



A sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on local communities in Botswana

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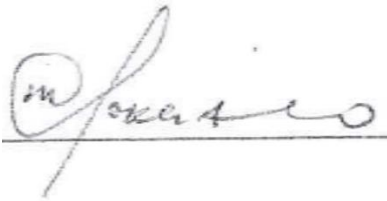
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DECLARATION STATEMENT

I, Lelokwane Lockie Mokgalo, of Passport number BN0053744 and student number 27817822 declare that this thesis registered as “A sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana” submitted as fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management at the Potchefstroom campus of the North West University is original work and complies with the code of Academic integrity, as well as other relevant policies, procedures, rules and regulations of the North West University. The thesis has not been submitted before to any institution by myself or any other person in fulfilment (or or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.

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Prof. P. van der Merwe

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The PhD journey has been a roller-coaster of emotions. From lows, during challenging situations to the highs experienced with the assimilation and discovery of new knowledge. The journey was worthwhile at the end as it culminated in growth on my part and I would like to express profound gratitude to the following for helping me on this path;

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ABSTRACT

Wildlife tourism is a component of the tourism industry which has experienced growing demand in certain regions of the world. There are various sub-components within the sector which represent specific interests, of which hunting tourism is one. In Botswana, hunting tourism has been practiced over the years and in 1995 became one of the natural resource utilization avenues that drove Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) programmes. Hunting helped accrue revenue for communities until 2014 when the government of Botswana imposed a ban on the practice. The ban resulted in loss of income and employment for the communities. The aim of the study was to formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities. Therefore, five objectives were formulated to drive the aim. The first objective was to conduct a critical literature analysis on the contextualization of hunting tourism in Botswana. The literature revealed that hunting tourists are classified in a variety of ways, that the sector has both negative and positive impacts and that there are various management frameworks that are used to manage hunting as well as the broader wildlife tourism segment. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 of the thesis. The second objective was to analyse literature on the sustainable development of tourism. The analysis demonstrated that, sustainable tourism is guided by principles that strive to strike a balance between economic, environmental and socio-cultural elements. However, to achieve this balance between the triple bottomlines, various tools are used to sustain development of tourism. The second objective was achieved in Chapter 3. The third objective was to conduct a critical analysis of literature on Community-Based Tourism (CBT). The analysis revealed that there was a link between sustainable tourism and CBT as they share aspirations of community participation, economic benefits and conservation of resources. The literature also demonstrated that, CBT projects that were deemed successful presented certain factors which defined their success. These were participation in decision-making, capacity building, economic viability and benefits sharing. Furthermore, nine models of CBT development were reviewed, which revealed core aspects prevalent within the models. These aspects included a determination of a development approach (bottom-up/top-down), a phase to plan for certain aspects of development such as collaboration, setting agreed goals and community participation as well as making a choice of a CBT venture type. The objective was achieved in Chapter 4. The fourth objective was to present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation. The objective was achieved in Chapter 6. The fifth objective was to draw conclusions and make recommendations for the study which was achieved in Chapter 7. The achievement of all the objectives also facilitated the formulation of the strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting.

The study utilised a qualitative action research design called 'action science'. This design allowed the study to harness the subjects' knowledge for action in the form of an actionable strategy to address

the problem. The participants in the study were drawn from five populations; the community, community trust, former hunting employees, businesses and public organisations. The participants were drawn from two communities; Sankuyo village (located in northern Botswana) and Mmadinare (located in the east of Botswana). The communities were selected due to their prior participation in hunting tourism before the ban as well as their close proximity to major urban centres for ease of access. The study then used a key informant strategy within the purposive sampling method to select Community trust leaders (n=3) and one (n=1) participant from a public tourism organisation. A snowball sampling method was also used to select four (n=4) former hunting employees and two (n=2) businesses. Community members (n=46) were also selected for participation through quota and convenient sampling methods. Two qualitative data collection instruments were used. A structured interview instrument was used to collect data from community members, while a semi-structured interview schedule was used to collect data from the rest of the other participants in the study.

The data was analysed using thematic, descriptive statistics and cross-tabulation analysis methods. The results revealed that hunting tourism benefited various sections of the communities during the time when it was practiced. The trusts accrued revenue that was used in community projects, community members employed by hunting operators developed skills, craft traders expanded their product range due to use of animal by-products and community members benefited through financial dividends, sale of game meat and employment. These tangible benefits, were considered factors responsible for the success of hunting tourism along with community participation. Nevertheless, hunting tourism also presented challenges as observed by participants. There was lack of expertise in pricing quotas of wildlife resources across various stakeholders involved in hunting. Furthermore, hunting tourism availed limited employment opportunities as few community members were needed to serve few tourists in hunting camps. This also meant that businesses (craft traders) had few potential clients to market their products to which culminated in low income. The results of the study further revealed that reasons for the ban of hunting as given by government authorities were doubted by participants mainly because there was lack of consultation and they viewed the reasons given as inconsistent. However, the study revealed that there are numerous challenges experienced since the ban of hunting. Communities are experiencing an increase in wildlife numbers which lead to an escalation of the Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) and destruction of raw material used by craft traders. The communities further bemoan lack of involvement in decision making owing to an increase in bureaucratic challenges and there is also loss of revenue, regulatory impediments and problems in the relationship with current ecotourism operators in Sankuyo where ecotourism is practiced. Therefore, to address these challenges, the results demonstrates that there is need to improve management of HWC, lift the ban of hunting, increase tourism products using available natural and cultural resources and allowing communities to operate their own facilities. A strategy was also

formulated to mitigate the ban and address the challenges. The strategy advocates for an enabling environment to be created for the recommendations to be effective. There is need for funding to be availed, community trusts to be resourced by good calibre of trustees, embrace a bottom-up approach in Community-Based Tourism (CBT) management, improve infrastructure and capacitate community trust members with marketing and management skills.

In conclusion, the study made both literature and practical contribution through the formulation of a mitigation strategy. The strategy advices on the facilitation process of CBT projects from planning to making product choices. The strategy also advocates for normalisation of the CBT operating environment by addressing conditions that enable for such. Furthermore, the contribution to literature highlighted that there are core aspects in CBT development models which are central and critical to the success of CBT projects.

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ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|----------|---|
| AGM | Annual General Meeting |
| AOG | Office of the Auditor General |
| ASTA | American Society of Travel Agents |
| BBC | British Broadcasting Corporation |
| BOPA | Botswana Press Agency |
| BTO | Botswana Tourism Organisation |
| BWMA | Botswana Wildlife Management Association |
| BWP | Botswana Pula (Currency) |
| CAMPFIRE | Communal Area Management Programme For Indigenous Resources |
| CAR | Centre for Applied Research |
| CBD | Convention on Biological Diversity |
| CBNRM | Community-Based Natural Resource Management |
| CBO | Community-Based Organisation |
| CBT | Community-Based Tourism |
| CECT | Chobe Enclave Community Trust |
| CEO | Chief Executive Officer |
| CHA | Controlled Hunting Areas |
| CIC | International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation |
| CITES | Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species |
| CKGR | Central Kalahari Game Reserve |
| CSD | Commission on Sustainable Development |
| CSR | Corporate Social Responsibility |
| CST | Centre for Sustainable Tourism |
| CTF | Conservation Trust Fund |
| CWMAC | Community Wildlife Management Areas Consortium |
| DEPI | Department of Environment and Primary Industries |
| DOT | Department of Tourism |
| DRC | Democratic Republic of Congo |
| DWNP | Department of Wildlife and National Parks |
| ECOS | Ecotourism Opportunity Spectrum |
| EWB | Elephant Without Borders |
| FAO | Food and Agriculture Organization |
| FEMA | Federal Emergency Management Agency |
| FOEI | Friends of the Earth International |

| | |
|--------|---|
| GDP | Gross Domestic Product |
| GOB | Government of Botswana |
| GSTC | Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria |
| HATAB | Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana |
| HWC | Human-Wildlife Conflict |
| ICCL | International Council of Cruise Lines |
| IFAW | International Fund for Animal Welfare |
| IFTO | International Federation of Tour Operators |
| IH&RA | International Hotel & Restaurant Association |
| IIED | International Institute for Environment & Development |
| IPCC | Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change |
| KCS | Kalahari Conservation Society |
| KOPEL | Koperasi Pelancongan (meaning Ecotourism cooperative) |
| LAC | Limits of Acceptable Change |
| LUMP | Land Use Management Plan |
| MDT | Mmadinare Development Trust |
| MESCOT | Model for Ecologically Sustainable Community Tourism |
| MOMS | Management Oriented Monitoring System |
| NEF | National Environmental Fund |
| NGO | Non-Governmental Organisations |
| NRMP | National Resources Management Programme |
| OCT | Okavango Community Trust |
| ORI | Okavango Research Institute |
| PA | Protected Areas |
| PART | Pre-Condition Assessment Resource Tool |
| PEM | Pre-condition Evaluation and Management Model |
| PRA | Participatory Rural Appraisal |
| RALE | Representative and Accountable Legal Entity |
| RDC | Rural District Councils |
| ROS | Recreation Opportunity Spectrum |
| RRA | Rural Rapid Appraisal |
| RSA | Republic of South Africa |
| SCI | Safari Club International |
| SPSS | Statistical Package for Social Sciences |
| STCRC | Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre |
| STMT | Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust |

| | |
|--------|--|
| SWOT | Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities & Threats |
| TAC | Technical Advisory Committee |
| TALC | Tourism Area Life Cycle |
| TBL | Triple-bottom-line |
| TGLP | Tribal Grazing Land Policy |
| TIAC | Tourism Industry Association of Canada |
| TOMM | Tourism Optimisation Management Model |
| TOS | Tourism Opportunity Spectrum |
| UNEP | United Nations Environment Programme |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization |
| UNWTO | United Nations World Tourism Organisation |
| USA | United States of America |
| USAID | United States Agency for International Development |
| VFA | Village Forestry Areas |
| VIM | Visitor Impacts Management |
| WAZA | World Association of Zoos and Aquariums |
| WCED | World Commission on Environment and Development |
| WDPA | World Database on Protected Areas |
| WMA | Wildlife Management Areas |
| WTM | Wildlife Tourism Model |
| WTTC | World Travel & Tourism Council |
| ZAR | South African Rand (Currency) |

CHAPTER ONE:

INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Wildlife tourism in Africa is an important segment which generates income and represents 80% of the total annual revenue of trips to Botswana (UNWTO, 2014). Protected Areas (PAs) in the continent have served as a tool to facilitate the growth of this segment. However, literature shows that protected areas predate wildlife tourism both globally and in the case of Africa (Cochrane, 2009; Pienaar, Jarvis & Larson 2013; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016). The primary purpose of the protected areas from inception has been biodiversity conservation with tourism secondary although there was always a strong link between the two. According to Cochrane (2009) it was not until the 'Third World National Parks Congress' in 1982 that 'tourism potential' was used as a criterion for some protected areas' establishment. This shift was necessitated by the growing importance of nature-based tourism especially wildlife on the continent as a tourist attraction, income generator, employer and economic contributor to conservation (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013).

Wildlife tourism consists of both consumptive (hunting) and non-consumptive (photographic) approaches to wildlife use. There are different arguments as to which of the two is a more sustainable form of tourism. Photographic tourism (non-consumptive) proponents argue that it offers multiple revenue streams, therefore, improving economic sustainability and preserves the wildlife species as it is not consumptive (Mwakiwa, Hearne, Stigter, De Boer, Henley, Slotow, Van Langeveld, Peel, Grant & Prins, 2016). However, Novelli, Barnes and Humavindu (2006) argue that trophy hunters (consumptive tourism) characterised hunting tourism as low-volume and high-value activities which are more beneficial to the environment and local economy. Both forms of tourism are prevalent in the African continent, even though non-consumptive is more predominant (Novelli *et al.*, 2006). The growing importance of wildlife tourism is not only beneficial to government and tourism businesses but even local communities derive benefits from it (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016) through formulated initiatives like Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) programmes.

CBNRM has been viewed as a driver to achieve both conservation goals and rural development (Mbaiwa, 2010). The programme is seen as a bottom-up approach to incentivise conservation by allowing local communities to derive economic benefits from natural resources of which they are custodians (Mbaiwa, 2010; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013). The concept is not unique to any one specific country and it is predominantly used in Southern African countries notably in Zimbabwe, Zambia, South Africa, Namibia and Botswana under different names (Mbaiwa, 2010). In Botswana, these CBNRM projects

are run by community trusts or otherwise known as Community-Based Organisations (CBOs) which are legal entities formulated to represent interests of communities often made up of multiple villages of close geographical proximity.

The CBNRM projects are found in many peripheral areas of Botswana straggling Kgalagadi region to Chobe. However, it is in the Ngamiland and Chobe areas where they are predominant due to the abundance of wildlife in these regions. The CBNRM projects are focussed on wildlife-based tourism with activities centred on photographic safaris and hunting (Mbaiwa, 2010). The Government of Botswana in the past allocated hunting quotas to the CBOs on demarcated wildlife management areas (WMAs) where they have been given resource rights (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013). According to Deere (2011) and Eyes on Africa (2016), due to the low capital investment needed for hunting safaris, most CBOs preferred this type of tourism to photographic safaris. Subsequent to obtaining the hunting rights, the CBOs sublease or enter into joint-venture agreements with private sector partners who are more skilled and have the marketing networks to successfully operate this venture (Deere, 2011; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013). Deere (2011) argues that in 2006 the hunting safari industry netted Botswana US\$20 million in revenue from 2,500 animals sold to hunters. Deere (2011) explains that Botswana specialised in big game species like elephants, buffalo and leopard which generated higher hunting fees from few animals. The industry also employed a sizable number of community members with the Sankuyo operation, for example, employing 77.4% of residents from the nearby villages, since the beginning of hunting operations in 1996 (Mbaiwa, 2003; Deere, 2011).

However, in November 2012, the government of Botswana announced a ban on wildlife hunting on communal and government land, which was to be introduced from 1 January 2014 onwards (BBC, 2012). The Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism spokesperson Ms Caroline Bogale-Jaiyoba issued a press briefing through the ministry website to the effect that the overriding reason for the ban was the decline in several wildlife species (Government of Botswana, 2014). The brief also explained that the ban would stay in place until causes of the wildlife decline were ascertained and “*for measures to reverse the causes of declines to take effect*”. This meant that the ban has no timeframe as to when to would end. However, there were contradictory statements that seemed to suggest that the ban would be indefinite.

According to BBC (2012) an unnamed ministry official was quoted as saying the “*designated hunting zones will be turned into photographic areas*” which suggested there was no intention to end the ban. Nonetheless, the noted effects of the ban on the hunting industry and associated CBOs have been negative. A Botswana Wildlife Management Association chairperson, Debbie Peake has decried the loss of employment and income due to company closures within the industry (Keakabetse, 2016).

It is however important to note that, up until now, no academic studies have been done on the effects of the hunting ban on communities in these affected areas in Botswana. The study, therefore, investigates the impacts of the hunting ban on communities and what remedial action can be implemented to mitigate their effects on local communities as well as conservation efforts to ensure sustainability of the natural resources.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The term wildlife by definition refers to non-domesticated invertebrates or flora and fauna (Tapper, 2006; Sustainable Tourism Cooperative Research Centre (STCRC), 2009). However, there is an understanding from the literature that there is no distinction between land and marine animals in the application of the term (Higginbottom, 2004; Tapper, 2006; STCRC, 2009). There has always been co-existence between wildlife and humans even though the former is viewed as a resource by the latter. STCRC (2009) argues that humans placed an intrinsic value on wildlife as a form of sustenance or an object of appreciation and interest. It is through this human-wildlife relationship that wildlife tourism as a concept was conceived. Wildlife tourism refers to encounters with wildlife by tourists (STCRC, 2009) or encounters with 'animals in the wild' (Tapper, 2006:10). Wildlife tourism can be divided into two sub-categories of which one is hunting and the other is encounters with wildlife outside their natural habitat (Tapper, 2006). Higginbottom (2004) further clarifies the concept by classifying the wildlife encounter in four areas; (1) wildlife-watching, (2) captive-wildlife tourism (3) hunting and (4) fishing. The classification draws a distinction between captive, which involves man-made confinement of the animals and the nature-based setting that characterises the wildlife-watching tourism. However, there is not much difference between hunting and fishing even by the author's own admission except the different environment (terrestrial and marine) where the tourism encounter takes place. Wildlife tourism has grown and extended the mentioned four categories into more special interest areas. For example, wildlife-watching has morphed into speciality forms like whale-watching, birdwatching, safari and snorkelling/scuba-diving (Valentines & Birtles, 2004). Captive wildlife also includes animals in zoos, sanctuaries and circuses while hunting comprises of big game hunting, small game hunting and skill hunting (Bauer & Herr, 2004).

Nonetheless, even though wildlife tourism has varied interests, it is often compressed into the two categories of consumptive and non-consumptive uses. Weaver (2001) contends that these categories often overlap. For example, a hunt that ends without a kill may satisfy the tourist experience of nature appreciation which is non-consumptive. Conversely the author argues that non-consumptive experiences may result in deterioration of environment, trampling of small species on the ground which are viewed as consumptive. Nonetheless clear lines of distinction in these categories are that non-consumptive involves watching wildlife whereas consumptive focuses on killing or hunting wildlife

for their trophy or meat. These two forms of wildlife tourism are often practiced side by side in the same destination. Mwakiwa *et al.* (2016) note that consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourists are attracted to the same type of species, particularly in the African context, where big game hunting is prevalent due to the presence of large mammals like the big five (elephant, rhino, lion, buffalo and leopard) which also attract photographic tourists. Furthermore, in many countries across the continent hunting and ecotourism have been generating revenue used to promote conservation and development agendas in rural areas (Lindsey, Roulet & Romanach, 2007).

Therefore, the ban of hunting has consequently caused loss of employment and income to the Safari hunting operators who depended on revenue from this consumptive use of wildlife resources due to closures of these companies (Keakabetse, 2016). Of grave concern however, is the effect of the ban on local communities who had interests as concession leaseholders through the CBNRM programme. Most Community-Based Organisations derived income from hunting safaris through partnership or often lease agreements with hunting operators allowing them to cede wildlife hunting quotas obtained from government to hunting operators for cash payments. However, though there is no literature on the impact of the ban on these communities thus far, previous research on some CBNRM programmes in northern Botswana indicate that economic benefits were derived by local communities from interest in both consumptive and non-consumptive utilisation of wildlife resources. According to Pienaar *et al.* (2013) estimated annual Income generated from operations amounted to US\$225,000 at the Chobe Enclave Conservation trust and US\$224,560 at the Sankuyo Tshwaragano Community Trust along with combined employment of 152 residents by the two trusts. Mbaiwa (2018:47) stated that hunting accounted for two-thirds of the BWP 35, 517, 534 (US\$ 3,5 million) revenue generated by all CBNRM projects in Botswana in 2011/12. CAR (2016:23) reported that the average revenue for all surveyed CBOs was BWP1.3 million (US\$130,000) in 2014/15.

As indicated in the introduction, Deere (2011) argued that the Sankuyo operations have employed 77.4% of the village residents since the inception of the hunting operations in 1996. This demonstrates the positive impact wildlife hunting had on communities and their livelihoods. Nonetheless as noted earlier, there is an inclination by the Government of Botswana to pursue photographic tourism in place of hunting (BBC, 2012). Though a study by Winterbach, Whitesell and Somers (2015) on “Wildlife abundance and diversity as indicators of tourism potential in Northern Botswana” revealed that only 22% of the Northern Conservation Zone (See figure 1.1 below which indicates the northern zones north of Central Kalahari Game Reserve highlighted in green and lime colours) had intermediate to high potential for photographic tourism against 78% of areas with low tourism potential.

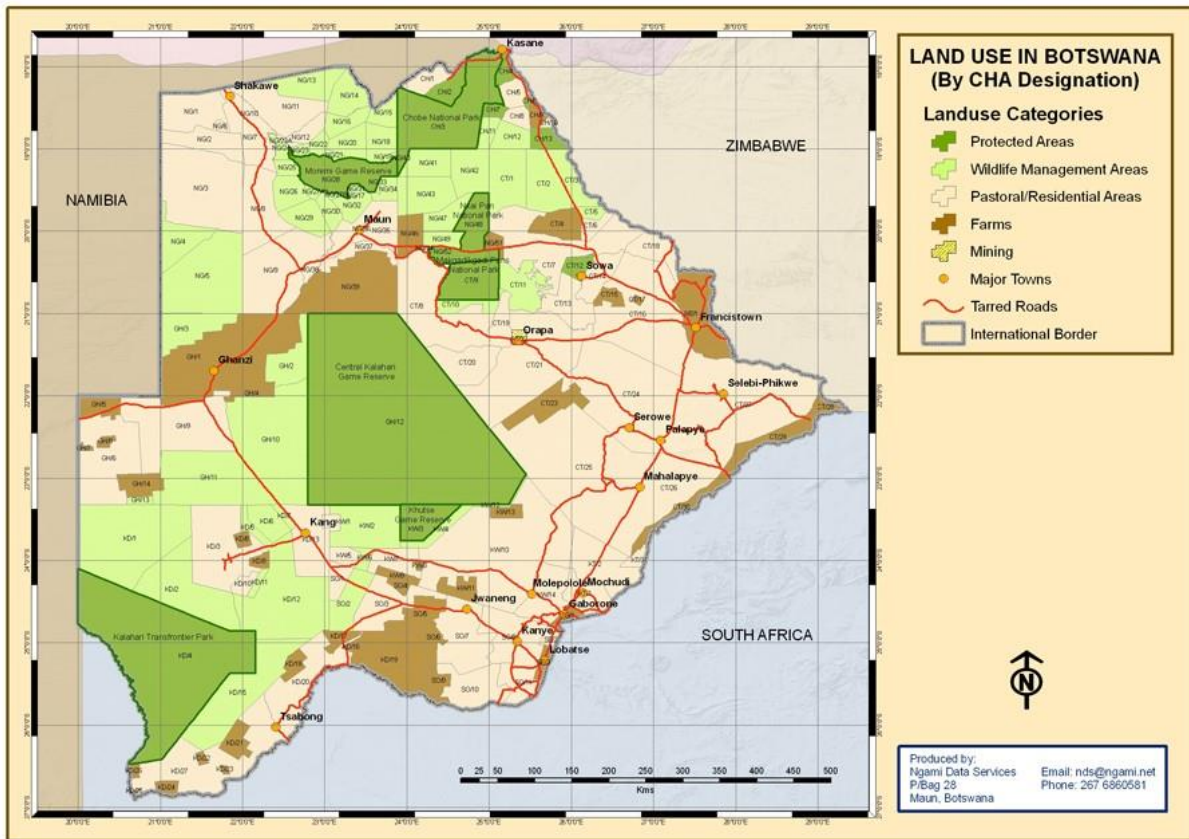


Figure 1.1: Northern Botswana Wildlife Management Areas
(Source: Ngami Data Services, 2015)

It is further stated that though most concessions are mixed-use areas (allows both consumptive and non-consumptive), they have *“limited tourism potential to sustain even budget photographic tourists”* (Winterbach *et al.*, 2015:12). The findings point to the fact that subsequent to the ban, government’s intention for CBOs to pursue photographic tourism in place of hunting might not be justified due to low wildlife abundance which limits potential of most areas to non-consumptive use. Mbaiwa (2018:56) therefore, opined that the ban of hunting goes against *“the goals of conservation and rural development which the CBNRM programme was established to achieve”*. The literature point to the fact that benefit realisation by communities leads to protection and conservation of natural resources (Child, Jones, Mazambani, Mlalazi & Moinuddin, 2003; Arntzen, Buzwani, Setlhogile, Kgathi & Motsholapheko, 2007; Stronza & Gordillo, 2008; Mbaiwa, 2018). Therefore, Figure 1.2 illustrates how wildlife resources’ conservation and sustainability is linked to local community participation.



**Figure 1.2: Resource, Community and Sustainability link
(Author's own compilation)**

Child *et al.* (2003) notes the importance of community-based management areas in increasing the wildlife population in Zimbabwe. Naidoo, Weaver, Diggle, Matongo, Stuart-Hill and Thouless (2016) also recorded similar observations in Namibia in conservancies operating both hunting and photographic tourism. The authors, Child *et al.* (2003) and Naidoo *et al.* (2016), attribute community participation to the positive impact realised in conservation of resources. Therefore, this evidence give credence to the link between local community, sustainability and wildlife resources. Where the local community enjoys benefits from wildlife resources, they are more likely going to adhere to conservation measures which ultimately leads to sustainability of both the resources and community livelihoods. The reverse however, is also true, as lack of benefits from wildlife resources by communities will lead to unsustainable practices such as what was noted by Mbaiwa (2018) like poaching and change in attitudes towards wildlife.

Hunting tourism therefore, has been fulfilling this role of incentivising conservation in Botswana as part of wildlife utilisation initiatives driving CBNRM (Mbaiwa, 2004c; Thakadu, 2005). Acknowledgement of the potential of hunting as a revenue earner and conservation tool was realised in the 1980-90s (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007). Lindsey *et al.* (2007) note that it was then that African governments and donor agencies began aligning hunting with conservation and development policies. Southern Africa was the first region to pioneer the concept of aligning resource utilisation through hunting and conservation goals. This was imperative to offset burdening direct and indirect conservation costs on rural communities like restriction of land use, wildlife damage, altered agricultural patterns and often loss of human lives (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Winterbach *et al.*, 2015;

Mutanga *et al.*, 2015). Hunting, often referred to as 'sport hunting', 'trophy hunting' or 'safari hunting' (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007) has evolved over the years from uncontrolled expeditions to more managed operations with a specific focus on funding conservation efforts. However, as an industry it has always had polarised debates. Increased pressure from animal-welfare rights groups and protectionists are sceptical of its effectiveness as a conservation tool and therefore against the practice (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Mwakiwa *et al.*, 2016). On the other hand, hunters, pragmatic conservationists and often local communities point to success in protection and conservation of endangered species in well-managed operations to support their advocacy (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Mutanga *et al.*, 2015). Nevertheless, hunting operations have grown in significance in Southern Africa. Lindsey *et al.* (2007) estimated its contribution alone to GDP in Botswana at 0.13%, 0.11% in Tanzania and 0.08% in Namibia drawing a comparison with Hungary where it contributes 0.0005% even though the country has the joint largest industry in Europe. In Tanzania community rights are usurped by hunting operators who exclude them from the share of the hunting income against the clear intentions of the Wildlife Policy (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004; Walsh, 2006). Lindsey, Alexander, Frank, Mathieson and Romanach, (2006) indicated in their study of countries preferred by hunters that, Tanzania is the most preferred destination followed by Kenya because of the quality of Buffalo trophies in those countries. The industry, however, is not without problems. The lack of reliable data on its impact exacerbates the problem as most of the information is found in unpublished 'grey' literature which is often emotive (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007). Nonetheless, excessive issuance of quotas of preferred species like lions and elephants have negatively impacted their population (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2007). Baldus and Cauldwell (2004) contend that often ethical and legal considerations are ignored by hunting operators resulting in leaving of wounded animals, hunting undersized animals and hunting without permits. Often there is resistance to reform coming from within the industry and aided by corrupt administrators willing to maintain the status quo for their benefit (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004).

