revealed that non-participants showed considerable interest and demand for provision of this activity. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.14$ ,  $n=231$ ) showed that they were more interested in sampling local food more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.37$ ,  $n=127$ ). This showed that tourists who participated showed much trust and interest in consuming local food. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.19$ ,  $n=67$ ) showed a strong interest in learning local languages more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.25$ ,  $n=292$ ). A comparison of the two groups showed only small significant differences indicating that participants felt the same towards the activities; whether they participated or not. The main observation was that, although the means for non-participating tourists were slightly lower, they showed reasonable interest in ecotourism activities.

Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.07$ ,  $n=30$ ) also showed high interest in learning about desert survival techniques more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.23$ ,  $n=315$ ). Again, those who did not

participate outnumbered those who participated, but showed considerable interest in this activity. Similarly, those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.88$ ,  $n=67$ ) were more interested in traditional dancing compared to those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.83$ ,  $n=284$ ). Those who did not participate showed low interest in this activity. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.84$ ,  $n=57$ ) were interested in local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.23$ ,  $n=305$ ). However, those who did not participate still showed average interest in this activity. They were still an important group considering the size of the group. Viewing and learning about ancient art drew interest among those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ,  $n=27$ ) more than among those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.35$ ,  $n=324$ ). Again, non-participants were still an important group for consideration in this activity. Those who visited museums ( $\bar{x} = 4.26$ ,  $n=27$ ) were more interested in this product more than those who did not ( $\bar{x} = 3.17$ ,  $n=326$ ). Similarly, those who participated in traditional games ( $\bar{x} = 3.83$ ,  $n=12$ ) were more interested in this activity more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.17$ ,  $n=336$ ). Those who did not participate still showed interest in these activities and they were an important group for consideration.

It is interesting to note that although the *t*-test showed that the tourists who participated felt more strongly about the eco activities than the tourists who did not participate, it is clear that the non-participating tourists were also very interested in the following activities with means above 3; sampling local food (3.37), viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings (3.35), learning local language (3.25), learning about desert survival techniques (3.23), learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs (3.23), preparing traditional dishes (3.21), visiting museums (3.17), learning and participation in traditional games (3.17), staying in a cultural village (3.12), and crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving (3.03).

There were no significant differences in means for those who participated and those who did not participate with regards to preparing traditional dishes, consulting traditional healers, learning about traditional medicines and attending traditional wedding ceremonies. The levels of interest for both categories of participants ranged from low to slightly above average.

### **6.3.2 *t*-test comparison for Adventure activities**

Table 6.19 shows that tourists who participated in adventure related activities regarded them as important more than those who did not participate. They showed higher interest in all activities falling within this category. The mean values for those who participated ranged from 2.15 (lowest) to 4.30 (highest), while for those who did not participate in adventure products, it ranged from

2.50 (lowest) to 3.36 (highest). Although, the mean for tourists who did not participate was generally low, there was moderate interest in adventure activities.

**Table 6.19: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Adventure products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Caving	23	3.09	351	2.89	0.535	0.007
Donkey cart rides	8	3.00	360	2.58	0.402	0.314
Powered Paragliding	2	2.50	369	2.60	0.879	1.969
Wilderness training survival courses	10	4.30	358	3.15	<b>0.004*</b>	0.718
Cycling	28	3.86	335	2.90	<b>0.001*</b>	0.177
Ballooning	17	3.65	353	3.09	0.085	0.046
Hiking	36	3.89	329	3.19	<b>0.000*</b>	8.274
Mountain biking	7	3.57	364	2.83	<b>0.047*</b>	4.508
Quad biking	20	2.15	351	2.74	<b>0.014*</b>	12.355
Rope courses	3	2.67	368	2.63	0.967	0.032
Obstacle courses	0	0	371	2.62	0	0
Ziplining	15	2.80	352	2.87	0.868	1.234
Orienteering (foot/trail)	14	4.29	357	2.85	<b>0.000*</b>	2.636
Backpacking	18	3.67	353	2.52	<b>0.004*</b>	1.924
Jet skiing	8	2.50	363	2.50	<b>0.000*</b>	27.534
Scuba diving with crocodiles	12	3.42	356	2.81	0.103	2.113
Swimming	81	3.17	287	3.00	0.358	15.914
Underwater photography	8	3.00	358	2.96	0.920	0.314
Rafting and tubing	24	3.54	346	2.88	<b>0.017*</b>	0.627
Team building games and activities	12	4.00	355	2.60	<b>0.000*</b>	2.626
Sky diving	32	3.22	335	2.51	<b>0.001*</b>	8.369
Motorboat rides	139	3.87	229	3.16	<b>0.000*</b>	1.354
Stargazing	122	4.11	245	3.17	<b>0.000*</b>	3.883
Walking expeditions	79	3.75	290	3.36	<b>0.014*</b>	7.037
Camel riding	34	3.03	332	2.89	0.639	8.892
Paintballing	11	3.91	348	2.63	<b>0.001*</b>	10.666
4x4 trails	151	3.92	208	2.88	<b>0.000*</b>	0.542
Landform and landscape viewing	166	4.18	191	3.15	<b>0.000*</b>	35.356

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.30$ ,  $n=10$ ) showed that they were interested in wilderness training survival techniques more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.15$ ,  $n=358$ ). This showed that those who participated had strong interest and supported provision of this activity. The interest of non-participants, although slightly low, was quite encouraging. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ,  $n=28$ ) showed that they were more interested in cycling more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.90$ ,  $n=335$ ). This showed that those who participated showed greater interest and support for this activity while non-participants were not interested. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.65$ ,  $n=17$ ) showed a strong interest in ballooning more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.09$ ,  $n=353$ ). The main

observation is that those who did not participate were also interested in this activity since differences in the means was marginal.

More so, participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.89$ ,  $n=36$ ) showed high interest in hiking more than those who did not participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.19$ ,  $n=329$ ). Again, those who did not participate outnumbered those who participated, and they showed average interest in this activity. Similarly, those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.29$ ,  $n=14$ ) were more interested in orienteering compared to those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.85$ ,  $n=357$ ). Those who did not participate showed low interest in this activity. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.54$ ,  $n=24$ ) were interested in rafting and tubing more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.88$ ,  $n=346$ ). Most importantly, those who did not participate lacked interest in this activity. Team building games and activities received interest among those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.00$ ,  $n=12$ ) more than among those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.60$ ,  $n=355$ ). Again, non-participants were still not interested in this activity.

Tourists who engaged in motor bike rides ( $\bar{x} = 3.87$ ,  $n=139$ ) were more interested in this activity more than those who did not ( $\bar{x} = 3.16$ ,  $n=229$ ). Similarly, those who participated in walk expeditions ( $\bar{x} = 3.75$ ,  $n=79$ ) were interested in this activity more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.36$ ,  $n=290$ ). Those who did not participate still showed interest in this activity and were an important group for consideration. Those who participated in star gazing ( $\bar{x} = 4.11$ ,  $n=122$ ) felt that it was important more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.17$ ,  $n=245$ ). Again, paintballing was viewed as more important by participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.91$ ,  $n=11$ ) than by those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.63$ ,  $n=348$ ). Non-participants were generally not interested in the activity. In addition, those who participated in 4x4 trails were more interested in the activity than non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 2.88$ ,  $n=208$ ). Landform and landscape viewing received more interest from those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.18$ ,  $n=166$ ) than from those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.15$ ,  $n=191$ ). The activities that had strong significant differences ( $p = 0.000^*$ ) were; hiking, backpacking, jet skiing, team building games and activities, motorboat rides, stargazing, 4x4 trails and landform and landscape viewing. There were no other statistical differences observed between the value items and tourists being participants or non-participants.

The non-participating tourists were interested in the following activities with a mean above 3: walking expeditions (3.36), hiking (3.19), stargazing (3.17), motorboat rides (3.16), wilderness training survival courses (3.15), landform and landscape viewing (3.15), ballooning (3.09) and swimming (3.00). Provision of these activities should be expanded since they generated interest from both groups of tourists.

### 6.3.3 t-test comparison for Wildlife/Wilderness activities

Tourists who participated in Wildlife/Wilderness activities regarded the activities as important more than those who did not participate, since their interest was higher in all activities. The mean values for those who participated ranged from 2.58 (lowest) to 4.33 (highest) while for those who did not participate ranged from 2.87 (lowest) to 3.80 (highest). Generally, those who did not participate were also interested in the activities as portrayed in Table 6.20.

**Table 6.20: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Wildlife/Wilderness products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Wildlife Wilderness						
Archery using traditional bow and arrow	17	2.59	332	2.87	0.406	2.278
Animal trekking	163	4.12	202	3.75	<b>0.002*</b>	2.562
Photographic tours	165	4.33	194	3.80	<b>0.000*</b>	6.255
Guided walks	147	3.95	216	3.80	0.239	4.069
Self-drive mobile safaris	54	3.83	296	3.53	0.300	3.102
Guided mobile safaris	289	4.07	64	3.73	0.069	6.307
Interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding	60	3.85	288	3.19	<b>0.000*</b>	5.322
Horseback riding	64	3.69	291	3.23	<b>0.010*</b>	2.489
Participation in wildlife conservation programs	47	3.83	300	3.67	0.409	0'412
Learn about Ostrich rearing programs	12	2.58	350	3.02	0.282	0.337
Eco-volunteering	15	2.67	347	2.96	0.306	1.733

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.12$ ,  $n=163$ ) showed that they were highly interested in animal trekking more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.75$ ,  $n=202$ ). The difference in means was small, showing nonparticipants' support for provision of this activity since their interest was quite encouraging. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.33$ ,  $n=165$ ) showed that they were more interested in photographic tours more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.80$ ,  $n=194$ ). This showed that both participants and non-participants exhibited much trust and strong interest in this activity. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.07$ ,  $n=289$ ) showed a strong interest in guided mobile safaris more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.73$ ,  $n=64$ ). The main observation participation in this activity was quite high, and the few who did not participate were also interested in this activity.

Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.85$ ,  $n=60$ ) and non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.19$ ,  $n=288$ ) showed moderate interest in the activity, interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding. Similarly, those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.69$ ,  $n=64$ ) were slightly more interested in horseback riding compared to those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.23$ ,  $n=291$ ). There were no other significant differences between activities and tourists being participants or not.

The non-participants were interested in the following activities (mean above 3): photographic tours (3.80), guided walks (3.80), animal trekking (3.75), guided mobile safaris (3.73), participation in wildlife conservation programs (3.67), self-drive mobile safaris (3.53), horseback riding (3.23), interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding (3.19) and learn about Ostrich rearing programs (3.02). Wildlife/Wilderness activities generate high interest, hence, provide a good diversification option.

### 6.3.4 t-test comparison for Events

Tourists who participated in events activities regarded them as important more than those who did not participate. Their level of interest was higher in all activities with the exception of participation in indigenous food festivals. The mean values for those who participated ranged from 2.29 (lowest) to 4.60 (highest) while for those who did not participate in the product it ranged from 2.79 (lowest) to 3.15 (highest). Table 6.21 shows that, those who did not participate showed interest in some of the activities.

**Table 6.21: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Events products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Events						
Participation in fly fishing festival	2	3.00	364	2.79	0.004*	6.181
Attending Cultural festivals (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba and Kuru dance)	10	4.50	349	3.11	0.003*	1.146
Participation in indigenous food festivals	16	2.56	344	3.24	0.051	0.022
Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops	6	3.33	353	3.15	0.792	0.933
Participation in annual race for rhinos	6	3.00	345	2.97	0.969	0.855
Fun run	7	2.29	348	2.81	0.199	1.119
Arts and crafts markets/festivals	24	3.79	339	3.15	0.029*	0.001
Desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation	5	4.60	344	2.85	0.011*	2.593

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Those who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.50$ ,  $n=10$ ) showed that they were strongly interested in attending cultural festivals more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.11$ ,  $n=349$ ). However, the mean for non-participants revealed considerable interest in the activity. This showed that support for provision of this activity was high. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.79$ ,  $n=24$ ) showed that they were marginally more interested in arts and crafts markets than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.15$ ,  $n=339$ ). This showed that the activity was relevant to both participants and non-participants. Participation in Desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation showed remarkable contrast, since tourists who participated ( $\bar{x} = 4.60$ ,  $n=5$ ) were strongly interested whereas those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.85$ ,  $n=344$ ) were not interested in the activity. In contrast, participants

( $\bar{x}$  = 2.56, n=16) showed less interest to participate in indigenous food festivals as compared to those who did not participate ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.24, n=344). Thus, non-participating tourists were potential clientele for this kind of activity. It was interesting to note that this was one of the few activities where tourists who did not participate were more interested than those who participated. In general, non-participating tourists were interested in the following activities (mean above 3); participation in indigenous food festivals (3.24), attending biodiversity and conservation workshops (3.15), arts and crafts markets/festivals (3.15) and attending Cultural festivals (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba and Kuru dance) (3.11). Although the number of tourists who participated in Events was low, there was considerable interest in some of the activities falling under this category.

### 6.3.5 t-test comparison for Hunting activities

Tourists who participated in hunting activities showed marginal interest while non-participants were strongly disinterested. The mean values for those who participated ranged from 2.00 (lowest) to 3.42 (highest), while for those who did not participate, it ranged from 1.91 (lowest) to 2.49 (highest). Table 6.22 shows that on the whole, interest and support for the activities was low.

**Table 6.22: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Hunting products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Hunting						
Bow hunting	4	2.50	352	1.92	0.333	0.663
Trophy hunting	9	2.00	338	1.91	0.787	0.533
Biltong/ game meat hunting	19	3.42	330	1.92	<b>0.000*</b>	0.013
Learning traditional hunting methods	36	3.39	317	2.49	<b>0.000*</b>	7.629

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who participated ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.42, n=19) showed moderate interest in biltong/game meat hunting as contrasted to a strong lack of interest by those who did not participate ( $\bar{x}$  = 1.92, n=330). Participants in learning traditional hunting methods ( $\bar{x}$  = 3.39, n=36) also showed slightly more interest than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x}$  = 2.49, n=317). The p-value for these activities (p=0.000) also showed significant difference between participants and non-participants. Participation in this activity was restricted because of the hunting ban and general perception of hunting as consumptive, hence, did not qualify as a genuine ecotourism product. There were no other significant differences between activities and tourists being participants or not.



### 6.3.6 t-test comparison for Wetland activities

Results in Table 6.23 show that tourists who participated in wetland activities showed more interest and regarded them as more important than those who did not participate. The mean values for those who participated ranged from 2.00 (lowest) to 4.18 (highest), while for those who did not participate in the activities, it ranged from 2.54 (lowest) to 3.28 (highest). Generally, both participating and non-participating tourists displayed moderate to high interest in the activities.

**Table 6.23: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Wetland products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Bird watching	272	3.81	102	3.41	0.007*	0.213
Canoeing	86	3.62	287	3.39	0.176	4.096
Fly fishing	30	2.93	337	2.89	0.859	0.635
Wind surfing	10	2.00	354	2.54	0.109	3.300
Kayaking	15	3.00	345	2.85	0.565	14.014
Rowing	11	3.09	353	3.00	0.824	0.163
Sailing	36	3.28	324	3.15	0.512	3.236
Boat cruising	216	4.18	148	3.28	0.000*	31.995

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.81$ ,  $n=272$ ) showed that they were slightly more interested in bird watching than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.41$ ,  $n=102$ ). This showed that participants and non-participants supported this activity. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.18$ ,  $n=216$ ) showed stronger interest in boat cruising as compared to tourists who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.28$ ,  $n=148$ ), whose interest was marginally lower. This showed that both participants and non-participants' preference for this activity was high. In addition, the activity had strong significant difference ( $p = 0.000^*$ ). Generally, non-participating tourists were interested in the following activities (mean above 3); bird watching (3.41), canoeing (3.39), boat cruising (3.28), sailing (3.15) and rowing (3.00).

### 6.3.7 t-test comparison for Nature activities

Findings captured in Table 6.24 indicate that both tourists who participated and those who did not participate in nature related activities regarded them as important. However, participants showed stronger interest in the different activities within this category. The mean values for tourists who participated ranged from 3.76 (lowest) to 4.30 (highest) while for those who did not participate in the product ranged from 3.33 (lowest) to 4.28 (highest). Sunset viewing ( $\bar{x} = 4.30$ ,  $n=307$ ) recorded the highest number of participants, and interest in the activity was very strong. Respondents who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 4.28$ ,  $n=58$ ) were also highly interested in the activity. Sunset viewing is therefore, a key activity that should be actively promoted.