Hunting especially in well managed operations has proved to be effective in conservation of species and habitats. It is characterised by low off-takes resulting in more revenue from less tourists therefore protecting the environment (Novelli, Barnes & Humavindu, 2016; Lindsey *et al.*, 2007). It has also resulted in reduced incidences of poaching and less leakages than photographic tourism (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007), reversal of habitat loss rates (Taylor, 2009), survival of rare species, financing of reserves and acting as a catalyst in the creation of Wildlife Management Areas in most countries (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004a; Lindsey *et al.*, 2007). Most literature is in agreement that hunting and conservation cannot be achieved without community involvement and participation (Taylor, 2009; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Mutanga *et al.*, 2015; Fischer, Weldesemaet, Czajkowski, Tadie & Hanley, 2015). That is conservation efforts depend on local communities' perception and attitude towards the endeavour and perception in turn is influenced by perceived benefits.

Natural resource utilisation has been a pressing issue for most countries especially in the African continent which is well endowed with flora and fauna. The management of these resources have evolved over the years from more centralised forms to decentralised approaches (Novelli *et al.*, 2006). Central to the decentralised natural resource management discourse is the need for inclusivity of all stakeholders in sustainably managing and conserving natural resources. The Government of Botswana has provided policy to aid the devolution of management of resources to involve local communities (Mbaiwa, 2010; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013). This approach is meant to incentivise conservation of natural resources especially wildlife and its habitat, through entrusting management, use and the benefits thereof to local communities (Taylor, 2009; Mbaiwa, 2010; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Suich, 2012; Kamoto, Clarkson, Dorward & Shepherd, 2013;). This became the cornerstone of Community Based Organisations (CBO) in Northern Botswana by utilisation of abundant wildlife through photographic and trophy hunting activities. The CBOs were created in response to a CBNRM policy framework whose fundamental role was to drive community-based approaches to natural resource management. Kalahari Conservation Society (KCS, 2012) contends that CBNRM started as a conservation initiative and not necessarily a socio-economic empowerment tool. The policy enacted in 2007 (Government of Botswana, 2007) evolved from the USAID funded predecessor, National Resources Management Programme (NRMP). Its main objective was “*to promote natural resources conservation and sustainable utilization by the local communities, while reaping economic and social benefits*” (KCS, 2012).

According to Pienaar *et al.* (2013) CBNRM provided communities with an incentive to protect instead of destroying wildlife and their habitat. The authors note that even though initially communities carried out negotiations for the rights to their concessions, the revised policy of 2007 however allowed state institutions to control the tendering process for the rights and made decisions on funds allocation. The Government of Botswana established a National Environmental Fund which distributed funds from CBNRM projects in a 35%/65% split (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013:316). The communities will access 35% of the funds while the 65% was used to finance “*community-based environmental management and ecotourism projects across Botswana*”. This was done in part due to perceived inadequacy of CBOs to efficiently negotiate agreements and manage funds. This step seemed to reverse the decentralization focus adopted earlier and acted as a disincentive to conservation by community members which jeopardized sustainability of natural resources. In a study by Stone and Nyaupane (2016:676), the authors analysed the linkages of protected areas, tourism and community livelihoods and considered community capitals (e.g. social, political, financial, cultural human and natural) as critical assets that together define the livelihoods performance of a community. Stone and Nyaupane (2016:677) assert that though the capitals appear to be seven distinct categories, they are dependent

on each other to achieve optimal livelihoods. Therefore, the loss of complete access to CBNRM revenue and subsequent ban on hunting may negatively affect the communities' natural and financial capitals and consequently their livelihoods. This will have implications on conservation efforts and the sustainability of natural resources. McGranahan (2011) contends that regardless of wildlife utilization, positive contribution to conservation rides on community involvement and governance structure as well as conservation goals to be reconciled with livelihoods.

Most studies on sustainability of hunting have focused on economic viability of operations and less on social and environmental concerns (McGranahan, 2011; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Fischer *et al.*, 2015). However, Sustainability hinges on the three elements of economic, social and environmental impacts also known as the 'three bottom lines' (Swarbrooke, 1999; UNEP & UNWTO, 2005; Mihalic, 2014). Van Niekerk (2014) further argues that critical to sustainable tourism is that it requires the input and collaboration of all stakeholders. Therefore, the link between wildlife conservation and communities can only be strengthened through mutual benefits. Otherwise anything to the contrary will make communities feel deprived of their assets and turn from being conservers and custodians to destroyers of wildlife and its habitats (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013). As illustrated in Figure 1.1, there is a link between the concepts of wildlife utilization and sustainability to communities and any disturbance of either will negatively affect and impact the others. Therefore, it is imperative for this study to consider how the wildlife hunting ban impacted local communities with particular reference to implications on sustainability. This will afford stakeholders the opportunity to work towards mitigation of the ban in order to save guard wildlife resource conservation and maintain sustainability.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Government and economic pressures on tourism and rural livelihoods are ever increasing especially for peripheral areas where resources harnessed for tourism purposes are prevalent. Chief among these resources is wildlife and its habitat. There was a realisation that to protect these resources, the link between conservation and community livelihoods needed to be addressed (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Lindsey, Roulet & Romanach, 2007). Most governments, therefore, have been grappling with balancing the dual goals of biodiversity conservation and promotion of rural livelihoods (Lindsey, Balme, Funston, Henschel & Hunter, 2015; Suich, 2012). One of the avenues to achieve this balancing act is the Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) programme which devolved management of resources to local communities to incentivise conservation through hunting tourism. However, due to questions over its sustainability as a conservation tool by Conservation NGOs and animal rights groups (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Deere, 2011; Lindsey *et al.*, 2016) hunting has been banned by some African governments notably Kenya in 1977 and recently Botswana in 2014. In Botswana, the resultant impacts were not only felt by the hunting

industry alone but by communities as well through loss of income and employment (Keakabetse, 2016). . Meanwhile the alternative photographic tourism is only viable in a small proportion of wildlife areas across Africa including Botswana (Winterbach, Whitesell & Somers, 2015; Lindsey *et al.*, 2016). However, though wildlife utilisation is the dominant revenue earner for communities, CAR (2016:25) note that most CBOs in Botswana “*lack the financial capital to diversify their revenue base*”, which further puts pressure on their ability to deliver benefits to the local communities. This means communities are hampered in diversifying products away from wildlife resources. The situation is further complicated by the fact that communities identify livestock, crop production and employment as their most important livelihood source (CAR, 2016:17). These livelihood sources puts the community in direct conflict with wildlife which can undermine conservation efforts, especially when the benefits from the burden of co-existing with wildlife is minimal.

This, therefore, left local communities without the ‘incentive to protect’ natural resources as the ban negatively affected their livelihoods without any viable option. An article in *The Economist* (2010) cited illegal bushmeat harvesting in Kenya due to lack of benefits from wildlife resources by communities adjacent a national park. Such behaviour by local community members are not unwarranted, however they defeat the tenets of conservation and puts the sustainability of resources in jeopardy. Therefore, without knowing the full impact of the ban of hunting on communities and their livelihoods in Botswana, their actions in conserving the wildlife resources will not be ascertained. The reason for undertaking this study is to find a sustainable strategy of mitigating the hunting ban on communities. The strategy will afford communities the benefit of a roadmap to follow in sustaining their livelihoods irrespective of whether there is hunting or not. This in turn will improve conservation efforts since it has been found that communities which benefit more from wildlife resources are supportive of tourism and the said resources (Naidoo *et al.*, 2016:636).

1.4 GOAL OF THE STUDY

The following section articulates the goal of the study and the objectives driving the goal.

1.4.1 Goal

To formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana

1.4.2 Objectives

The following objectives are set for this research:

Objective 1

To conduct an examination of literature on wildlife tourism, management approaches and the contextualisation of hunting tourism in Botswana.

Objective 2

To critically analyse the literature on tourism development and sustainability.

Objective 3

To conduct a critical literature analysis on community-based tourism development and models

Objective 4

To present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation

Objective 5

To draw conclusions and make recommendations of the study to the community and public stakeholders

1.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

This section outlines the methodology of the study through consideration of research philosophy, design and strategy to be used and to direct the study.

1.5.1 Research Philosophy

For every research there should be due consideration of a research philosophy. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) note that research philosophy is an over-arching term that denotes how knowledge can be developed in a meaningful way to help address a research problem. Altinay, Paraskevas and Jang (2016) contend that there are different reasons why a researcher should consider a philosophy. It helps one to choose the research methods to use, evaluate them and explore other methods outside one's comfort zone. Altinay *et al.* (2016) state that philosophies are different for the natural and social scientists due to what guides their world view in investigations. In management, there are four main philosophies (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). On the opposing ends of a continuum are the positivist and phenomenology/interpretivism world views with realism and pragmatism philosophies nestled between the two positions. Positivism's position is objectivity, independence from the observed and causality while interpretivism is concerned with subjectivity, social construction and focus on details (Altinay *et al.*, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Realism's position is also about objectivity but 'is interpreted through social conditioning' (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:119). The authors posit that the philosophy considers what the senses show as the truth. Pragmatism on the other hand considers

both observable phenomena and subjectivity by mixing the methods. Cameron (2009) argues that, pragmatism avoids the paradigmatic wars and focuses on what is the most efficient use of a philosophy thereby mixing strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

However, the study adopts an interpretivism philosophy. Saunders, Lewis and Thorhill (2016) state that interpretivists view human beings as different from physical objects and therefore cannot be studied in a similar way simply because humans create meanings. Interpretivists are anti-generalizations of a phenomena as that neglect the fact that social realities are created and experienced differently by people due to differences in circumstances, cultural background and time (Crotty, 1998 in Saunders *et al.*, 2016:140). Therefore, the purpose of the philosophy is to formulate new “*understandings and interpretations of social worlds and contexts*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:140). One can then deduce that at the centre of the philosophy, the idea is not to avoid complexity of the social reality but to create meanings and understandings out of its richness. Thanh and Thanh (2015:25) posits that interpretivism “*accommodate multiple perspectives and versions of the truth*” which stems from the lack of complexity avoidance. Saunders *et al.* (2009; 2016) contends that there are different strands to interpretivism which place different emphasis on the creation of new meanings. The strands are phenomenology, hermeneutics and symbolic interactionism. The phenomenological reasoning is informed by lived experiences and their interpretation by participants, while symbolic interactionism considers the way people interact as well as observation and analysis of these interactions to inform meanings (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:141). Hermeneuticists are rooted on “*the intend not to develop a procedure for understanding, but to clarify the conditions that can lead understanding*” (Holroyd, 2007:1). On the other hand, Saunders *et al.* (2016:141) simply view hermeneuticism as the study of cultural artefacts, stories, texts, images and symbols. The interpretive strand considered in this study is phenomenology. Smith (2018) and Mastin (2018) consider it both a philosophical discipline and a method of enquiry, while Creswell and Poth (2018) view it as an approach. Nonetheless, all the authors consider it useful where the research problem needs to be described as a lived phenomenon. Mastin (2018) argues that, as objects and events constitute a phenomenon, their reality are in the human consciousness. The author agrees with Saunders *et al.* (2016) assertion above that phenomena can best be interpreted by those who lived through its experiences.

1.5.2 Design

The study is designed through descriptive and exploratory constructs or what is known as descripto-exploratory study. However, even though the name ‘descripto-exploratory’ suggest description process comes first, the reverse is actually true. Exploratory is mostly a precursor and guides the subsequent steps in the research process (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; Reiter, Stewart & Bruce, 2010).

The exploratory phase of the study is necessary as it is valuable where there is need to find out “*what is happening; to seek new insights and clarify understanding of a problem*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:139). Exploratory research is much more concerned with ‘what are the key factors’ while descriptive is concerned with answering questions like ‘what is the incidence of X’ or ‘Are X and Y related’ (Van Wyk, 2012:11). Saunders *et al.* (2009:140) posits that a descriptive purpose of research helps “*to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations*” and that it is a means to an end rather than an end itself. Therefore, the descriptive study design is often used as a forerunner or part of another design in this case an exploratory research.

1.5.3 Strategy

A research strategy is a process to address the study objectives. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) state that a strategy links the philosophy and the preceding choice of methods in a study. Wedawatta, Ingirige and Amaratunga (2011) concur that a strategy provides direction as to how the research is to be conducted. There are varied strategies used in the research process, some aligned to either a deductive or inductive approach. However, according to Altinay *et al.* (2016) the choice of a strategy should not be label determined but rather its appropriateness to addressing the objectives. The strategies considered are; grounded theory, ethnography, case study, action research, survey and experiment (Altinay *et al.*, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Yin, 1994). The study considers an action research strategy. Action research is a relatively recent method of enquiry as it was first used in the 1940s and involves a collaborative and participative approach that helps devise solutions to real life problems using “*different forms of knowledge*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:189). However, the strategy has courted criticism mostly from the positivist inclined, who view it as lacking scientific basis and neglecting intellectual knowledge in favour of practical knowledge (Jennings, 2018:218). Nonetheless, the strategy’s emphasis is on placing action in knowledge creation for worthwhile implications to be realised (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Jennings, 2018). Jennings (2018:221) highlights ten contemporary approaches to action research (which are further discussed in chapter 5). These are; action research spiral, participatory action research, classroom action research, community action research, action learning, cooperative ecological learning, emancipatory, developmental action inquiry, fourth generation evaluation and action science. Of the approaches, action science is the strategy guiding this study. Action science is generation of knowledge usable by the participants (Edmondson, Beer, Friedman & Putnam, 2014:2) through questioning existing interpretations and perspectives (Raelin, 1997:23) and where knowledge is needed in order to take action (Edmondson *et al.*, 2014). Edmondson *et al.* (2014:4) argue that the basic premise of the action science approach is that knowledge exists within the practitioners themselves which can lead to solutions. The study, therefore, uses action science approach in cases of two community-based tourism projects with previous involvement in hunting tourism. The rationale for the choice of the design is that communities

needs to be involved in offering solutions to the problem they face in a bottom-up approach instead of imposed solutions (Zapata, Hall, Lindo & Vanderschaeghe, 2011). Edmondson *et al.* (2014:4) state that action science create conversations among the participants around issues that are otherwise avoided which ultimately make them interested in knowledge generation to be used for action.

1.6 METHOD OF RESEARCH

The methods of research comprised of the following (See chapter 5 for more comprehensive outlay of research method used);

1.6.1 Literature study

The literature study consists of a review and evaluation of hunting tourism, sustainable tourism and community-based tourism. Therefore, in order to conduct the literature review, the following sources were used;

- Articles in scientific journals on types of wildlife tourism, wildlife impacts, wildlife planning and management, hunting tourism development in Botswana, sustainable tourism principles, sustainability tools, community-based tourism and community-based tourism models.
- Published books in areas of wildlife impacts, planning and management, sustainable tourism and community-based tourism.
- Legislation and policies on wildlife management in Botswana.
- Internet resources through search engines such as Google and Google scholar

The study employs the following keywords relevant and pertinent to addressing the research objectives;

Community tourism, community tourism models, sustainable development, sustainable community development, hunting tourism, hunting ban, mitigation strategies.

1.6.2 Empirical survey

The empirical survey focuses on explaining the methods used to collect the data..

1.6.2.1 Method/s of collecting data

As alluded above the study used an interpretivism approach. Babones (2015) notes that while interpretivism studies are generally associated with qualitative studies, numerical data is often used to serve the philosophical approach where statistics are used to provide more clarity on the unobservable data fundamental to the understanding of the observable (See comprehensive discussion in chapter 5).

The study concurrently applies two data collection instruments (structured and semi-structured interviews) which Reiter *et al.* (2010) and Saunders *et al.* (2016) both argue that when applied and

interpreted in an equal manner provide a robust and comprehensive response to the research question. Saunders *et al.* (2016) reiterate that using two instruments in a single-phase helps to provide richer data, shorten the timescale in data collection and is feasible in its practical application than using multi-phase sequential data collection process. The practicality and timescale aspect are more profound and appealing to this study due to funding limitations anticipated.

1.6.3 Sampling

Sampling consists of the following sections; population and sampling criteria.

1.6.3.1 Population

A population in research is a “full set of cases or elements” where a sample is taken (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:274). The authors (Saunders *et al.*, 2016) argue that the term ‘population’ does not necessarily refer to people. The population consists of five distinct groups of participants relevant for the study. The first is the community, secondly community trust leaders, thirdly are public entities responsible for allocation and managing concessions, fourthly are small business owners within communities and lastly the former hunting employees previously working for operators within the concessions. It is worthwhile to note that not all demarcated concessions are WMAs as illustrated in Figure 1.3 below where areas coloured lime/light green are the only ones designated as WMAs.

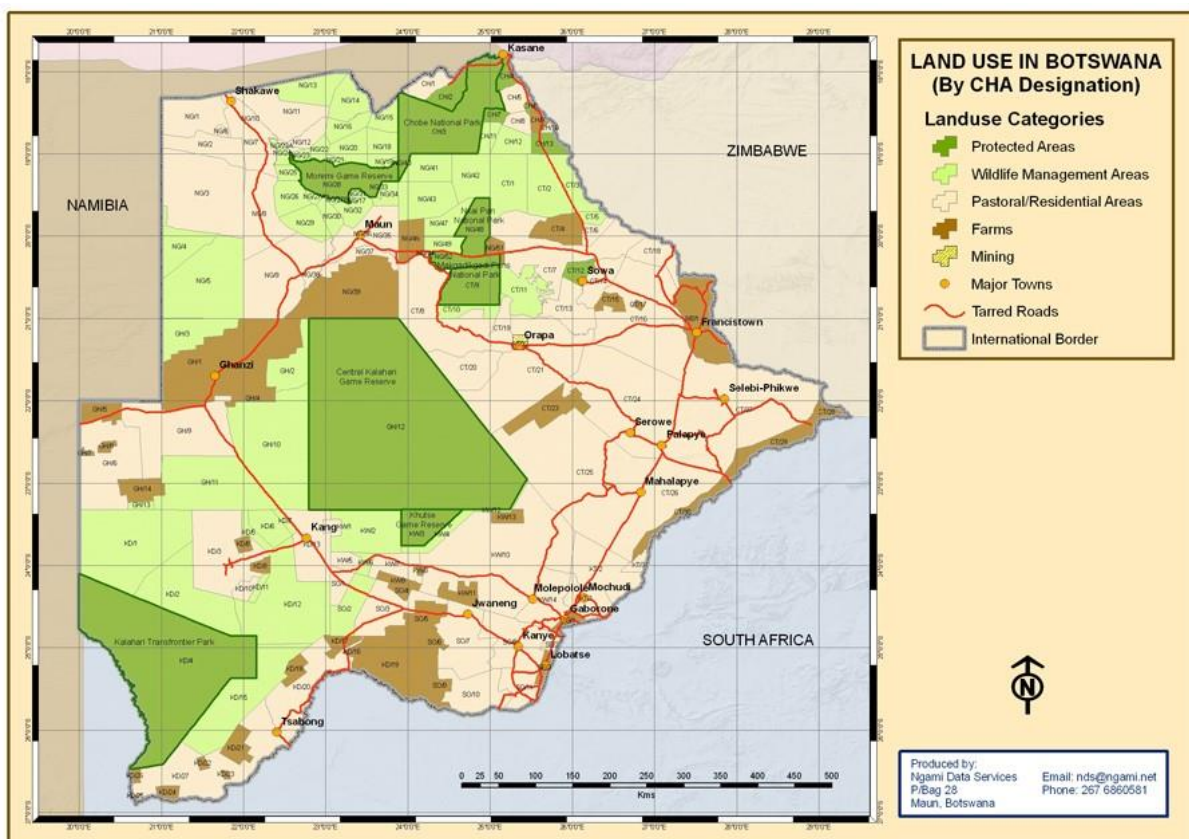


Figure 1.3: Land Uses in Botswana
(Source: Ngami Data Services, 2016)

According to Figure 1.3 above, there are 38 WMAs in the Northern Conservation Zone which per Winterbach, Whitesell and Somers (2015) is an area north of Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR) and covers protected areas of Makgadikgadi Pan National Park, Nxai Pan National Park, Moremi Game Reserve, Chobe National Park and forest reserves. Of the 38 wildlife concessions, 18 were designated for hunting or multi-use (both hunting and photographic tourism) according to 2005 figures (Winterbach *et al.*, 2015). Of the 18 hunting and mixed use concessions, a sample of two (Sankuyo and Mmadinare) were selected based on hunting designation, guided by Altinay *et al.* (2016) clarification of inclusion and exclusion criteria in the selection of target population.

1.6.3.2 Sampling Criteria

In short, a sample is a subset of the target population. DeCarlo (2018) argues that who and how you select a sample influence the conclusions of a study. Saunders *et al.* (2016:274) notes that sampling is important as it is practically impossible in most cases to reach the whole population due to time and costs constraints. The literature mentions two distinct types of sampling; probability and non-probability (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Korstjens & Moser, 2018; DeCarlo, 2018). Saunders *et al.* (2016:276) clarify that probability sampling is associated with survey research designs where inferences about the population are made. Non-probability, however, applies where probability is inappropriate, and there is a need for subjectivity in the selection of participants. Sampling consideration of participants in this study employed non-probability methods. According to Altinay *et al.* (2016), in non-probability sampling, there is a purpose behind the selection and it often helps reach difficult to reach participants.

Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust and Mmadinare Development Trust are considered as case study organisations. The Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT) is based in the village of Sankuyo on the fringes of Okavango Delta and Moremi Game Reserve and operates concessions NG33 and NG34 offering both hunting and photographic tourism. The trust is selected due to its close proximity to Maun and being easily accessible. Due to financial constraints this became an important selection criterion. Furthermore, the trust's revenue and employment figures prior to the hunting ban made it a highly successful venture. As already alluded earlier (refer to section 1.2), Pienaar *et al.* (2013) noted that the trust earned USD 244,560 and employed 103 residents in 2007 which are the only published data of their operations. This was second only to the Okavango Community Trust which is a purely photographic outfit situated in the middle of the delta.

On the other hand, the second community-based project chosen as a case study is Mmadinare Development Trust (MDT) which is located on the eastern side of Botswana, about 15 kilometres

north of the mining town of Selebi-Phikwe (Mmadinare Development Trust, 2014). According to Mmadinare Development Trust (2014) the trust is the brainchild of the people of the village of Mmadinare which was founded in 2001. The report continues to state that its sole income generator was hunting tourism in an allocated concession (CT27) north of the village which extends to the Zimbabwean border to the north and meets another concession (CT29) to the east along the South African border. The village has a population of 12,086 according to the 2011 population census (Statistics Botswana, 2014). However, the available literature does not provide details of revenue or employment that the trust provided in the village. The criterion for the selection of the trust is as outlined in the Sankuyo selection. Furthermore, the geographic separation of the two areas provides an added dimension in the investigation of the phenomena as conditions before and after the hunting ban can be compared to clarify certain factors that might be responsible for sustenance of the CBOs. The two community trusts also present different perspectives in terms of how they coped after the ban of hunting. Sankuyo had photographic safaris along with hunting and while Mmadinare did not have photographic tourism. Therefore, it will be informative for the study to know how the two trusts fared when hunting was banned.

Community Members

The first sample is community members of Sankuyo and Mmadinare villages. According to Statistics Botswana (2014), Sankuyo village's population was 410 residents in 2011 with 77 households translating into 5.3 average members per households. Nonetheless, Mmadinare has a higher population of 12,086 according to the 2011 census (Statistics Botswana, 2014). A quota sampling method was applied to select equal representative sample of the areas within the villages. Therefore, each village was divided into four areas using cardinal points of south, north, west and east.. Quota sampling is preferred where structured interviews are used and considers a large target population where there is no sampling frame (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; DeCarlo, 2018). Quota sampling was chosen as Saunders *et al.* (2016:296) noted its usefulness were there is need for the sample to be proportionally representative of the population which was an important aspect in the selection of participants in this study. It is also noted for its cost efficiency and ability to be quickly set up (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:299). A convenience sampling method was then used to select a single participant available in the household meeting the age criteria of 18 years and above. This criterion allows researchers to select participants due to convenience. The approach was to select a sample of six households in each cardinal area, however, in Mmadinare some villagers were unwilling to participate in the interview which translated into twenty-one (21) participants in the viallge. In Sankuyo, the sample was twenty-five (25) participants. This generated a total of forty-six (46) community members from both locations (see section 5.4 for discussion of sample size determination) and a structured

interview instrument was used to collect the data (further discussion of the data collection instrument is done in section 1.6.4).

Community Trust Leaders

The second sample was the community trust leaders, in this case the trust which is tasked with management of the concessions. A purposive sampling criterion was used to select the participants. According to Saunders *et al.* (2009) purposive often referred to as judgemental sampling, allows the researcher to use judgement in the selection of cases that will best answer the research question. Such considerations are based on the premise that participants are information rich (Patton, 2002). It was imperative that the sampling criteria in the study for this population, be able to yield indepth information. Therefore, the participants had to meet a selection criteria that was specified as key informant. The Sankuyo trust current leader agreed to participate in the study. However, after learning that the participant had less than two years in the position, the previous trust leader was also included as a participant. This was deemed necessary as someone with prior knowledge and experience of the conditions before the hunting ban was needed to augment and bridge gaps in data. This meant that the study used two participants from the Sankuyo trust. In Mmadinare, the researcher was granted permission to include the trust in the study by the current chairperson. The chairperson then referred the researcher to the vice-chairperson to interview. The participant was deemed sufficient as he was a board member before the ban of hunting. This meant the inclusion criteria of experience in trust management before the ban of hunting was met. Therefore a total of three (3) participants were interviewed from this population. A semi-structured interview was conducted to collect data (further clarification of the instrument done in section 1.6.4)

Public Organisations

The Key informants sampling strategy was also used to select the participants from public organisations which constitute the third group of participants. This purposive sampling method was used to select participants from the quasi-government organisation, Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) and the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resouce Conservation and Tourism. The researcher wrote to the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) of BTO to be granted permission to interview one of the employees within the organisation, which was granted. The researcher then requested the head of business development in the organisation to participate in the interview as the business development division at BTO is the one dealing with community projects. However, the head of the business development division referred the researcher to the public relations and communications division. The public relations and communications division head agreed to participate in the study and availed one of their managers as a representative to participate in the study. The Ministry of Environment, Natural Resouce Conservation and Tourism was also written a letter for participation in the study. The request

was granted and the CBNRM officer was purposively identified as a participant in the study. However, the participant withdrew from the study which left only one participant from this population. A semi-structured interview was used to collect data from the participant.

Former hunting employees

The fourth sample was former hunting employees within the communities of Mmadinare and Sankuyo. A snowball sampling method was used to select the participants (see section 5.4 for clarity on snowball sampling). Therefore, as it was difficult to identify former employees, an effort was done to identify one through community leaders in Sankuyo village. The participant then recommended another individual who has worked in hunting safaris. The same approach was applied in Mmadinare to identify participants. Through this sampling technique, two participants from each community of Sankuyo and Mmadinare were selected. This meant a total sample size of four (n=4) for this population. A semi-structured interview was used to collect data from the participants.

Business operators

The fifth sample to be selected was small business operators. It was important to know how businesses in the communities were affected by the ban of hunting. However, an inclusion criterion was used to ensure that the participants were relevant. Only businesses which were in operation prior to the ban of hunting were used, to ensure the participants shared perspectives on their experiences before and after the ban of hunting. Therefore, just as with former hunting employees, a snowball sampling technique was used to select participants for the study from this population. Two participants were selected in Sankuyo village. The selection followed recommendation from the trust office which identified one participant in the village. The identified participant agreed to participate in the study and also referred the researcher to another participant who was selling her crafts at Kazikini campsite. This meant two participants were drawn from the village of Sankuyo. However, the Mmadinare businesses could not be included in the study as they failed to meet the inclusion criteria. To be included, businesses had to have been in operation before 2014 to be able to share experiences prior and after the ban of hunting. A semi-structured interview schedule was used to collect data from the participants.

1.6.4 Development of measuring instrument

The instruments used in the study are semi-structured and structured interviews. For further discussions on other qualitative data collection instruments, refer to section 5.5 in chapter 5.

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews allows the interview schedule to consist of questions and a list of themes that can be covered in an interview (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:391). The data collection instrument is further explained in chapter 5 (see section 5.5.3.2).

Structured Interviews

Saunders *et al.* (2016:391) state that structured interviews are also referred to as 'interviewer-completed questionnaires' and they use standardised and similar questions across all interviews. Structured interviews are further explained in chapter 5 (see section 5.5.3.3).

1.6.5 Survey/Collection of data Procedure

As alluded above the data collection was done through the use of different instruments as outlined. There were two qualitative instruments in the form of semi-structured interview schedules for collection of data from community trust leaders, former hunting employees, public organisation participants and local business operators which entail interviews in a face-to-face approach. Face to face interviews are referred to as synchronous as they happen in real time and place (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Opdenakker, 2006). This type of interview also offers the benefit of social cues like intonation, voice and body language which become critical in data analysis (Opdenakker, 2006). However, the author notes that it requires much more concentration on the answers given especially were the interview is unstructured or semi-structured. The face to face method is chosen in order to minimise disruption to the participants' work schedule by visiting the offices to conduct the interviews. Permission was sort from interviewees prior to the interviews.

The structured interview schedule to community members was administered by the researcher in a face to face approach as well. Community participants interviews conducted in a structured way allows the interviewer to "*read out each question and then record the response on a standardised schedule*" (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:391). This approach helped to improve response rates and to maintain standardisation on data collected across the sampled participants. Saunders *et al.* (2016:391) maintain that standardisation is important in terms of the sequence of questions asked and tone of voice used to avoid biasness. This procedure helps minimise mistakes in answering the questions. Questions were translated to the Setswana (local) language for uniformity and clarity of questions to the participants.

1.6.6 Data analysis

As explained in the data collection process, two distinct instruments were used which translates into different data types and analysis required. As in the data collection process, the analysis from both

data sources was done concurrently in a complimentary manner. Garbarino and Holland (2009) contend that qualitative data can be used in analysis to enrich the relationships/patterns that emerges from the numerical data collected. This allows for a richer and enthusiastic response to the research question when results are interpreted together (Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

Thematic analysis

Thematic analysis was used to analyse the qualitative data collected (other qualitative data analysis methods are discussed in section 5.6 in chapter 5). Saunders *et al.* (2009) state that thematic includes a process of summarising data, categorising/grouping of meanings/data and finally ordering the meanings into themes/patterns. The analysis can be used to gain understanding of otherwise seemingly unrelated material. Thematic analysis is a widely used, flexible and foundational method that is found in many approaches to qualitative analysis (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Braun & Clarke, 2006). Braun and Clarke (2006:79) simply describe it as a “*method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns(themes) within data*”. The authors (Braun & Clarke, 2006) note that while it helps in describing rich detail in the data, it can further be used in other aspects of the research to offer interpretations. Due to its flexibility, it is not confined to a specific philosophical position and can be used deductively or inductively (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Nonetheless, the process in thematic analysis involves transcribing recorded data, familiarising yourself with the data, coding of the data, looking for themes and relationships, refining themes and testing propositions (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:580). The thematic analysis process followed in the study is discussed in section 5.6.5.1. Thematic analysis was deemed applicable in this study due to what Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017) noted about its character of being rigorous and methodological in approach to analysis of data. Nowell *et al.* (2017) notes that this methodological approach help bring trustworthiness to an otherwise complex process of qualitative analysis.

Descriptive statistical analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used to analyse structured and scaled questions in the structured interview schedule. The software allows for researchers to explore different types of data through numerous statistical tests. The analysis of data in this study employed descriptive statistics in the form of frequencies and cross tabulations (Pallant, 2007). Pallant (2007:53) notes that, descriptive statistics can be used to test assumptions. The testing includes the use of standard deviation, skewness, mean and kurtosis as specific detail in the summary of the data. However, there are two forms of variables where descriptive statistics can be used; continuous and categorical (Pallant, 2007:53). The author states that statistical testing such as mean, standard deviation and kurtosis are not appropriate where categorical variables are used. Therefore as the questions asked in the structured interview were categorical variables, frequencies and cross-

tabulation were deemed relevant. Pallant (2007:54) states that frequencies give an analysis of the number of people who gave a response for each question. Cross tabulation on the other hand is also used to analyse categorical data (ordinal and nominal) in a two-dimensional table that helps relationships to be established between the variables (Jays, 2013:1). As the study covers two communities, cross tabulation analysis helps in establishing relationships and comparisons between the cases on different variables covered in the data collection instrument. Mathers, Fox and Hunn (2002:16) who used cross tabulations in their analysis of structured interviews, state that the analysis technique allows comparison of different variables especially where multiple cases are used.

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The research made considerations of ethics in undertaking the study by first seeking permission from the Ministry of Environment, Natural Conservation & Tourism which is responsible for issuing research permits for studies in tourism. The research permit allowed the research to be conducted in the specific areas of Sankuyo and Mmadinare (see Appendix F). Application for ethical clearance was also sort and granted by the Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences' research ethics committee (ethical clearance number EMS2016/11/04-0202). Considerations taken into account were that the study does not include as study participants, minors under 18 years and adults with incapacities and physical disabilities.

In collecting data during interviews, informed consent was sought from participants and those who agreed to participate in the study signed a participation form that was included in a briefing letter. The participants read the letter explaining the objective of the study and those who freely and voluntarily agreed to participate, signed to indicate their consent (see Appendix A to E). The participants who could not read were read the briefing letter before they signed to indicate their consent.

1.8 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS

This section defines concepts related to the explanation and elucidation of the proposed title.

Community Tourism: The concept of community tourism is often referred to as “community-based tourism” and centres on relating “*tourism developments to local needs*” (Richards & Hall, 2000:4) and although it takes many forms in its application, it “*endorses strategies that favour greater benefits for and control by local communities*” (Giampiccoli & Kalis, 2012:174). The concept revolves around placing the community at the lead of community development.

Sustainable tourism development is defined as '*forms of tourism which meet the needs of tourists, the tourism industry and host communities today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*' (Swarbrooke, 1999:13). The UNWTO and UNEP define the concept of sustainability as "*Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities*" (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005:11).

Hunting Tourism: Hunting is basically the killing of animal species for recreational purposes (Bauer & Herr, 2004 In Higginbottom, 2004). The authors note that not all hunting is tourism and for it to be classified 'hunting tourism' it has to incorporate the following elements;

- *Travel to and from a particular destination*
- *The presence of a service industry (outfitters, tour guides, hunting farms)*
- *The exchange of money for services*
- *Overnight, to several months, stays at destinations*
- *Aspects of leisure and recreation*

(Bauer & Herr, 2004:57 In Higginbottom, 2004).

Strategy: Contemporary understanding of the concept of strategy is not far removed from the conceptual definitions offered in the 1980s (Mintzberg, 1987; Hax & Majluf, 1988; Hax, 1990; Mainardes, Ferreira & Raposo, 2014). Hax and Majluf (1988:101) intimate that strategy is multi-dimensional and focuses the organisation, "*providing it with a sense of unity, direction, and purpose, as well as facilitating the changes induced by its environment.*" Mintzberg (1980) views strategy from five dimensions; as a plan, as a pattern of behaviours to drive the plan, as tactics and deployment of resources (which borrows from its military origin), as a location within an operating environment and a perspective of how the leaders view the world. Mainardes *et al.* (2014) offer a more contemporary definition in a research that sort to create an understanding of how managers view the concept. The authors concluded that the understanding is not different from the definition in the literature. The understanding is that strategy is about establishment of common goals in an organisation encompassing identification of competitive advantage, mobilisation of resources towards medium and long term objectives through guidelines, policies and action plans for the success of the organisation (Mainardes *et al.* 2014: 54). Therefore, it can be deduced that, a strategy entails agreed objectives, managing both internal and external environment changes, maximising use of available resources through crafted action plans and policies.

Mitigation: The concept of mitigation entails deliberate effort taken to reduce the effects and impacts of an occurrence (FEMA, 2018). The Merriam-Webster dictionary defines it as the act of making something less harmful, unpleasant, severe and painful.

Wildlife tourism: Wildlife tourism is defined as interaction of tourists with non-domesticated animals whether in their natural environment or in captivity (Higginbottom, 2004:2). However, Newsome, Dowling and Moore (2005:viii) focuses the discussion of their book on viewing of animals, while not disputing the fact that wildlife tourism includes both consumptive and non-consumptive tourism. Curtin (2008:1) also argue that wildlife tourism entails a wide range of interactions with wild animals which can range from passive observation, consumption, feeding and/or touching of species. Therefore, wildlife tourism involves the interaction of wildlife in different settings for tourists to enjoy various wildlife-based activities.

1.9 PRELIMINARY CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

The study was framed using the following chapters;

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement. The chapter gives the background of the research, problem statement and theoretical considerations that guide the research. This chapter explains the study aim and objectives.

Chapter 2: Contextualisation of hunting tourism in Botswana. An analysis of wildlife tourism components is done and the chapter further reviews and investigates the literature on hunting tourism. Hunting impacts are considered as well as current management approaches used within the industry. The chapter also considers the legislative and policy frameworks managing hunting tourism in Botswana.

Chapter 3: Sustainable tourism development. This chapter seeks to critically analyse literature on sustainable development and available tools used in managing tourism sustainably. This helps create understanding and provide clarity on the link between CBT and sustainable tourism which is further discussed in chapter 4.

Chapter 4: Community-Based Tourism development. The chapter looked to conduct a holistic analysis of the characteristics, benefits and challenges of CBT. The chapter further conducted an evaluation of the literature on Community-based tourism models that guided the development of the concept. The chapter also conducted an analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the models as well as their pillars.

Chapter 5: Research methodology. Methodology is considered in this chapter to cover aspects of study design and the reasons for choice of the design guiding the study. The chapter also covered the methods used in data collection, sampling and analysis as well as ethical issues considered.

Chapter 6: Empirical results and discussions of findings. The chapter presents, analyse and discusses empirical data collected from primary data collection methods.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations. The chapter draws conclusions from the discussions in chapter 6, states the contributions the study makes and presents the proposed framework recommended by the study. Implications of the study and its limitations were also highlighted.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter introduced the study by giving a background. The study is anchored in wildlife tourism and gives insight into how hunting tourism as a form of wildlife utilization in Botswana was hampered by a ban of its practice that was instituted in 2014. The study, therefore, considers the research problem which is informed by the resultant effects of the ban on communities and conservation. Consequently, a link is drawn between wildlife tourism, local communities and sustainability and how these discourses relate in that, one affects the other. Therefore, the study's goal is to formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on communities in Botswana. The goal is driven by five (5) objectives that focused the study. Furthermore, the chapter considered the study research design and methods. The chapter concludes by outlining the chapter classification of the thesis.

CHAPTER 2:

CONTEXTUALIZATION OF HUNTING TOURISM IN BOTSWANA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Wildlife tourism is viewed as a subset of nature-based tourism. Tapper (2006) notes that the term refers to human interaction with flora and fauna in the 'wild'. This denotes that interaction with captive animals does not qualify as wildlife tourism due to the animal's lack of 'wild' existence. However, Newsome, Dowling and Moore (2005) contend that wildlife means non-domesticated invertebrates regardless of whether they are in captivity or free. Therefore, with all things considered, wildlife tourism involves a varied range of settings of the encounter which can be natural or artificial environments (Higginbottom, 2004; Cong, Wu, Morrison, Shu & Wang, 2014). As such even though wildlife tourism is a sub-component of nature-based tourism, not all wildlife tourism is nature-based.

Wildlife tourism globally has seen tremendous growth with an estimated 10% annual growth rate from 2012 to 2013 figures (UNWTO, 2014). The global annual trips for wildlife tourism are estimated at 12 million trips with about half of those trips being to the African continent (UNWTO, 2014; CBI Market Intelligence, 2015). However, Scanlon (2017) notes the lack of data focused on the wildlife tourism segment, but nonetheless, the author argues that UNWTO estimated the segment in 2016 to represent 7% of all global tourism trips. More recent data by World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) on wildlife tourism paints a much clearer picture on the value of the segment as it estimates wildlife tourism's contribution to be 4.4% in 2018 and valued at US\$ 120 billion globally (WTTC, 2019; Sunday Times, 2019). The WTTC report states that the Asia-pacific region is the largest wildlife destination, with a value of US\$53.3 billion and supporting 4.5 million jobs (WTTC, 2019). Africa is ranked second with a value of US\$29.3 billion and 3.6 million jobs dependent on wildlife tourism (WTTC, 2019; Sunday Times, 2019). Even though the figure represents a small proportion of the over 1 billion global tourism trips annually, the sector is significant and more important in areas like the African continent where it constitutes over 80% of all trips (UNWTO, 2014). Lock (2018) states that the US wildlife watching tourism industry attracted 20.35 million visitors in 2017, while hunting tourism also had 15.63 million participants in the same year. CBI Market Intelligence (2015) states that the European continent is by far one of the largest source markets for wildlife tourism even though the publication does not provide any figures.

Figures with regards to the different types of wildlife tourism also help in providing insight into the economic value of this segment. For example, an International Fund for Animal Welfare (IFAW) study, which is the latest study conducted in 2009, whale watching is estimated at 13 million participants

with an annual spending of \$2.1 billion (O'Connor, Campbell, Cortez & Knowles, 2009; Hoyt, 2017; Ryan, Bolin, Shirra, Garrard, Putsey, Vines & Hartny-Mills, 2018). Trophy hunting in sub-Saharan Africa is valued at \$201 million according to 2006 data (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007), which was the last attempt to estimate the value of the industry in Africa, while in the US hunters spend US\$ 853 million on hunting licenses alone (Lock, 2018). Nonetheless, according to Van der Merwe (2018), the South African hunting statistics shows a higher estimated value of hunting when biltong hunting is included (discussed further in section 2.2.2), in the South African economy of R13.6 billion (about US\$ 859 million). Zoos and aquariums attract over 700 million visitors making it by far the largest consumer type of wildlife tourism (Gusset & Dick, 2011). These figures demonstrate the significance of wildlife tourism as a global tourism attraction component. However, wildlife tourism plays a more profound economic role in Africa and USA due to the abundance of wildlife resources in such areas. The chapter, therefore, aims to contextualise wildlife and hunting tourism in Botswana. Botswana has been one of the wildlife watching and hunting tourism destinations in Africa. Therefore, the sector is critical to the economy of Botswana as it contributes to the GDP of the country. It is important for the chapter to contextualise wildlife tourism and hunting in particular as wildlife resources are central to the intended sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting. According to Centre for Applied Research (CAR, 2016:20), between 60% and 70% of CBOs in Botswana have wild animals as a resource. The statistics, therefore, demonstrate the importance of wildlife resources to community-based tourism in Botswana, which the chapter discusses below.

The chapter will be constructed as follows: Firstly, literature analysis of wildlife tourism is done which considers the different segments like wildlife watching and hunting tourism. Secondly the chapter deliberates on wildlife tourism in Africa, analyses impacts of the sector on the continent and globally and goes on to further analyse impacts specific to hunting tourism. Thirdly, the chapter then evaluates wildlife tourism planning approaches and management frameworks. Finally, the chapter considers hunting tourism in Botswana by analysing the policy and regulatory frameworks as well as key players in hunting tourism and tourism in general in Botswana.

2.2 ANALYSIS OF WILDLIFE TOURISM

The tourism literature classifies wildlife tourism into two main categories; consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourism (Barnes, 2001; Higginbottom, 2004; McGranahan, 2011; Mwakiwa, Hearne, Stigter, De Boer, Henley, Slotow, Van Langeveld, Peel, Grant & Prins, 2016). These categories consist of different classifications which vary per the type of species (e.g. bird, gorilla, big five), setting or location of animals (e.g. marine locations) captivity (e.g. non-captive and captive wildlife) or degree of interaction (e.g. passive observation, feeding, touching). However, such

classification is often relative to the context of the discussion and do not follow any clear guidelines that inform them.

The literature on the classification of wildlife tourism models is inconclusive (Barnes 2001; McGranahan, 2011; Mwakiwa *et al.*, 2016). Tisdell (2010:3) considers the captive/semi-captive/non-captive to demonstrate consumptive or non-consumptive forms to rationalise classification as illustrated in Figure 2.1.

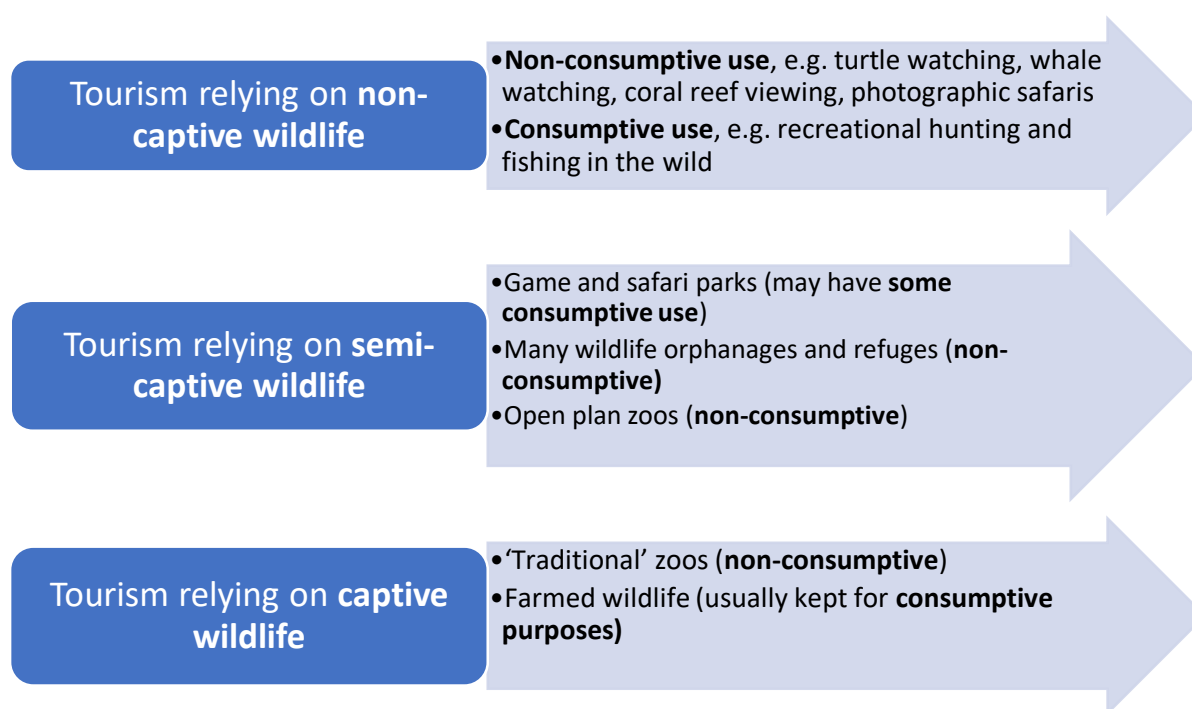


Figure 2.1: Classification of wildlife tourism
(Source: Tisdell, 2010:3).

The model comprehensively highlights the consumptive and non-consumptive forms across the spectrum of captivity. However, the author also notes that open-plan Zoos and orphanages fall within the category of semi-captive. Considering the argument of Knight (2009:173) that these “enriched Zoos” (a term used to describe open-plan Zoos) deprive animals of their natural behaviours, it is hard to agree that open-plan Zoos are anything but captive. Furthermore, the model fails to include the settings classified under non-captive wildlife choosing only to give the tourism activities such as whale watching and turtle watching.

Orams’ (1996; 2002) “Spectrum of Tourist-Wildlife Interaction Opportunities” model also highlights classification of wildlife tourism categories similar to Tisdell (2010) above. The model identifies captive, semi-captive and wild categories and the settings on which these occur along with examples

of specific attractions and specifying the degree of human influence. In contrast Orams (1996:41) give non-captive or 'wild' wildlife setting as national parks, migratory routes and breeding Sites. The author also adds feeding wildlife as a category between semi-captive and wild existence. However, Orams (1996) use of the term wildlife parks as an example of a semi-captive setting which is a bit confusing especially as the author identifies National parks as wild.

Higginbottom (2004) attempted to rationalise the classification of wildlife tourism types by observing that the concept is applied at different hierarchical scales. It can be considered from a perspective of tourism experience, (where wildlife become a component of the overall tourism experience) a tourism product (due to differences in types of markets and suppliers), tourism business (those specialising in wildlife without human influence or those that offer provisioning) or tourism destination (a large fenced nature reserve or open-plan zoo). The author considers classification from a 'product-market' perspective as such consideration distinguishes the *"suppliers, organisational networks, environmental impacts, host community issues, stakeholders, markets and bodies of literature"* (Higginbottom, 2004:3). Objectives and motives of the market are also distinct which births sub-divisions from these classifications. Therefore, this section adopts the four main distinct forms of wildlife tourism as highlighted by Higginbottom (2004) with subsequent sub-divisions as highlighted by the literature. Such classifications are; wildlife watching tourism, captive wildlife watching tourism, hunting tourism and fishing tourism. The following sections will review each of these sub-divisions

2.2.1 Wildlife watching tourism

Wildlife watching tourism is the travel by tourists to view or interact with wildlife (Tapper, 2006; Higginbottom, 2004). Wildlife watching is often combined with other tourism activities such as nature, adventure and cultural heritage (CBI Market Intelligence, 2015; UNWTO, 2014). However, that is not to say that wildlife is not the primary motivation of travel but rather such activities become part of the wildlife watching experience where motivation is constantly changing. Tapper (2006) highlights an example of a family on a beach holiday who encounter marine wildlife which will ultimately lead to a shift in motivation in subsequent days or trips to wildlife watching. Likewise, the categories that classify wildlife-watching activities differ greatly because of the overlapping nature of tourism experiences and therefore range from the type of environment, captivity and type of wildlife (Valentine & Birtles, 2004 in Higginbottom, 2004). The most used classification of wildlife watching is the 'type of environment' in which a distinction is drawn between terrestrial and marine wildlife (Valentine & Birtles, 2004; Amodeo, 2004; Tapper, 2006; UNWTO, 2014; Pratt & Suntikul, 2016) ; ;. Though the 'type of wildlife' is often used as well in wildlife watching classifications, it is observed that the discussions are often within the context of the environment. Therefore, the discussions in this section

consider wildlife watching from a similar perspective where the type of wildlife is within the context of the environment.

2.2.1.1 Terrestrial wildlife watching

Terrestrial wildlife watching involves encounters with the land-based focal organism in their natural settings (Liu & Yang, 2013; Valentine & Birtles, 2004). The wildlife watching experience is varied and ranges from passive observation to 'edutainment' and interaction (Pratt & Suntikul, 2016), and likewise, the focal organisms are also varied. Nonetheless, Tapper (2006) notes that humans have had a long-standing admiration of the larger and exotic animals even though there are a variety of other observable organisms. Such focus on larger mammals is reflected by the industry's concentration on offering services to this market. For example, a study by UNWTO (2014) notes that 96% of surveyed tour operators offered safari tours to Africa which involves an encounter with 'the Big-Five' (Elephant, Buffalo, Lion, Rhinoceros and Leopard). However, there is a growing trend of other species gaining popularity such as birds (Rogerson, Msimango & Rogerson, 2013), butterflies (Tapper, 2006; Nonci, Palad, Mochtar, Muchdar & Hikmah, 2015) and reptiles like snakes, komodo dragons and crocodiles (Tapper, 2006; Cochrane, 2007). These emerging special interest wildlife watching experiences are gaining momentum as standalone tourism products sufficient to stimulate motivation to travel. Nevertheless, they often are included as part of the activities for tourists motivated to watch large mammals. Below are discussions of the different terrestrial wildlife watching categories prevalent in the tourism industry.

2.2.1.1.1 Mammals

By far the most dominant category in wildlife watching tourism mammals. The large game involves a wide variety of terrestrial animals such as herbivores, carnivores and primates (Knight, 2009:168). Valentine and Birtles (2004) note that there is an uneven distribution of this category of wildlife globally. The highest levels and concentration are observed by the authors to be in the less developed regions of Africa, Central and South America as well as parts of South-east Asia. What has been critical to the conservation of these large species was the creation of protected areas. Data provided by the World Database on Protected Areas (WDPA) states that between 12.9% and 15.5% of the world's land surface falls within protected areas (Soutollo, 2010). However, the author notes the disparity of information on protected areas as not all nature reserves have biodiversity conservation as their primary objective. Some protected areas are not included in the data set while others lack boundary information which makes it difficult to have precise information on global protected area data. Even so, the role of protected areas in the conservation of species has been critical as they proved to be the bedrock of human-wildlife interaction in nature-based setting which has been the hallmark of wildlife watching tourism.

Nature-based tourism and more specifically ecotourism which emphasise the high quality of the natural environment are fundamental in large game watching (Eagles, Bowman & Tao, 2001). While all mammals are an attraction in the wildlife watching scene, mostly the bigger and rare species have the most pull. Penteriani, López-Bao, Bettega, Dalerum, del Mar Delgado, Jerina, Kojola, Krofel and Ordiz (2017) observed that tourists to Alaska, USA are willing to pay more for brown bear viewing than other species. Therefore species such as brown and polar bears (Rode, Farley, Fortin & Robbins, 2007; Lemelin, Fennell & Smale, 2008; Penteriani *et al.*, 2017), snow leopards (Hussain, 2000), primates (Berman, Li, Ogawa, Ionica & Yin, 2007; Knight, 2010; Russon & Wallis, 2014), tigers (Wildlife Protection Society of India, 2003) and 'The big five' (Higginbottom, 2004; Newsome, Dowling & Moore, 2005; Tapper, 2006; Deere, 2011; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013) attract and motivate more tourists' visit to a destination.

2.2.1.1.2 Birds

As a subset of wildlife watching, birdwatching has grown tremendously over the past decades catalysed especially because of the establishment of birdwatching organisations in Europe, North America and Australia (Rogerson, Msimango & Rogerson, 2013). Birdwatching has moved in from just passive observation to studying and gaining expertise in the species observed (Sheard, 1999; Oddie, 2006; Collins-Kreiner, Malkinson, Labinger & Shtainvarz, 2013) and from a localised practice to a globalised pull factor in travel motivation (Collins-Kreiner *et al.*, 2013; Steven, Morrison & Castley, 2014). The birdwatching tourists are referred to as avi-tourists or "birders", and they are renowned as the wealthiest of all the tourist's segments as they traverse the world to watch different species in exotic locations around the globe (Steven *et al.*, 2014).

There is a consensus within the literature to a recognition of the diversity of avi-tourists per their involvement in the activity. Even though there are myriad of categories, they all consider the level of enthusiasm of the avi-tourist. Steven *et al.* (2014) highlight the division of hobbyist and tourists, while Chen and Chen (2015) identified two categories as "committed birders" and "active birders". The authors note that "committed birders" take 5.5 trips per month while "active birders" had a lower involvement in birdwatching. Other noted bird watching tourist's categories are "dudes" (casual bird watchers not prepared to risk anything for a sighting), "birders" (more committed bird watchers who involve studying the species as part of the experience) and "twitchers" (hardcore birders who go anywhere in anticipation to tick-off rare species off their lists) (Oddie, 2006; Rogerson *et al.*, 2013; Wilkinson, Waitt & Gibbs, 2014;). Furthermore, avitourism has demonstrated potential in developing community-based tourism and conservation as well as being ecologically and sustainably sound amongst the wildlife tourism segments (Collins-Kreiner *et al.*, 2013; Steven *et al.*, 2014; Chen & Chen, 2015).