**Table 6.24: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Nature products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Sunset viewing	307	4.30	58	4.28	0.811	7.149
Participation in tree planting and conservation activities	38	3.76	310	3.28	<b>0.030*</b>	0.121
Visiting organic farms	30	3.80	320	3.33	<b>0.011*</b>	8.098
Scenic flights over the Delta	87	4.15	268	3.74	<b>0.002*</b>	6.134
Botanic tours in forest reserves	52	3.88	301	3.35	<b>0.004*</b>	0.046

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who participated ( $\bar{x} = 3.76$ ,  $n=38$ ) showed that they were marginally more interested in tree planting and conservation activities than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.28$ ,  $n=310$ ). This showed that few participants showed their support. Prospects for expanding this activity are high based on the moderate to high interest levels from both sets of tourists. Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.80$ ,  $n=30$ ) showed that they were more interested in visiting organic farms than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.33$ ,  $n=320$ ). This difference in means was small; hence, both participants and non-participants support provision and development of this activity.

Participants showed a strong interest in Scenic flights over Delta as another sought after activity since both participating tourists ( $\bar{x} = 4.15$ ,  $n=87$ ) and non-participating tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.74$ ,  $n=268$ ) showed strong interest. This also applies to botanic tours in forest reserves where participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.88$ ,  $n= 52$ ) and non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.35$ ,  $n=301$ ) showed strong to moderate interest respectively. There were no other significant differences between activities and tourists being participants or not. The non-participating tourists were interested in the following activities (mean above 3): sunset viewing (4.28), scenic flights over the Delta (3.74), botanic tours in forest reserves (3.35), visiting organic farms (3.33) and participation in tree planting and conservation activities (3.28). The main observation was that, when compared to other ecotourism product categories, nature products generated the strongest interest from both participating and non-participating tourists. Thus, non-participants offered potential clientele base for this kind of product.

### 6.3.8 t-test comparison for Ecotourism accommodation

Table 6.25 indicates that both tourists who participated and those who did not participate in using ecotourism accommodation regarded it as important and showed much interest in the different types within the category. The mean values for tourists staying in the types of accommodation offered ranged from 3.69 (lowest) to 4.37 (highest), while the mean values for those who did not

stay ranged from 3.21 (lowest) to 4.09 (highest). The types of accommodation with significant differences ( $p=0.000$ ) are indicated in bold.

Tourists who stayed in a campsite ( $\bar{x} = 3.91$ ,  $n=124$ ) showed marginally more interest than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.47$ ,  $n=241$ ). This showed that both groups supported provision of this type of accommodation.

**Table 6.25: t-test comparison of participation and non-participation in activities for Ecotourism Accommodation products**

ACTIVITY	Yes		No		P-value	F-value
	n	mean	n	mean		
Staying at a campsite	124	3.91	241	3.47	<b>0.001*</b>	0.937
Staying at a bungalow	45	4.00	312	3.21	<b>0.000*</b>	1.153
Staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house)	35	3.86	331	3.49	<b>0.040*</b>	6.734
Staying at a cabin	44	4.20	312	3.34	<b>0.000*</b>	1.702
Staying at a National Park	162	4.23	194	3.80	<b>0.000*</b>	7.259
Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (hotel)	129	4.37	231	3.56	<b>0.000*</b>	16.573
Staying at a tented camp	122	3.93	243	3.58	<b>0.019*</b>	5.987
Staying at a lodge	228	3.99	127	4.09	0.431	0.010
Staying at a backpackers	45	3.58	313	2.95	<b>0.003*</b>	0.024
Staying at a guesthouse	35	3.69	315	3.13	<b>0.038*</b>	2.001
Staying at eco-certified accommodation	106	4.17	256	3.45	<b>0.000*</b>	14.033

Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.00$ ,  $n=45$ ) showed that they were highly interested in staying in a bungalow more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.21$ ,  $n=312$ ). This showed that non-participants were moderately interested in this accommodation type. This also applied to staying in a cabin where participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.20$ ,  $n=44$ ) showed stronger interest than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.34$ ,  $n=312$ ). Participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.86$ ,  $n=35$ ) showed a stronger interest in staying in a tree house more than those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 3.49$ ,  $n=331$ ). The main observation was that there was moderate support for this product from both groups.

Staying in a national park was one the most favoured accommodation types since both participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.23$ ,  $n=162$ ) and non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.80$ ,  $n=194$ ) showed strong interest. Similarly, lodges were also very popular, and on one occasion, non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.09$ ,  $n=127$ ) showed stronger interest than participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.99$ ,  $n=228$ ). Given the high levels of interest in lodges, their expansion as a diversification option should be prioritised.

Tourists who stayed in an eco-friendly accommodation (hotel) ( $\bar{x} = 4.37$ ,  $n=129$ ) were more interested than those who did not ( $\bar{x} = 3.56$ ,  $n=231$ ). There was moderate interest in the latter,

and they indicated the importance of this accommodation type. Those who stayed in tented camp ( $\bar{x} = 3.93$ ,  $n=122$ ) were more interested than those who did not ( $\bar{x} = 3.58$ ,  $n=243$ ). It is of interest to note that the number of tourists who did not stay in tented camp were double the number of those who did. However, they were interested and attached importance to this form of accommodation. Tourists who stayed at backpackers ( $\bar{x} = 3.58$ ,  $n=45$ ) indicated moderate interest, and their views were significantly different from those who did not participate ( $\bar{x} = 2.95$ ,  $n=313$ ). Tourists who did not stay in backpackers indicated that they were not interested in this accommodation type. Those who stayed at a guest house ( $\bar{x} = 3.69$ ,  $n=35$ ) regarded this as being more important than those who did not ( $\bar{x} = 3.13$ ,  $n=315$ ). This showed that both groups had considerable interest in the form of accommodation.

The demand for eco-certified accommodation was high since both participants ( $\bar{x} = 4.17$ ,  $n=106$ ) and non-participants ( $\bar{x} = 3.45$ ,  $n=256$ ) showed strong and moderate interest respectively. In general, demand for ecotourism accommodation was there, given that non-participating tourists were interested in staying in the following accommodation types with mean above 3; staying at a lodge (4.09), staying at a National Park (3.80), staying at a tented camp (3.58), staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (hotel) (3.56), and staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house) (3.49), staying at a campsite (3.47), staying at eco-certified accommodation (3.45), staying at a cabin (3.34), staying at a bungalow (3.21) and staying at a guesthouse (3.13). The next section focuses on exploratory factor analysis.

## **6.4 EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS**

Factor analyses was done to condense the ecotourism activities into manageable constructs and explore important factors under each option, thereby revealing the main theme within the activities. The analyses also identified critical factors that determined preference for certain ecotourism products. Exploratory factor analysis was done using Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure for sampling adequacy. The next section discusses factor analyses results for categories of ecotourism products and supporting services.

### **6.4.1 Factor analysis of Culture/Historical/Traditional products**

Findings showed a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling adequacy of 0.879. This was above the 0.60 stated by Field (2013) and the p-value for Bartlett's test is  $< 0$  which shows that data was adequate for factor analyses and that data was significantly correlated. A subsequent principal component exploratory, factor analyses using varimax rotation (Hair et al, 2010) resulted in three underlying factors for the culture, historical and traditional products. All the sixteen (16)

items were retained and there were no problematic loadings. These factors had acceptable factor loadings of at least 0.3; indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). There were three (3) factors that were labelled as follows: cultural attractions (Factor 1), traditional (Factor 2) and cultural experience (Factor 3). All items showed acceptable loadings. Table 6.26 shows the results of the rotated component Matrix.

**Table 6.26: Factor analysis of Culture/Historical/Traditional products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor 1 Cultural attractions</b>	<b>Factor 2 Traditional</b>	<b>Factor 3 Cultural experience</b>
Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving	0.848		
Farm stay: experience farm life (milking, yoking, ploughing, harvesting)	0.768		
Visiting museums	0.751		
Learning and participation in traditional games	0.747		
Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings	0.512		
Consulting traditional healers		0.897	
Learning about traditional medicines		0.847	
Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs		0.656	
Attending traditional wedding ceremonies		0.607	
Participation and learning about traditional dancing		0.582	
Attending traditional court sessions (Kgotla)		0.411	
Sampling local food			0.875
Staying in a cultural village			0.762
Preparing traditional dishes			0.661
Learning local language			0.587
Learning about desert survival techniques			0.462
Cronbach's Alpha	0.86	0.85	0.81
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.5	0.51	0.47
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.16</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>3.4</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items, and to examine reliability of data. All the three items indicated that there was high reliability with values above the 0.60 and ranging between 0.81 (lowest) and 0.86 (highest). In addition, inter-item correlations were used as an alternative measure of reliability. Inter-items correlations for factors 1 and 2 were at least 0.5, which is acceptable; while that for factor 3 was lower than 0.5. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items. The next section discusses each factor in detail.

#### **6.4.1.1 Factor 1: Cultural attractions**

This factor yielded a mean of 3.16, reliability coefficient of 0.86, and an inter-item correlation of 0.5. This factor captures the extent to which respondents participated and were interested in cultural attractions or products. A total of 5 items were loaded onto this factor, and included items capturing crafting workshops, farm stay, museums, traditional games, and rock paintings. All these items were significant in capturing culture and they had loadings ranging from 0.512 (lowest) to 0.848 (highest). The factor loading indicated stronger interest in activities that are more engaging (crafting workshops and farm stays) as compared to viewing and learning where engagement is subdued. Reimer and Walter's (2013) study of community-based ecotourism in Chi Phat village of Cambodia also confirmed tourist interest in activities that bring deeper immersion in local culture.

#### **6.4.1.2 Factor 2: Traditional products**

The factor consisted of the following products; consulting traditional healers, traditional medicines, learning myths and beliefs, traditional wedding ceremonies and court sessions. It indicated lower mean of 2.9 and the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha of 0.85, was higher than the minimum threshold. The second measure of reliability, mean of inter-item correlation of 0.51, was higher than the minimum threshold. This means there was internal consistency in this factor between items. The factors showed that there was minimum participation by tourists on traditional products. However, all items were significant in capturing traditional products and they had loadings ranging from 0.411 (lowest) to 0.897 (highest). The factor loadings portrayed higher interest in personal and close engagement activities (consulting traditional healers and learning about traditional medicine) compared to those involving groups (attending traditional court sessions and weddings). The mean of 2.9 shows that tourists were not so interested in traditional products.

#### **6.4.1.3 Factor 3: Cultural Experience**

This factor captured the demand for cultural experience by tourists. There were five items loaded in this factor which include staying in a cultural village, sampling cultural food, and preparing traditional dishes. The mean value was 3.4, which was moderately high, while the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, was high at 0.81. The inter-item correlation was 0.47. The factor, cultural experience, had the highest mean value (3.4) showing that tourists have strong interest and higher value for the activities when they visit Botswana. This can influence the product diversification drive that will enhance tourist experiences.

Based on the means, the most important and preferred factor was cultural experience, followed by cultural attraction and then traditional factors.

#### 6.4.2 Factor analysis of Adventure products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation resulted in three underlying factors for adventure products, namely; extreme adventure, soft adventure and motion adventure. All the twenty-five (25) items were retained and there were no problematic loadings. These factors had acceptable factors loadings of at least 0.3 indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). The analysis generated three (3) factors that were labelled as follows: extreme adventure (Factor 1), soft adventure (Factor 2) and motion adventure (Factor 3). All items showed acceptable loadings. The results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.27.

**Table 6.27: Factor analysis of Adventure products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor 1 Extreme adventure</b>	<b>Factor 2 Soft adventure</b>	<b>Factor 3 Motion adventure</b>
Rafting and tubing	0.866		
Scuba diving with crocodiles	0.817		
Swimming	0.694		
Jet skiing	0.656		
Sky diving	0.601		
Underwater photography	0.578		
Ziplining	0.570		
Wilderness training survival courses	0.432		
Motorboat rides	0.379		
4x4 trails	0.335		
Walking expeditions		0.812	
Landform and landscape viewing		0.790	
Hiking		0.488	
Stargazing		0.499	
Mountain biking			0.845
Donkey cart rides			0.797
Cycling			0.752
Obstacle courses			0.681
Rope courses			0.631
Ballooning			0.620
Powered paragliding			0.610
Caving			0.561
Quad biking			0.533
Backpacking			0.428
Camel riding			0.355
Cronbach's Alpha	0.88	0.80	0.91
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.42	0.51	0.49
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.00</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>2.78</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items, and to examine reliability of data. All the three items indicated that there was high reliability with values which ranged between 0.80 (lowest) and 0.91 (highest). In addition, inter-item correlations were used as an alternative measure of reliability. Inter-items correlations for factors 1 and 3 were below 0.5, while the one for factor 2 was at least 0.51. According to Clark and Watson (1995), acceptable inter-item correlations between 0.15 and 0.5 were acceptable, while those above 0.5 were more than acceptable. Thus, the result contributes to the internal consistency in each factor between items.

#### **6.4.2.1 Factor 1: Extreme adventure**

This factor was composed of items with participation in products that are considered as extreme adventure composed of the following items: swimming, rafting, skiing, sky diving, motorboat rides and ziplining. The efforts to diversify needs to cater for tourist who are adventurers. The value for Cronbach's alpha was 0.88, which was higher than the threshold of 0.60 (Field, 2013). There was high internal consistency for items within this factor. More so, the value of inter-item correlations was 0.42, which was statistically acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995). The mean value of 3.00 showed that there was average demand for extreme adventure products.

#### **6.4.2.2 Factor 2: Soft Adventure**

This factor included items involving limited physical exertion, namely; walking expeditions, hiking, stargazing and landscape viewing. The mean value was the highest at 3.5, showing potential for high demand for soft adventure products. This was consistent with different tastes that tourists have as they come to Botswana. The value of Cronbach's alpha was 0.80, which was satisfactory; and the inter-item correlation coefficient was 0.51, which was both satisfactory and acceptable. This showed that there was very high internal consistency among variables in the factor.

#### **6.4.2.3 Factor 3: Motion Adventure**

This factor focused on items like mountain biking, cycling, donkey cart rides, rope courses and caving. They all included motion and entertainment to the tourists as they enjoyed the rides. The mean value of 2.78 was low, showing low demand for these activities though they may be necessary to complement other products. The level of internal consistency was highest at 0.91 and the inter-item correlation acceptable at 0.49.



Factor analyses revealed that tourists considered soft adventure as most important, followed by extreme and motion adventure. This was consistent with tourist average age of 45 years where demand for strenuous and vigorous activities was minimal.

### 6.4.3 Factor analysis of Wildlife/Wilderness products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation resulted in two underlying factors for wilderness or wildlife products; Novelty & Self and Guide. All the eleven (11) items were retained and there were no problematic loadings. These factors had acceptable factor loadings of at least 0.3 indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). Two (2) factors were generated; Novelty and Self (Factor 1) and Guide (Factor 2). All items showed acceptable loadings. The results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.28.

**Table 6.28: Factor analysis of Wildlife/Wilderness products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor 1 Novelty and self</b>	<b>Factor 2 Guide</b>
Archery using traditional bow and arrow	0.740	
Interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding	0.664	
Learn about Ostrich rearing programs	0.642	
Self-drive mobile safaris	0.597	
Horseback riding	0.547	
Eco-volunteering	0.480	
Animal trekking		0.661
Participation in wildlife conservation programs		0.622
Guided mobile safaris		0.613
Guided walks		0.575
Photographic tours		0.391
Cronbach's Alpha	0.68	0.53
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.26	0.19
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.14</b>	<b>3.89</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items, and to examine reliability of data. All the two items indicated that there was low but acceptable reliability with values of 0.680 (highest) and 0.53 (lowest). In addition, inter-item correlations were used as an alternative measure of reliability. Inter-item correlations for factors 1 & 2 were below 0.5, but Clark and Watson (1995) showed that acceptable inter-item correlations ranged between 0.15 and 0.5. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items.

#### 6.4.3.1 Factor 1: Novelty and Self

This factor comprised activities such as archery, interaction with animals, mobile safaris, horse-back riding and eco-volunteering. They captured the level of uniqueness and personality related factors for tourists. The mean score for the factor was 3.14, which showed tourists' moderate satisfaction for products in this category. Preference was moderate due to individual focus that restricted the interpretation and learning component; a key principle of ecotourism (Cobbinah, 2015:182, TIES, 2015). The activities are important in determining the extent of diversification in this direction. The measures of internal consistency were satisfactory, with a value for Cronbach's alpha of 0.68 and a measure of inter-item consistency of 0.26. This showed that products facilitating creativity and personal application should be considered as a diversification option.

#### 6.4.3.2 Factor 2: Guide

This factor comprised; animal trekking, participation in conservation programmes, guided safaris and walks, and photographic tours. The factor showed activities in which tourists largely preferred to be directed or assisted during participation. The mean score was higher at 3.89, showing greater demand for guidance during participation and consumption of different activities. The measures of internal consistency were low but still acceptable. The Cronbach's alpha was at 0.53 while the measure of inter-item correlation was 0.19.

In summary, guided products were more preferred as compared to novelty and self, indicating that tourists value learning, interpretation and experience during engagement in activities.

#### 6.4.4 Factor analysis of eco-events products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation resulted in one underlying factor for events products. All the eight (8) items were retained and there were no problematic loadings. The factor loadings were acceptable as they were all greater than 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). Only one (1) Events was generated and all items had acceptable loadings. The results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.29.