2.2.1.1.3 Insects

Lemelin and Williams (2012) opined that insects including butterflies and dragonflies together with arachnids are the most abundant of all terrestrial life form in the world. Though many insects are viewed as pests for their unwanted welcome in many settings, some like butterflies fascinate viewers in similar measure. This form of tourism experience is noted to have started in activities like insect exhibitions, fairs and festivals as well as gardening (Lemelin & Williams, 2012) and the trend soon evolved from collection of insect species to watching (Valentines & Birtles, 2004). Nevertheless, while this type of tourism appeals to enthusiasts, it is often undertaken in conjunction with another form of wildlife watching like bird watching and large game viewing (Lemelin & Williams, 2012). There is also a symbiotic relationship between botanical areas, birds and butterflies due to their interdependence which further allows for convergence of various tourists with special interests.

Butterfly watching locations are spread evenly globally from Asia (Kim, Kim & Agrusa, 2008), Europe (Lemelin & Williams, 2012), Americas (Tap; per, 2006; Cornfield, 2008; UNESCO, 2017) and Africa (Samways, 2005). Enthusiasm over butterflies seems to be the driver in this type of tourism. Kim *et al.*, (2008:363) note that the Hampyeong butterfly festival in South Korea became an annual tourist attraction and was first initiated by two butterfly collectors. Nonetheless, the segment as an object of tourism appeal is demonstrated in the literature. Ardahanlioglu and Ozhanci (2014) observed a growing number of camping tourists and over a thousand day-trippers who came to the butterfly valley in the Fitheye coast in Turkey as growing importance of butterflies in the tourism industry. Mexican region of Michoacán also attracts over 250,000 visitors to monarch butterfly viewing sites yearly (Tapper, 2006; Cornfield, 2008). The importance of butterflies is further highlighted by a growing number of protected areas specifically created to conserve butterfly species. The Karkloof Nature Reserve in South Africa (Samways, 2005) and Monarch Butterfly biosphere reserve in Mexico which is also a UNESCO world heritage site (Tapper, 2006; Cornfield, 2008; UNESCO, 2017). The protected areas were created to protect the *Orachrysops Ariadne* butterfly also known as Karkloof blue and the monarch butterfly respectfully and demonstrate the importance of these species to biodiversity and the tourism industry.

2.2.1.1.4 Reptiles

There are few tourist attractions globally that have the pulling power to attract tourists solely to view reptiles. Komodo National Park in Indonesia is one of the few attractions whose allure is reptiles largely due to the fascination offered by the endangered Komodo dragons found exclusively in the area (Walpole, 2001; Cochrane, 2013). Even then, Cochrane (2013) states that the dragon tourism has not yet been established as a sole factor of attraction noting the beautiful coral reefs in the fringes

of the Island as another significant attraction. However, the segment as a special interest in the wildlife watching tourism warrants mention as it forms part of the tourism experience albeit as a component of other activities. There are observed snake safaris in India and Kenya (Rushby, 2011; Hoare, 2012) although these are mostly scientific expeditions. Snakes and crocodiles also attract tourists although most of the tourist experience around these species takes place within confined spaces like crocodile and snake farms or enclosures. Asia and Africa are home to most of the snake and crocodile farms. The reptile park in Kasane, a crocodile farm in Maun and the reptile park in Zambia is home to snakes, crocodiles and other reptiles in Southern Africa (Mbuvi, 2004; BTO, 2017). Likewise, similar parks and farms are noted in South Africa (Croc City crocodile and reptile park), (Bio-Ken snake farm) Kenya (Mbuvi, 2004; Phezulu Park, 2017;) Malaysia (Zoo Negara), India and Thailand (Ching, Hin & Ern, 2014; Raharjo & Hakim, 2015). Moreover, there are commercial snake and crocodile farms whose primary purpose is to rear the reptiles for the skin trade. In such farms, tourism is complementary rather than the focus of the business.

2.2.1.2 Marine wildlife watching

Marine wildlife tourism just as with previous wildlife tourism definitions emphasises the natural habitat setting in the viewing experience of marine species. Likewise, just as with terrestrial animals, marine animals are conserved through marine protected areas which are noted to cover only 1.6% of the global ocean surface (Thurstan, Hawkins, Neves & Roberts, 2012:1096). Marine protected areas help conserve not just species but also “*habitats, ecosystem structure, functioning and integrity, species diversity, richness, size and density*” (Bennett & Dearden, 2014:107). This is done through the prohibition of extractive and depositional activities (Thurstan *et al.*, 2012:1096). Therefore, the focus on protection not only benefit marine species and their habitats but also the tourism industry through consumptive and non-consumptive use.

Non-consumptive marine wildlife is said to generate “*more revenue than aquaculture and fisheries combined*” (Higham, Bejder, Allen, Corkeron & Lusseau, 2016:73). Furthermore, marine wildlife tourism especially whale watching has experienced more annual growth than the broader tourism industry since the 1990s (O’Connor, Campbell, Cortez & Knowles, 2009; Higham *et al.*, 2015). Burgin and Hardiman (2015:211) likewise termed the growth ‘explosive’ and concur that whale watching has been the most predominant attraction served by 3000 tour operators and established as a tourist attraction in 119 countries. These authors also note a parallel increase in other “*megafauna viewing with sharks and rays*” (Burgin & Hardiman, 2015:211) commanding a similar interest. Also, the authors argue that though wildlife watching can be opportunistic or focused, the latter is associated with marine wildlife tourism which translates into more economic impact reminiscent of the exponential growth the industry experienced. The added attraction of marine wildlife is the multiple activities that

characterise the viewing experience. Such activities include boat-based tours, land-based observation (from vantage points), air viewing (by helicopter or plane) and diving (either in cages or open water) (O'Connor *et al.*, 2009; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015). As has been illustrated before in the discussion of terrestrial animals, man's infatuation with bigger and rare, exotic animals is well documented. Therefore, in marine wildlife tourism, species such as whales, dolphins, sharks, seals and porpoises are an important part of this segment (Higham *et al.*, 2015:74). The wide practice of this tourism segment is not only prevalent in North America where growth is much higher (O'Connor *et al.*, 2009) but also in small Pacific Island nations such as Guam, Fiji and Tsonga with whale and dolphin watching as the main attraction (Pratt & Suntikul, 2016). Still, the industry's growth has not seen a corresponding increase in species population. There is a noted decline in most marine species attributable to many factors chief among them being commercial exploitation, pollution and destruction of habitat (Richards, O'Leary, Roberts, Ormond, Gore & Hawkins, 2015; Pratt & Suntikul, 2016).

2.2.1.3 Captive wildlife tourism

Captive wildlife tourism is an alternative setting for natural wildlife interaction which Packer and Ballantyne (2012) call artificial environments. These include zoos, aquariums and other forms of wildlife enclosures where animals are kept in confinement. The literature demonstrates a skewed focus in captive wildlife tourism studies towards zoo tourism as illustrated by the following studies (see Woods, 2002; Tribe, 2004; Ryan & Seward, 2004; Hughes, Newsome & Macbeth, 2005; Ballantyne, Packer, Hughes & Dierking, 2007; Catibog-Sinha, 2008; Shani, 2012; Fennell, 2012; Packer & Ballantyne, 2012). However, the central theme of the captivity of various species meant that issues within this segment are similar which is best illustrated by the organisation, World Association of Zoos and Aquariums (WAZA) which represents key players within this market segment.

Tribe (2004:35) contends that zoos are probably the oldest form of wildlife tourism dating back to ancient Egypt and practised through ancient civilisations like the Greeks, Romans and Chinese. Animals were kept for "*display, religion and for the aggrandisement of the owner*" (Tribe, 2004:35). The first modern zoos were more focused on learning and scientific studies which allowed visitation by the public for a fee to help fund their operations (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007:368). The industry has since experienced tremendous growth which amounts to over 10,000 zoos, aquariums and other wildlife enclosures worldwide (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007:368) which maintain over 1 million wild animals under human care (Catibog-Sinha, 2008:161). Woods (2002:344) observed that visitors to American captive animal facilities amounted to over 140 million annually and an estimated 350 and 600 million worldwide visitors in 2000. According to WAZA (2017), current figures are estimated at more than 700 million visitors worldwide. This, therefore, demonstrates the popularity of zoos and aquariums as

tourism attractions worldwide. Catibog-Sinha (2008:161) argue that mega-vertebrates get the most attention, especially from children though there is an increase in interest from non-mammal species. Studies show that those who visited zoos as children are more likely to visit as adults and some are inspired to view animals in their natural habitat as a result (Ryan & Seward, 2004; Catibog-Sinha, 2008).

Hughes *et al.* (2005:74) posit that captive wildlife facilities help remove accessibility barriers in viewing animals which characterise the rare and nocturnal animals and therefore “*improving the success of wildlife tourism ventures*”. Furthermore, captive enclosures offer opportunities for animal species to be viewed safely without the costly and extensive travel required in viewing animals in their natural environment (Woods, 2002:343) as well as acting to preserve the diversity and survival of species through breeding and reintroduction programmes (Catibog-Sinha, 2008:163). Catibog-Sinha (2008:165) contends that though zoos are controversial, they play a meaningful role in achieving sustainability as they inspire visitors to embrace its principles through their conservation and research focus. Shani (2012) in his critic of Fennell’s (2012) “*Tourism and animal rights*” article argues that the notion of the animal rights theory where wildlife use is devoid of leisure and entertainment while captivity and other consumptive forms are demonised is naïve. Shani (2012) reasons that ecotourism, which is believed to be more sustainable, is not without impacts on viewed animals. The author further states that captivity can benefit species as viewership is in a controlled setting without disrupting animals in their natural environment. Visitors satisfaction is also a critical aspect of captive wildlife tourism. Visitor satisfaction was observed to be higher when education was the focus of the facility, this was found in a study done at the Barnia Mia facility in Australia (Hughes *et al.*, 2005). However, a study by Ryan and Seward (2004) found education as a motive for visitation was of low importance to tourists in a zoo in New Zealand. Therefore, even though visitors might not be motivated by the pursuit of education in visiting zoos, its presence in these facilities improves their satisfaction.

As noted earlier, captive facilities are not without criticism and challenges. These facilities are criticised for constraining animal movements away from their natural homes (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007:368) and subjecting animals to substandard conditions (Catibog-Sinha, 2008:163). A case in point is illustrated by Agoramoorthy (2004) in the assessment of Southeast Asian Zoos where multiple ethical issues were noted such as improper disposal of surplus animals, acquisition and exposure to diseases. Ryan and Seward (2004) observe that some animals become so habituated to human presence that they feel deprived without it. According to Ballantyne *et al.* (2007:370) such controversies as exploitation, manipulation and exposing animals to boredom for human pleasure will persist into the future. Furthermore, even though zoos are used as breeding places for endangered species to advance conservation efforts, challenges such as poor reproductive success and inability

to maintain the genetic integrity of species persist (Catibog-Sinha, 2008:163). Likewise, the reintroduction of species into their natural settings is challenged by lack of funds and species failing to attain self-sufficiency in the wild.

Nonetheless, the captive wildlife industry has advanced with facilities evolving from the traditional zoo where the circus-style pursuit of entertainment was the norm to more naturalistic presentations of wildlife (Hughes *et al.*, 2005; Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007; Catibog-Sinha, 2008). Ballantyne *et al.* (2007: 369-70) argue that zoos have moved to provide “*wide open areas, water features and sound recordings to mimic wilderness environments*” which are termed “*third-generation exhibits*”. Catibog-Sinha (2008:164) adds that environmental enrichment is now incorporated in zoos to reduce stress on animals and improve learning experiences. Though there is noted a change in focus by zoos from mistreating animals to conservation and environment focus, there is a north-south divide in assimilation of this paradigm shift. While western countries have embraced the contemporary management focus in captive facilities, developing nations are still managed solely for the amusement of humans under substandard conditions exacerbated by lack of funds (Catibog-Sinha, 2008:172). However, Woods (2002:345) argues that zoos in general offer animals and people little compensatory benefits. Ryan and Seward (2004) in conclusion of their study noted that for captive facilities to be sustainable and simulate ecotourism, the Disney model of “Zoo theme park” which makes to be replicas of natural areas must be embraced as it has proved successful thus far.

2.2.1.4 Wildlife feeding tourism

Often viewed as the black sheep in the tourism industry due to controversies surrounding it, wildlife feeding is increasingly becoming popular (Orams, 2002; Dubois & Fraser, 2013). The activity is occurring within the broader wildlife tourism industry as part of human interaction with nature. Orams (2002:282) contends that feeding is considered one of a range of activities to increase this interaction with wildlife. The literature highlights two intertwined motives in feeding wildlife for tourism purposes. One is feeding as an interactive and experiential activity carried out by tourists as active participants in their experience (and involves feeding, touching, photographing and observing) (Orams, 2002; Semeniuk, Speers-Roesch & Rothley, 2007). The other is where feeding is used as bait to improve the likelihood of sighting rare and difficult to find animals species (Orams, 2002; Semeniuk *et al.*, 2007; Maljkovic & Cote, 2010; Brookhouse, Bucher, Rose, Kerr & Gudge, 2013; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015).

The latter is referred to in the literature as ‘provisioning’ and mostly perpetuated by tour operators to increase the success of their businesses. The feeding activity is mostly noted in semi-captive and wild animal’s categories of wildlife watching where viewing animals often proves elusive (Orams,

2002:283) and most prevalent in marine wildlife tourism (Semeniuk *et al.*, 2007:666). Maljkovic and Cote (2010) argue that shark viewing is the main culprit with 40% of shark viewing sites employing some form of provisioning to attract the species for viewing. Although the activity is growing in popularity, the controversy around it has led to bans in destinations like Hawaii and Florida in the USA, Cayman Islands and South Africa (Maljkovic & Cote, 2010; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015) though there are a number of other destinations where the activity is encouraged (Orams, 2002:289). The critics of this activity note a host of impacts on wildlife species as reasons to discourage the practice. Behavioural change such as habituation to provision of feeds, alterations to patterns in migration of species with animals opting to stick to areas of provision, loss of ability and skill for animals to forage for themselves, change in diet and more aggression towards humans have been observed (Orams, 2002; Brookhouse *et al.*, 2013; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015).

However, it should be noted that not all impacts of feeding wildlife are negative (Orams, 2002:283) and that impacts on behavioural patterns might prove difficult to distinguish from those of other wildlife interactions like swimming with dolphins and shark diving (Burgin & Hardiman, 2015:213). That notwithstanding, positive impacts are that feeding can enhance reproduction, improve survival rates in a period of droughts and other nutritionally deprived periods and spend less time foraging for food improving breeding and other activities (like nursing young ones) for animals (Orams, 2002; Semeniuk *et al.*, 2007).

Therefore, while it is contentious whether wildlife feeding is an unethical practice or a necessary attraction, there is evidence to suggest that certain destination's sustenance thrive on such practices. Maljkovic and Cote (2010) highlight the economic impact of shark diving tourism on the Bahamas where encounters generated \$78 million; Stingray feeding attracted 1 million tourists in the Cayman Islands before the ban (Semeniuk, Speers-Roesch, 2007:666). Dubois and Fraser (2013) also noted feeding is playing a critical role in attracting tourists to wildlife encounters in Russia (brown bears), Indonesia (komodo dragons) which attracts 30,000 tourists to feeding sites annually and Australia (saltwater crocodiles).

2.3 WILDLIFE TOURISM IN AFRICA

According to the UNWTO (2014) study wildlife tourism in Africa presents a wide spectrum of settings and experiences from safaris, marine, bird to semi-captive wildlife tourism. Unlike in most other regions, wildlife tourism is central and contributes a sizable portion to the positive economic impact of tourism to Africa. Chardonnet and Le Bel (2011) contend that nearly a third of the world's biodiversity is found in Africa which represents a major natural asset for the continent. Protected areas continue to be the backbone of wildlife tourism in the African continent with a variety of protection

types used to conserve this important natural resource. National Parks and Game Reserves are still the predominant form of wildlife protection in Africa, constituting a sizable portion of land surface in most countries. Data supplied by the World Bank (2016) shows that in 2014, terrestrial protected area as a proportion of total land area stood at 29% in Botswana, 35% in Republic of Congo, 32% in Tanzania, 37.9% in Namibia and 12% in Kenya. Furthermore, protection of wildlife species is offered through private game ranches (Botswana and South Africa), Communal conservancies (Namibia) and wildlife management areas (Botswana) (Van der Merwe & Du Plessis, 2014; Naidoo, Weaver, Diggle, Matongo, Stuart-Hill & Thouless, 2016; CAR, 2016;). The increased protection highlights the importance of wildlife in African tourism. However, certain regions seem to perform better in wildlife tourism in Africa. UNWTO (2014) states that this tourism segment is more predominant in East and Southern African region while tourism authorities in Central and West Africa have shown commitment to developing the sector. O'Connor *et al.* (2009) further demonstrate the East and Southern African region's strength in wildlife tourism by highlighting it as a preferred whale watching destination on the continent. The region also has shown diversity in its offering, with snorkelling with whale sharks in Seychelles, shark diving and whale watching in South Africa, gorilla trekking in Uganda, Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Rwanda proving significant contributors over and above the predominant big five safari tourism in the region.

The economic contribution of wildlife tourism is not well quantified in terms of cumulative contribution to the African continent. However, literature exists that highlight its contribution to different countries and regions. Booth (2010) notes that hunting tourism contributed over a cumulative US\$ 184 million to the countries of Botswana, Namibia, South Africa, Zimbabwe and Tanzania. However, in South Africa, the hunting industry is worth much more when the biltong segment (hunting for meat products by predominantly local hunters) is factored in as indicated earlier estimated at ZAR 13.6 billion (Van der Merwe, 2018).

Wildlife watching is also significant though statistics fail to separate it from other forms of tourism. Nonetheless, in Kenya tourism contributes 12% to the GDP with a reported 50% contribution from wildlife-based tourism (Muruthi, 2017). Booth (2010) estimates nature-based tourism at US\$ 8 billion to the economies of East and Southern African countries. Even earlier studies have shown the significance of wildlife tourism to the African continent Such as Emerton (1997) who estimated a 1% to 7% contribution to GDP from wildlife tourism in 1995 in the countries of Kenya, Namibia, South Africa and Zimbabwe.

Other forms of wildlife tourism also make a significant contribution. According to Muruthi (2017) estimated bird watching in South Africa is between US\$12 million and US\$26 million. While O'Connor

et al. (2009) add, that whale watching in the African and Middle East region generates US\$ 163.5 million, with a 70% contribution from African countries.

African wildlife tourism is not without challenges. The most notable ones being poaching and the human-wildlife conflict. Poaching robs the continent of its major resource with Muruthi (2017) stating that 1,215 rhinoceros and between 20, 000-30, 000 elephants were killed by poachers in 2014 alone. The trade-in especially rhino and elephant horn and tusk is proving too lucrative for poachers to resist with Asia being the biggest market in this trade (Muruthi, 2017). Human-wildlife conflict also provides more pressure on the conservation of African wildlife. Due to growing populations, human settlements have encroached into wildlife habitat causing conflict which threatens animal species in the process. Due to this close interaction, wildlife causes danger to humans and destruction to their crops and livestock which a result in retaliation by humans leading to a decline in wildlife population (Chardonnet & Le Bel, 2011).

2.4 WILDLIFE TOURISM IMPACTS

Wildlife tourism is known to have negative impacts often stemming from the conflict in the interaction of the intertwined goals of conservation, visitor satisfaction and profitability of enterprises. However, the convergence of these goals does not always yield negative outcomes only but positive ones as well. The intensity of these impacts seems to be determined by the level of interaction of people and animals in order to achieve the aforementioned goals. Knight (2009:169) argues that human-wildlife interaction is critical in wildlife tourism as close encounters are central to the satisfaction of visitors and improvement in profitability making it a highly sought-after experience. However, while tourists may seek close encounters, wild animals' anti-predatory instincts compel them to flee from human presence. Knight (2009:170) notes that the animals' anti-predatory behaviour towards humans exists in both consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourism though the author admits that hunting is the one responsible for such behaviour in animals. Nonetheless, animals draw no distinction to either during human encounters. This predisposes man to pursue animals in search of close encounters either for consumption or non-consumptive purposes culminating in a variety of impacts. Captive wildlife tourism is one of man's efforts to demonstrate close encounters with wildlife. Therefore, it is important to consider the outcome of these close encounters between humans and wildlife.

2.4.1 Positive Impacts

The following section deliberates on the positive impacts brought about by wildlife tourism globally.

2.4.1.1 Conservation

Wildlife tourism is viewed as a contributor to conservation both monetarily and through the shaping of visitor behaviour. The industry has been noted to benefit visitors, environment and wildlife to differing degrees (Tisdell, 2010; Packer & Ballantyne, 2012). The benefits accrued are not necessarily determined by the type of wildlife tourism but rather by the level of management (Tisdell, 2010:5). Nevertheless, wildlife's economic impact and its significance to the global tourism market has not been comprehensively documented owing to gaps in the provision of data especially in developing countries where most wildlife tourism takes place (UNWTO, 2014). However, the literature highlights the direct and indirect economic impacts of wildlife tourism in different regions of the world (Valentine & Birtles, 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; IFAW, 2009; Gusset & Dick, 2011; UNWTO, 2014; CBI Market Intelligence, 2015). Conservation, therefore, has become the major beneficiary as a result of direct economic expenditures as income is used to aid management of wildlife resources. Hughes (2013) contends that protection and preservation of environmental resources is the rationale behind the promotion of wildlife tourism. Nevertheless, Lindsey *et al.* (2015:298) argue that most protected areas, especially in developing countries, still suffer funding shortfalls partly due to mismanagement and insufficient funds from governments, adversely affecting conservation in the process. This points to inability of governments to adequately channel wildlife tourism revenue towards conservation in preference of other priority areas such as infrastructural development and social security provisions.

Studies have demonstrated that wildlife conservation is not limited to any specific form of wildlife tourism. Captive wildlife enclosures such as zoos and aquariums are noted to espouse the conservation agenda (Tribe & Booth, 2003; Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007; Catibog-Sinha, 2008). Conservation as well is not only limited to funding efforts in the management of resources. Shaping of visitors' attitudes and behaviour through interpretation and education aid conservation in both captive and non-captive settings. Hughes (2013) argues that improved attitudes in visitors enhance environmental knowledge which ultimately leads to environmentally responsible behaviours. Likewise, modern zoos and aquariums act as conservation sanctuaries of many endangered species around the world through breeding and management programmes (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007:367). For example, Australia Zoo Wildlife Warriors, founded by Steve Irwin in Australia is home to possums, bats and koalas that are being being nursed back to health after injuries (Australia Zoo Wildlife Warriors, 2019). Nonetheless, some approaches are deliberate in getting conservation messages across. Mbugua (2012:59) notes the education centres in Kenya that provide conservation education to the tourism industry, students and communities that co-exists with wildlife in order to raise conservation awareness. However, Tisdell (2010:4) argues that economic benefits provide incentives for the industry, landowners and community to uphold wildlife conservation. The author reasons that

the magnitude of the economic benefit to communities determines their support for wildlife conservation.

2.4.1.2 Contribution to Community Livelihoods

Wildlife tourism resources are, as indicated earlier found mostly in developing countries. Furthermore, these resources are found in peripheral areas where often the marginalised in the society reside (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Suich, 2015; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016). The protection of wildlife resources from over-exploitation have created conflict with often divergent community interests (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016). The authors contend that such a conflict, therefore, meant conservation and community livelihoods needed to be reconciled. Devolution of rights over wildlife and natural resources to make communities central to conservation efforts through benefits from wildlife conservation became paramount in many countries (Rastogi, Hickey, Anand, Badola & Hussain, 2015; Suich, 2015; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016;). However, the discussions in this section are not centred of the merits or otherwise of community-based approaches to wildlife management but rather on the value of wildlife tourism to communities. Nonetheless, as community-based approaches are central to conservation and livelihoods, the debate cannot be ignored.

The rationale was for the communities to derive income, employment and other incentives which will lessen the cost and burden of conservation of the resources. Therefore, studies have considered this area to measure such initiatives and the benefits accrued as well as their impact on conservation. While there is evidence of benefits to communities, there are noted problems of mismanagement of revenue, inequitable distribution and predominance of the elite taking advantage of the availed opportunities (Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Suich, 2015; Rastogi *et al.*, 2015; Fischer *et al.*, 2015; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016;). However, utilising the community capital framework (Emery & Flora, 2004; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016), benefits to livelihoods can be comprehensively ascertained.

Wildlife tourism generates economic benefits to communities through subleasing of concession areas, a partnership with private operators or operating business enterprises either communally through trusts or individually through private enterprises. In their assessment of community trusts in Botswana, Pienaar, Jarvis and Larson (2013) noted that the trust's revenue from wildlife tourism in four of the five case study trusts was more than BWP1 million (US\$ 100,000) annually. Suich (2015:443) reported that community members in case study areas in Mozambique and Namibia both highlighted "*employment, development opportunities and revenue (money)*" as benefits derived from CBNRM activities. Stone and Nyaupane (2016) also noted community financial capital contributed by wildlife tourism in the form of self-employment through small business enterprises. Wildlife tourism also

benefits communities through employment opportunities (human capital) (Mbaiwa, 2003; Sinha, Qureshi, Uniyal & Sen, 2012; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Suich, 2015; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016;).

Furthermore, the involvement of communities in wildlife tourism has been noted to foster social cohesion and trust in community members (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016) which is known as social capital. Political capital is derived through exercising of devolution of power in management of resources (Burns, 2004; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Suich, 2015; Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016) as well as cultural capital derived from “*improved quality of life and protection from human-wildlife conflict*” (Suich, 2015:443) and formation of dance groups and handicraft shops (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016).

2.4.1.3 Economic Impacts

As noted previously in this chapter (refer to section 2.1 and 2.2.2), the economic significance of wildlife tourism is high even though studies are inconclusive on the exact value. However, what is prominent is that the segment is a motivator to travel to many destinations across the globe (Tisdell & Wilson, 2004). This chapter has so far highlighted the economic value of distinct types of wildlife tourism which further indicates the overall economic impact of wildlife tourism. Nonetheless, wildlife contribution to the economy varies as a proportion of the economy or tourism in different countries. As outlined in contribution to community livelihoods in section 2.4.1.2, wildlife tourism positively impacts destinations’ economies through employment and income generation because of both direct and indirect impacts. UNWTO (2014) estimates that the sector represents 80% of all tourism sales to the African continent with 72% of all surveyed governmental bodies noting it as a very important contribution to their economies. As a labour-intensive sector, wildlife tourism employs a sizable amount of people in different countries. Though the sector is criticised for high leakage due to importation of supplies as well as repatriation of income by foreign owners (Mbaiwa, 2003), its contribution to GDP is significant in developing nations. As noted earlier it contributes about 5% to GDP in Botswana (Mbaiwa, 2003), 7.29% to Kenya and 5.06% to Namibian GDP (Emerton, 1997).

2.4.1.4 Tourist’s Satisfaction

Tourist’s satisfaction is observed to be central to the goals of conservation and economic sustainability (profitability). Without satisfied tourists, income will diminish putting at risk sustenance of enterprises and funding for conservation. Therefore, understanding the target market, what interests and satisfies them is critical in the management of wildlife tourism (Packer & Ballantyne, 2012:1244). The literature on tourists’ motivation and satisfaction in the industry, in general, are plentiful.

However, there is a clear indication that visitors are satisfied differently and to a varying degree in several types of wildlife tourism. The only common factor being close interactions with wildlife which Hughes (2013) contends gave birth to a variety of activities on offer to enhance experiences. Packer and Ballantyne (2012:1243) distinguish tourists' satisfaction in captive and non-captive settings. The authors argue that while captive wildlife tourists are attracted by the rare animals offered in zoos and aquariums, non-captive clients pursue the experience of learning about the natural world. Visitors to zoos also view them as places for family relaxations and social outing (Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007; Packer & Ballantyne, 2012; Catibog-Sinha, 2008). Knight (2009) reiterated that captive and non-captive wildlife visitors have different experiential levels that sets them apart, with non-captive tourists emphasising the importance of learning while captive clients have a great reference for social, restorative and entertainment aspect. On the other hand, marine wildlife tourists' satisfaction is more enhanced by interactions with observed species in the form of snorkelling, swimming, diving and cage diving (Maljkovic & Cote, 2011; Brookhouse *et al.*, 2013; Semeniuk *et al.*, 2007; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015). Often to enhance such interactions, a controversial practice of provisioning is used by operators to lure species for the benefit of tourists (Burgin & Hardiman, 2015:212).

2.4.2 Negative Impacts

Wildlife tourism impacts manifest even in negative forms and affect visitors, wildlife and the environment at varying degrees (Packer & Ballantyne, 2012:1244). This section highlights some of the subsequent negative impacts from the convergence of visitors, wildlife and the environment.

2.4.2.1 Behavioural Change in Wildlife

The interaction of humans and wildlife is premised on the latter being an object of attraction to the former. This interaction is observed to bring change in the behaviour of species intentionally or otherwise. Tourists and wildlife operators often resort to tactics such as provisioning and habituation intentionally or unintentionally which leads to alteration of animal behaviour for the benefit of operators and their clients.

2.4.2.1.1 Intentional behavioural change

This section considers how the introduction of intentional behavioural change tactics in animals impacts wildlife.

2.4.2.1.1.1 Provisioning

Mostly practised in Marine wildlife tourism, the act is also found in other forms of wildlife tourism as well. It is often viewed with disdain and outlawed in some destinations, but yet, it remains a preferred practice to lure animals for close encounters (Orams, 2002; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015; Knight, 2009;

Brookhouse *et al.*, 2013; Maljkovic & Cote, 2011; Semeniuk, Haider, Cooper & Rothley, 2007). Provisioning is the act of intentionally providing food for animals at specified locations for them to congregate for better viewing (Brookhouse *et al.*, 2013:165). This allows the location of encounters to be predictable by tourists and operators. However, such predictability is a sign of behavioural change and often manifests into other abnormal animal behaviours. The literature points to change in foraging range of animals (Burgin & Hardiman, 2015; Brookhouse *et al.*, 2013) and diet preferences (Semeniuk *et al.*, 2007:667). Provisioning also leads to dependency on the provider which then escalates to aggressiveness when food is not forthcoming (Knight, 2009:178). However, Maljkovic and Cote (2011:864) argue in their study of Caribbean Sharks that provisioning did not have a detrimental effect on the Sharks behaviour. Likewise, Burgin and Hardiman (2013:213) note that it is often difficult to differentiate the impacts of provisioning from other activities that offer close physical presence like snorkelling, diving and swimming with animals. Nonetheless, Orams (2002:285) noted provisioning's negative impacts in studies done in primates in Tanzania, bears at Denali National Park in the USA, wallabies, brushtail possums and Tasmanian devils in Australia all showing uncharacteristically high aggression when deprived from food at provisioning sites.

2.4.2.1.1.2 Habituation

Another intentional animal behaviour altering practice is called habituation which is intended to get animals to habituate to human presence. Knight (2009:174) terms it "*the neutralisation of wild animal's flight reaction to humans*". Habituation can often occur as a by-product of provisioning where habits are formed in animals in anticipation of feeding (Burgin & Hardiman, 2013) however; some do not involve the provision of food. Furthermore, habituation is often used on hostile species naturally unreceptive to human presence. Knight (2009:175) notes the habituation of mountain gorillas in Rwanda and Uganda which gave birth to gorilla tourism through constant human presence until acceptance as part of the surroundings is achieved. The practice is also the hallmark of the captive wildlife tourism sector where it culminates in behavioural disturbances like aggression and food begging (Catibog-Sinha, 2008; Ballantyne *et al.*, 2007). Ballantyne *et al.* (2007:368) contend that most modern zoos have advanced in improving and addressing animal welfare issues to limit behavioural disturbances. However, Knight (2009:173) argues that even in "enriched" zoos, there is still a difference in behaviour patterns of animals in captivity and those in natural surroundings. Knight (2009:174) continues to state that "*the best the zoo can do is to offer a close-up view of behaviourally diminished animals*". Therefore, even though the practice of habituation is practised in diverse wildlife tourism types, captive enclosures by their design and operations are more inclined to have a more detrimental effect on animal behaviour in all of the wildlife tourism industry.

2.4.2.1.2 Unintentional Behavioural Change

While it is clear and demonstrated in 2.4.2.1.1 of how intentional animal altering practices negatively affect their behaviour, man's best efforts to avoid such detrimental impacts on species have not fared any better. For example, Orams (2002:282) opines that there is growing literature that challenges the notion that ecotourism poses fewer negative impacts despite its sensitive environmental focus. A study in the Mara ecosystem in Kenya reported changes in ungulate density and distribution which altered behaviour due to tourism growth (Amoke, 2012). Furthermore, ecotourism is not immune to the pursuit of close wildlife encounters to ensure tourists' satisfaction. Wildlife is at times subjected to overcrowding by tourists' vehicles (Knight, 2009:171), encroaching too close into animal space (Shutt, 2014) and driving off designated roads for better views (Mbaiwa, 2003). All these actions by the tourism industry have unintended impacts due to distraction to foraging, resting and breeding of animals culminating in a change in behaviour as a result. However, the rationale of this section is not to critic ecotourism but rather to highlight the unintended behavioural impacts of wildlife tourism on animal species.

Thurstan *et al.* (2012:1098) study of tourism in marine wildlife reserves supports the idea that any human-wildlife interaction (including observation and research) have the potential to cause detrimental impacts on wildlife and its environment. Consumptive forms of wildlife tourism are also culprits in effecting change in behavioural patterns in animals. Knight (2009:170) argues that animals' anti-predatory reactions to humans are directly linked to the hunting tourism industry. The author further draws similarity in hunting and wildlife viewing in that both need to find their animals who are predisposed to avoid them. This pursuit as mentioned earlier in the paragraph is the one that leads to multiple behavioural changes in animals.

2.4.2.2 Physiological and physical impacts

Wildlife tourism is observed to cause both physical and physiological impacts on viewed species. Wills (2017) clarifies the meaning of the two concepts as physical dealing with the body and physiological being concerned with the functions of the body. Green and Giese (2004) note that short-term physiological impacts on animals have the potential substantial long-term problems. The authors state that even if the initial animal reaction to human presence might be physically subtle, internally such responses such as "*increased heart rate, body temperatures and other endocrine responses*" are a sign of stress which might culminate in substantial problems like weight loss and reduced breeding success (Green & Giese, 2004:85). Knight (2009:170) further elaborates that the mere presence of humans illicit "*a heightened state of vigilance and nervousness in animals*" often leading to avoidance and flight which have physiological impacts on them.

The physiological impacts, however, go beyond the just physical presence of humans. Noise pollution resulting from boats, aircraft and vehicles are noted to disturb hippos, nesting birds and other mammals causing stress on the species (Mbaiwa, 2003; Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997). Even in marine settings, animals' ability to effectively communicate is impaired by noise pollution (Burgin & Hardiman, 2015; Thurstan *et al.*, 2012). Mbaiwa (2003) notes the high presence of aircraft in the Okavango Delta often flying at low altitudes cause a disturbance on wildlife.

Furthermore, the wildlife tourism industry impacts animals physically in numerous ways. Unintended fatalities have been noted as a result of human-wildlife interactions. The collusion of animals with vessels travelling at high speeds occur leading to fatal or scarring injuries on animals in marine settings (Semeniuk *et al.*, 2010; Thurstan *et al.*, 2012; Burgin & Hardiman, 2015). Likewise, terrestrial animals are also at risk of similar impacts as there were noted in a German park due to increase in tourists' traffic (Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997; Mathieson & Wall, 2006;) Kruger National Park in South Africa due to night driving (Roe *et al.*, 1997) Okavango Delta, Botswana due to illegal off-road driving (Mbaiwa, 2003). A giraffe and a Swiss tourist were killed in the Kruger National Park after a collision between the animal and a motor vehicle (Wolfe & Reis, 2019). Green and Giese (2004) state that out of a need to ensure that tourists are comfortable, some species such as snakes and spiders are killed deliberately as they are deemed dangerous.

Consumptive forms of tourism by nature means permanent removal of species from the habitat. However, not all hunting goes as planned leading to fatal injuries to the wrong species, leaving animals wounded and killing undersized animals (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004). Nonetheless, captive wildlife tourism is not spared as culprits in causing physical harm to animals. Fatalities also occur in zoos as a result of the sensitivity of some species to confinement when captured or during re-introduction programmes when animals fail to gain self-sufficiency in the wild (Catibog-Sinha, 2008). One of the culprits in animal mortality in the wildlife domain is diseases due to human-wildlife interaction. Transmission of viruses and bacteria from humans to animals is noted in the literature especially in primates as they are vulnerable to human diseases (Mathieson & Wall, 2006; Green & Giese, 2004; Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997). Some of the diseases are a result of indirect human actions in the wild such as littering, waste disposal and water contamination which have a resultant negative impact on wildlife (Mbaiwa, 2003).

2.4.2.3 Habitat alteration

Habitat alteration does not only affect animal species but also the environment which in turn dampens the aesthetic of an area. Green and Giese (2004) argue that impacts on habitats are the gravest of all impacts as they often pose threats to wildlife, scenic beauty and tourist satisfaction. Though it is to

be admitted that not all alteration to habitats is a result of tourism, the industry has become one of the major culprits. Wildlife tourism development alters habitats through the construction of roads and accommodation (Green & Giese, 2004), littering (Mathieson & Wall, 2006; Mbaiwa, 2003) and damage to vegetation (Thurstan *et al.*, 2012; Mbaiwa, 2003; Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997). Where there is less control, construction of facilities tends to degrade the environment by removing vegetation without much regard to wildlife needs like small mammals that require cover for breeding and nesting (Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997). The authors gave an example of Thorny Bush Game Reserve in South Africa where shrub clearance was intentionally done to “*improve wildlife viewing opportunities for tourists*” (p. 52). Littering and waste disposal may affect the populations of species through the introduction of diseases. Often animals congregate in littered areas to scavenge for food leading to behavioural changes and negatively impacting predator-prey relationships (Mathieson & Wall, 2006). Tourists vehicles also trample on vegetation, nesting birds and ground breeding animals as well as causing soil erosion and compaction mostly as a result of off-road driving (Mbaiwa, 2003; Green & Giese, 2004; Roe, Leader-Williams & Dalal-Clayton, 1997).

The scenic beauty gets affected as well especially as vehicles accidentally transport alien vegetation to the wildlife areas which might not be palatable to the resident animal population (Roe *et al.*, 1997). Furthermore, through direct actions of the tourists like illegal harvesting, walking and underwater activities also alter wildlife habitats. Thurstan *et al.* (2012:1100) noted trampling and kicking of coral reefs during scuba-diving and snorkelling activities in a marine wildlife reserve. In some cases, due to the need to take souvenirs home, tourists illegally harvest wild plants, corals, shells and at the extreme end, even capture wild animals (Roe *et al.*, 1997). The authors note that at times the illegal harvesting is done by local community members in a bit to supply the tourists.

2.5 HUNTING TOURISM

Hunting is the killing of wild animals for food or sport (IFAW – International Fund for Animal Welfare, 2016). However, Bauer and Herr (2004) admit that not all hunting falls under tourism. It is travelling to partake in hunting that defines it as tourism. Even then some aspects of tourism have to be incorporated to qualify as hunting tourism. Bauer and Herr (2004:57) list the following characteristics that are present in hunting tourism;

- Travel to and from a particular destination
- The presence of a tourism service industry (outfitters, tour guides, hunting farms)
- The exchange of money for services
- Overnight, to several months, stay at destinations
- A service industry and
- Aspects of leisure and recreation

The literature uses both trophy hunting and hunting tourism interchangeably (Bauer & Herr, 2004; Lindsey, Alexander, Frank, Mathieson, Romanach, 2006) to demonstrate the attraction of trophies as motivation for hunting tourists. Petroman, Petroman and Marin (2015:200) state that from an economic and social view hunting tourism can be considered from two sub-categories; resident hunters and tourist hunters (foreign). The authors argue that while tourist hunters are motivated by adventure and trophies, the resident hunter's emphasis is on "physical recreation, consumption, traditions and hunting management" (Petroman et al., 2015: 200). IFAW (2016) holds a similar view on tourist resident hunters because traditionally in most societies the elite (Kings and Nobles) pursued hunting for recreation with trophies especially from lions and other big animals collected as a sign of power and wealth. The peasant population, however, hunts smaller animals for food to supplement their diets.

The hunting industry has since been driven by the pursuit of trophies and is the cornerstone of the multi-billion-dollar global hunting tourism industry (Damm, 2008). To give credence to acquired trophies, record and scoring systems were developed by the industry. The Boone and Crockett hunting club was established in 1887 in America followed by Rowland Ward in London in 1892 (Damm, 2008; IFAW, 2016). Both the authors concur that it was not until 1930 that record and scoring systems were established with Boone & Crockett's trophy scoring system and Rowland Ward's Horn Measurements and Weights of the Great Game of the World. The same year an international body, International Council for Game and Wildlife Conservation (CIC) was established which also created the CIC Trophy formula (Damm, 2008). In 1970, the Safari Club International emerged and established its own record book (IFAW, 2016). Landers (2013) states that the rationale behind the records and scoring system was to archive conservation history (regulating hunting), to improve future management (showing trends in practices and charting future actions), to discredit critics (through enforcement of best practices) and bragging rights within the hunting community. It is important to note that all the record and scoring systems require or are in the process of requiring hunters to sign an affidavit confirming that 'fair chase' practices were adhered to (Damm, 2008; IFAW, 2016).

However, though care is taken to sustain the industry and position it as an avenue to aid conservation, problems persist. Muposhi, Gandiwa, Bartels, Makuza and Madiri (2016:12) in their study in Northwest Zimbabwe noted that trophy size and harvesting patterns of hunting big game were in contravention of Safari Club International's (SCI) guidelines which posed a sustainability problem. Damm (2008) argues that the growth of "sports hunting" was misconstrued to be trophy hunting, there was a competitive focus to attain 'record trophies' leading to the elimination of animals of pre-reproductive age and essential for breeding is to blame for sullyng the industry. The author states that coupled with unscrupulous managers and landowners this "encouraged genetic manipulation of game

animals, canned shooting, and high-fenced killing grounds supplied by breeder facilities” (Damm, 2008:7).

To the authors knowledge, global figures are not available that highlight the contribution of hunting tourism. Nevertheless, hunting tourism has a significant economic contribution as part of the tourism industry. There is literature (Lindsey et al., 2007; Booth, 2010) that helps to highlight the economic importance of hunting though evidence points to the fact that in many destinations its contribution is dwarfed by other forms of tourism like photographic tourism. Its significance in sub-Saharan Africa was estimated at US\$ 201 million in 2006 (Lindsey et al., 2007; Booth, 2010). Tanzania alone benefits US\$ 76 million from the industry (Booth, 2010). Booth (2010) highlights the major contribution played by Tanzania and South Africa as main players in hunting tourism. South African trophy hunting tourism industry is estimated at over R2 billion (Saayman, Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2018:5) and when biltong (meat) hunting is included, the total from hunting expenditure in South Africa is R13.6 billion annually (Van der Merwe, 2018).

South African hunting is known to be buoyed by the major contribution of private game farms (Van der Merwe, Saayman & Rossouw, 2014). In Australia, the province of Victoria alone benefits from US\$ 417 million tourist expenditure on hunting tourism (DEPI, 2014) while Booth (2010) notes that hunting contributes US\$ 22 billion in Europe and US\$ 76 billion in the USA supporting over 1.6 million jobs. It is worth noting that hunting tourism has different classifications which will be further discussed later in the chapter. Therefore, the estimates highlighted here were of the expenditure and contribution of the industry in general and not of specific sub-categories. In the case of USA, the estimated figure given includes fishing tourism as well.

In Botswana, the value of hunting tourism is not up to date, seeing that statistics of tourists and animals hunted are non-existent. Hemson, Maclennan, Mills, Johnson and Macdonald (2009) indicated that in 2008, hunting generated BWP7 million (US\$700,000), while CAR (2016:25) indicated that 15 of surveyed hunting CBOs reported revenue of BWP11.3 million (US\$ 1.13 million) in 2012. Mbaiwa (2018:47) notes a revenue total of BWP35 million by all CBNRM projects in 2011/12 of which the author estimates hunting's proportion of the revenue to be two-thirds. Mbaiwa's (2018) estimated contribution of hunting is consistent with the amount reported by CAR (2016) for the 2012 reporting period. CAR (2016:25) also note that the same hunting CBOs reported a reduction in revenue in 2015 to BWP5.6 million (US\$ 560,000) which is about half of what they earned in 2012 due to the introduction of the hunting ban. However, apart for these two studies, there is no recent detail of the value of hunting tourism in Botswana.

The following section starts off by looking at the different types of hunting tourism and its impacts to draw an understanding of this segment of tourism. Furthermore, the section analyses hunting tourism in Botswana and its management.

2.5.1 Classification of hunting

The literature is inconclusive in the classification of hunting tourism and therefore there are few studies that have attempted to consider different types of hunting. Mostly the studies perceive the classification from the perspective of tourists by identifying their market segments (Floyd & Gramann, 1997; Schroeder et al., 2006), hunter profiles (Bauer & Giles, 2002; Van der Merwe et al., 2010), hunter's origin (Petroman et al., 2015) and behavioural characteristics (Komppula & Suni, 2013) with only Bauer and Herr (2004) classifying hunting from a mixed perspective of species size and hunter's skills. The discussions that follow here focuses on highlighting the different classifications one can apply in distinguishing between different types of hunting tourists.

2.5.1.1 Hunter's origin

Petroman *et al.* (2015:200) hunter's origin classification is simplistic as it only considers hunters as either resident or non-resident. In the case of South Africa resident hunters are referred to as biltong hunters and non-resident hunters are referred to as trophy hunters (Van der Merwe 2004). This type of classification has been used by many countries to draw a distinction to foreign tourists and resident hunters for purposes of licence issuance (Government of Botswana, 2001; Yasuda, 2012; CWMAC, 2016; Government of Yukon, 2017). Resident hunters are purported to have a strong socio-cultural affection to hunting areas, more inclined to apply all their local and traditional knowledge in aiding conservation and management of species (CWMAC, 2016). Non-residents, on the other hand, are characterised by travelling long distances to hunting destinations, exhibit high degree of familiarisation with place and species and have "*emphasis on adventure and souvenirs*" (Petroman *et al.*, 2015:200).

2.5.1.2 Species and hunter's skills

Bauer and Herr (2004) argue that this classification is widely applied in the literature (Lovelock, 2007; Van der Merwe, 2013; Gregory, 2014; Petroman *et al.*, 2015). Bauer and Herr (2004) identified three overlapping categories. as the overlapping nature of the categories is a reflection of the distinct character of the tourism experience where many tourists mix experiences for their satisfaction. The original model looked at consumptive wildlife tourism thereby considering both hunting and fishing. The first category within the model identified the first segment of hunters as 'big-game hunters'. However, Bauer and Herr (2004) did not clarify what criteria is used to classify animals as big game. The authors rather highlight sub-divisions of these hunters and that they target "*the experience, adventure, potential danger and acquisition of a trophy*" to be of paramount importance (Bauer & Herr,

2004:60). 'Small game hunters' is the second category and it classifies tourists that specialises in small animals and game birds. Small game hunters are also driven by the hunting experience and the desire to display the skills set they possess. As discussed previously, there is no clarification as to what criteria is used to classify animals into this category. The third category is 'Skill-Hunting', aptly named due to the focus on the skill level displayed by the hunters in using the hunting tools (bows, traps, black powder, falconry etc.).

2.5.1.3 Behavioural characteristics

The classification proposed by Komppula and Suni (2013:68) identified three varied types of hunters from their study in Finland according to behavioural characters of the tourists. The categories are responsible, adaptable and achievement-oriented hunting tourists. The responsible hunting tourists prefer to have their expeditions with few carefully chosen friends, do not shoot animals for fun, avoid packaged tours in preference of individually preferred trips and prefer hunting wild game (animals in a large area where no breeding is done) instead of farmed game (animals bred and kept within a fenced area). The adaptable hunting tourists prioritize social communication in their expeditions, are open to new forms of hunting as they seek variety in experiences, have no problems with farmed game hunting but prefer those in wild habitats and enjoy well-packaged hunting tours. The final category, achievement-oriented hunters are attracted to hunting big-game though even pigeon hunting for fun would suffice, willing to try a variety of skill hunting and esteem high-value extraordinary services which they are willing to pay for if the services are excellent.

2.5.1.4 Hunter profile

This type of classification of hunters has been used by various authors (Bauer & Giles, 2002; Van der Merwe, Saayman, Warren & Krugell, 2010; Saayman, Van der Merwe & Rossouw, 2011). Both Van der Merwe *et al.* (2010) and Saayman *et al.* (2011) considered hunting from a context of game farms and identified the two principal purposes of hunting as trophy and 'biltong' (game products). From these, variations of hunting typologies emerged to classify them as *bow hunting, bird hunting, 'green' hunting or 'darting safaris'*. 'Green' or 'darting' safaris is the concept where trophy hunters are responsible for using darts to immobilize an animal allowing research to be conducted at the same time. Bauer and Giles (2002) highlighted six categories of hunting in which some are familiar with ones from the discussions above. The categories are; *indigenous/sustenance hunting, traditional/sustenance hunting, commercial hunting, recreational and sport hunting, hunting to control animals and integrated hunting* (Bauer & Giles, 2002:61). While the rest of the categories seem straight forward, it is the distinction between the first two categories that needs more clarification in that one is socio-economic and the other socio-cultural in focus.

The authors opine that in indigenous/sustenance, indigenous cultures share their hunting tradition and experiences with fee-paying western hunters which not only is profitable for the host but also benefits both socially. On the other hand, traditional/sustenance is when hunting is part of the colourful customs and a tool “*to teach new generation principle ethics, land stewardship, the connection to the country, discipline responsibility, community, sharing and conservation*” (Bauer & Giles, 2002:20). Therefore, hunting in this instance helps to sustain tradition, values and norms. Fischer (2012:6) give examples of traditional or sustenance hunting in Western Serengeti, Tanzania where certain species like zebra are not killed due to their reverence in the community which aids conservation. In Omo valley, Ethiopia, hunting of certain species such as buffalo and lions is associated with manhood and bravery, consequently women welcome successful hunters with symbolic gifts, songs and prefer them as partner (Fischer, 2012:2).

As highlighted in the discussions, hunters’ classifications are plentiful and most of the category’s present similar traits. For example, Bauer and Herr’s (2004) big-game category and Komppula and Suni’s (2013) categories have similar characteristics (such as independent trips and preference for large wild game) as non-resident hunters discussed by Petroman, Petroman and Marin (2015) or Bauer and Giles’ (2002) recreation and sport hunters. Therefore, not one single classification is paramount, but each is applied within the context of the destination and study.

This study adopts three of the hunter profile classification prescribed by Bauer and Giles (2002) as they are the ones that best describe the wildlife hunting conditions on the African continent. The following profiles are referenced in the literature with regards to hunting in Africa and inform the hunter profile classification in the study; traditional or sustenance hunting (Fischer, 2012), commercial or trophy hunting (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Lindsey *et al.*, 2016; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016; Van der Merwe *et al.*, 2010; Saayman *et al.*, 2011) and hunting to control animal population (harvesting) (Nel, 2017; Muir-Leresche & Nelson, 2001).

2.5.2 Impacts of hunting tourism

While one might argue that impacts in wildlife tourism are representative of all forms in this sector, often some impacts are peculiar to particular types of wildlife tourism. For example, non-captive wildlife watching, captive wildlife and marine tourism have different impacts on wildlife (Moorhouse, D’Cruze & Macdonald, 2017; Semeniuk *et al.*, 2010; Tremblay, Pearson & Gorman, 2008; Loveridge, Searle, Murindagomo & Macdonald, 2007; Higginbottom *et al.*, 2003). Likewise, hunting tourism has its unique impacts on species, those are considered in the following section.

2.5.2.1 Positive impacts

While the controversy surrounding hunting tourism has been mentioned in the literature and indeed in the current chapter, it has also been found to positively impact the wildlife species, communities and the economy. Hunting aid conservation and accrue economic impacts to communities and those discussed in the following section.

2.5.2.1.1 Conservation

While for most critics of the practice, hunting cannot be mentioned in the same breath as ecotourism, there is literature that considers it as such (Lindsey *et al.*, 2006; Gressier, 2014). Authors such as Lindsey (2010) considers it as sustainable utilisation, Foote and Wenzel (2008) considers conservation hunting in Canada as a form of ecotourism and Lovelock (2009) summarises that it shares commonalities with ecotourism. The rationale behind this consideration is multiple faceted. Firstly, hunting tourism has minimal impact on the environment when compared to wildlife watching as it has low participation numbers at any given time (Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Dawson & Lovelock, 2008; Lovelock, 2009). The hunting parties are mostly comprised of a guide and a hunter with minimal use of vehicles and the application of 'fair chase' code ensures less trampling of the habitat (Lovelock,2009). Secondly, hunting funds conservation efforts. Gressier (2014:200) argues that the hunter's perspective is that an individual animal taken protects a whole species. This has consequently helped to increase the numbers of species. For example, elephant numbers increased from 4,000 to 8,000 in 10 years in CAMPFIRE (Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources) areas in Zimbabwe (Mbaiwa, 2008) and in South Africa wildlife increased from half a million 50 years ago to recent count of 20.5 million (PHASA, 2016). Hunting tourists pay much larger amounts per trip than ecotourists thereby ensuring that more revenue is attained from fewer tourists (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Novelli, Barnes & Humavindu, 2006). Finally, where hunting is linked to community-based management of resources, as is the case in most countries in Africa, it has led to community members' cooperation in anti-poaching drives (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Mutanga, Vengesayi, Gandiwa & Muboko, 2015). This was a result of communities valuing wildlife as they derive economic benefits from it. While it can be argued that change in community value of wildlife might occur even in cases where ecotourism operations are practised, literature has shown that communities derive more revenue from hunting than wildlife watching (Mbaiwa, 2008; Yasuda, 2012).