**Table 6.29: Factor analysis of Events products**

Factor Label	Factor Events
Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops	0.809
Fun run	0.798
Participation in annual race for rhinos	0.784

Attending Cultural festivals (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba and Kuru dance)	0.782
Arts and crafts markets/festivals	0.769
Participation in indigenous food festivals	0.757
Desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation	0.655
Participation in fly fishing festival	0.579
Cronbach's Alpha	0.88
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.49
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.02</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items and to examine reliability of data. All the items indicated that there was acceptable reliability with a value of 0.88 for Cronbach's alpha. In addition, inter-item correlation was used as an alternative measure of reliability and its value was 0.49. Clark and Watson (1995) showed that acceptable inter-item correlations ranged between 0.15 and 0.5. Thus, the result contributes to the internal consistency in each factor between items. The mean value of 3.02 was moderate and showed average demand for events.

#### 6.4.5 Factor analysis of Hunting products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation resulted in one underlying factor for hunting products. All the four (4) items were retained and one (1) factor hunting was generated. The factor loading was acceptable since it was greater than 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). Table 6.30 shows the results of the rotated component Matrix.

**Table 6.30: Factor analysis of Hunting products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor Hunting</b>
Trophy hunting	0.936
Biltong/ game meat hunting	0.921
Bow hunting	0.876
Learning traditional hunting methods	0.684
Cronbach's Alpha	0.87
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.63
<b>Mean</b>	<b>2.11</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items and to examine reliability of data. All the items indicated that there was acceptable reliability with a value of 0.87 for Cronbach's alpha. In addition, inter-item correlation was used as an alternative measure of reliability and its value was 0.63. Clark and Watson (1995) showed that

acceptable inter-item correlations that are at least 0.5 are more than satisfactory. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items. The mean value of 2.11 is considered low and shows low demand for hunting related products. However, the views indicated by tourists reflected influence of outside factors which restricted the level of participation at the time of visit. Botswana banned hunting in 2014 and immediately declared herself a truly ecotourism destination, a decision that was widely accepted as very progressive. The period of data collection coincided with consultations and ultimate officially lifting of the 2014 hunting moratorium covering all species on Schedule 7, that is; elephant, buffalo, leopard, large antelopes such eland, kudu, and zebra, in May 2019 by the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation and Tourism (Hunting Africa, 2019:6). This decision, viewed by some as controversial and retrogressive, coincided with the highly disputed report of increased elephant poaching. This may have intensified negative perception about hunting; hence, the intense lack of interest.

#### 6.4.6 Factor analysis of Wetland products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation retained 7 activities resulting in one underlying factor for wetland products labelled wetlands. One activity, Boat cruising, was dropped as the factor loading was below 0.3. The other activities had a factor loading greater than 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). The results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.31.

**Table 6.31: Factor analysis of Wetland products**

Factor Label	Factor Wetlands
Rowing	0.847
Wind surfing	0.844
Kayaking	0.841
Fly fishing	0.780
Sailing	0.754
Canoeing	0.655
Bird watching	0.414
Cronbach's Alpha	0.84
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.39
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.20</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items, and to examine reliability of data. This item indicates that there was acceptable reliability with a value of 0.84 for Cronbach's alpha. In addition, inter-item correlation was used as an

alternative measure of reliability, and its value was 0.39. Clark and Watson (1995) observe that inter-item correlations that are between 0.15 and 0.5 are acceptable. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items. The mean value of 3.20 was considered moderate, and showed reasonable demand for wetlands related products, especially rowing and surfing. This had implications for maintenance and preservation of wetlands in Botswana.

#### 6.4.7 Factor analysis of eco-nature products

The principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation resulted in one underlying factor for nature products. All the five (5) items were retained and there were no problematic loadings. There was one (1) factor that was labelled as Factor nature. This factor had acceptable factor loadings of at least 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). The results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.32.

**Table 6.32: Factor analysis of eco-nature products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor Nature</b>
Participation in tree planting and conservation activities	0.790
Botanic tours in forest reserves	0.754
Visiting organic farms	0.743
Scenic flights over the Delta	0.674
Sunset viewing	0.542
Cronbach's Alpha	0.75
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.37
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.68</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items and to examine reliability of data. All the items indicated that there was acceptable reliability with a value of 0.75 for Cronbach's alpha. In addition, inter-item correlation was used as an alternative measure of reliability and its value was 0.37. Clark and Watson (1995) showed that acceptable inter-item correlations can be between 0.15 and 0.5. Thus, the result contributes to the internal consistency in each factor between items. The mean value of 3.68 was considered high enough to induce participation in nature products.

#### 6.4.8 Factor analysis of Ecotourism Accommodation products

A subsequent principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation (Hair *et al.*, 2010) resulted in three factors for ecotourism accommodation products, namely; alternative accommodation, traditional accommodation and commercial or budget accommodation. All the

eleven (11) items were retained with acceptable factor loadings of at least 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). The identified factors confirmed the notion that ecotourists require a variety of accommodation products that cater for different income groups. This would enable low, middle and high income ecotourists to access ecotourism products in different settings such as parks and game reserves (Saayman & Van Der Merwe, 2017:74). Detailed results of the rotated component Matrix are reported in Table 6.33.

**Table 6.33: Factor analysis of Ecotourism Accommodation products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor 1 Alternative accommodation</b>	<b>Factor 2 Traditional accommodation</b>	<b>Factor 3 Commercial/Budget accommodation</b>
Staying at a cabin	0.864		
Staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house)	0.805		
Staying at a bungalow	0.671		
Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (hotel)	0.608		
Staying at a National Park		0.798	
Staying at a lodge		0.698	
Staying at eco-certified accommodation		0.652	
Staying at a tented camp		0.595	
Staying at a backpackers			0.858
Staying at a guesthouse			0.542
Staying at a campsite			0.423
Cronbach's Alpha	0.77	0.69	0.65
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.45	0.37	0.48
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.56</b>	<b>3.85</b>	<b>3.31</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items and to examine reliability of data. All the three items indicated that there was high reliability with values above the 0.60, ranging between 0.65 and 0.77. In addition, inter-item correlations were used as an alternative measure of reliability. Inter-items correlations for all factors between 0.15 and 0.5 was acceptable. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items.

#### **6.4.8.1 Factor 1: Alternative Accommodation**

This factor revealed a mean of 3.56, reliability coefficient of 0.77, and an inter-item correlation of 0.45. This factor captured the extent to which respondents participated and were interested in alternative accommodation or products. A total of 4 items were loaded onto this factor, and included staying in the following: a cabin, bungalow, eco-lodge and hotel. All these items were

significant in capturing culture and they had loadings ranging from 0.608 (lowest) to 0.864 (highest). There is moderate demand for these products and internal consistency is acceptable.

#### **6.4.8.2 Factors 2: Traditional Accommodation**

This factor consisted of items measuring staying in the following: national parks, backpackers, guesthouse and campsite. It had the highest mean of 3.85 and the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha of 0.69, was higher than the minimum threshold. The second measure of reliability, mean of inter-item correlation of 0.37, was higher than the minimum threshold, according to Clark and Watson (1995). This means there was internal consistency in this factor between items. The mean (3.85) indicated higher preference and demand for traditional accommodation. This was supported in The International Finance Report (cited in Saayman & Van Der Merwe, 2017:68) which observes that eco-tourists generally prefer eco-friendly traditional accommodation located in parks thus making it easier to access and view wildlife. However, all items were significant in capturing traditional accommodation and they had loadings ranging from 0.595 (lowest) to 0.798 (highest). The factor showed the importance of having a mix of traditional accommodation related products for tourists.

#### **6.4.8.3 Factor 3: Commercial/ Budget Accommodation**

This factor captured the demand for commercial accommodation by tourists. There was a total of three items loaded in this factor, which included staying in backpackers, guesthouse and campsite. The mean value was 3.31, which was moderately high while the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, was sufficiently high at 0.65. The inter-item correlation was 0.48. The mean value above 3 indicated considerable demand for generally cheaper commercial/budget accommodation; thus, making it a viable diversification option. The mean values revealed that tourists considered traditional accommodation to be most important, followed by alternative and commercial/budget accommodation.

#### **6.4.9 Factor analysis of Supporting Services products**

The study employed principle component exploratory factor analyses using varimax rotation (Hair et al, 2010) which resulted in six underlying factors for support services. All the twenty-seven (27) items were retained, and the test variable upon which means were calculated was the level of importance of identified attributes in modifying ecotourism products using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = Not important to 5 = Extremely important. The higher the mean, the more important the supporting service was to the respondents. The factors had acceptable factors loadings of at least 0.3, indicating high correlations among identified factors and their individual items (Field, 2013). The analysis yielded six (6) factors that were labelled as follows: Facilities

(Factor 1), Conservation (Factor 2), Additional Services (Factor 3), Entertainment (Factor 4), Wilderness (Factor 5) and Information (Factor 6). The analysis indicates a wide range of perceptions about the importance of supporting services. However, greater importance was attached to factors that had a strong conservation, environmental and information element. Table 6.34 shows results of the rotated component Matrix.

**Table 6.34: Factor analysis of Supporting Services products**

<b>Factor Label</b>	<b>Factor 1 Facilities</b>	<b>Factor 2 Conservation</b>	<b>Factor 3 Additional services</b>	<b>Factor 4 Entertainment</b>	<b>Factor 5 Wilderness</b>	<b>Factor 6 Information</b>
Facility for outside cooking	0.750					
Availability of facilities for the physically challenged	0.722					
Facility must be graded and eco-certified	0.689					
Provision of facilities for children	0.681					
Souvenirs are readily available for purchase	0.624					
Outdoor recreation area	0.590					
Availability of business facilities (conference facilities)	0.378					
Green practices (waste management)		0.770				
Value for money of ecotourism products		0.723				
Usage of environmentally friendly water and energy saving techniques		0.667				
More modern accommodation facilities			0.773			
Restaurant/open air restaurant			0.759			



Water facilities (pool/ water slides/super tubes)			0.553			
Gym facility			0.453			
Bird hides			0.380			
Golf course			0.446			
Spa facility			0.320			
Interpretation centre				0.811		
Theatre facilities with cultural performances				0.782		
Combined tour packages with other tourism products/attraction				0.701		
Amusement park (roller coaster, ferris wheel)				0.627		
Cinema facilities (Wildlife education videos)				0.544		
Introduction of a variety of game (e.g. the big 5)					-0.657	
Water holes/hides					-0.654	
Affordable and easily available Internet services						-0.754
Education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines						-0.515
Information centres in strategic places such as camps and lodges						-0.406
Cronbach's Alpha	0.81	0.73	0.77	0.79	0.71	0.65
Mean of inter-item correlation	0.38	0.49	0.32	0.44	0.56	0.38
<b>Mean</b>	<b>3.04</b>	<b>3.90</b>	<b>2.74</b>	<b>2.5</b>	<b>3.86</b>	<b>3.84</b>

The study employed Cronbach's alpha coefficients as measures of internal consistency among items, and to examine reliability of data. All the three items indicated that there was high reliability with values above the 0.60, and ranging between 0.65 (lowest) and 0.81 (highest). In addition,

inter-item correlations were used as an alternative measure of reliability. Inter-items correlations for all factors were at least 0.15, which was acceptable. Thus, the result contributed to the internal consistency in each factor between items.

#### **6.4.9.1 Factor 1: Facilities**

This factor revealed a mean of 3.04 reliability coefficient of 0.81 and an inter-item correlation of 0.38. This factor captured the extent to which respondents required or participated in facilities. A total of 7 items were loaded onto this factor, like outside cooking, graded or eco certified facilities, having souvenirs that are ready for purchase, and outdoor recreation. All these items were significant in capturing facilities and they had loadings ranging from 0.378 (lowest) to 0.750 (highest). There is average demand for these products and internal consistency is acceptable.

#### **6.4.9.2 Factors 2: Conservation**

This factor consisted of items relating to conservation of the environment that is; green practices, usage of environmentally friendly water, energy saving techniques, and value for money for ecotourism products. The measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha of 0.73, was higher than the minimum threshold. The second measure of reliability, mean of inter-item correlation of 0.49, was higher than the minimum threshold of 0.15, according to Clark and Watson (1995). This means there was internal consistency in this factor between items. The factor had the highest mean of 3.90, indicating that conservation was of extreme importance in the provision of ecotourism products. This is consistent with findings in literature where conservation is viewed as a key component in the provision of ecotourism products.

#### **6.4.9.3 Factor 3: Additional Services**

This factor captured the demand for additional services by tourists, and seven (7) items were loaded to include facilities such as modern accommodation, restaurants, water, gym and spa. The mean value was 2.74, which was low, while the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, was sufficiently high at 0.77. The inter-item correlation was 0.32. The mean value below 3 showed that tourists attached little importance to additional facilities as focus was on services that adhered to or enhanced ecotourism principles. The services were, however, still important for some tourists, especially the business related ones since they enhance experiences and potentially open frontiers for business deals during consumption of activities.

#### **6.4.9.4 Factor 4: Entertainment**

This factor had the lowest mean of 2.50, reliability coefficient of 0.79, and an inter-item correlation of 0.44. This factor captured the extent to which respondents required or participated in entertainment. A total of 5 items were loaded onto this factor: theatre, tour packages, interpretation centre, amusement park and cinema. Although internal consistency was acceptable, there was low demand for these services due to focus on entertainment which had limited or no link to ecotourism principles. Activities such as Amusement parks are consumptive of resources and require significant alteration of the natural environment; hence, the low demand.

#### **6.4.9.5 Factors 5: Wilderness**

This factor consisted of two items related to the wilderness; Introduction of a variety of game and Water holes/hides. It recorded the second highest mean of 3.86 and the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha of 0.71, was higher than the minimum threshold. The second measure of reliability, mean of inter-item correlation of 0.56, was satisfactory, according to Clark and Watson (1995). The mean revealed that tourists attach significant importance to accessing different types of wild animals during visit. The negative loading -0.654 (lowest) and -0.657 (highest) indicate negatively stated items that were not reversely scored and usually the signs of factor loadings were indeterminate. They can be grouped together and form a factor and they are taken as a factor with positive loadings (Stenson & Wilkinson, 2012, Kutcher & Ferguson, 2013). The factor showed importance of having a wide range of conservation and related products for tourists.

#### **6.4.9.6 Factor 6: Information**

This factor captures the demand for information facilities by tourists. Three (3) items were loaded in this factor; availability and affordability of internet, education on appropriate behaviour, and information centres in strategic places. The mean value was 3.84 while the measure of reliability, Cronbach's alpha, was above the threshold at 0.65. The inter-item correlation was 0.38. The mean value (3.84) indicated that tourists regarded provision of information as very important since it formed part of the learning process. The information was relevant in decision making on types of products to consume. The findings were consistent with findings in literature where education and information were key components of ecotourism experience (Honey, 2008; Powell & Ham, 2008; Cobbinah; 2015:183; Botha *et al*, 2016:86).

In summary, supporting services that directly relate to principles of ecotourism were most preferred as confirmed by conservation being considered the most important followed by wilderness, information, facilities, additional services and entertainment ranked in order of importance.

## **6.5 T-TEST COMPARISON OF PURPOSE OF TRAVEL BY ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS AND SERVICES**

The study further examined the results using independent *t*-test between the demographic variables and all the factors that were extracted using factor analysis, namely; ecotourism products and supporting services. The analysis only focused on purpose of travel because other demographic variables such as age and income did not yield any significant outcomes when compared against the factors. Tourists were identified based on their purpose of travel which was important in understanding the differences in levels of interest in product offerings. Identifying tourists based on purpose of travel and the level of interest in a product would be useful in complementing product diversification efforts. This would inform the level and extent of modification to be done on ecotourism products that are offered to tourists. Tests were done using tourists' particular purpose of travel against level of interest in a particular product and level of importance for supporting service. The analysis examined differences of opinion on a particular product. The effect sizes for these differences were also assessed. Consistent with Field (2013), statistical differences are indicated by *p*-values lower than or equal to 0.05. When effects are large, the means for the two groups are far apart showing statistical differences between opinions of participants and non-participants. Consensus is present where the means for the two groups are closer and effects are small. Effect size was considered at three levels; 0.3 – 0.499 small, 0.5 – 0.799 medium and large difference for 0.8 and above. Although independent *t*-test were between purpose of travel and all the variables that were extracted using factor analysis, only those with 0.3 effect size or higher were considered for analysis as discussed in the section below.

### **6.5.1 *t*-test comparison for wildlife and non-wildlife visitors according to supporting services**

For tourists whose purpose of travel was mainly wildlife, findings in Table 6.36 showed that provision of facilities as support services had a small effect of 0.36. The mean for tourists who visited for wildlife purposes ( $\bar{x} = 2.83$ ) was lower than for non-wildlife visitors ( $\bar{x} = 3.18$ ). This showed that the factor Service Facilities was more important, among those who visited for non-wildlife purposes.