2.5.2.1.2 Economic benefits

Aside from the contribution of wildlife tourism and indeed tourism in general to different countries and communities, different studies have demonstrated the positive economic impact of hunting tourism. In the 10 years of existence until 2001, CAMPFIRE programme in Zimbabwe whose principal resource utilisation is hunting tourism, has generated USD\$ 20 million (Child *et al.*, 2003; Mbaiwa, 2008), while

in Botswana hunting generated BWP 11,9 million representing 72% share of the total amount earned by CBNRM projects in the country (Mbaiwa, 2008; 2018). Mbaiwa (2018:47) noted that the contribution of hunting tourism to CBNRM revenue is two-thirds of all tourism revenue compared to only one-third contribution by photographic tourism. Other countries such as South Africa (Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2018), Australia (DEPI, 2014), USA and the continent of Europe (Booth, 2010) have reported significant economic contribution hunting tourism (see section 2.5). Community members have also benefited from hunting through the form of employment and income (Mbaiwa, 2008; Yasuda, 2012; Naidoo *et al.*, 2016; Centre for Applied Research, 2016).

2.5.2.2 Negative impacts

Hunting tourism nonetheless has exhibited negative impacts much of which are a result of a combination of factors. It has been noted that hunting has a negative impact if the management capacity fails, corruption persists and there are mixed objectives, then this will in the end threaten conservation efforts. The study, therefore, considers these impacts.

2.5.2.2.1 Unethical behaviour

Central to the management of hunting is the use of the quota system to ration and control numbers allowable to hunt. However, overshooting of quotas (going over the allowed limit) often occurs (Baker, 1997; Baldus & Cauldwell, 2004; Lindsey *et al.*, 2006; Loveridge *et al.*, 2007). This is an intentional act practised in collusion by both the guide and hunter and often with the involvement of corrupt officials (Lindsey *et al.*, 2015:297). Lindsey *et al.* (2006:284) and Caro, Young, Cauldwell and Brown (2009:910) argue that the problem is a result of the difficulty in enforcement of hunting regulations. Aspects such as the adherence to quotas and 'age-sex classes' dynamics are often left at the mercy of the hunting party to the detriment of conservation of species and habitat in Tanzania (Caro *et al.*, 2009).

2.5.2.2.2 Emphasis on trophies

While the issue of trophy collection is at the apex of hunting tourism, too much emphasis on them limits the conservation role of the industry (Lindsey *et al.*, 2006:289; 2015:297). The authors contend that practices such as 'canned hunting' (hunting animals in enclosed areas) and 'put and take' (release of animals from enclosures to be shot) are a result of the pursuit of trophies. While such practices happen mostly in private game farms which are renowned for their high conservation efforts, they pose ethical and moral issues central to the criticism of the industry. In other instances, the inclination to pursue the best trophies leads to the removal of dominant males in carnivore species like lions and leopards resulting in infanticide when new males take over in Zimbabwe (Loveridge *et*

al., 2007; Caro *et al.*, 2009). Lindsey *et al.* (2006:288) note that prohibited species like cheetahs are persecuted in game farms for preying on trophy animals in South Africa.

2.5.2.2.3 Impacts on species

Hunting can lead to composition change of species if not managed well (Van der Merwe, 2014). Social structure disturbances and lower birth rates are the subsequent problems brought about by the removal of the most productive of the species (Damm, 2008:8). Caro *et al.* (2009:910) further state that scientists and laypeople alike underestimated the importance of both male and female parental care in animal offspring survival when the game policy was grafted in Tanzania. The policy emphasised the removal of male species as their role in parenting were undermined which adversely affected their populations. Other impacts on species are a result of the earlier noted unethical behaviour. Therefore, to curb such behaviour, most destinations and hunting associations promote 'fair chase' which prohibits shooting from vehicles, planes and boats, herding animals to hunters and use of technology (Lovelock, 2009; IFAW, 2016). While the concept was first promoted by hunting clubs to dissuade members from gaining advantage during expeditions, certain countries have incorporated such in their regulatory frameworks. For example, Botswana's Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act outlawed shooting from any form of transport. This caused disturbances in animals which often led to injury and other psychological impacts (Green & Giese, 2004).

2.5.3 Hunting tourism in Botswana

The section appraises the development of hunting tourism in Botswana by looking at the origin of protected areas, legislative frameworks, key players as well as the management approach.

2.5.3.1 Background

Just as with most societies, hunting in Botswana was initially practised as a provision of food and basic by-products (hides, hoofs, quills, etc). Human-wildlife existence and conservation was not foreign to communities as this had been practiced for years. However, while such a situation prevailed in most African societies, conservationists later imposed their western philosophies of conservation in the developing countries disregarding the traditional value indigenous communities placed on wildlife (Baker, 1997). Through this dispensation, many communities found themselves with prohibited access to traditional use of the very natural resources they enjoyed for centuries. Botswana was not excluded from this paradigm shift. Marks (1993) opines that with the advent of independence in 1966, new legislation on fauna conservation repealed the dual application of game utilisation control that existed during the protectorate status where statutory law applied to 'foreigners' while 'natives' were left to the control of chiefs. The author further states that the ensuing trend in-game laws insured greater control by the state on hunting rights, trade-in animal products and more landholder restrictions.

2.5.3.1.1 Protected Areas

The notion of protecting wildlife in national parks and game reserves started prior to independence. Two publications; Child (1970) and Campbell (1973) provide a background on the protected areas in the country. Campbell (1973) states that before the advent of the agriculturist man, wildlife species presently confined to the northern part of Botswana were prevalent across the country. The original settlers, Basarwa (known as Bushmen) were hunters and gatherers who through their nomadic life co-existed and preserved biodiversity well. The author opines that pressures by human settlements downgraded the vegetation forcing animals west and northwards. Furthermore, the visiting European sport hunters exacerbated the adverse effects on wildlife leading to reduction of animal populations of some species as well as wiping the rhinoceros from the country by the latter half of the 19th century. Child (1970:22) supports this observation by noting that by late 1960s white rhinos were re-introduced into the country from Zululand, South Africa. The author continued that “*economic exploitation of wildlife in Botswana began in earnest during the early 1960s*” driven by three forms of utilisation; recreation and tourism; recreational hunting; and subsistence and commercial hunting (Child, 1970:22).

Some protected areas, however, were already in existence prior to the era of commercialisation of wildlife. However, Campbell (1973) asserts that their existence was not a result of planning but rather accidental and historical occurrences that happened at the time. The author cited the creation of the first protected area in 1930, Gemsbok Game Reserve, which was a result of a request from the South African government for Botswana to protect animals that stray into the country from the adjacent Kalahari Gemsbok National Park in South Africa. The ‘park without people’ model conceptualised in the USA in late 18th century (Cochrane, 2009) was adopted in Botswana as well and led to the resettlement of local communities to establish Gemsbok Game Reserve. This was followed by the establishment of Moremi Game Reserve in the 1950s by Batawana tribe, which was noted as the first protected area to be established on tribal land in Africa (Botswana tourism, 2016). This also led to the displacement of Basarwa communities from the area. Chobe Game Reserve was later created in 1960 and was declared a National Park in 1967 followed by Central Kalahari Game Reserve (CKGR) in 1961, whose sole purpose was protecting Basarwa heritage from threats such as cattle ranching and sport hunting (Campbell, 1973). After independence, the following protected areas were created resulting in a cumulative 17% proportion of Botswana’s land surface area.

- Makgadikgadi Game Reserve (1970) later declared a National Park in 1992
- Nxai Pan National Park in 1992
- Mabuasehube Game Reserve in 1971
- Khutse Game Reserve in 1971

However, Othusitse (n.d.) notes that 17% refers to only national parks and game reserves which do not allow community resource utilisation. Nonetheless, when Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs, which are further discussed in section 2.6.2.3.3) and forest reserves are factored in, the proportion of land reserved for natural resource protection in Botswana is estimated at 40% (Othusitse, n.d.). The author further argues that 40% does not include private game reserves, educational parks and sanctuaries which further increase the proportion of protected areas in Botswana. According to African Mecca (2017) the largest private game reserve in Botswana is the Northern Tuli Game Reserve which is a strip of land bordering South Africa and Zimbabwe measuring 78,000 hectares and comprise of three private concessions of Mashatu, Nitani and Tuli game reserves. Furthermore, game farms can be found in Eastern Botswana and in the Ghanzi district. Botswana Tourism (2019) notes that on the cattle farms in the Ghanzi area game ranches have now developed beside cattle farming. However, no data was found on the numbers of game farms/ranches in the country.

2.5.3.2 Hunting tourism management

While there are theoretical frameworks (discussed in 2.6), to manage tourism and to a lesser degree wildlife tourism, the consumptive form of wildlife utilisation is neglected. Du Plessis *et al.* (2014) as well as Bothma and Du Toit (2016) both address game farm planning and management by among others considering the issue of carrying capacity. Other than that, hunting is rather viewed as a form of management to control numbers and limit habitat destruction (Bauer & Giles, 2002).

In Botswana consideration of management approach takes cognizance of land utilisation policies. The Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP) of 1975 had created three categories of land use; communal, commercial and reserved land. This policy document left out wildlife resource utilisation in its land-use approach. According to the Land Policy (GOB, 2011), the Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) established in the 1980s came as a response to address this anomaly by demarcating corridors in between commercial and communal land areas. Later the said policy recognised and made provision for accessibility for WMAs whose rights were devolved to communities under CBNRM. Therefore, freehold land rights did not exist in WMAs with only customary rights and state land rights recognised (Cassidy, 2000). In addition, the land is further divided into Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs) or concessions whose primary role is to help in the management of wildlife utilisation. The CHAs' management varies depending on the land tenure (ownership) and where the area is situated (Cassidy, 2000; Eyes of Africa, 2016). Others fall within state land (protected areas for example) and others in tribal land (in WMAs). While the name CHA implies hunting as utilisation, the reality is not all concessions allow hunting tourism. Those that fall within protected areas are an exception as all hunting occurs outside protected areas (Mbaiwa, 2004a). The other non-hunting concessions are those classified as photographic while others allow multiple utilisation. The use of CHAs predates

WMA establishment. There were 36 in 1970 (Child, 1970) with the number rising to the current number of 163 after further sub-division of land (Cassidy, 2000; Eyes of Africa, 2016).

Utilisation in concessions can be classified in two forms; commercial (hunting and photographic) and subsistence hunting. As the custodian of wildlife in Botswana, DWNP are responsible for issuing hunting quotas in CHAs both within and outside WMAs (Cassidy, 2000). The author contends that as subsistence falls under customary law, therefore this type of utilisation does not require a lease to undertake while commercial does. Therefore, communities that choose to undertake commercial wildlife utilisation are required to apply for a lease. Communities then have the right to sub-lease its quota to a third party under this arrangement as they have access control, rights to determine where and when hunting occurs and how it is to be done (Cassidy, 2000; CBNRM, 2007). These regulations are often expressed in the management plans requested as a pre-requisite for lease approval (CAR, 2016). Furthermore, the Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act (Government of Botswana, 1992) seeks application and approval of a hunting license which specifies conditions to be met, the guides and professional hunters to be licensed as a form of managing the hunting process. Further assessment of the regulatory and policy documents will be done in the following section.

Botswana's wildlife, especially hunting tourism, became the bedrock of the tourism industry and communities through designation of protected areas and wildlife management areas. For example, Lindsey (2010:23) argued that *"74% of wildlife estate and 81% of community land used for wildlife production is depended on returns from consumptive wildlife utilisation"*. Nevertheless, it was not all positive impacts that were observed with hunting tourism. Mbaiwa (2004c) noted lack of skills (marketing and managerial), lack of re-investment, mismanagement and misappropriation of funds as some of the problems experienced by hunting tourism, which though operational, had an implication on conservation and sustainability of projects. However, with the current hunting ban, Mbaiwa (2018:56) note that conservation goals have been compromised as negative sentiments towards animals are growing in communities due to a reduction in economic benefits. Through this background, it is important to consider the legislative and policy frameworks governing tourism in Botswana of which hunting tourism is a part of.

2.5.3.3 Policy and regulatory frameworks for Botswana

2.5.3.3.1 Tourism Policy

The policy framework of government on tourism was enacted and approved by the national assembly in 1990 (Government of Botswana, 1990). The reasons for the policy were outlined as; to address the anomaly by government of not giving the tourism industry due prominence in the past, the tourism industry's potential as a possible economic activity was rapidly growing and needed to be recognised

as such; and finally, to ensure that Botswana benefit from the industry through the provision of a policy framework (Government of Botswana, 1990:4). The policy background highlights that Botswana's primary tourism resources are wildlife and scenic beauty. The policy further allude to challenges encountered at the time such as; the unregulated private sector, little consumption of domestically produced goods and services and the far from fulfilled potential of the industry. Against this background, it was observed by the policymakers that, the aforementioned issues of the tourism industry at the time had manifested into low tax accruing to government, the high proportion of casual campers with minimal spending in the country and under-reporting of income by operators (Government of Botswana, 1990).

The policy then spelt out objectives to be pursued, chief among them is to increase foreign exchange earnings and government revenues as well as raise income and generate employment in rural areas. In pursuance of the objectives, the policy harmonised with other policies such as Wildlife Conservation Policy of 1986 and the National Policy on Economic Opportunities of 1982. Also, of paramount importance highlighted by the policy was the increase in concession lease rentals, an increase in the length of leases and exclusivity to concession rights granted. The policy also noted conflict in the system of land use and advocated for all land within Wildlife Management Areas (WMA) to use zones for exclusive use "*for subsistence hunting, citizen hunting, trophy hunting, game viewing or game farming*" (Government of Botswana, 1990:9) or in some cases allow multiple use. With specific reference to hunting, the 'user fee' concept which allows for the hunter to bear the cost of enforcing regulations was advised. The structure differentiated fees for citizens, residents and non-citizens.

2.5.3.3.2 Tourism Act

The Tourism Act whose establishment was provisioned by the tourism policy was enacted in 1992 with a later revised version being released in 2009. Its primary aim was "*licensing and regulating the tourism industry with a view to promoting its development and well-being*" (Government of Botswana, 2009: A.162). It advocates for the establishment of a Tourism Industry Licensing Committee, with the power to determine the issuance of licenses to a tourism enterprise (such as travel agency, safari lodge, hotel), revoke or suspend a license and make a determination to transfer or amend a license. The Act also specifies the licensing processes and categories of tourism enterprises as well as make a provision for the Minister to have powers to reserve certain licenses for citizen only. Hunting operations are not specifically provided for in this Act except in the licensing of accommodation facilities within hunting or photographic areas as outlined in the license category B.

2.5.3.3.3 Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act

The legislative framework responsible for the conservation and management of Botswana's wildlife resources is guided by the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) and other international flora and fauna conventions (Government of Botswana, 1986). The Act made provision for the establishment of national parks, game reserves, private game reserves, sanctuaries, wildlife management areas (WMA) and controlled hunting areas (CHA). While WMAs are found in the north of the country, CHAs are prevalent in the Kgalagadi, Ghanzi, Central and Northwest and used for management of hunting in such areas and hunting permit fees are paid to the respective district councils. Jones (2008) notes that the Act repealed the Fauna Conservation Act and the National Parks Act before it and its establishment was provisioned by the Wildlife Conservation Policy of 1986. Through this Act, policymakers directed the forms of hunting licences to be issued, permits, regulations on export and import of animals and general provisions of hunting. However, the Act has an overemphasis on wildlife conservation from consumptive use with little reference to non-consumptive uses. Therefore, following the Act, the government formulated hunting regulations in order to "*give force and effect to the provisions of this Act and for better administration*" (Government of Botswana, 1986:57).

2.5.3.3.4 Wildlife Conservation (hunting & licensing) Regulations

As was provided for in the Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act, section 92, the legislation was formulated in 2001 (Government of Botswana, 2001). The regulations directed and enforced hunting and licensing of wildlife in the country. It specifies an application process for hunting licenses, the controlled hunting area where hunting is permitted and the requirements for professional hunter guide licenses for both citizens and non-citizens. The regulations, however, do not go into details about the import and export of animals and trophies, hunting methods to be used as well as delivery, transfer and ownership of ivory except to refer to the specific sections and schedules in the Act.

2.5.3.3.5 Community Based Natural Resource Management Policy (CBNRM)

Community involvement is seen as a critical aspect of both ecotourism and sustainable tourism discourses and two factors stand out as the highlights of this involvement; participation by members in decision making and; realisation of benefits from tourism (Lepper & Goebel, 2010). CBNRM as a concept provides for both while linking natural resource utilisation and its conservation. As a discourse, much has been written about CBNRM including in the first chapter of this research. Therefore, the discussions in this section, focus more on the policy and its role in the tourism industry especially hunting in Botswana. The CBNRM policy (Government of Botswana, 2007) and Jones (2008) state that through the policy;

- The government will promote the involvement of communities in the management of protected areas
- The socio-economic needs of neighbouring communities will be identified and reconciled with the management objectives of the adjacent protected areas, and
- Where feasible, communities may be allowed to use specified natural resources and perform certain cultural practices in protected areas.

Clearly, as articulated by Jones (2008), the government intended to link protected areas management by devolving custodianship of the resources therein to communities. While wildlife resources have been the focus of CBNRM policy, other revenue streams have been added. Nonetheless, through the policy, concessions or Wildlife Management Areas (WMA) are leased to communities to manage for either consumptive or non-consumptive purposes for a 15-year period. However, certain requirements had to be met before communities could be granted user rights within the concessions as highlighted by Government of Botswana (2007);

- Communities must form a Representative and Accountable Legal Entity (RALE) in the form of a Community Based Organisation (CBO)
- CBOs must prepare and submit a Land Use Management Plan (LUMP)
- Communities may sub-lease or otherwise transfer any commercial natural resource user rights to one or more joint venture partners with the prior written permission of the Land Authority
- All tendering procedures for the awarding of natural resource use concessions will be overseen by the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC) consisting of District Level Officials. The community will be consulted on its preferred joint venture partner but the decision to award the tender to a particular joint venture partner will be made by the TAC.
- Government is responsible for allocating hunting and resource harvesting quotas but where resource use is deemed unsustainable or leads to negative socio-economic impacts, the government will “take appropriate action”.

The policy also conferred a revenue distribution framework where CBOs retain 35% and the remaining 65% accrue to a fund named National Environmental Fund centrally controlled by the ministry. The rationale was to fund environmental management initiatives and redistribution to ecotourism projects throughout the country (Jones, 2008; CAR, 2016).

2.5.3.3.6 Other frameworks

Botswana is also party to several conservation conventions that have a bearing on the management of natural resources in the country. The Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of wild flora and fauna (CITES) is one such convention. Several sections of the Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Act are informed and refer to it. Central to CITES is the mandate by parties to

recognise the irreplaceability of flora and fauna and endeavour to protect it, conscious of the growing value of wildlife and flora, recognizing the role of people, international co-operation and government is essential in conservation of the species and recognising the urgency to take measures to address biodiversity conservation. As a regulator of trade on flora and fauna, CITES and hunting have a interdependent relationship, with the convention emphasising and acknowledging the conservation role of both consumptive and non-consumptive use of wildlife.

Furthermore, Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) was ratified in 1995 by Botswana and it emphasises “*the variability among living organisms from all sources*” and taking cognizance of species and the complex ecosystem in which, they reside (Kalikawe, 2011:10). The CBD has since led to the formulation of Botswana’s National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan of 2016 whose goals are mainly for biodiversity to be valued and brought to the mainstream by all sectors. The biodiversity strategy also intend to reduce biodiversity pressures and use natural resources sustainably and secure protection through sound management as well as equitable access to benefits and participatory planning. These point to common themes across most of the legislative frameworks in that, while conservation of resources is esteemed, equitable sharing of benefits and participatory planning is considered central to achieving such a goal.

2.5.3.4 Key players

The following section considers key players in the development and management of wildlife tourism in Botswana, which covers hunting tourism as well.

2.5.3.4.1 Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP)

Housed in the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resources and Tourism, the department carries the mandate to manage wildlife in all national parks and game reserves in fulfilment of the government policy on wildlife conservation (Government of Botswana, 1990). As espoused in the Tourism policy, Wildlife conservation policy and Wildlife conservation and National Parks Act, DWNP is also responsible for the provision of tourism facilities in the protected areas, recommend and collect entrance fees and other charges as well as the recommendation of hunting fees and annual hunting quotas in all CHAs. The department also works in consultation with other departments especially the department of tourism and it is also to be consulted in all aspects of tourism or otherwise, that are bound to have implications on wildlife conservation and utilisation. The department has seven interrelated divisions to aid in fulfilment of their mandate; The Directorate, Research, Wildlife Estate Management, Community Extension and Outreach, Departmental management, Fisheries and Botswana Wildlife Training Institute. Of particular importance while not exclusively, are the divisions of Wildlife Estate Management and Community Extension and Outreach. According to the Office of

the Auditor General (OAG, 2010), the wildlife estate management division is the one responsible for management of wildlife outside and within the protected areas, anti-poaching and problem animal control as well as enforcement of regulations and the law. The community extension and outreach deal with community-based natural resources by developing and providing oversight on their activities and initiatives. However, in their report in 2010, the office of the Auditor General (OAG) highlighted the inefficiency of the DWNP in undertaking its mandate due lack of resources like inadequate staffing and vehicles which culminated in “*failure to review in time and implement management plans, ineffective management of problem animals and ineffective public education and relations*” (OAG, 2010:9).

2.5.3.4.2 National tourism organisations

The Department of Tourism (DOT), was initially established for the promotion, formulation and administration of policy and development of tourism in the country. However, it has found some of its responsibilities usurped by Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO). The latter, established through an Act of parliament of 2003 and later replaced in 2009, has since establishment incorporated marketing and promotion, government advisory on policies as well as the implementation of the policies as its main mandate, responsibilities which were once driven by DOT in the past. Furthermore, according to BTO annual report (2012:12), it grades and classifies accommodation facilities, conduct market research and intelligence as well as “*develop and improve existing tourism opportunities and diversify the sector into other forms of tourism*”. The latter two objectives indicate an overlap with the responsibilities given DOT as stipulated in the Tourism Policy that states; “*for research and development, including the collection and analysis of statistical data*” (Government of Botswana, 1990:12). Further to what has been stipulated above, DOT is mandated to develop and implement training plans of citizens in various tourism skills needed for high-quality service as well as creating a database of inventory of Botswana’s tourism assets. The third organization is the Hospitality and Tourism Association of Botswana (HATAB) which is a representative and advocacy organization for the entire tourism industry. It is a non-profit organization established and funded privately in 1982 (HATAB, 2017). According to its website it has a membership of 40% of the total registered tourism enterprises in Botswana and it stands “*to promote, encourage and police excellence in hospitality and tourism in Botswana*”. The organization also hosts an annual conference where industry related issues are discussed by all stakeholders.

2.5.3.4.3 Botswana Wildlife Management Association

The organisation is a non-profit and privately funded. There is a grey line as to the main mandate of the organisation. Mbaiwa (2007) termed it an association made up of safari hunting companies in Botswana. However, the HATAB website only state its objectives as; promotion of welfare of the

wildlife industry, facilitation of contact between the industry and those government agencies concerned with wildlife and safeguards the interest of the industry by working with DWNP. While the two authors' views can be reconciled, HATAB fails to make any reference to hunting and coupled with lack of a website by the organisation, makes it a bit difficult to understand whether it is a hunting association or its objectives extend beyond that. Nonetheless, recently the association has teamed with the University of Botswana's Okavango Research Institute (ORI) to compile and store hunting records information (BOPA, 2017). The initiative is meant to transfer material collected by BWMA on hunting quotas, concession location, biological specimens and trophy measurements to ORI for preservation and dissemination through online platform to aid future wildlife research. Therefore, there is cause to believe that while the organisation aims to promote wildlife management, it also acted as a hunting association in addressing the broader scope of wildlife management in general.

2.5.3.4.4 Community-Based Organisations (CBOs)

Community-Based Organisations are drivers of natural resource management. CBOs predate the CBNRM policy which only came into existence in 2007. The first CBO is Chobe Enclave Community Trust (CECT) established in 1992 (Centre for Applied Research, 2016). The organisations are governed through trusts and often consist of multiple villages with a board of trustees overseeing management. While CBOs are spread across the breadth of the country, the majority of them are in Ngamiland, North of Botswana (16 CBOs), Central (15 CBOs) and Kgalagadi District (7 CBOs). A study by USAID Centre for Applied Research (CAR) in 2016 shed light into the present situation of CBNRM initiatives in Botswana. The report notes that there are 147 CBNRM CBOs in the country 94 of which are registered and cover a population of 557,447 in 174 villages which represents 61% of the total rural population. Of the total CBOs only 22 are generating income with combined revenue of BWP26.8 million (US\$2.68 million).

The reported natural capital for the CBOs is veld products, wildlife and landscape. The report further states that 10 of the 22 income-generating organisations are operating joint ventures with private companies and accrue a revenue of BWP 18.6 million (US\$1.86 million) which is 69% of the revenue generated by all CBOs in Botswana in 2015. The report highlights the income-generating activities by CBOs in 2012 and 2015. It is noted that in 2012, hunting was the most dominant activity with 45% of CBOs involved in it. However, following the hunting ban in 2014, CBOs diversified into agriculture and cultural activities. Although ecotourism was the highest activity in 2015, the number of CBOs involved in it did not have much increase compared to 2012. Of interest is the performance of the former hunting CBOs as highlighted by Figure 2.7 below. Twelve (12) former hunting CBOs were surveyed in 2012 and 2015 and four failed to diversify to other income-generating activities after the hunting ban, while eight adapted and branched into veld products, events and cultural activities. Of the eight

that adapted three had by 2015 diversified into ecotourism as a new venture post the hunting ban. However, revenue reported from former hunting CBOs had decreased in 2015 when compared to 2012 levels (CAR, 2016:25).

Furthermore, the report noted that of all CBOs, only five (5) had made any capital investments in infrastructure prompting the authors to conclude that the CBOs need external support to invest in infrastructure. The findings support the arguments made at the third and fourth Ngamiland CBNRM forum (held in Maun since 1999 to bring all stakeholders together to discuss the challenges in CBNRM) which reported that no CBO had managed to break even and external support is needed for sustenance to be maintained (Swatuk, 2005). Nonetheless, Botswana took a decision to lift the ban on hunting in May 2019 (BBC News, 2019; Mmegi News, 2019). The BBC News (2019) report quoted the president of the country, Mokgweetsi Masisi alluding to the high incidences of human-elephant conflict and its impact on livelihoods as the reason for reversing the ban instituted by his predecessor in 2014.

| CBO NAMES | Year | Camp | Culture | Ecotourism | Events | Handicraft | Hunting |
|--|------|------|---------|------------|--------|------------|---------|
| Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Koinaphu CT | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Mababe Zokotsama Community Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| MAHUMO CT | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| MAPANDA CT | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| MEKGATSHI CT | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| MMADINARE CT | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| MOLEMA TRUST | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Okavango Kopano Mokoro Community Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Sankoyo Tshwaragano Management Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |
| Xhauxhwatubi Community Development Trust | 2015 | | | | | | |
| | 2012 | | | | | | |

Figure 2.1: Adaptation in activities by former-hunting CBOs.

(Source: Centre for Applied Research, 2016).

2.6 WILDLIFE TOURISM PLANNING AND MANAGEMENT

Wildlife tourism requires planning and management to control the dynamic interactions between players in this industry for sustainable development. Therefore, this section deliberates on the different planning approaches often employed in wildlife tourism. The section further considers the various management frameworks used in wildlife tourism, namely; Wildlife Tourism Model, Recreation Opportunity Spectrum, Limits of Acceptable Change, Visitor Impact Management Process and Tourism Optimisation Management Model.