**Table 6.35: t-test comparison for wildlife**

Factor	Number of respondents and mean		Values		Effect size
	Purpose		F	P-value	
	Wildlife	Non-wildlife			
Services_Facilities	n=149 2.83	n=226 3.18	1.582	<b>0.000*</b>	0.36

Effect size 0.3 – small difference 0.5 – medium difference 0.8 – large difference  
Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Provision of aspects such as facilities for physically challenged, outside cooking and outdoor recreation that comprise the factor Service\_Facilities, was more important to tourists who visited for non-wildlife purposes. It will help in enhancing their preferences and experience of ecotourism products.

### 6.5.2 t-test comparison for education and non-education visitors by ecotourism products and services

Results in Table 6.37 provides evidence for tourists who came for educational purposes.

**Table 6.36: t-test comparison for Education**

Factor	Number of respondents and mean		Values		Effect size
	Purpose		F	P-value	
	Education	Non-Education			
Cultural_attractions	n=16 3.75	n=362 3.13	0.867	<b>0.042*</b>	0.56
Wilderness_novelty & self	n=16 3.63	n=365 3.12	0.461	<b>0.019*</b>	0.58

Effect size 0.3 – small difference 0.5 – medium difference 0.8 – large difference  
Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

The study showed there were small to medium effects on tourist perception concerning provision of different products. Tourists visiting for educational purposes were more interested in the activities that comprised the factors as compared to those who travelled for other purposes.

Education tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.75$ ) were more interested in the factor Cultural\_attractions as compared to those who visited for other purposes ( $\bar{x} = 3.13$ ), with medium effects of 0.56. In the same vein, education tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.63$ ) were more interested in provision of activities covered by Wilderness novelty and self-factor than non-education tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.12$ ), with medium effects of 0.58. There were no other significant differences in means. The effects for different factors were at least 0.3. Results showed that Educational tourist preferred provision of activities that allowed them to express their self-abilities rather than those that required a professional guide. They were more

interested in cultural attractions and experience, which need to be prioritised as diversification options.

### 6.5.3 t-test comparison for shopping and non-shopping visitors by ecotourism products and services

Results in Table 6.38 show that there were small, medium and large effect size differences on shoppers' perceptions of product and service provision.

**Table 6.37: t-test comparison for Shopping**

Factor	Number of respondents and mean		Values		Effect size
	Purpose		F	P-value	
	Shopping	Non-Shopping			
Cultural_experience	n=3 3.89	n=382 3.40	3.311	<b>0.031*</b>	0.51
Wilderness_guide	n=3 3.13	n=380 3.90	2.194	<b>0.022*</b>	1.00
Services_guides & interactive	n=3 4.00	n=366 4.38	5.838	<b>0.000*</b>	0.43

Effect size 0.3 – small difference 0.5 – medium difference 0.8 – large difference  
Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

A general view of the results reveals that only Cultural\_experience factor (3.89) had a higher mean value for tourists who visited for shopping purposes than for non-shopping tourist (3.40). This showed that tourists who visited for shopping are largely not interested in other activities or services.

Those who visited for other purposes ( $\bar{x} = 3.90$ ) were more interested in the factor Wilderness\_guide as compared to those who travelled for shopping ( $\bar{x} = 3.13$ ), with higher effects of 1.00. The same also applies to Services\_guides and interactive factor which had medium effect sizes.

There were no other significant differences in means, the effect sizes for different factors were at least 0.3. These results suggested that shoppers can be segmented based on cultural experience, and the need to be guided on wilderness related product offerings. Shoppers may influence the provision of services and activities that bring a new experience.

#### 6.5.4 t-test comparison for cultural events and non-cultural events visitors by ecotourism products and services

Findings on Table 6.39 show that there were small effects on perception of different activities by tourists visiting for the purpose of cultural events. Only one factor, Adventure\_soft showed statistical differences with a p-value lower than 0.05.

**Table 6.38: t-test comparison for Cultural events**

Factor	Number of respondents and mean		Values		Effect size
	Purpose		F	P-value	
	Cultural events	Non-Cultural events			
Adventure_soft	n=14 3.98	n=362 3.47	3.325	<b>0.043*</b>	0.47

Effect size 0.3 – small difference 0.5 – medium difference 0.8 – large difference  
Significant difference at  $p \leq 0.05^*$  (Pallant, 2013:246)

Tourists who visited for cultural events showed more interest as compared to those who visited for other purposes in activities falling under the rest of the factors.

Cultural events tourists ( $\bar{x} = 3.98$ ) were more interested in the factor Adventure\_soft as compared to those visiting for other purposes ( $\bar{x} = 3.47$ ), with small effects of 0.47. These results suggested that demographic variables are important in explaining the type of product offering. Those who preferred soft adventure activities were generally of mature age groups as discussed previously. Thus, the visitors who came for cultural events had influence on the provision of adventure activities.

## 6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS MADE BY TOURIST TO IMPROVE ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS IN BOTSWANA

The questionnaire had one open ended question that sought recommendations to improve the ecotourism products in Botswana. The recommendations mainly related to communication, marketing, travel and infrastructure. Recommendations were that; advertising or promotion of the country must be expanded, especially for distant countries such as Australia, New Zealand and Canada, using the various forms of electronic and print media now widely available. Marketing should also be improved for cultural products, small parks, adventure, backpacking products and conservation activities by different tourism establishments such as Caracal biodiversity centre and animal sanctuary in Kasane. It was recommended that the urban villages of Kasane and Maun should focus on developing tourism products and activities that will help in lengthening tourists' stay in Botswana.

Training of guides should be prioritised since some of them were too shy and struggled to communicate fluently in English. It was also recommended that flights to Kasane be increased, gravel roads fixed to improve networks connecting to other places of interest, internet connectivity improved, especially in resort centres of Maun and Kasane, transport for backpackers or independent travellers improved, price of packages reduced to enable visitation by other market segments such as backpackers, and community participation increased, especially through art and culture. The improvements should be in such a way that the destinations are not too commercialised. It was also recommended to improve waste collection and recycling processes and maintain ban on hunting.

Kasane and Maun are located in a region where Botswana shares the border with three countries (Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe) and many holiday packages cut across the countries. It was therefore, recommended to introduce a common visa for multiple entry to minimise many stamps and time wastage at border posts.

## **6.7 CONCLUSION**

The purpose of the chapter was to analyse results from the tourist survey with the aim of developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products. The analysis was divided into four sections. The first section on descriptive statistics revealed that there were more males than females, and South Africa was the main country of origin by percentage. The level of education and income was generally high and package travel was dominant with tourists spending an average of six days in the country. The section also described the demand for ecotourism products by analysing tourist participation in activities and levels of interest using the seven categories described in literature. Wildlife/Wilderness ecotourism products were the most preferred whilst hunting generated strong resentment suggesting an inclination to activities that adhere to, and support, ecotourism principles. The same trend emerged for supporting services where those linked to conservation, education and interpretation were ranked as very important. Tourists are content with state of tourism since likelihood to return and recommend to potential visitors was very high.

The second part focused on independent *t*-test to compare mean scores between participants and non-participants in different ecotourism activities to determine level of interest and explain any significant differences. Wildlife/Wilderness, Nature and Wetland ecotourism products registered the highest number of participants. It was encouraging that tourists who did not



participate showed interest, and at times it was stronger than that of those who participated. This gave an indication of products and activities to focus on as diversification options.

In the third phase, factor analyses were conducted to reduce the ecotourism activities per category and identify important factors, hence revealing the main theme. Factor analysis of Cultural/Historical/Traditional products for example, identified three factors of which cultural experience was the most important, with cultural attraction and traditional being second and third respectively.

The last section focused on *t*-tests on purpose of travel against factors that emerged from Factor analysis of ecotourism products and supporting services. Four out of the twelve purposes of travel yielded significant results. Other variables such as country of origin, age and income were also tested against the factors, but they did not yield any significant effect; hence, were excluded from analyses. Results indicated that purpose of travel influenced the type of product, activity or supporting service desired in some cases.

# Chapter 7

## CONCLUSIONS, ECO-DIVERSIFICATION FRAMEWORK & RECOMMENDATIONS

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to draw conclusions, make recommendations, provide insights for further research and develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana. The goal of the study was to develop a diversification framework for ecotourism products being guided by the following five objectives:

#### **Objective 1**

To analyse product development (including its link to marketing) and diversification in the tourism industry by means of a comprehensive literature study. (Chapter 2).

#### **Objective 2**

To identify and evaluate ecotourism principles, classification and products by means of a literature review and to analyse possible diversification option areas within ecotourism (Chapter 3).

#### **Objective 3**

To assess tourism development in Botswana with special reference to ecotourism products and diversification by means of a content analysis that; identifies and explains major milestones of tourism development in Botswana; evaluates status of ecotourism in the context of Botswana; and analyses current ecotourism activities and products in Botswana (Chapter 4).

#### **Objective 4**

To determine the international demand (needs and preferences) of ecotourism activities/products in order to identify possible diversification options. (Chapter 6).

## Objective 5

To draw conclusions, make recommendations and develop a **framework towards** diversification of eco-tourism products for the Botswana tourism industry by means of a thorough assessment of empirical results and inferences deduced from review of literature (Chapter 7).

## 7.2 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

In pursuance of developing a diversification framework for ecotourism products, conclusions of the study are based on review of literature conducted in chapters 2, 3 and 4 including empirical analysis of data done in chapter 6.

### 7.2.1 Conclusions regarding Objective 1 (Chapter 2): To analyse product development (including its link to marketing) and diversification in the tourism industry by means of a comprehensive literature study.

The following conclusions were made in relation to objective 1:

- An overview of marketing provides the foundation for understanding tourism product diversification, especially the “product” element which is firmly rooted in marketing. The concept of marketing has greatly evolved since its inception such that phases have been identified to define generic characteristics at a particular time point (c.f. 2.2).
- Tourism marketing is an offshoot of the marketing concept and is distinctive in concentrating on customers, given that tourism is mainly about people (c.f.2.2).
- The marketing mix provides tactical marketing tools to understand, identify market segments and inform on appropriate product to develop. The mix identifies 4Ps (Price, Promotion, Place and Product) framework. However, focus is on the Product element. The 4Ps are applied in a tourism context (c.f.2.3) as follows:
  - Price (c.f.2.3.1)
  - Place (c.f.2.3.2)
  - Promotion (c.f.2.3.3)
  - Place (c.f.2.3.4)
- The tourism product is intricate and difficult to define because tourism covers a wide field with tangible and intangible elements that can be combined in many ways. Dynamism in tourism is very high such that new market segments are constantly coming up, making it difficult to develop a definition that encompasses all these trends (c.f.2.4).

- The tourism product has evolved from the component view to the current experiential customer orientated focus characterised by high contact levels and co-creation (c.f. 2.4).
- Co-creation and experience are now integral parts of tourism product concept to match changing trends of tourist tastes, needs, level of education, and impact of technology (c.f.2.4).
- Diversification of tourism products is now a necessity to satisfy the continually evolving and expanding tourists' expectations (c.f.2.4).
- Diversified products enhance experience which now forms the basis for competition amongst destinations, especially in developing countries whose tourism is based on similar primary products mainly wildlife and natural landscapes (c.f.2.4).
- The Product Life Cycle (PLC) concept enhances understanding of the development of tourism products by identifying stages and strategies of diversification. The cycle also identifies when diversification can be implemented as a product progresses through the stages from introduction to decline (c.f.2.5).
- PLC in tourism is applied at destination level and diversification strategies are recommended at maturity stage. However, critical skills are required to identify the appropriate products and where to introduce them (c.f.2.5).
- Empirical research on PLC and its implications for destinations is limited in Botswana and many other developing countries, especially nature of tourist demand for new products and how diversification can be implemented (c.f.2.5).
- Tourism products require continuous product development to be competitive and remain relevant in a world characterised by globalisation, technological improvements and changing customer perceptions (c.f.2.6).
- Product development and diversification as explained by Ansoff's matrix are part of corporate level strategies for growing business that have been adopted to a tourism context (c.f.2.6).
- Product development and diversification, especially in tourism, are interconnected as diversification is highly reliant on product development, whether completely new or modifications of existing ones. The development or modification forms the initial stage of satisfying tourist tastes by creating competitiveness and diversified products (c.f.2.6).
- Tourism Product Development is derived from Product Development and it refers to moulding assets of a particular destination to meet needs of domestic and international customers (c.f.2.6.1).
- Tourism product development is vital for destinations to address:

- Evolving needs and tastes of tourists (c.f.2.6.1).
- Desire to incorporate new knowledge (c.f.2.6.1).
- Shortened product life cycles (c.f.2.6.1).
- Rising importance of environmental awareness (going green) (c.f.2.6.1).
- Increasing competition (local and foreign) (c.f.2.6.1).
- Desire for unique and extreme tourism products (c.f.2.6.1).
- Quality experience and sustainable products (c.f.2.6.1).
- There are six types of new products. However, in tourism, completely new products are rare. It is mostly revisions and modifications of existing ones. New products are hard to come by because of:
  - insufficient human capital, resources and financing (c.f.2.6.1),
  - tourism enterprises generally being small and fragmented (c.f.2.6.1),
  - primary tourism resources being largely public owned; hence, limited business focus (c.f.2.6.1), and
  - intangibility, making testing of product difficult (c.f.2.6.1).
- The process of developing new products in tourism is generally referred to as New Service Development given that tourism is essentially a service. The approach borrows heavily from the classical Booz, Allen and Hamilton (BAH) (1982) seminal model composed of 7 linear stages (c.f.2.6.2).
- Co-creation is now a key component of New Service Development since tourists are engaged, during idea generation, in collecting data about values, needs and preferences, that will be used to create/modify new services or products (c.f.2.6.2).
- The concept of diversification has evolved such that there are several perspectives in terms of definition, classification and quantification (c.f.2.7).
- Diversification has been applied in many fields such as agriculture, human resources, economics and tourism. Despite extensive research on diversification, its application in tourism is considered relatively new, and research is generally limited (c.f.2.7, c.f.2.7.1).
- There is no unified framework to analyse and evaluate diversification, resulting in various terms used to describe one thing as in diversification theory, strategy, model (c.f.2.7.1.1)
- Despite the various perspectives, generic diversification trends have been established (c.f.2.7.1.1, Table 2.6).
- Diversification is contextualised for the study as “Tourism Product Diversification”, which refers to development of new related tourism products and services that have the potential to attract or widen the experiences of new and existing tourists (c.f.2.7.1).

- Diversification is classified into two major types; related (concentric) and unrelated (conglomerate). The following related types have been identified from a tourism perspective:
  - Vertical (forward and backward) (c.f.2.7.1.2).
  - Horizontal (c.f.2.7.1.2).
  - Diagonal (c.f.2.7.1.2).
- There is a relationship between diversification and performance, such that better financial returns are attained when the new product or services is marginally different from the original one, whereas returns tend to be lower when the difference is big (c.f.2.7.1.3).
- Using the above analogy, the study adopted a diversification framework for ecotourism products based on related constrained diversification, where new products are closely related to existing ones (c.f.2.7.1.3).
- Firms diversify due to a variety of factors. However, from a tourism perspective, reasons for diversification have been examined in view of demand – supply relationship. Some of the factors are; ever increasing numbers of educated tourists, higher disposable income, emergence of the Eastern market, seasonality, and environmental challenges (c.f.2.7.1.2, Table 2.9).
- Tourism Product Diversification is beset by challenges such as loss of unique image; hence, research is required to establish the most appropriate product to develop (c.f.2.7.3).
- In Botswana, such research, especially from a demand side, is lacking. This calls for the need for a comprehensive study (c.f.2.7.3).
- Strategies of diversification come in many forms. However, the following were identified and applied to a tourism context:
  - Agency theory (c.f.2.7.4.1).
  - Market power (c.f.2.7.4.2).
  - Parallel and integrative strategy (c.f.2.7.4.3).
  - Resource based view (c.f.2.7.4.4).
- Conceptual framework was developed by fusing elements of Resource based view, Parallel and integrative and service dominant logic (c.f.2.7.4.4, Figure 2.12).

### **7.2.2 Conclusions regarding Objective 2 (Chapter 3): To identify and evaluate ecotourism principles, classification and products by means of a literature review and to analyse possible diversification options within ecotourism.**

The following conclusions were made in relation to objective 2:

- Ecotourism is one of the fastest growing tourism sector due to universal appeal of conservation and environmental consciousness (c.f.3.1).
- Ecotourism is a component of Nature-based tourism, which also falls under the umbrella term Alternative tourism (c.f.3.1, Figure 3.1).
- There are various perspectives of examining the relationship of ecotourism to other forms of tourism. The common theme is based on nature and characteristics of ecotourism (educative, promotion conservation and sustainable management, Local benefits and interpretative) (c.f.3.2, Figures 3.1, 3.2 & 3.3).
- Ecotourism's strong relationship with nature can be examined as a continuum of overlapping circles whose size of overlap denotes strength of relationship (c.f.3.2.1, Table 3.1, Figures 3.4 & 3.5).
- Definition of ecotourism is contentious, such that there is a deluge of definitions, classifications and principles. Precise definition has remained elusive as new literature tends to bring more dimensions. Major definitions were compiled mainly basing on popularity in literature (c.f.3.3, Table 3.2).
- Ecotourism concept has evolved and widened over time from primarily focusing on three areas; environment, conservation and education, to encompassing socio-economic benefits, equity dimension, sustainability, ethics, culture preservation and interpretation (c.f.3.3, Figure 3.6).
- Most countries have developed their definitions to suit their context and conditions. In Botswana, ecotourism is defined as; "[T]he country's cultural, as well as natural heritage, and that great importance is placed on the active involvement (as opposed to mere participation) of host communities and other Batswana in all aspects of the industry's management and development" Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy (2002:ii) (c.f.3.3)
- Similarly, there are various principles of ecotourism due to different ways of analysing, interpreting and evaluating the concept. However, there is emphasis on sustainability and responsible travel (c.f.3.3.1).
- Ecotourism definition and principles are contextualised to suit Botswana needs. The country is guided by the following principles:

- Minimising negative social, cultural and environmental impacts (c.f.3.3.1).
- Maximising the involvement in, and the equitable distribution of, economic benefits to host communities and citizen entrepreneurs (c.f.3.3.1).
- Maximising revenues for re-investment in conservation (c.f.3.3.1).
- Educating both visitors and local people as to the importance of conserving natural and cultural resources (c.f.3.3.1).
- Delivering a quality experience for tourists (without which tourists will not continue to visit, and so the benefits to conservation and development will not be sustained) (Stevens & Jansen, 2002:6) (c.f.3.3.1).
- Classification of ecotourism is equally controversial, and literature is replete with classification frameworks largely based on authors' views. The factors considered are the same, and differences emerge in how they are configured. Classifications that were considered for review were:
  - Deep and shallow ecotourism (Acott *et al.*, 1998:251) (c.f.3.4).
  - Soft-hard dimension (Orams, 2001:28) (c.f.3.4).
  - Soft-hard ecotourism continuum (Weaver, 2005) (c.f.3.4).
  - Ecotourism tenets and operational congruency continuum (Donohoe & Needham, 2008:34) (c.f.3.4).
  - Classification of ecotourism (Afanasiev *et al.*, 2018:137) (c.f.3.4).
- Based on a detailed examination of definitions, principles and classifications, the study identified the following 7 diversification options (area) within ecotourism:
  - Culture/Historical/Traditional (c.f.3.4.1).
  - Adventure (c.f.3.4.2).
  - Wildlife/Wilderness (c.f.3.4.3).
  - Events (c.f.3.4.4).
  - Hunting (c.f.3.4.5).
  - Wetlands (c.f.3.4.6).
  - Nature (c.f.3.4.7).
- In the study, ecotourism accommodation is considered a product, based on its having grown to become one of the main factors motivating ecotourists travel (c.f.3.5).
- Ecotourism accommodation has evolved over time such that there are many forms known by different names throughout the world such as lodges, tree houses, camps and cabins. The common characteristic is that the accommodation has to satisfy ecotourism principles (c.f.3.5).



- Given the wide variety of forms, the study adopted specific types of ecotourism accommodation that were used as diversification options (c.f.3.5, Table 3.6).
- Despite limited literature, the following case studies, where the pattern of diversification is determined by the nature of development and ecotourism resources available, were used to describe diversification of ecotourism products:
  - South African National Parks: South Africa (c.f.3.6.1).
  - Nyanga National Park: Zimbabwe (c.f.3.6.2).
  - Chi Phat Community-based ecotourism project: Cambodia (c.f.3.6.3).
  - Costa Rica (c.f.3.6.4).
  - Malaysia (c.f.3.6.5).

Ecotourism is a wide and expanding field such that it is prudent to set specific boundaries that guide the study (c.f.3.7).

### **7.2.3 Conclusions regarding Objective 3 (Chapter 4): To assess tourism development in Botswana with special reference to ecotourism products and diversification by means of a content analysis that; identify and explain major milestones of tourism development in Botswana; evaluate status of ecotourism in the context of Botswana and analyse current ecotourism activities and products in Botswana.**

The following conclusions were made in relation to objective 3:

- Tourism development is closely related to economic development of the country. Discovery of diamonds after independence and prudent management triggered rapid economic development that benefitted tourism. By 1994, international tourists per annum exceeded 250 thousand and currently stand around 1.9 million (c.f.4.2).
- Diversification is considered at national and sectoral levels: National – diversifying economy from diamond dependence to other sectors such as Agriculture and Tourism; Sectoral – diversification within the tourism industry (c.f.4.2).
- Tourism development was prioritised by government and accorded ministry status in 2002, and a number of acts and policies have been passed to specifically address tourism issues. The most important are:
  - The Tourism Policy (1990) (c.f.4.2).
  - Botswana Tourism Regulations (1996) (c.f.4.2).
  - Tourism Master Plan (2000) (c.f.4.2).

- Tourism Development Framework (2001) (c.f.4.2).
- Efforts to strengthen acts and policies are weak, given that, since their promulgation, no effective revision has occurred to match contemporary trends. The 1990 Tourism policy was revised in 2008 and remained stuck at draft stage till another revision in 2018 due to the lengthy time period. It remains to be seen if the revised policy will be published in reasonable time (c.f.4.2).
- Government adopted the Human Resource Development (HRD) Plan in 2014 to strengthen existing policies and acts for tourism development. The plan identifies tourism diversification at three levels:
  - Primary (c.f.4.2).
  - Secondary (c.f.4.2).
  - Tertiary (c.f.4.2).
- Work ethic is low and is cited by World Economic Forum (2017:92) as a problematic factor slowing development ranking at 16.2 out of a score of 20 (c.f.4.2, Table 4.1).
- Tourism and related issues are managed under a single ministry composed of 10 units that are subdivided into 8 departments, 1 parastatal and 1 company (c.f.4.3).
- The structure is inefficient due to bureaucratic snags emanating from issues being repeatedly referred amongst departments in the same ministry (c.f.4.3).
- The country regards itself as an ecotourism destination and effort is applied to maintain the status attained by being crowned as best ecotourism destination in 2010 (c.f.4.4).
- Ecotourism development was supported by specific legislation in addition to those for general tourism development. Relevant legislations for ecotourism are:
  - Wildlife Conservation Policy (1986) (c.f.4.4).
  - National Conservation Policy (1990) (c.f.4.4).
  - Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act (1992) (c.f.4.4).
  - National Ecotourism Strategy (2002) (c.f.4.4).

- Community Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) Policy (2007) (c.f.4.4).
- Development of ecotourism is two-pronged; private and public sector. Private sector is well developed and concentrated in northern parts, whilst it is lagging behind in public sector and is operated under CBNRM model (c.f.4.4).
- Ecotourism status is strengthened by Botswana being among the countries with a vibrant ecotourism certification programme meant to strengthen ecotourism performance (c.f.4.4.1).
- Ecotourism development is supported and promoted by The Botswana Ecotourism Certification System (BECS) of 2010 that was largely derived from National Ecotourism strategy (c.f.4.4.1).
- Progression towards fulfilling ecotourism standards is measured by a three-level system:
  - Green (c.f.4.4.1).
  - Green+ (c.f.4.4.1).
  - Ecotourism high (c.f.4.4.1).
- Botswana is among the few countries with highest percentage of land being reserved for wildlife, 17.5% being national parks and game reserves (c.f.4.5.1).
- The country has a unique concept where 22% of land adjacent to parks is divided into Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) that are further sub-divided into smaller Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs). These areas are then leased as concessions to local communities and private sector for ecotourism development (c.f.4.5.1, c.f.4.5.2).
- There are more than 130 camps and lodges offering high quality ecotourism products and activities operated mainly by private tourism enterprises in the concession areas of Ngamiland- Chobe districts (c.f.4.5.2).
- Package tours are dominant and prior booking is mandatory, given that the camps and lodges are small (c.f.4.5.2, Table 4.5).

- Ecotourism products are expensive and diverse in terms of packaging. However, they revolve around the same activities; the main ones being:
  - *mobile safaris (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *animal trailing (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *boat cruise (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *interpretation of flora and fauna (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *scuba diving (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *bird watching (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *quad biking (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *guided walking (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *mokoro trips (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *game drives (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *horseback safaris (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *air/ground photography (c.f.4.5.2).*
  - *fly fishing and hunting (c.f.4.5.2).*
- Ecotourism in other parts of the country is not well developed due to remoteness and long geographical distance from core areas of Kasane and Okavango Delta. Although the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park and Central Kalahari Game Reserve are rich in wildlife, lack of supporting infrastructure especially roads limit access to well-resourced tourists who can afford the mandatory 4 x 4 vehicles (c.f.4.5.2).
- Community based ecotourism products have largely been unsuccessful due to limited resources and knowledge. The few successful ones are mostly located close to the Delta and Chobe regions and have, thus, benefitted from trickle effect (c.f.4.5.4).
- Most minor ecotourism forms dotted around the country are not developed and entrance is mostly free. In literature, areas such as Gaborone and Old Palapye are cited as potential areas for expanding the ecotourism product (c.f.4.5.4).
- Based on this review, a list of existing ecotourism activities was generated (c.f.4.6, Table 4.8).
- Transport infrastructure is not geared for tourism; it mainly serves the local population. It is at times difficult to connect between places using public transport for tourism purposes.

The country is vast and sparsely populated; hence, some areas require own transport (c.f.4.7).

- Although the country is endowed with resources that have the potential for ecotourism, empirical studies to determine demand is lacking (c.f.4.7).

#### **7.2.4 Conclusions regarding Objective 4 (Chapter 6): To determine the international demand (needs and preferences) of ecotourism activities/products in order to identify possible diversification options.**

The self-administered questionnaire method was used to collect demand side data from respondents at Maun and Kasane airports. The first sub-section provides study conclusions for nature of participation, levels of interest and potential factors for diversification. The second subsection discusses conclusions in relation to reasons for non-participation.

##### **7.2.4.1 Nature of participation, level of interest, importance of supporting services and diversification potential**

Conclusions on the nature of participation, level of interest and diversification potential were based on the 7 diversification option areas within ecotourism, ecotourism accommodation, supporting services and results from exploratory factor analysis. Due to the high number of activities, conclusions were drawn based on the means for the different categories. The ecotourism products were analysed in order of preference as determined by the respondents:

- Wildlife ( $\bar{x} = 4.62$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).
- Nature ( $\bar{x} = 4.37$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).
- Wetlands ( $\bar{x} = 4.15$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).
- Adventure ( $\bar{x} = 3.74$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).
- Cultural ( $\bar{x} = 3.70$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).
- Hunting ( $\bar{x} = 1.85$ ) (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17).

The ranking is important since it provides an insight of products to focus on. For each category, as shown in Table 7.1, conclusions were based on:

- *Activities that generated greatest interest for all respondents with the mean ( $\bar{x} > 3.5$ ).*
- *Activities that respondents participated in and showed high levels of interest in ( $\bar{x} > 3.5$ ).*
- *Activities that respondents did not participate in but showed interest in ( $\bar{x} > 3$ ).*
- *Difference in interest according to participation versus non-participation.*

- *Identification of activities for potential diversification based on exploratory factor analysis.*

Table 7.1 shows an analysis of ecotourism products based on nature of participation, level of interest, importance of supporting services and potential diversification factors.

Table 7.1: Nature of participation, level of interest and diversification potential for ecotourism products and supporting services

Category preferred respondents within eco-tourism (c.f.6.2.8, Table 6.17)	In general, all the respondents were interested in the following activities ( $\bar{x} > 3.5$ ) (c.f.6.2.5.1- 6.2.5.8, Table 6.7- 6.14) (c.f.6.2.7, Table 6.16)	Activities respondents are more interested in and participated ( $\bar{x} > 3.5$ ) (c.f.6.3.1-6.3.8, Table 6.18-6.25)	Activities respondents are interested in but did not participate ( $\bar{x} > 3$ ) (c.f.6.3.1-6.3.8, Table 6.18-6.25)	Difference in interest according to Participation vs Non-participation (c.f.6.3.1-6.3.8, Table 6.18-6.25)	Potential diversification factors (c.f.6.4.1-6.4.9, Table 6.26- 6.34)
Wildlife (4.62)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Photographic tours (4.05)</li> <li>• Guided mobile safaris (4.02)</li> <li>• Guided walks (3.87)</li> <li>• Animal Trekking (3.86)</li> <li>• Participation in wildlife conservation programs (3.66)</li> <li>• Self-drive mobile safaris (3.57)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Photographic tours (4.33)</li> <li>• Animal trekking (4.12)</li> <li>• Guided mobile safaris (4.07)</li> <li>• Guided walks (3.95)</li> <li>• Interacting with animals-controlled patting and feeding (3.85)</li> <li>• Self-drive mobile safaris (3.83)</li> <li>• Participation in wildlife conservation programs (3.83)</li> <li>• Horseback riding (3.69)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Photographic tours (3.80)</li> <li>• Guided walks (3.80)</li> <li>• Animal trekking (3.75)</li> <li>• Wildlife conservation programmes (3.67)</li> <li>• Guided mobile safaris (3.73)</li> <li>• Participation in wildlife conservation programs (3.67)</li> <li>• Self-drive mobile safaris (3.53)</li> <li>• Horseback riding (3.23)</li> <li>• 3.19 interacting with animals, patting and feeding (3.19)</li> <li>• Learn about ostrich rearing programs (3.02)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Photographic tours (participated (4.33) vs non participated 3.80)</li> <li>• Interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding participated (3.85) vs non participated (3.19)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Factor - Guided (3.89)</li> <li>• Factor - Novelty and self (3.14)</li> </ul> <p>There was a higher interest within the <i>GUIDED WILDLIFE</i> factor than the <i>NOVELTY AND SELF-WILDLIFE</i> factor. Respondents thus prefer guided wildlife activities more than self or individual activities.</p>
Nature (4.37)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sunset viewing (4.30)</li> <li>• Scenic flights over Delta (3.86)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sunset viewing (4.30)</li> <li>• Scenic flights over the Delta (4.15)</li> <li>• Botanic tours in forest reserves (3.88)</li> <li>• Visiting organic farms (3.80)</li> <li>• Participation in tree planting and conservation activities (3.76)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sunset viewing (4.28)</li> <li>• Scenic flights over the Delta (3.74)</li> <li>• Botanic tours in forest (3.35)</li> <li>• Visiting organic farms (3.33)</li> <li>• Participation in tree planting and conservation activities (3.28)</li> </ul>	No significant differences were found	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Only one factor was identified within Nature. The mean score of 3.68 indicates that they are very interested in this factor.</li> </ul>

Wetlands (4.15)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boat cruising (3.81)</li> <li>• Bird watching (3.72)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boat cruising (4.18)</li> <li>• Bird watching (3.81)</li> <li>• Canoeing (3.62)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bird watching (3.41)</li> <li>• Canoeing (3.39)</li> <li>• Boat cruising (3.28)</li> <li>• Sailing (3.15)</li> <li>• Rowing (3.00)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Boat cruising (4.18 vs 3.28)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in boat cruising were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All the Wetlands activities grouped in to one factor with a mean value of 3.20.</li> </ul>
Adventure (3.74)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Landform and landscape viewing (3.67)</li> <li>• Stargazing (3.52)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Wilderness training survival courses (4.30)</li> <li>• Orienteering (foot/trail) (4.29)</li> <li>• Landform and landscape viewing (4.18)</li> <li>• Stargazing (4.11)</li> <li>• Team building games and activities (4.00)</li> <li>• 4x4 Trails (3.92)</li> <li>• Paintballing (3.91)</li> <li>• Hiking (3.98)</li> <li>• Motorboat rides (3.87)</li> <li>• Cycling (3.86)</li> <li>• Walking expeditions (3.75)</li> <li>• Backpacking (3.67)</li> <li>• Ballooning (3.65)</li> <li>• Mountain biking (3.57)</li> <li>• Rafting and tubing (3.54)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Walking expeditions (3.36)</li> <li>• Hiking (3.19)</li> <li>• Stargazing (3.17)</li> <li>• Motorboat rides (3.16)</li> <li>• Landform and landscape viewing (3.15)</li> <li>• Wilderness training survival courses (3.15)</li> <li>• Ballooning (3.09)</li> <li>• Swimming (3.00)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Hiking (3.89 vs 3.19)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in hiking were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Orienteering (4.29 vs 2.85)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in orienteering were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Jet skiing (2.50 vs 2.50)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated and did not participate in jet skiing were evenly interested.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Team building games and activities (4.00 vs 2.60)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in team building games and activities were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motorboat rides (3.87 vs 3.16)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in motorboat rides were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stargazing (4.11 vs 3.17)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in stargazing were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 4 x 4 trails (3.92 vs 2.88)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in 4 x 4 trails were more interested than respondents who did not participate.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Landform and landscape viewing (4.18 vs 3.15)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The factor that respondents are the most interested in is <i>SOFT ADVENTURE</i> (3.5)</li> <li>• Secondly was <i>EXTREME ADVENTURE</i> (3.00)</li> <li>• The last factor <i>MOTION ADVENTURE</i> (2.78) was not so high in demand.</li> </ul>