2.6.1 Planning Approaches

Due to the inevitability of negative impacts of wildlife tourism, it is imperative for management to plan appropriately for sustainability to be achieved. Management is an organisational process that involves

“strategic planning, setting objectives, managing resources, deploying the human and financial assets needed to achieve objectives, and measuring results” (Hissom, 2009:4). In wildlife, tourism management needs to consider a wide range of scales of those directly involved or affected for it to be effective (Higginbottom, Green & Northrope, 2003:2). The authors contend that management must include wildlife species, the natural area where the species are and the individual tourist operation (industry). Therefore, there are three areas of management namely; general, tourism and conservation. Semeniuk *et al.* (2010:2700) opine that in wildlife tourism for management to be successful, factors that make animals and tourist populations to be vulnerable should be considered and alternative management scenarios explored for effects on the dynamics before any management can be proposed.

The literature highlights that any manager in a wildlife tourism setting operates within a framework that helps assess the impacts and focus management actions followed by management techniques (Bentz, Lopes, Calado & Dearden, 2016; Curtin, 2008; Higginbottom, 2004; Higginbottom *et al.*, 2003; Diedrich, Huguet & Subirana, 2011). However, Newsome Moore and Dowling (2013:202) note that while there is often confusion as to how visitor planning frameworks and management plans overlap, it must be understood that management plans are much broader than just visitor management. The planning process has numerous characteristics that distinguish it; *“establishing goals and objectives, determining strategies and actions and guiding implementation and review”* (Newsome *et al.*, 2013:202). There are various levels of planning which help situate the framework for managing an area such as international, national, regional, local etc. as well as types of planning; market, product, strategic, land-use, development etc. (Cochrane, 2009:62). Moreover, the author continues to state that there are mainly two approaches to planning; community-based participatory planning and master-planning.

2.6.1.1 Community-based planning

Community-based planning is a participatory process where an action plan is developed through the use of local knowledge (SDI South African Alliance, 2012) and focuses on grassroots at the community level (Harwood, 2010). International Institute for Environment and Development (IIED, 2004) terms the concept planning led by communities, for communities yet having links with local and national planning systems. Therefore, while this type of planning approach is localised, it is not outside the confines of the national plans. This planning paradigm gained momentum in the 1980-90s as a departure from the often prescriptive “top-down” approaches (Cochrane, 2009:63) and a result of decentralisation of the planning process (IIED, 2004). Kent (1981:74) opined that the concept refers to community groups getting together to work on *“their own initiative”*. The author continues that while not everyone within the community may want to participate, the aim is not necessarily to maximise

but to optimise participation. IIED (2004) highlights the natural resource planning bias in the application of the approach but notes the centrality of the Rural Rapid Appraisal (RRA) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) as tools to community planning. Both tools share similar guidelines, however, the focus of RRA is to aid people to work flexibly and structurally in rural communities to ensure communication and interaction are seamless while PRA is used to stimulate the involvement of community members (FAO, 2006).

Nevertheless, community-based planning has permeated into tourism development and used as an avenue to devolve planning participation and resource management to communities. This has manifested into such initiatives as Community-based Tourism (CBT) and Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) which are the cornerstones of most developing countries tourism development programmes and plans.

2.6.1.2 Master-planning

Master-planning is a concept from the physical planning discipline, and it is normally characterised by long-term focus. Likewise, even in tourism, master plans are strategic visions of 10 to 20 years which outlines the mission statement, strategies and actions plan for tourism development in a specified area, town, region or country (Lorton Consulting, 2016:1). Master planning has been criticised for being “top-down” and imposing strategic plans from central agents or governments on communities (Cochrane, 2009:64). Tourism master planning especially in the developing world, identified with two approaches; Tourism first perspective and development first perspective (Burns, 1999:330). The author notes that the difference between the two perspectives is that ‘Tourism-first’ is focused on developing tourism for the sake of tourism, the focus of planning is tourism from a supply-led approach. Whereas the ‘development-first’ perspective focuses on tourism as a vehicle for national development.

Nonetheless, while the agenda of the concerned government should dictate the planning approach, it is only the government involvement that can ensure integration and complementarity with other economic and social needs (Telfer, 2002). The author continues to argue that private businesses on their own cannot resolve sustainability issues nor the equitable distribution of benefits. The argument is casting doubt on the practicality of the ‘tourism-first’ approach especially with the emphasis on supply leading developments. Furthermore, Kerimoglu, Koramaz, Yazgi and Ertekin (2013:13) argue that the planning process should take cognizance of other economic activities and therefore coexist and compliment them instead of the pursuance of separation by single sectors.

The discussions on the community-based and master-planning approaches highlight their polarised nature along the 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' divide. However, Cochrane (2009:65) concludes that these approaches are not too different and are often combined in practise with governments choosing the long-term master planning focus and the community-based approach used at the local level to ground "*local cultural norms and livelihood strategies*". The planning approaches are fundamental when management frameworks are considered and the frameworks will be discussed in the following section

2.6.2 Management Frameworks

Higginbottom *et al.* (2003:2) state that most of the literature on management focus on tourism and nature-based recreation with very few specific to the management of wildlife tourism. However, Higginbottom (2004) admits that the broad principles of the management frameworks are applicable to wildlife tourism including zoos. Numerous frameworks have been developed over the years that include but not limited to the following as espoused by different authors (Bentz *et al.*, 2016; Higginbottom, 2004; Higginbottom *et al.*, 2003; Newsome *et al.*, 2005; Curtin, 2008);

- Wildlife Tourism Model
- Recreation Opportunity Spectrum
- Limits of Acceptable Change
- Visitor Impact Management Process
- Tourism Optimisation Management Model

The literature notes the similarity of the frameworks in that they all seek to balance social and biophysical interactions through an understanding and managing visitors to achieve satisfaction while preserving natural habitats (Cochrane, 2009:66). The frameworks also share similar elements as highlighted below from Higginbottom, Green and Northrope (2003:3) and Higginbottom (2004:212):

- Stated and agreed-on management objectives, including a statement regarding the protection or desired status of the wildlife and habitat;
- Appropriate choice and implementation of management actions designed to meet these objectives;
- A suitable monitoring programme;
- A mechanism for effective feedback from the evaluation of management actions;
- An adequate process for stakeholder participation in the management process; and
- A clearly documented management framework that brings the above elements together and guides management.

Cochrane (2009: 65-66) adds that the similarity also further includes "*setting indicators of success*". Therefore, this section further discusses the outlined five frameworks individually.

2.6.2.1 Wildlife Tourism Model

The framework was first conceived by Duffus and Dearden (1990) as a conceptual framework to help managers in non-consumptive wildlife tourism destinations to identify and understand the ever dynamic changes within an evolving wildlife tourism system (Catlin, Jones & Jones, 2011). Firstly, the framework is informed by the complexities of interactions within wildlife tourism. The elements or dimensions within this interaction are three, namely *“the wildlife tourist, the focal species and its habitat; and the historical relationship between them”* (Catlin, Jones & Jones, 2011:1538). The relationship between these components is what informs the conceptual framework. Duffus and Dearden (1990) utilised and integrated three theoretical models to explain the dynamics identified above. As illustrated in Figure 2.2 below, Butler’s (1980) Tourism Area Life-cycle (TALC) Theory was used as a base and is central in the framework to explain a wildlife attractions’ predictability of change over a period (Duffus & Dearden, 1990; Bentz *et al.*, 2016; Caitlin *et al.*, 2011). The TALC utilises an S-curve which highlights the various stages of development in a tourism area mapped in time and number of visitors.

The second theory which informs the framework is Bryan’s 1977 Leisure Specialisation Continuum (Caitlin *et al.*, 2011). The theory looks at the diversity of outdoor recreationists and the number of variables that help assess how they fit into the specialisation spectrum (Duffus & Dearden, 1990; Caitlin *et al.*, 2011). The variables; commitment, preferences for activity settings, skills and equipment ownership predisposes tourists into how they engage in recreation (Duffus & Dearden, 1990). However, the authors highlight that not all the variables are relevant to wildlife tourism. The equipment may not be of the great variability in wildlife tourism than other forms of recreation across different users and therefore may not be relevant. Furthermore, knowledge of the species and its environment will be more of a relevant variable in a wildlife tourism setting (Duffus & Dearden, 1990). Nonetheless, using Bryan’s theory, Duffus and Dearden noted that a wildlife tourism attraction might initially attract highly specialised clientele who are called ‘specialists’ and have the knowledge and desire to learn more about the species. However, over time due to growth in the development of the area of the encounter, an increase in visitor numbers will be experienced, and specialists will be displaced by generalist (visitors) with little knowledge. Therefore, higher impacts will be evident (Bentz *et al.*, 2016; Duffus & Dearden, 1990).

The final theory informing the framework is the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) which was first proposed by Stankey *et al.* (1984). The LAC framework considers generating *“acceptable forms (conditions) of use of social and natural resources”* (Catlin *et al.*, 2011:1541). The focus with LAC is

on setting conditions of changes allowed in a setting and monitoring the changes (Bentz *et al.*, 2016:101).

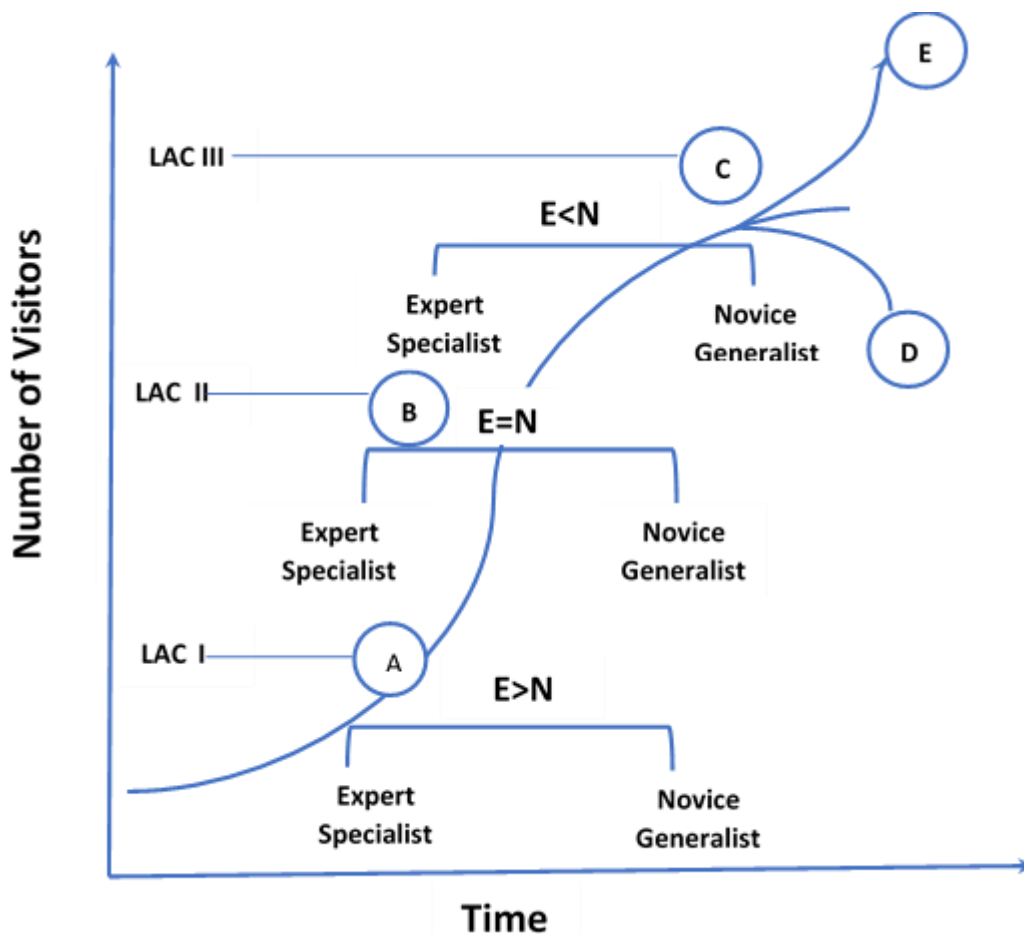


Figure 2.2: Duffus and Dearden's Wildlife Tourism Framework: The relationship of user specialisation and site evolution
(Source: Duffus and Dearden, 1990; Catlin, Jones & Jones, 2011)

Therefore, as highlighted by Figure 2.2, the Wildlife Tourism Framework combines the three theories in order to set three LAC milestones. LAC I is the initial point where a maximum number of specialised visitors can be allowed without much development or environmental impacts (Catlin, Jones & Jones, 2011). LAC II happens when the increase in visitors calls for an increase in facilities and noticeable impacts such as a decrease in a number of species. The third stage, LAC III, represents the stage when a maximum number of visitors can be maintained, and the site still is sustained (Duffus and Dearden, 1990; Catlin *et al.*, 2011). Both the authors note that any development beyond LAC III will ultimately lead to the demise of the attraction due to increased impacts and decreased satisfaction. The framework was applied by Duffus and Dearden in 2006 in Phuket, Thailand (Catlin *et al.*, 2011).

2.6.2.2 Limits of Acceptable Change

The LAC framework is already highlighted above and was a departure from the carrying capacity theory which has its main focus on the number of visitors that can be allowed in an area before degradation to the environment can be experienced. The criticism with carrying capacity centred on its applicability in a tourism context where there is a complexity of factors such as humans and their behaviour (Cochrane, 2009:66). Diedrich *et al.* (2011:341) argue that carrying capacity can “*only be defined in specific management objectives, which vary on a case by case basis*”. The authors further argue that LAC advocates for a shift from managing numbers to the management of impacts. Curtin (2008) presumes the framework to be the most useful as it focuses on the desired conditions as opposed to cause of the conditions. The LAC process consists of several steps leading to the setting of objectives which defines acceptable conditions (Cochrane, 2009:68). Curtin (2008) argues that the first point is to assess the area and have baseline data before the identification of issues can be done. The steps are identified according to Cochrane (2009:69) as follows;

Step 1: Identification of the area of concern and related issues,

Step 2: Definition of opportunity classes or zones,

Step 3: Selection of indicators of resource and social conditions (as they apply to classes or zones),

Step 4: Inventory of resource conditions,

Step 5: Specification of standards for resource indicators,

Step 6: Identification of alternative opportunity class allocations,

Step 7: Identification of management actions for each alternative,

Step 8: Evaluation and selection of an alternative,

Step 9: Implementation of actions and the monitoring of conditions,

Step 10: Evaluate conditions and revise activities as necessary.

The appeal of the framework is that it allows managers to work with other stakeholders in a consultative process to identify issues of concern that need to be addressed (Bentz *et al.*, 2016; Cochrane, 2009; Diedrich *et al.*, 2011). It is also a circular process where monitoring and evaluation might identify new issues, and therefore new activities will be devised. Tapper (2006:54) note the use of LAC into the management framework of Bunaken Marine National Park in Indonesia which allowed the establishment of a multi-stakeholder group to help in conservation and management.

2.6.2.3 Recreation Opportunity Spectrum

The framework was developed in the US in the 1970s and used by different departments within the USA such the Forestry Services, Parks Services and Bureau of Land Management (Heywood, Christensen & Stankey, 1991; Viriden & Knopf, 1989). Cochrane (2009:66) contends that the framework was mainly concerned with the management of recreationists as opposed to conservation.

Indeed, Virden and Knopf (1989:160) give credence to this argument by stating that Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) was born out of a need to have a system “to identify, classify, and inventory outdoor locales capable of generating distinguishable forms of psychological experiences for recreationists”. The authors go on to argue that ROS is more than just a classification model, but rather it links experiences to activities pursued and the characteristics of the environment. Central to the framework is the identification of recreation resources and the distinction in experiences they offer along the primitive-urban continuum (Virden & Knopf, 1989; Heywood *et al.*, 1991; Bentz *et al.*, 2011). Though the framework is void of a schematic diagram, it identifies six opportunity classes of recreation as enunciated by Heywood *et al.* (1991:240);

Primitive — Area is characterized by essentially unmodified natural environment of fairly large size. Concentrations of users are very low, and evidence of other area users is minimal.

Semi-primitive non-motorized — Area is characterized by a predominantly unmodified natural environment of moderate to large size. The concentration of users is low, but there is often evidence of other area users.

Semi-primitive motorized — Area is characterized by a predominantly unmodified natural environment of moderate to large size. The concentration of users is low, but there is often evidence of other area users.

Rustic — Area is characterized by the predominantly natural environment with moderate evidence of sights and sounds of humans. Such evidence usually harmonizes with the natural environment. The concentration of users may be low to moderate with facilities sometimes provided for group activity.

Concentrated — Area is characterized by a substantially modified natural environment. Sights and sounds of humans are readily evident, and the concentration of users is often moderate to high.

Modern urbanized — Area is characterized by a substantially urbanized environment, although the background may have natural elements. Sights and sounds of humans on-site are predominant. Large numbers of users can be expected both on-site and in nearby areas.

Bentz *et al.* (2016:102) argue that numerous opportunities are created that match visitor’s preferences by varying conditions of social and environmental management. From these conditions, six attributes are specified to state the possibilities in recreation opportunities within each setting; “access, management, social interaction with other users, non-recreational resource uses, the acceptability of impacts from visitor use, and acceptable levels of control of users” (Boyd & Butler, 1996: 559). Through incorporation into management plans, sensitivity or intensity tolerance of various settings can be identified and as such levels of use can be prescribed accordingly. Martin, Marsolais and Roloff (2009:57) opine that ROS can be applied to any environment and recreational setting as it

does not prescribe to managers what opportunities and requirements to ascribe to settings and therefore its adaptable to any context.

Indeed, the ROS has been adopted as exemplified by Butler and Waldbrook's (1991, cited in Boyd & Butler 1996; Huang & Confer, 2009) work. Adaptation of the model into a Tourism Opportunity Spectrum (TOS) and Boyd and Butler's (1996) Ecotourism Opportunity Spectrum (ECOS) has been done to suit the specific needs of these disciplines. The TOS variation adds the variables; the human perspective (interactions of host, tourist and management) and considers the availability of tourism infrastructure and facilities (Huang & Confer, 2009:249) while ECOS considers the level of user skills and knowledge required in such a setting (Boyd & Butler, 1996:560). The variations in the models are encapsulated in Table 2.1 below, where each of the adapted model; TOS and ECOS are compared according to the six core attributes of the ROS model namely; access, management, social interaction with other users, non-recreational resource uses, acceptability of impacts from visitor use and acceptable levels of control of users. However, the adapted models (TOS and ECOS) have additional attributes which were not considered by the original ROS model as explained earlier in the paragraph and also illustrated in Table 2.1. The attributes missing from ROS are; presence of tourism infrastructure and level of user skill and knowledge required.

Table 2.1: Comparison of Various ROS adaptation models

| ROS | TOS | ECOS |
|--|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Access | Access | Access |
| Management | N/A | Type of management needed |
| Social Interaction with other users | Social Interaction | Level of social interaction |
| Non-recreational resource uses | Other non-adventure uses | Other Resources related activities |
| Acceptability of impacts from visitor use | Acceptability of visitor impacts | Degree of acceptance of impacts |
| Acceptable levels of control of users | Acceptability of regimentation | Attractions offered in a region |
| N/A | Tourism Plant | Presence of Tourism Infrastructure |

| | | |
|-----|-----|--|
| N/A | N/A | Level of User skill and knowledge required |
|-----|-----|--|

Source: (Author’s Own Compilation)

Nonetheless, it should be noted that the framework has been designed and applied for non-consumptive use and therefore its applicability in consumptive use is debatable.

2.6.2.4 Visitor Impacts Management (VIM)

The framework often uses the name “Process for Visitor Impact Management” (Nilsen, 2004; Nilsen & Tayler, 1997). The framework was a result of work by US National Parks and the Conservation Association which came as a response to legislative and policy requirements in natural area management in the USA (Nilsen, 2004; Nilsen & Tayler, 1997). Moore, Smith and Newsome (2003:355) contend that it is very similar to the Limit of Acceptable Change (LAC) framework. It addresses the three tenets of impacts management; problem condition, potential causal factors and potential management process in an 8-step process (Nilsen, 2004; Nilsen & Tayler, 1997). Just as LAC, VIM framework establishes the baseline data, reviews management objectives before selecting key indicators. It, however, identifies possible indicators of impacts along three dimensions; physical, biological and social impacts (Nilsen & Tayler, 1997). The framework also relies on indicators and standards to identify causes of impacts so that management techniques might be advanced accordingly (Moore *et al.*, 2003:356).

2.6.2.5 Tourism Optimisation Management Model (TOMM)

The model was first formulated in 1996 in Australia to monitor and communicate “*the health of Island tourism on the Island [Kangaroo Island] quantitatively and qualitatively to community and management agencies*” (TOMM Annual Report, 2000:4). Just as with VIM as explained above, the model is adopted from LAC but with more emphasis on sustainability from a community perspective (Cochrane, 2009:66). Moore *et al.* (2003:356) contend that the model considers the social and political context of where the natural attraction is situated and highlights the focus on stakeholder involvement. Newsome *et al.* (2013:228) also reiterate the model’s contextualization of the factors above but add that even economic context is included. Tapper (2006) also articulates its focus on community perspectives of desired outcomes to highlight its community-centred approach. Bakker, Daniels, Ellerman, Hold and Solis-Sosa (2015:9) further state that TOMM’s appeal is fusing of community goals with management programs to provide a comprehensive framework. The other appeal of the model is the public negotiated a range of indicators as opposed to a single standard (Bakker *et al.*,

2015 Moore *et al.*, 2003). Nonetheless, despite the acknowledged strengths, there is lack of evidence to suggest that it has been applied anywhere else beyond the Pacific Rim where it was first developed.

2.6.2.6 Weaknesses of the frameworks

As already indicated earlier, there are similarities and differences with the frameworks highlighted in the preceding sections. What is also evident is that certain frameworks are either informed, an improvement or an adaptation of others. As espoused in the analysis of the individual frameworks, LAC, VIM and TOMM share similarities as the latter two models are an attempt to improve on the former. While the Wildlife Tourism Model (WTM) synthesised two earlier tourism models to inform their framework, the Tourism Opportunity Spectrum (TOS) and Ecotourism Opportunity Spectrum (ECOS) adapted the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) to the context of tourism and ecotourism respectively. However, a pertinent question that needs to be answered is; are the frameworks applicable or adaptable to tourism management especially wildlife tourism? Moore *et al.* (2003:355) argue that only two of the frameworks TOS and TOMM were specifically developed for the tourism context. The rest of the frameworks were *“initially developed for managing recreational use of wilderness and backcountry areas in North America, [but] they have increasingly been transferred into natural area tourism”* (Moore *et al.*, 2003:355). Nielsen and Tayler (1997:49) also reiterate and acknowledge their use in protected area planning and management.

The literature has highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of the various frameworks. However, Nielsen and Tayler (1997) and Newsome *et al.* (2013) are some of the few studies to consider a comparative analysis of the frameworks, while Moore *et al.* (2003) measure comparatively their contribution to environmental performance reporting. The latter authors looked at eight criteria to help evaluate performance reporting framework with scores of meeting the criterion identified as; fully, partly, very limited or does not meet criterion. Therefore, as their strengths have already been attributed above during the discussions of each, only their perceived weaknesses will be discussed here utilising the comparative analysis of the authors mentioned above.

The Recreation Opportunity Spectrum framework has a noted weakness, in that there is lack of consensus in classification of opportunities in the spectrum and indicators, the entire process will be derailed (Nielsen & Tayler, 1997; Newsome *et al.*, 2013) while Moore *et al.* (2003) note its failure to meet the indicators that measure progress against set objectives and its involvement of stakeholders is only met in a limited way. The Limit of Acceptable Change, on the other hand, is weak in specifying standards due to frequent environmental changes (Newsome *et al.*, 2013:223) and failure to give strategic direction where current issues are not identified (Nielsen & Tayler, 1997:51). Furthermore,

the framework fails in the management process and systems as environmental performance indicator and partially meets the criterion for applicability to spatial scales (Moore *et al.*, 2003:361).

Visitor Impact Management framework is noted to be practical only in smaller sites which offer only mono-class opportunity and it is further weakened by its reactive approach to impact management while failing to identify potential impacts (Nielsen & Tayler, 1997; Moore *et al.*, 2003; Newsome *et al.*, 2013). The framework is also deemed to have explicitly created very limited provisions for stakeholder involvement (Moore *et al.*, 2003:362). The TOMM framework's amount of information resulting from the emphasis in including economic, market and socio-cultural factors is deemed to be a weakness as managing and analysis of the data require a lot of resources (Newsome *et al.*, 2013:230). In addition, there are no clear objectives stated or generated at the beginning of the framework development, measurement of progress on the objectives is only minimal and it is deemed difficult to understand and use (Moore *et al.*, 2003:360).

2.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter intended to review the literature on the contextualisation of wildlife and hunting tourism in Botswana. First, an overview of the different facets of wildlife tourism, in general, was done with emphasis on its value with reference to the global tourism industry. There is noted lack of data on the significance of wildlife tourism (Scanlon, 2017) and available data highlight a small and diminishing proportion of the sector within the global tourism trade with UNWTO estimation at 7% in 2016 and WTTC estimation of 4.4% in 2017. The chapter also reviewed the literature on the different types of wildlife tourism. Wildlife watching tourism segment is the largest and most diverse type of wildlife tourism as it covers watching terrestrial, marine and captive wildlife. Furthermore, these diverse types of wildlife watching, have their own components like bird watching as a terrestrial wildlife component. In addition to wildlife watching, there is wildlife feeding and hunting tourism which courts controversy due to polarised debates around ethical issues. The review then considered wildlife impacts which proved to be both positive and negative. The positive impacts such as conservation, economic benefits to communities, and tourist satisfaction, have been noted. Nonetheless, while wildlife tourism helps fund and educate both community and tourists on conservation, it also poses a risk to animals and their environment. The literature highlights both intentional and unintentional behaviour by tourists and the tourism industry, that leads to habitat alteration, physiological and physical negative impacts on wildlife.

The chapter further singled out hunting tourism from other wildlife tourism components and considered the impacts of this segment because it is the focus of the thesis. The findings indicated that, positive impacts of conservation and economic benefits are realised which is identical to the

generic wildlife tourism impacts. However, negative impacts revolve around the issue ethics. This comes out as hunters in cahoots with corrupt officials, 'over-shoot' their hunting quotas, take out the most productive of the species and practice unfair chase of animals which leads to increased physical and physiological disturbances. Due to the noted impacts of wildlife and hunting tourism, review of management approaches and frameworks was done. The literature highlights two planning approaches which are, nonetheless, not exclusive to wildlife. Master planning and community-based planning are the approaches practiced in the planning for tourism including wildlife tourism. The approaches differ in that while master planning is top-down in its pursuit, community-based is focused on bottom-up in its approach. Therefore, destinations have a choice to make on how they pursue wildlife tourism development depending on their overall objectives.

Along with planning for wildlife, management frameworks are employed to alleviate negative impacts of the interactions of stakeholders within the wildlife tourism space. The literature mentions multiple frameworks used such as; limits of acceptable change, recreation opportunity spectrum, visitor impacts management, wildlife tourism model and tourism optimisation management model. However, while they can be applied in an array of contexts, the frameworks each have their own weaknesses. Nonetheless, what is apparent is that, some of the frameworks have been formulated to improve and address weaknesses of their predecessors. Finally, the chapter reviewed the development of hunting tourism in Botswana. The review looked at protected areas development which is the foundation of wildlife protection and conservation in the country. Furthermore, various policy and regulatory frameworks that govern hunting, as well as the different organisations tasked with hunting and wildlife tourism management in general, were considered and reviewed.