				Respondents who participated in landform and landscape viewing were more interested than respondents who did not participate.	
Cultural (3.70)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sampling local food (3.86)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Visiting museums (4.26)</li> <li>• Learning local language (4.19)</li> <li>• Sampling local food (4.14)</li> <li>• Learning about desert survival techniques (4.07)</li> <li>• Staying in a cultural village (3.98)</li> <li>• Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings (3.96)</li> <li>• Participation and learning about traditional dancing (3.88)</li> <li>• Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs (3.84)</li> <li>• Learning and participation in traditional games (3.83)</li> <li>• Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving (3.76)</li> <li>• Farm stay: experience farm life (milking, yoking, ploughing, harvesting) (3.54)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sampling local food (3.37)</li> <li>• Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings (3.35)</li> <li>• Learning local language (3.25)</li> <li>• Learning about desert survival techniques (3.23)</li> <li>• Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs (3.23)</li> <li>• Preparing traditional dishes (3.21)</li> <li>• Visiting museums (3.17)</li> <li>• Learning and participation in traditional games (3.17)</li> <li>• Staying in a cultural village (3.12)</li> <li>• Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving (3.03)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying in a cultural village (3.98 vs 3.12)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who stayed in a cultural village were more interested than respondents who did not stay in a cultural village.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sampling local food (4.14 vs 3.37)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who sampled local food were more interested than respondents who did not sample local food.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning local language (4.19 vs 3.25)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who learned the local language were more interested than respondents who did not learn the local language.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning about desert survival techniques (4.07 vs 3.23)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who learned about desert survival were more interested than respondents who did not learn about desert survival.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participation and learning about traditional dancing (3.88 vs 2.83)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated and learned traditional dancing were more interested than respondents who did not participate and learn traditional dancing.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs (3.84 vs 3.23)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who learned local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs were more</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Factor 1- Cultural attractions (3.16)</li> <li>• Factor 2- Traditional (2.9)</li> <li>• Factor 3- Cultural experience (3.4)</li> </ul> <p>There was a higher demand for the CULTURAL ATTRACTIONS (3.16) factor than for the CULTURAL EXPERIENCE factor (3.4). The TRADITIONAL factor received the lowest interest with a mean value of 2.9)</p>

				<p>interested than respondents who did not learn local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Visiting museums (4.26 vs 3.17)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who visited museums were more interested than respondents who did not visit museums.</p>	
Hunting (1.85)	No group activities with a mean value above 3.5 were found	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No mean above 3.5</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No mean above 3</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Biltong/game meat hunting (3.42 vs 1.92)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in biltong/ game meat hunting were more interested than respondents who did not participate in biltong/ game meat hunting.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Learning traditional hunting methods (3.39 vs 2.49)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who participated in learning traditional hunting methods were more interested than respondents who did not participate in learning traditional hunting methods.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The hunting activities grouped into one factor with the lowest demand of all the factors with a mean value of 2.11.</li> </ul>
Events	No group activities with a mean value above 3.5 were found. Arts and craft markets and cultural festivals were the activities most in demand both with a mean values of 3.18.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Desert/Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation (4.60)</li> <li>• Attending Cultural festivals (4.50)</li> <li>• Arts and crafts markets/festivals (3.79)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Participating in indigenous food festival (3.24)</li> <li>• Arts and crafts markets/festivals (3.15)</li> <li>• Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops (3.15)</li> <li>• Attending Cultural festivals (3.11)</li> </ul>	No significant differences were found	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• All the event activities grouped together in one factor. The mean value for this factor was 3.02.</li> </ul>
Accommodation products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at a lodge (4.03)</li> <li>• Staying at a National park (4.01)</li> <li>• Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (3.90)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (4.37)</li> <li>• Staying at a National Park (4.23)</li> <li>• Staying at a cabin (4.20)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at a lodge (4.09)</li> <li>• Staying at a National Park (3.80)</li> <li>• Staying at a tented camp (3.58)</li> <li>•</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at a bungalow (4.0 vs 3.21)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who stayed in a bungalow were more interested than respondents who did not stay in a bungalow.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at a cabin (4.20 vs 3.34)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The factor highest in demand was Traditional accommodation (3.85).</li> <li>• Alternative accommodation received an interest value of 3.56.</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at an eco-certified accommodation (3.70)</li> <li>• Staying at a tented camp (3.69)</li> <li>• Staying at a campsite (3.64)</li> <li>• Staying at a tree top eco-lodge (tree house) (3.54)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at eco-certified accommodation (4.17)</li> <li>• Staying at a bungalow (4.00)</li> <li>• Staying at a lodge (3.99)</li> <li>• Staying at a tented camp (3.93)</li> <li>• Staying at a campsite (3.91)</li> <li>• Staying at tree top eco-lodge (3.86)</li> <li>• Staying at a guesthouse (3.69)</li> <li>• Staying at a backpackers (3.58)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (3.56)</li> <li>• Staying in a treehouse (3.49)</li> <li>• Staying at a campsite (3.47)</li> <li>• Staying at eco-certified accommodation (3.45)</li> <li>• Staying at a cabin (3.34)</li> <li>• Staying at a bungalow (3.21)</li> <li>• Staying at a guesthouse (3.13)</li> </ul>	<p>Respondents who stayed in a cabin were more interested than respondents who did not stay in a cabin.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at a National Park (4.23 vs 3.80)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who stayed at a National Park were more interested than respondents who did not stay at a national Park</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (4.37 vs 3.56)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who stayed in an eco-friendly accommodation establishment were more interested than respondents who did not stay in an eco-friendly accommodation establishment.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Staying at an eco-certified accommodation (4.17 vs 3.45)</li> </ul> <p>Respondents who stayed at an eco-certified accommodation were more interested than respondents who did not stay at an eco-certified accommodation.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Commercial/budget accommodation factor was the lowest in demand (3.31)</li> </ul>
Supporting services/ products	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives (4.38)</li> <li>• Green practices (waste management) (4.06)</li> <li>• Introduction of a variety of game (e.g. the big 5) (4.05)</li> <li>• Education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines (4.01)</li> </ul>	NA	NA	NA	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Firstly, respondents want a product or service that practice <i>CONSERVATIONAL</i> or green practices (3.90).</li> <li>• Secondly, the <i>WILDERNESS</i> factor was important with the big 5 and sufficient water holes included (3.82)</li> <li>• Thirdly, <i>INFORMATIONAL SERVICES</i> are important (3.84).</li> <li>• Fourthly, <i>ADEQUATE FACILITIES</i> are important (3.04).</li> <li>• The factor <i>ADDITIONAL SERVICES</i> came in fifth place (2.74).</li> </ul>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Value for money of ecotourism products (3.89)</li> <li>• Quality and efficiency of customer service (3.81)</li> <li>• Affordable and easily available Internet services (3.80)</li> <li>• Facility must be graded and eco-certified (3.73)</li> <li>• Information centers in strategic places such as camps and lodges (3.68)</li> <li>• Water holes/hides (3.67)</li> <li>• Accessibility to different tourism attractions (3.61)</li> </ul>				<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The factor that received the lowest interest is <i>ENTERTAINMENT FACILITIES</i> (2.5)</li> </ul>
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Based on findings in Table 7.1, the following conclusions were drawn:

- Findings were generally consistent with literature where Wildlife/Wilderness product was the most preferred and generated the highest level of interest. Diversification should, therefore, focus on this product, taking note of activities that respondents were interested in, even though they did not participate in. Botswana is traditionally regarded as a wilderness paradise (Mbaiwa, 2002:460; 2005:162; Department of Tourism Report (DOT), 2010:15; WTTC, 2007:48; Saarinen *et al.*, 2014:8).
- The pattern of interest and importance of activities revealed the strong grip of wildlife-based tourism, closely followed by nature and wetland activities; showing that outdoor nature-based activities are highly preferred as compared to other activities. This is consistent with literature which reveals the increasing importance of ecotourism, a component of nature-based tourism (Fennell, 2008; Cobbinah, 2015; Mbaiwa, 2015; UNWTO, 2018).
- Hunting was least preferred. The 2014 hunting ban raised ecotourism status as Botswana was regarded a true ecotourism destination. Hunting is also a controversial product; hence, the very low demand, especially for a country like Botswana which prohibited the activity for about 6 years. It remains to be seen if the reintroduction of Hunting in 2019 will change the negative perception and low interest (Nowaczek & Mehta, 2018:202; Hunting Africa, 2019:6).
- Generally, respondents who participated in the activities were more interested than those who did not participate.
- Supporting services that enhance the experience were considered very important.
- Diversification options to follow were consistent with literature findings on related and constrained diversification; meaning that the new/modified products/services are centred around the existing products hence there is need for add-ons rather than introducing completely new products (Benur & Bramwell, 2015:216; Hitt *et al.*, 2017:177).
- The diversification options are consistent with the natural environment in Okavango Delta and Chobe where massive improvements would result in degradation and lowering of product quality (Mbaiwa, 2005, 2015)

Activities' with mean less than 3 were not desirable and should not be considered as diversification options within the current market due to low demand.

There were also activities that generated little interest ( $\bar{x} < 3$ ). Table 7.2 lists the least preferred ecotourism activities and supporting services.

**Table 7.2: Avoidable diversification options**

Culture ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Wildlife ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Adventure ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Events ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Hunting ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Wetlands ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )	Supporting services and products ( $\bar{x} < 3$ )
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Consulting traditional healers</li> <li>-Learning about traditional medicines</li> <li>-Attending traditional wedding ceremonies</li> <li>-Attending traditional court sessions</li> <li>-Farm stay experiences (milking, yoking, ploughing, harvesting)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Learning about Ostrich rearing programmes</li> <li>-Eco-volunteering</li> <li>-Archery using traditional bow and arrow</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Caving</li> <li>-Donkey cart rides</li> <li>-Powered paragliding cycling</li> <li>-Mountain biking</li> <li>-Quad biking</li> <li>-Rope courses</li> <li>-Obstacle courses</li> <li>-Zip-lining</li> <li>-Orienteering (foot/trail)</li> <li>-Backpacking</li> <li>-Jet skiing</li> <li>-Scuba diving with crocodiles</li> <li>-Underwater photography</li> <li>-Rafting and tubing</li> <li>-Team building games</li> <li>-Sky diving</li> <li>-Camel riding</li> <li>-Paintballing</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Fly fishing festivals</li> <li>-Participation in annual race for rhinos</li> <li>-Fun runs</li> <li>-Walks for charity</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Bow hunting</li> <li>-Trophy hunting</li> <li>-Biltong/game meat hunting</li> <li>-Learning traditional hunting methods</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Fly fishing</li> <li>-Wind surfing</li> <li>-Kayaking</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-Children facilities</li> <li>-Souvenirs available for purchase</li> <li>-Business facilities</li> <li>-Golf course</li> <li>-Gym facilities</li> <li>-Spa facilities</li> <li>-Water slides</li> <li>-Cinema facilities</li> <li>-Amusement parks</li> <li>-Interpretation centre</li> <li>-Theatre facilities</li> <li>With cultural performances.</li> </ul>

It is interesting to note from Table 7.2, the dominance of adventure activities, especially those that require effort and energy and traditional cultural activities. Despite lack of demand for these activities, they should not be completely discarded as some of them, especially those related to culture as they can easily complement already existing ones.

Independent *t*-tests were conducted between demographic variables and all the factors extracted using factor analysis that is ecotourism products and supporting services. The following conclusions were made:

- The Independent *t*-tests were limited to purpose of travel because the other demographic variable such as age, income and gender did not yield significant results (c.f. 6.5).
- Of the 10 purposes of travel, only 4 yielded significant results (wildlife, education, shopping and cultural events) (c.f. 6.5).
- For the tourist who travelled for wildlife purposes, only one factor, Services\_Facilities, yielded significant difference ( $p=0.000$ ) with small effect size (0.36). Non-wildlife visitors were more interested in Service\_Facilities (c.f. 6.5.1).
- For education tourists, two factors, Cultural\_Attractions and Wilderness\_Novelty, had significant differences. Education tourists were more interested in them and regarded the factors as important. This was consistent with literature findings where education tourists are more interested in the learning and interpretative experience (Reimer & Walter, 2013) (c.f. 6.5.2).
- Regarding tourists whose purpose of visit was for shopping purposes, 3 factors yielded significant differences with medium to large effect sizes; Cultural\_experience ( $p=0.031$ ) Wilderness\_guide ( $p=0.022$ ) and Services\_guides & interactive ( $p=0.000$ ). Shopping visitors showed lack of interest in the factors except Cultural\_experience. Main motive was shopping as compared to other activities (c.f. 6.5.3).
- For tourists who visited for cultural events only one factor, Adventure\_soft, was significant ( $P=0.043$ ) with medium difference effect size (0.47). The factor was more important to those who visited for cultural events (c.f. 6.5.4).

The *t*-tests revealed that tourism market for Botswana is fairly homogeneous, given that only 7 factors yielded significant differences out of 21 factors that emerged from exploratory factor analysis of ecotourism product categories and supporting services. The next section focuses on development of a diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana.

### **7.3 OBJECTIVE 5: DIVERSIFICATION FRAMEWORK FOR ECOTOURISM PRODUCTS IN BOTSWANA.**

Figure 7.1 shows a diversification framework that was developed for ecotourism products in Botswana based on the study findings. The framework was developed based on the considerations discussed below.

- The framework is based on the seven diversification option areas within ecotourism identified within this study. These seven diversification options provide the basis of diversifying ecotourism products and activities.
- Ecotourism accommodation is an additional diversification option. Literature reveals that it is now one of the core factors motivating travel to ecotourism destinations; hence, it is considered a product in the study (c.f.3.5).
- Supporting services are a vital component of the framework given their direct impact on experience and how the products or activities are consumed.
- As indicated earlier, other variables were subjected to *t*-tests. However, no significant differences were established, hence, the reliance on ecotourism types.
- The framework considered activities that all respondents were interested in, with a mean greater than 3.5, and factors that were yielded from exploratory factor analysis, to be of primary importance. Based on the Likert scale, a mean of 3.5 or more indicated strong interest in the activity.
- Activities that tourist did not participate in but showed strong interest in were very important although they were not reported separately within the framework. They correlated with the activities that all the respondents were interested in, and they featured within the framework.



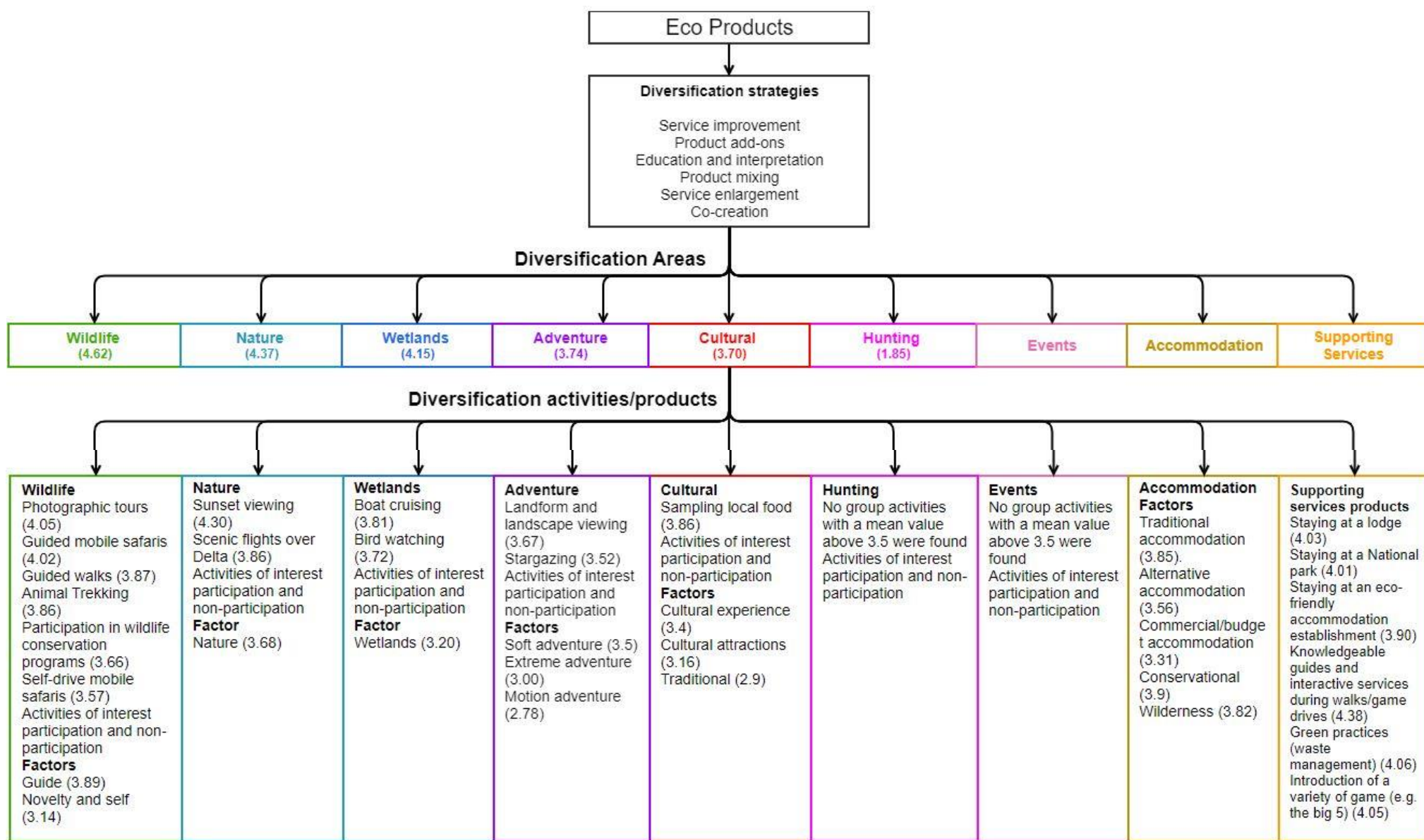


Figure 7.1: Diversification framework for ecotourism products in Botswana

### **7.3.1 Implementation of eco diversification framework**

One of the diversification key components is analysis of existing resources being guided by data collected from respondents. Review of literature identified several ways of diversifying (c.f.2.7.1 – 2.7.4) such as related, unrelated, market power and integrative. The choice of diversification strategy to apply is determined by study findings. As noted, earlier results of the study showed that Wildlife/Wilderness, Nature and Wetlands ecotourism products have the strongest appeal, with wildlife being the dominant and most sought-after form of ecotourism. This means the diversification options must be closely related to the existing products whose attractiveness is still very strong. Considering this background, the most ideal strategy is a combination of related (concentric) constrained diversification and integrative diversification (c.f.2.7.1.3 & 2.7.4.3). Combining related constrained and integrative diversification will ensure that new products/services are closely related to existing ones, whilst allowing the modifications to be creatively mixed in coming up with a new offering.

The framework as shown in Figure 7.1 has 4 interrelated levels. The top part represents the Eco-products whilst the second level shows some of the different ways to implement the related constrained and integrative diversification strategy. The third level shows diversification areas identified in order of importance from most to least. The fourth level shows diversification activities/products options in descending order of importance. Diversifying each ecotourism product at Level 2 is examined and recommendations are derived from the analysis. The next section analyses ecotourism products based on preference ranking.

#### **7.3.1.1 Diversification of Wildlife/Wilderness ecotourism products**

Wildlife ecotourism is a core product as reflected by the high means and widest range of activities in which both participating and non-participating tourists have shown keen interest. Exploratory factor analyses have indicated preference for guided tours. Diversification should concentrate on add-ons that enhance service experience. Tourists also prefer knowledgeable guides whose focus is on conserving the environment. The practical recommendation is to upgrade guides educationally so that level of professionalism is increased, and they are abreast with contemporary trends. During game drives, extra time can be added as a surprise, and ethnic food can be introduced as part of the meal experience. Guided walks must include some animal trekking as well as good photography sites. Some of the specific add-ons that can be incorporated are:

- Simple photography lessons about focusing, filtering, use of zooming lens on phone cameras and photography applications that can be downloaded and installed to improve quality of pictures. This will enrich experience, improve quality of shots, enhance co-creation and interpretation given that almost everyone on tour will be having a camera of

some kind. These lessons can be offered at the beginning or during the drive depending on how the drive is structured.

- Sound safaris where everyone on the game drive puts on headphones that amplify sounds such as roaring of a lion that are captured by the guide. The experience is heightened since the amplified sound makes it as if the lion is close to the tourist.
- Introduce art safaris where beginners and experienced artists are given the chance to draw rather than take photographs.
- Knowledgeable guides can increase the learning and interpretation experience by explaining tagging, tracking and conservation programmes
- Increase interaction with local community to enhance understanding and appreciation of different cultures.

An attempt should be made to incorporate as many as possible of the preferred wildlife activities within a package. This diversification option will, not only enhance the tourist's experience, but also increase tourist spending, length of stay, and generate capital for the tourism enterprise and economy at large.

Activities that registered low mean scores were;

- *Learning about Ostrich rearing programmes*
- *Eco-volunteering*
- *Archery using traditional bow and arrow*

Archery using traditional bow and arrow is related to hunting and does not perfectly fit in this category where focus is more on viewing, learning and interpretation. To carry out the activity such as learning about Ostrich rearing programmes requires investment, time and space, which might not be available to the tourism enterprise. Reasons for non-participation might be due to lack of knowledge about the product. Table 7.3 lists reasons for non-participation which might provide pointers on lack of participation for in certain activities.

**Table 7.3: Reasons for lack of participation in ecotourism activities**

Reason for not participating	Mean
I did not have time	<b>3.62</b>
I did not have the budget	2.86
I was not aware of the activities	<b>3.34</b>
I was not in the area of certain activities	<b>3.36</b>
I did not have interest in these activities	3.16
It was not offered to me	3.11

It was too expensive	3.02
It was not part of my tour	3.92

Key: freq – frequency    % - percentage

There are possibilities that respondents might have no idea about the activity. The framework shows wide popularity of wildlife ecotourism products that require enhancement to retain interest. It is important to note that this can involve introducing elements of other products. It is interesting to note that the main reason why the respondents did not participate in certain ecotourism activities was not because of the lack of funds. The two main reasons for not participating were that the activities were not included within their tour packages and time constraints played a big part. Tour operators must include more of the high demand ecotourism activities within the tour packages. Diversifying these packages with more activities generates higher demand, retains tourists for longer periods, increases spending, and reduces leakages. With the right product mix, there is greater potential to involve locals in tourism.

### 7.3.1.2 Diversification of nature and wetland ecotourism products

The popularity of nature (4.37) and Wetlands shows the importance of primary resources and nature-based activities in Botswana. As with wildlife, there was no significant difference in participants and non-participants, and the activities had a strong following. The means from factor analysis Nature (3.68) and wetland (3.20) reveal generally strong interest in the activities. Considering this wide appeal, diversification should portray reasonable to strong relationship to existing products. Sunset viewing was the second most popular activity in all categories. However, innovative strategies are required to enrich the experience and also generate income from this activity. Literature shows that most of the sunset viewing is passive as it is experienced in boat cruise or mokoro ride. Sunset viewing can be transformed into active activity through the following add-ons:

- *Sunset yoga*
- *Sunset wine tasting*
- *Sunset hike*
- *Sunset workshop (sampling and learning about local foods)*
- *Guided, individual or group Sunset photography infused with learning elements*

By mixing activities, the tourist will increase their experience, they will be introduced to more activities that they are not necessarily familiar with, and product owners can generate more money with these activities. A challenge that may arise is that lodges and camps in Chobe and Okavango Delta are sparsely located such that effort is required to carry out some of the activities that require considerable number of people. Fly fishing, wind surfing and kayaking registered low interest and participation levels such that they can be safely eliminated as diversification options within this

current market. The low interest was possibly due to the high levels of skill and energy required to engage in the activity, given the average age of respondents being around 45 years.

#### **7.3.1.3 Diversification of adventure ecotourism activities**

The demand for adventure activities is relatively subdued given that only two activities *landform* and *landscape viewing* (3.67) and *star gazing* (3.52) managed to generate above average interest from all respondents. Potential for diversification is there for some activities such as;

- *Wilderness training survival courses* (4.30)
- *Orienteering (foot/trail)* (4.29)
- *Landform and landscape viewing* (4.18)
- *Stargazing* (4.11)
- *Team building games and activities* (4.00)

Respondents were strongly interested in these activities such that new product additions can be developed. The experience for star gazing can be enhanced by engaging a specialist guide able to explain star formations such as milky way, Halley's comet and planets. Specific allocated areas can be located where tourists can lie in hammocks and look at the stars and be served with coffee or wine and local delicacies while trained guides educate them about the stars.

Factor loading for adventure ecotourism activities reveal inclination for soft adventure (3.50) as compared to extreme (3.00) and motion adventure (2.78). The link between adventure activities and ecotourism was not very strong and this partly explains why most of adventure activities generated limited interest from respondents. This is also explained by the fact that due to age, most respondents preferred soft laid-back activities. It is important to note that, diversifying product elements from another category can yield more appealing products. Where possible, it is recommended to combine, for example, star gazing with game drive or boat cruise or cultural activities. Adventure products have potential, especially targeting independent travellers and backpackers. A significant feature of Adventure ecotourism products was that those who participated were more interested than those who did not; and focus of diversification can be on retaining and enhancing the interest.

#### **7.3.1.4 Diversification of cultural/historical/traditional ecotourism products**

Although interest was subdued, cultural products have great potential, especially activities associated with the factor cultural experience (3.4) and cultural attractions (3.16). Although there was only one activity, sampling food, that generated interest levels from all respondents, there

were some activities with high diversification potential as interest from participating respondents was high. These were:

- *Visiting museums (4.26)*
- *Learning local language (4.19)*
- *Sampling local food (4.14)*
- *Learning about desert survival techniques (4.07)*
- *Staying in a cultural village (3.98)*
- *Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings (3.96)*
- *Participation and learning about traditional dancing (3.88)*

The common thing is that all the activities were biased towards learning, interpretation and acquisition of knowledge. There was limited interest in traditional factors given that most of the activities involved close contact which might be detested by the tourists or viewed as an invasion of privacy. Diversification can be centred around these activities by enhancing the learning and interpretation part, given that results from factor analysis highlighted stronger demand for *cultural experience (3.4)* and *cultural attractions (3.16)*.

Just like adventure activities, respondents who participated expressed stronger interest than those who did not participate, and measures must, therefore, be taken to strengthen their interest in the particular activities. Culturally related activities, as discussed in literature, are mainly offered by community-based organisations, and there is need to strengthen relationship with tour operators such that itineraries will involve cultural experiences. Currently, very few private operators offer cultural activities, but a huge potential exists. As indicated in Table 7.3, one of the major reasons for lack of participation was products and activities being excluded in package tours and lack of product awareness. Promotion strategies should, therefore, be enhanced focused on the high in demand activities.

#### **7.3.1.5 Diversification of hunting and events**

Hunting and events were the least popular activities mainly due to impact of hunting ban and occurrence of events at specific times and places that were usually distant from the main tourist destinations. Hunting, as discussed in literature, is very controversial and the decision by the government to ban it in 2014 was viewed as progressive as it projected the image of a genuine ecotourism destination. The reintroduction of hunting in 2019 was equally controversial and, in press reports, some tourists threatened to abandon Botswana altogether. Given the very depressed levels of interest, it is recommended to take a balanced approach where hunting will be highly regulated as in the past. Focus can be on activities that promote knowledge about hunting methods and learning about why it is necessary so that over time, awareness of its

importance is acknowledged. Other neighbouring countries, such as South Africa, derive significant revenue from hunting, hence it can be a viable diversification option.

Events are generally subdued, given that most of them occur in areas outside the main tourist zones. From the table, interest was high in those activities with a strong focus on conservation and education. The location of most lodges and camps made it difficult to host events, therefore, attention should focus on nearby settlements such as Kasane and Maun, where arrangements can be made for tourists to participate. Events can also be built around high in demand eco-activities. Nature photography events, bird watching events, sampling local food events can draw tourists because these activities registered high levels of interest.

#### **7.3.1.6 Role of accommodation and supporting services**

Accommodation plays an important role as it is now part of ecotourism product. Therefore, knowledge of accommodation preferences will assist in knowing the types to provide. Given the popularity of wildlife, many respondents opted for accommodation in lodges and national parks for close proximity to activities as evidenced by the high demand for *Traditional accommodation* (3.85). Diversification efforts should, therefore, concentrate on enhancing existing facilities so that they are close to nature as much as possible. This entails usage of local materials, getting eco-certified and improving processes that reduce waste and consumption of energy.

Supporting services are crucial in enhancing the delivery and consumption of products. Given the high rating of green practices and conservational factors, diversification of products and services should be guided by these elements to ensure maintenance of product/service appeal. Literature indicates that work ethic and customer service is poor in Botswana. It is therefore, recommended that continuous customer service training programmes should be in place since tourists demand the following services:

- *Knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives (4.38)*
- *Green practices (waste management) (4.06)*
- *Education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines (4.01)*
- *Value for money of ecotourism products (3.89)*
- *Quality and efficiency of customer service (3.81)*

The focus should, therefore, be on activities that satisfy ecotourism principles in light of the fact that entertainment was the least of their concern. Tourism enterprises offering ecotourism products should focus on nature experience products rather than investing in very expensive and luxurious products like spas, gyms or cinema facilities that generated very low demand.

Although the ecotourism products were explained separately, implementation of the framework can combine products where possible.

#### **7.4 PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH**

- The proposed framework is the first comprehensive demand-based research on diversification of ecotourism products in Botswana.
- The framework provides criteria of when, how and what to diversify by focusing on a specific tourism type: ecotourism.
- Insights are provided of specific strategies that can be pursued to diversify.
- The framework can be adapted and applied to other parts of the country using other forms of tourism.
- The study contributes to destination image enhancement, increasing competitiveness by coming up with new products that will ultimately result in attracting more tourists and generating foreign currency.
- The diversification framework provides a platform that can be used to monitor progress in diversification at national level. This will assist in coming up with a comprehensive diversification checklist document to determine performance periodically.

#### **7.5 LITERATURE CONTRIBUTION**

- The main contribution is consolidation of tourism product diversification and ecotourism literature in Botswana that has been lacking. Literature that specifically studied diversification trends, strategies, product development and ecotourism products in a Botswana context was limited.
- The second contribution is a diversification framework that enriches literature on product development and process of diversification in Botswana.
- The study developed a comprehensive questionnaire for collecting demand side data that has been lacking. The instrument can be adopted for other destinations. Literature on diversification is supply based; hence, this study pioneers demand side research.
- The fourth contribution is enhancement of empirical demand literature and research on diversification that is minimal or lacking in many destinations, especially of developing countries.



- The fifth contribution is a consolidation of tourism and ecotourism development in Botswana since Independence, focusing on a diversification context.
- The sixth contribution is production of a comprehensive list of tourism products in Botswana that can be adapted for other studies.

## **7.6 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

- The research focused only on Botswana and was confined to Kasane and Okavango Delta due to logistical challenges of collecting data in other destinations. Collecting data at ports of entry, national parks, hotels and other destinations is a challenge because tourist volumes are generally low, and geographical distance between destinations huge making effective collection difficult.
- Variations in reasons for travel and assessment of ecotourism products are not precisely captured.

## **7.7 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

- Data used in this study was collected at Kasane and Maun airports. To achieve effective generalisations, other destinations must be considered despite the data collection challenges.
- Future research can focus on combining demand and supply factors in analysing diversification.
- The measuring instrument can be widened to include other forms of tourism, and where possible, translated to other languages such as Chinese, Italian, German and French to cater for non-English speaking tourists who struggled to complete and at times abandoned the questionnaire. This will make the sample more representative.
- Longitudinal studies that capture effects of seasonality are recommended, given that the country experiences dramatic peak and off-peak seasons.
- A follow-up study to observe effectiveness of the framework is recommended, especially in ensuring appropriateness of suggested new products, is needed.
- Further research is recommended using other variables such as other forms of tourism and diversification strategies to improve generalisability of findings.

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## APPENDIX A: RESEARCH PERMIT

TELEPHONE: 3914955  
TELEGRAMS: MENT  
TELEX:  
TELEFAX: 3951092  
REF: EWT 8/36/4 XXXX (70)



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT, NATURAL  
RESOURCES CONSERVATION & TOURISM  
PRIVATE BAG BO 199  
GABORONE  
BOTSWANA

ALL CORRESPONDENCE MUST BE ADDRESSED TO  
THE PERMANENT SECRETARY

Tonderai Vumbunu  
Plot 5427 Maulana ward Mogoditshane  
P O Box 75020  
GABORONE

09<sup>th</sup> April 2018

Dear Sir/ Madam,

### RESEARCH PERMIT: TONDERAI VUMBUNU

We are pleased to inform that you are granted permission to conduct research, for a study entitled **A Diversification framework for Eco-Tourism Products of Botswana – Botswana.**

The research will be conducted in these villages – **Gaborone, Kasane (North East District) and Okavango Delta – Ngamiland District.**

This permit is valid from the **01<sup>st</sup> May 2018 to 30<sup>th</sup> April 2019 (One Year Only)**

This permit is granted subject to the following **conditions:**

1. The permit does not give authority to enter premises, private establishments or protected areas. Permission for such entry should be negotiated with those concerned.
2. You conduct the study according to particulars furnished in the approved application and / or proposal taking into account the **above conditions.**
3. Government of Botswana shall be duly acknowledged in **all research outputs.**
4. Copies research outputs from the study shall be deposited directly with Department of Wildlife and National Parks and Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources Conservation & Tourism HQ.
5. Failure to comply with any of the above conditions may result in the **immediate cancellation of this permit.**

6. This permit is **not transferable**.

Yours Faithfully

  
Ditiro K. Modibedi

**FOR / PERMANENT SECRETARY**



**cc.** Regional Wildlife Officer – Ngamiland, Chobe & HQ  
Director, Department Of Wildlife National Parks

---

**Our Mission:** *To protect the environment; Conserve the country's renewable and natural resources; Derive value out of environment for the benefit of Botswana*



## APPENDIX B: PERMISSION TO ACCESS MAUN AIRPORT



Ref: CAAB/MN 1/5/1 I (190)

14<sup>th</sup> March 2019

Professor P. Viviers  
North-West University  
Private Bag x6001  
Potchefstroom  
South Africa

Dear Sir,

### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION – MR TONDERAI VUMBUNU

Please refer to your letter dated 19<sup>th</sup> November 2018 regarding the above subject matter.

Kindly be assured that at Maun International Airport we will assist by participating in interviews and completing questionnaire as per your request.

Yours faithfully,

  
**Moliki Moremi**  
Airport Manager

## APPENDIX C: PERMISSION TO ACCESS KASANE AIRPORT



### Civil Aviation Authority of Botswana

P O Box 349  
Kasane  
Botswana  
Tel: +267 6210133  
Fax: +267 250174  
website:www.caab.co.bw

Physical Address  
Kasane International Airport  
(CAAB)  
Kasane

28<sup>th</sup> March 2019

Professor P Viviers  
North West University  
Private Bag X6001  
Potchefstroom  
South Africa

Dear Sir

### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION – MR TONDERAI VUMBUNU

Please refer to your letter dated 19<sup>th</sup> November 2018 regarding the above subject matter

Kindly be assured that Kasane International Airport management will facilitate your research.

Yours faithfully

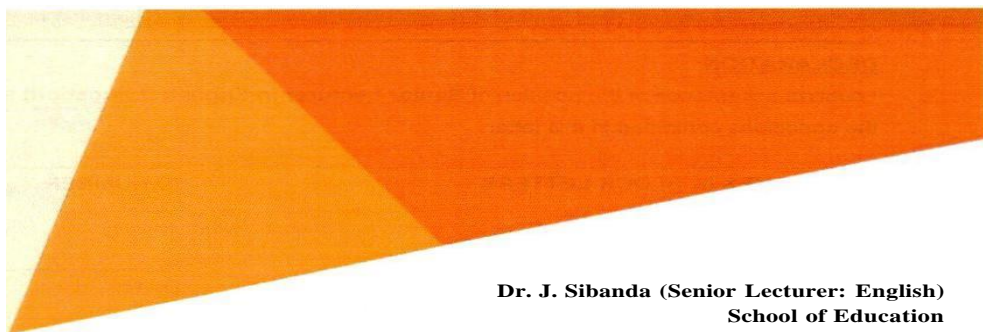
A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Wamodimo', is written over a horizontal line.

Ms Wamodimo Motlhalawapitse  
Senior Airport Services Officer

## APPENDIX D: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE



**SOL PLAATJE**  
UNIVERSITY



**Dr. J. Sibanda (Senior Lecturer: English)**  
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Website: [www.spu.ac.za](http://www.spu.ac.za)  
Tel: 27534910142  
Cell: 0845282087  
25 November 2019

### CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following thesis using Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author(s) to action:

- **Title:** A diversification framework for eco-tourism products of Botswana
- **Author:** T Vumbunu

Although the greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author(s).

Sincerely

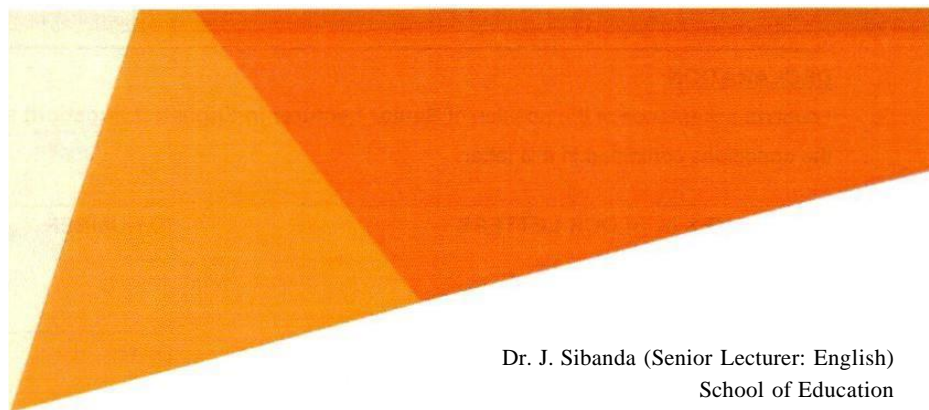
25.11.2019

\_\_\_\_\_  
SIGNATURE

\_\_\_\_\_  
DATE



**SOL PLAATJE  
UNIVERSITY**



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24 April 2020

### **CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING**

To whom it may concern

I hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following PhD thesis using Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author(s) to action:

**A diversification framework for eco-tourism products of Botswana**

**by**

**T Vumbunu**

26331942

Although the greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author(s).

Sincerely

24.04.2020

---

SIGNATURE

---

DATE



## APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE

### Questionnaire survey for tourists Section A: Socio-demographic information

1. Gender?

Male	1
Female	2

2. Country of origin?

Botswana	1
South Africa	2
United States of America	3
Germany	4
United Kingdom	5
Australia	6
France	7
Other	8
Specify	

3. Which year were you born? \_\_\_\_\_

4. Highest level of education?

Highschool	1
Diploma	2
Degree	3
Post-graduate	4
Other	5
Specify	

5. How did you know about the place visited?

Word-of-mouth (friends and family)	1
Brochure	2
Website of Botswana Tourism	3
Travel Agency	4
Social media (Facebook, twitter)	5
Radio	6
Television	7
Internet blogs	8
Other	9
Specify	

6. Including this trip how many times have you visited Botswana?

7. How did you travel to Botswana?

Air	1
Private car	2
Coach tour	3
Public transport	4
Other	5
Specify	

8. Purpose of travel?

Holiday/Leisure	1
Nature based	2
Wildlife	3
Visiting friends & relatives	4
Business	5
Ecotourism	6
Medical	7
Sport	8
Education	9
Shopping	10
Adventure	11
Cultural events	12
Other	13
Specify	

9. Duration of visit to Botswana? \_\_\_\_\_ days

10. Annual income US\$?

0 – 15 000	1
15 001 – 30 000	2
30 001 – 45 000	3
45 001 – 60 000	4
60 001 – 90 000	5
90 001 – 120 000	6
120 001+	7

11. How much (US\$) did you spend on the following items during your visit to Botswana?

Accommodation	US\$
Transport	US\$
Food & beverages	US\$
Shopping	US\$
Souvenirs	US\$
Activities	US\$
Admission to attractions	US\$
Conservation fees and tourism levies	US\$
Package tours	US\$

12. Indicate with whom you travelled with while visiting Botswana.

Alone	1
Spouse	2
Family	3
Friends	4
Colleagues	5
Tour group	6
Other	7
Specify	

## SECTION B: Potential ecotourism products

13. Firstly, indicate if you participated in the following ecotourism activities during your trip by selecting YES or NO. Secondly, even if you did not participate, rate the importance of every activity as part of an ecotourism experience for you. (Tick appropriate box) 1 = *Strongly disinterested* 2 = *Disinterested* 3 = *Indifferent* 4 = *Interested* 5 = *Strongly interested*

		Strongly interested						
		Interested						
		Indifferent						
		Disinterested						
Participated		Strongly disinterested	1	2	3	4	5	
Yes	No							
<b>CULTURE/ HISTORICAL/TRADITIONAL</b>								
		1.	Staying in a cultural village	1	2	3	4	5
		2.	Sampling local food	1	2	3	4	5
		3.	Preparing traditional dishes	1	2	3	4	5
		4.	Learning local language	1	2	3	4	5
		5.	Learning about desert survival techniques	1	2	3	4	5
		6.	Participation and learning about traditional dancing	1	2	3	4	5
		7.	Consulting traditional healers	1	2	3	4	5
		8.	Learning about traditional medicines	1	2	3	4	5
		9.	Learning local folklores, legends, myths and spiritual beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
		10.	Attending traditional wedding ceremonies	1	2	3	4	5
		11.	Viewing and learning about ancient art: rock paintings	1	2	3	4	5
		12.	Attending traditional court sessions (Kgotla)	1	2	3	4	5
		13.	Visiting museums	1	2	3	4	5
		14.	Learning and participation in traditional games	1	2	3	4	5
		15.	Crafting workshops: baskets, ceramics, hats, pottery, weaving	1	2	3	4	5
		16.	Farm stay: experience farm life (milking, yoking, ploughing,harvesting)	1	2	3	4	5
<b>ADVENTURE</b>								
		17.	Caving	1	2	3	4	5
		18.	Donkey cart rides	1	2	3	4	5
		19.	Powered Paragliding	1	2	3	4	5
		20.	Wilderness training survival courses	1	2	3	4	5
		21.	Cycling	1	2	3	4	5
		22.	Balloning	1	2	3	4	5
		23.	Hiking	1	2	3	4	5
		24.	Mountain biking	1	2	3	4	5
		25.	Quad biking	1	2	3	4	5
		26.	Rope courses	1	2	3	4	5
		27.	Obstacle courses	1	2	3	4	5
		28.	Ziplining	1	2	3	4	5
		29.	Orienteering (foot/trail)	1	2	3	4	5
		30.	Backpacking	1	2	3	4	5
		31.	Jet skiing	1	2	3	4	5
		32.	Scuba diving with crocodiles	1	2	3	4	5
		33.	Swimming	1	2	3	4	5
		34.	Underwater photography	1	2	3	4	5
		35.	Rafting and tubing	1	2	3	4	5
		36.	Team building games and activities	1	2	3	4	5
		37.	Sky diving	1	2	3	4	5
		38.	Motor boat rides	1	2	3	4	5
		39.	Stargazing	1	2	3	4	5
		40.	Walking expeditions	1	2	3	4	5
		41.	Camel riding	1	2	3	4	5
		42.	Paintballing	1	2	3	4	5
		43.	4x4 trails	1	2	3	4	5
		44.	Landform and landscape viewing	1	2	3	4	5
<b>WILDLIFE WILDERNESS</b>								
		45.	Archery using traditional bow and arrow	1	2	3	4	5
		46.	Animal trekking	1	2	3	4	5
		47.	Photographic tours	1	2	3	4	5
		48.	Guided walks	1	2	3	4	5
		49.	Self drive mobile safaris	1	2	3	4	5
		50.	Guided mobile safaris	1	2	3	4	5
		51.	Interacting with animals controlled patting and feeding	1	2	3	4	5
		52.	Horseback riding	1	2	3	4	5
		53.	Participation in wildlife conservation programs	1	2	3	4	5

	55. Learn about Ostrich rearing programs	1	2	3	4	5
	56. Eco-volunteering	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>EVENTS</b>					
	57. Participation in fly fishing festival	1	2	3	4	5
	58. Attending Cultural festivals (Domboshaba, Dithubaruba and Kuru dance)	1	2	3	4	5
	59. Participation in indigenous food festivals	1	2	3	4	5
	60. Attending biodiversity and conservation workshops	1	2	3	4	5
	61. Participation in annual race for rhinos	1	2	3	4	5
	62. Fun run	1	2	3	4	5
	63. Arts and crafts markets/festivals	1	2	3	4	5
	64. Desert/ Y-Care walks for charity and wildlife/heritage conservation	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>HUNTING</b>					
	65. Bow hunting	1	2	3	4	5
	66. Trophy hunting	1	2	3	4	5
	67. Biltong/ game meat hunting	1	2	3	4	5
	68. Learning traditional hunting methods	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>WETLAND</b>					
	69. Bird watching	1	2	3	4	5
	70. Canoeing	1	2	3	4	5
	71. Fly fishing	1	2	3	4	5
	72. Wind surfing	1	2	3	4	5
	73. Kayaking	1	2	3	4	5
	74. Rowing	1	2	3	4	5
	75. Sailing	1	2	3	4	5
	76. Boat cruising	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>NATURE</b>					
	77. Sunset viewing	1	2	3	4	5
	78. Participation in tree planting and conservation activities	1	2	3	4	5
	79. Visiting organic farms	1	2	3	4	5
	80. Scenic flights over the Delta	1	2	3	4	5
	81. Botanic tours in forest reserves	1	2	3	4	5
	<b>ECOTOURISM ACCOMMODATION</b>					
	82. Staying at a campsite	1	2	3	4	5
	83. Staying at a bungalow	1	2	3	4	5
	84. Staying at tree top eco-lodge (tree house)	1	2	3	4	5
	85. Staying at a cabin	1	2	3	4	5
	86. Staying at a National Park	1	2	3	4	5
	87. Staying at an eco-friendly accommodation establishment (hotel)	1	2	3	4	5
	88. Staying at a tented camp	1	2	3	4	5
	89. Staying at a lodge	1	2	3	4	5
	90. Staying at a backpackers	1	2	3	4	5
	91. Staying at a guesthouse	1	2	3	4	5
	92. Accommodation must be eco-certified	1	2	3	4	5

14. If you indicated No in the previous question, what were the general reasons for not participating in these activities. Rate the following reasons on a scale of 1 to 5 (Tick appropriate box) 1= *Strongly disagree*, 2= *Disagree*, 3= *Neutral*, 4= *Agree*, 5= *Strongly Agree*.

Strongly Agree						
Agree						
Neutral				4		
Disagree			3			
Strongly disagree	1	2				
1.	I did not have the time	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I did not have the budget	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I was not aware of the activities	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I was not in the area of certain activities	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I do not have any interest in these activities	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It was not offered to me	1	2	3	4	5
7.	It was too expensive	1	2	3	4	5
8.	It was not part of mv tour	1	2	3	4	5

### Section C: Supporting services

15. Please indicate how important the following aspects are in terms of modifying the eco-tourism product. (Tick appropriate box) 1 = Not important 2 = Slightly important 3 = Important 4 = Very Important 5 = Extremely important .

					Extremely important				
					Very important				
					Important				
					Slightly important				
Not important					1	2	3	4	5
1.	Facility must be graded and eco-certified				1	2	3	4	5
2.	Provision of facilities for children				1	2	3	4	5
3.	Availability of facilities for the physically challenged				1	2	3	4	5
4.	Outdoor recreation area				1	2	3	4	5
5.	Facility for outside cooking				1	2	3	4	5
6.	Usage of environmentally friendly water and energy saving techniques				1	2	3	4	5
7.	Souvenirs are readily available for purchase				1	2	3	4	5
8.	Information centres in strategic places such as camps and lodges				1	2	3	4	5
9.	Knowledgeable guides and interactive services during walks/game drives				1	2	3	4	5
10.	Green practices (waste management)				1	2	3	4	5
11.	Value for money of eco-tourism products				1	2	3	4	5
12.	Affordable and easily available Internet services				1	2	3	4	5
13.	Education on appropriate behaviour from guides, notices or magazines				1	2	3	4	5
14.	Quality and efficiency of customer service				1	2	3	4	5
15.	Availability of business facilities (conference facilities)				1	2	3	4	5
16.	Accessibility to different tourism attractions				1	2	3	4	5
17.	Introduction of a variety of game (e.g. the big 5)				1	2	3	4	5
18.	Water holes/hides				1	2	3	4	5
19.	Bird hides				1	2	3	4	5
20.	More modern accommodation facilities				1	2	3	4	5
21.	Restaurant/open air restaurant				1	2	3	4	5
22.	Golf course				1	2	3	4	5
23.	Gym facility				1	2	3	4	5
24.	Spa facility				1	2	3	4	5
25.	Water facilities (pool/ water slides/super tubes)				1	2	3	4	5
26.	Cinema facilities (Wildlife education videos)				1	2	3	4	5
27.	Amusement park (roller coaster, ferris wheel)				1	2	3	4	5
28.	Interpretation centre				1	2	3	4	5
29.	Theatre facilities with cultural performances				1	2	3	4	5
30.	Combined tour packages with other tourism products/attraction				1	2	3	4	5

16. Which of the following ecotourism aspects do you prefer and how important are they to your ecotourism experience?

Extremely important					
Very important					
Important			4		
Slightly important					
Not important					
1	2	3	4	5	
1. Wildlife	1	2	3	4	5
2. Adventure	1	2	3	4	5
3. Hunting	1	2	3	4	5
4. Cultural	1	2	3	4	5
5. Wetlands	1	2	3	4	5
6. Nature	1	2	3	4	5

17. Are you likely to recommend this destination?

Yes	
No	

18. If Yes, elaborate the medium you would use?

Facebook	1
Twitter	2
Blogging	3
Instant message	4
Word of mouth	5
Other	6
Specify	

19. Are you likely to visit again?

Yes	1
No	2

20. Any recommendations to improve ecotourism products in Botswana?

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Thank you for your participation  
EMS2016/11/25-02/64  
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