CHAPTER 3:

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Many countries are grappling with the issue of addressing and advancing their development agendas. Central to this conundrum is the question one might ask, “How best to utilize the available resources to derive optimum benefits”? Over time there have been efforts to answer this question by putting forth theories to explain the process of economic development. Tourism as a development tool is situated “*within a framework of general economic development*” (Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert, & Wanhill, 2013:259)

Sustainability as a concept has been highlighted previously in this thesis in chapter 1. This has been necessitated by the fact that it is firstly central to the aim of the research (illustrated in figure 1.1 in chapter 1) and secondly it is a critical element in the study and practice of development especially tourism development. Therefore, discussions of the concept have focused on different aspects (as an economic development paradigm, a tourism planning approach and tourism development practice) which demonstrates its criticality and overarching importance in the contemporary development paradigm. It is the latter, sustainability as a tourism development approach and practice, otherwise referred to as sustainable tourism development that is to be covered in this chapter. The concept has received considerable attention by both the academic and practitioner constituents dissecting its definition, practice, principles and policy implication in the current and future development of the tourism industry (Cater, Garrod & Low, 2015). As the goal of this thesis is to formulate a sustainable strategy, it is important to analyse the concept of sustainability as it is key in ensuring that there is long term solution to the effects of the hunting ban. Sustainability ensures that in formulation of the strategy, communities’ need for economic benefits and social inclusion are addressed, without compromising conservation of resources and the environment. This chapter therefore, is meant to demonstrate and critic how sustainability is central to the aim of the study.

Therefore, the chapter aims to institute a considerable analysis of sustainable tourism and its link with sustainable development paradigm by looking at the background of the concept, definition and principles. The chapter further aims to highlight the tools used to engender sustainability in tourism such as area protection, carrying capacity and visitor management to name just a few. Such tools can be used not only to operationalise tourism sustainability but also to measure the practice and its impacts especially on the community level who are custodians of tourism assets.

3.2 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The broader understanding of the sustainable development concept is that of development that is cognisant of future generations to meet their own needs. Different literature credits the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED)'s Brundtland Report as a forerunner and a catalyst of the debate on sustainable development (WTO, 1999; Goodwin, 2009; Hermann, Geldenhuys & Coetzee, 2011; Leslie, 2012; Mitchell, Wooliscroft & Higham, 2013; Mihalic, 2014). The report was a precursor to the Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in 1992, which resulted in a Commission on Sustainable Development (Goodwin, 2009). Even though the summit and the commission that followed were about the sustainability of developments in broader terms, they had implications on different disciplines among them tourism. Central to defining and understanding sustainable development has been the consensus that economic, environmental and social impacts should be addressed for development to be sustainable. The literature consider sustainable development as one of the alternative development approaches (Pieterse, 1996; Telfer & Sharpley, 2002; Matthews, 2004; Prayas, 2004;). Indeed, there are similarities in key strategies of the concepts of sustainable development and sustainable tourism as they both espouse people-centred development, environmental management and awareness of effects of development on cultures and societies (Sharpley, 2009 in Harrison, 2015). Moure-Eraso (2003) however, argues that the concept has been hijacked by neoliberal theorists who suggested that sustainability can be driven by corporations which he argued is a fallacy. The author observes that through a neoliberal perspective, sustainability has taken a pyramid approach to development where social justice and environmental resources have been subordinates of economic gains. While sustainable development has been at the top of the agenda for policy thinkers in an effort to balance economic efficiency with social and environmental considerations, its operation ability has been questioned. Nogaard (1993 in Harris, 2003) notes that it is difficult to define the concept in an operational sense, a sentiment shared by Wheeler (1993 in Mihalic, 2014) who argued that sustainable development lacks practicality and it has been turned into a public relations tool. Telfer and Sharpley (2002) also note its vagueness in application where there is lack of clarity on what is to be sustained and who makes the decisions. Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC, 2007:2) notes that the ambiguity of the concept has given rise to research on its "*meaning, measuring and feasibility*" culminating in diverse approaches that accept its importance yet with discordant interpretation.

3.3 BACKGROUND OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

The sustainable economic development theory and sustainable tourism have a paradigm-practice relationship. Where-upon the ethos of sustainable development are reflected in sustainable tourism

to advance the former. Therefore, any consideration of the background of sustainable tourism will inadvertently cover and consider sustainable development.

Few studies consider sustainability prior to the Brundtland Report of 1987 which is the turning point in pursuit of sustained development. The pre-Brundtland Report background analysis is important to this study as it gives us insight into factors behind the paradigm shift in the approach to development. This will also help to avoid repeating the same mistakes especially in the pursuit to address the ever-challenging socio-economic issues in the world continue to be elusive which will predispose governments, businesses and communities to unsustainable avenues for solutions. Of the few literature sources (Hall, 1998; Butler, 1998; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013; Edgell Sr. & Swanson, 2013; Mowforth & Munt, 2016) that consider sustainability from this context, there is consensus on three issues. Firstly, environmental concern (including atmospheric pressure and climate change) was the catalyst to change; secondly, the alarms for change were raised in the 1960s; and lastly, there was little reference to considerations of development implications on socio-cultural issues at the time.

Edgell Sr. and Swanson (2013:151) credits two publications; “Silent Spring” by Rachel Carson in 1962 and “The Limits to Growth” by a think tank group called ‘Club of Rome’ in 1972 for bringing the attention of the world to the grave trajectory the predominant forms of economic development had taken. The post-war development had fuelled mass production and rapid development much of which led to natural resource extraction (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:225). The concern was not only on environmental impact on climate change but also on human development and sustenance. Goodwin (2009:63) noted the imbalance in the “consumption-poverty-inequality-environment nexus” exacerbating which ultimately had an impact on resource utilization. Nonetheless, the aforesaid publications had an impact in raising awareness of the negative developmental effects as consequently the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) held a conference focusing on the environment humans consume in Stockholm, Sweden in 1972 which culminated in the creation of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED). Atapattu (2006:82) notes the polarized views of the developed and developing world on the approach to future development after the Stockholm conference. The author contends that while the developed countries were privy to environmental ills of industrialization and called for decrease in pollution and other activities detrimental to the environment, the developing nations felt hamstrung by such an approach as they needed economic development and desired to be given an opportunity to develop their economies without the added burden of environmental sensitivity. Egelston (2006:26) asserts that there was a common assumption by both north and south countries that environmental protection would curtail economic development. Thus, WCED was given a mandate “to find ways to reconcile environmental protection with economic development” (Atapattu, 2006:82). Similarly, Fletcher *et al.* (2013:226) state that the WCED primary goal was stated as;

“to help define shared perceptions of long term environmental issues and the appropriate efforts needed to deal successfully with the problems of protecting and enhancing the environment, a long-term agenda for action during the coming decades, and aspirational goals of the world community”

The commission's (another reference name used for WCED) work ultimately gave birth to the 'Our Common Future' report in 1987 commonly referred to as the Brundtland Report, named after the Norwegian prime minister, Gro Harlem Brundtland, who chaired WCED (Goodwin, 2009:65; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:225). The severity and urgency in consideration of the sustainability of development was underlined by the participation of 182 countries in a conference termed the 'Earth Summit' in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, an outcome of the Brundtland Report which culminated in a strategy paper signed by participating countries; Agenda 21 (Goodwin, 2009:65; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:225). While the Brundtland Report and the "Earth Summit" brought the world's attention to the grave environmental impacts of development and pointed to sustainable development as the solution, Agenda 21 offered strategies for implementing sustainability. Landorf (2009:54) concurs that Agenda 21 was one of the proposals of the Earth Summit which advocated for a balance of the economic, social and environmental dimensions for development to be sustained and further outlined generic strategies to guide implementation of sustainable development. However, Agenda 21 was not the only output of the Rio conference. The conference produced five programmes (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:21; Goodwin, 2009:66);

- i) The Rio declarations;
- ii) Convention on biological diversity
- iii) Convention on climate change
- iv) Forest principles, and
- v) Agenda 21

Mowforth and Munt (2016:21) argue that the conference aims failed to be realized due in part to the vagueness of the declarations, non-binding treaties and paltry financial commitments towards the drive to sustainability. Therefore, despite all countries being signatories to the declarations, much less was achieved prompting an NGO, Friends of the Earth International (FOEI) to state that *“since Rio unsustainable development has continued and has been a dramatic failure to implement the commitments made”* (FOEI, 2011 in Mowforth & Munt, 2016:21).

Tourism within the context of sustainability was not considered by world leaders until 1996 when Agenda 21 was adopted and developed for the travel and tourism industry by the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) and the Earth Council (Goodwin, 2009:66; Edgell Sr. & Swanson, 2013:151). However, that is not to say concerns for tourism sustainability did not exist before the Brundtland Report. Literature notes two factors

responsible to the rise of sustainability issues in tourism; growing detrimental nature of tourism at destinations due to what is referred to as mass tourism and the growth of environmentalism in the mid-1980s (Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert & Wanhill, 1993:145; Berry & Ladkin, 1997:434;). These factors reflected the development discourse at the time and therefore, discontent within tourism on the trajectory of its course was consistent with other aspects of development which ultimately led to the decisive course of action outlined earlier. Nonetheless, Agenda 21 is seen as a foundation for most of the sustainable tourism initiatives and actions driving sustainability in tourism currently (Edgell Sr. & Swanson, 2013:151). The author contends that the impetus was further strengthened by the United Nations Commission on Sustainable Development (CSD) in 1999 which discussed tourism and emphasized its role in poverty reduction and urged governments to come up with strategies to maximise the potential of tourism in eradicating poverty in partnership with communities. It is this ambition to maximise tourism potential that highlights a synergetic relationship between the socio-cultural, economic and environmental elements that exist within sustainable tourism.

3.4 DEFINITION OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Perhaps the most frustrating element about sustainable tourism for researchers is the clarification of the concept itself. Literature laments this conundrum in clarity of the concept definition which led Garrod and Fyall (1998:199) to state that defining sustainability in tourism is “*something of a cottage industry in the academic literature*” while Godfrey (1998:213) argues that it is not fully understood nor implications on development and planning fully grasped. Likewise, Fletcher *et al.* (2013:227) note the vagueness of the sustainable tourism definition while Mowforth and Munt (2016:86) argue that the concept has been hijacked and manipulated to different stakeholders’ definitions to give credence to their activities. Godfrey (1998:214) also contends that the confusion with sustainable tourism is borne out of the need by some to disassociate with mass tourism and its negativity which prompted a plethora of terms applied to create distinction with the repulsive mass tourism. This point is aptly reinforced by Berry and Ladkin’s (1998) findings that participants in their study viewed sustainable tourism concept as poorly defined, used as a marketing tool and its similarity and alignment to concepts of ‘eco’, ‘responsible’ and ‘green’ tourism only conspired to further confuse consumers and businesses. Therefore, this means that there is no authoritatively accepted definition of the concept even though global bodies like UNWTO offer their version which has been widely quoted but not universally accepted. As Fletcher *et al.* (2013:227) opined, the difficulty in definition of sustainable tourism stems from the same difficulty in the mother paradigm; sustainable development. Sustainable development was first defined by the Brundtland Report which simply termed it “*development that meet the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (McKercher, 2003:3; Goodwin, 2009:65; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:226). The World Tourism Organisation definition builds on the Brundtland Report’s definition by offering a variation of their own thus;

“Sustainable tourism development meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing the opportunity for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems” (Fletcher et al., 2013:228)

However, even with UNWTO, there is a variation of their definitions which was offered later in 2004 (see Table 3.1) (Perez, Guerrero, Gonzalez, Perez & Caballero, 2013). The highlighted UNWTO definition above puts much emphasis on management of resources as a key to fulfilling the triple bottom-lines which is consistent with the definition offered by Godfrey (1998:214) that it is basically *“about asset management, where development and activity generates the integrity of the resource on which the industry is based (be it cultural, physical or otherwise) while maintaining economic viability”*

Nonetheless, other definitions are too close to the Brundtland Report definition such as the effort by Swarbrooke (1999 in Goodwin, 2009:72) that sustainable tourism is *“forms of tourism which meet the needs of tourists, the tourism industry and host communities today without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”*. While there is noted interchangeable use of the terms sustainable tourism development and sustainable tourism, Butler’s (1993 in Tosun, 2001:290) consideration of the concept draws a distinction between the two. The author asserts that sustainable tourism envisages viability of tourism in an area indefinitely while sustainable tourism development maintains the same viability consideration albeit without prohibition of development of other activities. Table 3.1 below gives examples of a range of definitions of sustainable tourism from the literature.

Table 3.1: Various Definitions of Sustainable Tourism

| Author | Definition |
|---------------------------------|---|
| English Tourist Board (1991:15) | Sustainable tourism involves seeking a more harmonious relationship between the visitor, the host community and the place (thereby achieving) a situation that can be maintained without depleting the resource, cheating the visitor or exploiting the local population |
| Tosun (2001:290) | All kinds of tourism developments that make a notable contribution to or, at least, do not contradict the maintenance of the principles of development in an indefinite time without compromising the ability of future generations to satisfy their own needs and desires |

| | |
|--|--|
| WTO (2004 in Perez, Guerrero, Gonzalez, Perez & Caballero, 2013: 316) | Tourism makes optimal use of environmental resources; respects the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities; ensures viable, long-term economic operations, providing socio-economic benefits to all stakeholders; requires the informed participation of all relevant stakeholders, as well as strong political leadership; and also maintains a high level of tourist satisfaction. |
| Grundey (2008:121) | The balance of traditional tourism and the needs of future tourists; resources necessary for tourism, such as natural, cultural and others are reserved for future generations but they are beneficial for today's society. |

(Source: Author's Own Compilation)

Despite the plethora of definitions available, the fundamental factors remain from the debate that with sustainability, long-term economic, environmental and socio-cultural requirements need to be considered by all stakeholders through stakeholder engagement (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:228). Tosun (2001) argues that sustainable tourism should be adaptive in order to advance the objectives of its parental paradigm, sustainable development. Therefore, despite the confusion in concept clarification, the bigger picture encapsulated in the objectives of sustainable development should not be lost. As Godfrey (1998:214) aptly stated that the central objective is consistent even though “*to some, sustainable tourism is all about new products or market segments, while to others it is a process of development, while to others it represents a guiding principle to which all tourism should aspire*”. Furthermore, it should be known that “*it is not the definition which is critical to management, it is management which is critical to achieving sustainable tourism*” (Goodwin, 2009:72).

3.5 PRINCIPLES OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

The idea of sustainability is preceded by principles envisaged to drive the need to sustain development and preserve resources for future use. Though principles are less binding by nature, they set the framework for more binding instruments. Therefore, both sustainable tourism and sustainable development concepts espouse similar principles more in part to the inter-related nature of the two concepts. However, Tosun (2001:289) decries the western focus of sustainable tourism principles which failed to consider perspectives of the less-developed nations. Nonetheless, principles have informed policy direction in many destinations' approach to tourism development (Godfrey, 1998). Mowforth and Munt (2003) note that even though principles or criteria are not absolute in representing sustainability, they are frequently used to assess tourist activities in reference to the concept.

However, the use of terms 'principles' and 'criteria' together above is borne out of the failure by some tourism literature to reconcile the use of the terms along with the term objective in the context of sustainable tourism. While the dictionary definitions of the terms draw a distinction between them, there is a tendency to use them interchangeably. The Mowforth and Munt (2003:98) text is a case in point where the terms principles and criteria are used interchangeably while Wight (2002:222) used "principles or objectives" in reference to the Province of Alberta's Public Advisory Committee's approach to sustainable development. Likewise, UNWTO/UNEP (2005) publication on "*Making tourism more sustainable: A guide for policymakers*" articulates twelve (12) objectives which are in line or similar to principles mentioned elsewhere. There is also a similarity of the listed items purported to be principles, criteria and objectives which further demonstrates the interchangeable use of the terms and tourism literature's inability to agree on a common term to use.

Nonetheless, 'principles of sustainability' is the term used from here onwards in this thesis, unless otherwise specified. While there is a generic framework advanced by the Brundtland Report and Agenda 21 documents, the literature shows that the principles are and should be localised to the context of the area. Such an approach allows for variations through accommodation of local issues as exemplified by documents by English Tourist Board (1991), Alberta Public Advisory Committee (1990 in Wight, 2002) and Commonwealth of Australia (1991 in Wight, 2002). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:226) credit the Brundtland Report for advancing principles for a sustainable approach to development by identifying six basic principles as;

- i) Take a holistic approach to planning and strategy
- ii) Protect the environment (biodiversity) and man-made heritage
- iii) Preserve the essential ecological processes
- iv) Facilitate and engage public participation
- v) Ensure that productivity can be sustained into the long-term future
- vi) Provide for a better level of fairness and opportunity between different countries

Fletcher *et al.* (2013) went on to argue that while the principles espouse inter-generational and intra-generational equity, the challenge is on reconciling the sixth principle. The author explains that intra-generational deals with equal access to resources within the same human generation, while inter-generational equity means conserving resources now to allow future generations to equally have access to them. For intra-generational equity to be realised, lack of optimal resource distribution and wealth will have to be addressed, a challenge currently difficult to unravel. Nonetheless, the principles or variation of them (such as Landorf (2009) which highlights only four sustainability principles) have been the basis of principles in sustainable tourism. As mentioned earlier the first document to adopt the principles for the tourism industry was "Agenda 21 for Travel and Tourism: Towards

Environmentally Sustainable Development” launched in 1996. The publication has two parts; the guiding principles and the actions for the different industry stakeholders to take in the quest for sustainable development of tourism (UNWTO, 2001:17; Goodwin, 2009:71). The guiding principles forwarded by the UNWTO document are;

- i) Travel & Tourism should assist people in leading healthy and productive lives in harmony with nature
- ii) Travel & Tourism should contribute to the conservation, protection and restoration of the earth's ecosystem
- iii) Travel & Tourism should be based on sustainable patterns of production and consumption
- iv) Travel & Tourism, peace, development and environmental protection are independent
- v) Protectionism in trade-in Travel & Tourism services should be halted or reversed
- vi) Environmental protection should constitute an integral part of the tourism development process
- vii) Tourism development issues should be handled with the participation of concerned citizens, with planning decisions being adopted at a local level
- viii) Nations shall warn one another of natural disasters that could affect tourists or tourist areas
- ix) Travel & Tourism should use its capacity to create employment for women and indigenous people to the fullest extent
- x) Tourism development should recognize and support the identity, culture and interests of indigenous peoples, and
- xi) International laws protecting the environment should be respected by the Travel & Tourism industry.

The tourism literature, groups these principles with guidelines underpinning them, into four categories; ecological, economic, local and cultural (Grundey, 2008; Bartoluci, Hendija & Petracic, 2015) or ecological, social, cultural and economic (Mowforth & Munt, 2016). However, it is the use of three categories commonly referred to as the triple bottom-lines (environment, socio-cultural and economic) that has received much attention in the academic literature (Goodwin, 2009; Dwyer & Faux, 2010; McGranahan, 2011; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013; Pienaar *et al.*, 2013; Fischer *et al.*, 2015).

Two issues emanate from the given categorizations; the use of socio-cultural versus social and cultural as well as the use of the term ecology versus environmental. The first issue stems from the growing acknowledgement of separating cultural and social issues especially within the context of sustainability. The move started being mentioned in 1995 by the World Commission on Culture and Development and endorsed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) through a declaration which initiated a process to add culture as a separate and additional

dimension of sustainability (Scammon, 2012; Opoku, 2015:38). Scammon (2012) contends that cultural sustainability considers how a society manifests their cultural identity and sense of place through heritage and cultural capital while social sustainability is concerned with societal issues such as poverty, injustice, rights, education and labour. Therefore, there is need for both to be considered separately due to the expanse of issues to consider for both (Opoku, 2015:38; Scammon, 2012). Nonetheless, the cultural aspect remains implicitly considered in the sustainable development frameworks due to the academic community and policymakers' continued ignorance of it (Dessein, Soini, Fairclough & Horlings, 2015:16). The second issue emanating from categorizations of principles is that while conventionally the literature considers environmental sustainability, a growing number of scholars adopts the ecological perspective (McKercher, 2003; Grundey, 2008; Bartoluci *et al.*, 2015). Bartoluci *et al.* (2015) allege that environment along with ecological setting and environmental economics fall within the ecological sustainability framework as ecology is a much broader term than environment. However, Mazzotti (2001:1) argues that the ecology is concerned with the interaction of species and their surroundings (environment) and therefore a scientific discipline. Mowforth and Munt (2003) use of the term is interchangeable with environment. Therefore, as we discuss the different principles of sustainable tourism in-depth, the triple-bottom-line approach of economic, environment and socio-cultural will be used. The reasons being simply that it is the widely applied categorization in the academic literature and the fact that the concepts of culture and ecology remain implicitly situated in the triple-bottom-line approach to sustainability.

3.5.1 Economic sustainability principles

The aspect of economic sustainability seems natural to most businesses and decision-makers alike simply because it relates to the continuance of an entity through profit generation. Such an approach had been the sole focus of 'traditional tourism' and the rest of the other sectors in pursuit of economic development which culminated in increased impacts on the environment and local communities. Bartoluci *et al.* (2015) reference this point in their study by stating that entrepreneurial pursuit of profit maximization is often incompatible with other sustainability principles as it is often achieved at the expense of the environment and communities' wellbeing. Therefore, in the context of sustainability, economic sustenance is the most critical aspect as it requires balance in the commercialization of environmental and cultural resources to advance sustainable tourism.

Godfrey (1998) asserts that for sustainability to be viable, there is a need to focus less on the economic short-termism and consider long-term social and environmental implications. While Godfrey's assertion is a bit old, the narrative has remained the same throughout the years (McKercher, 2003; Tip, 2009; Goodwin, 2009; Bartoluci *et al.*, 2015). McKercher (2003:1) aptly drives the point that tourism is firstly an economic activity that has the potential to produce both positive and negative impacts, therefore, sustainable tourism "*seeks to achieve the best balance between economic benefits and social and environmental costs*". Tip (2009:26) argues that there is a business

case for the triple-bottom-line to integrate but noted the worrying trend of increased tokenism (symbolic effort) in the tourism sector. The author asserts that companies within the industry chose to support one-off projects espousing environmental and community gain which are then presented as Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) programmes. While such acts are justifiable due to internal operational gains, they “*do not address social issues in any real way, nor do they represent substantive changes in corporate environmental policy*” (Tip, 2009:27). Therefore it is obvious there is a need to understand what is and what constitute economic sustainability principles.

Firstly, there is variation in understanding of the economic principle of sustainable tourism. Much of the variation emanates from the interdependence of the principles such that it is difficult to mention one without referring to the other. Therefore, there is a need to consider what various sources regard as economic principles of sustainability to gain a better understanding. From the earlier discussions of Agenda 21 for travel and tourism, two principles stand out as economic whereas there is an implicit reference to economic aspects in the other principles;

- i) Travel & Tourism should be based on sustainable patterns of production and consumption;
and
- ii) Travel & Tourism should use its capacity to create employment for women and indigenous people to the fullest extent (UNWTO, 2001)

Dumbrăveanu (2007:4) on the other hand considers economic sustainability to mean;

“maximizing the economic benefits of the local population as a result of developing tourism, so as to obtain economic sustainability.”

McKercher (2003:4) simply coined it as “*sustainability that is profitable in both immediate and long-term*”. While Grundey (2008:122) notes that the economic principle of sustainable tourism dictates that “*development must be effective and beneficial economically, and all resources must be controlled in order to preserve them for future generations*”. Bartoluci’s *et al.* (2015:31) take on the principle of economic sustainability is that it “*is based on a sound and economically efficient development which entails optimal management of resources in a sustainable manner so that they could be used by future generations*”.

While the highlighted versions of economic sustainability principle are varied, the common thread about these principles is that economics is central to sustainability. However, in pursuit of profits, rational resource use must be paramount otherwise the future cannot be ascertained. Another point deduced from the above economic principles is that benefits should also accrue to local populations with particular reference to women for tourism to be sustained. Such a point is further reinforced by the World Tourism Organisation’s (WTO, 2001:19) “Actions in assisting developing nations implement Agenda 21” document which highlights Global Code of ethics ‘article five’. The article states that;

tourism activities should consider local populations and share equitably the benefits and ensure the jobs created by such activities accrue to locals either directly or indirectly. The article further notes that tourism policies advancing sustainable planning and architectural approaches needs to ensure resorts and accommodation operations are integrated in the local economy, giving priority of employment of local skills where possible. Bartoluci *et al.* (2015) opine that mutual understanding and equity is required for both demand and supply side of tourism to participate in realising prosperity for future generations.

Further to the principles, there are guidelines that help to operationalise the principles. The Tourism Industry Association of Canada (TIAC, 1992) specify such guidelines in an effort to direct the different industry players on the various courses of action to ensure sustainable tourism is realised. The guidelines are specific to various sectors such as; tour operators, accommodation, foodservice and tourism associations. McKercher (2003:4) also highlights economic sustainability guidelines as the following;

- i) Form partnerships throughout the entire supply chain from micro-sized local businesses to multinational organisations;
- ii) Use internationally approved and reviewed guidelines for training and certification;
- iii) Promote among clients an ethical and environmentally conscious behaviour;
- iv) Diversify the products by developing a wide range of tourist activities;
- v) Contribute some of the income generated to assist in training, ethical marketing and product development; and
- vi) Provide financial incentives for businesses to adopt sustainability principles

However, the guidelines are more suggestive instead of prescriptive. It is from these guidelines that indicators are formulated, which will be discussed later in the chapter as tools used to measure the implementation of sustainability. Howie (2010) contends that indicators were first used in economics and medical fields to guide decision-makers. Nonetheless, there is a linear relationship between principles, guidelines and indicators in that while principles set the direction, guidelines help implement the principles and indicators act as measures.

3.5.2 Environmental sustainability principles

In the tourism industry, the environment has proven to be a critical aspect (Howe, 2010). Howe (2010) assert that firstly, because the environment is a natural resource that appeals to visitors making it a tourism asset. Secondly, from a spatial perspective, it houses infrastructure, biodiversity and communities that are an essential component of the tourism industry. Lastly, it constitutes a free resource to be harnessed by communities in peripheral regions for tourism consumption and therefore accruing benefits to poor and marginalised areas. Therefore, its protection is paramount as there is a

lot that depends on it even beyond tourism. This often might cause conflict regarding its use and the consequential negative impacts might be too much to bear yet without anyone taking responsibility. Bartoluci *et al.* (2015:29) argue that natural resource protection should not be the burden of the tourism industry alone but all other environmental consumers should be concerned as well.

The authors opine that management of the environment is far more complicated as the environment is home to both renewable and non-renewable resources, the utilisation of which incorporates various stakeholders manifesting a complex interaction of interests which inhibit sustainability. However, the environment is of great importance to the tourism industry as it is to other sectors such that the tourism sector became the first industry to adopt the ethos and principles of sustainable development post-Rio summit with a skewed focus on the environment (Goodwin, 2009:75). Such an inclination on environmental sustainability is reflected in some of the localised sustainable tourism guideline documents cited by Edgell Sr. and Swanson (2013:154). An analysis of the documents; American Society of Travel Agents (ASTA)'s '*The Ten Commandments of Ecotourism*'; Centre for Sustainable Tourism's (CST) '*Pledge to travel green*'; and Canadian '*Code of Ethics and Guidelines for Sustainable Tourism*', reveal an emphasis on the environment.

While the ASTA and TIAC were first published much earlier in 1992, the documents are still very much in use. Therefore, the environmental focus of the sustainability guidelines still prevails and while the practice is not universal, it points to the reverence that the industry had placed on the environment. Such an emphasis partly stemmed from the earlier adverse effects that tourism had on the environment due to the rise in mass tourism.

There is a need to pause and reflect on what really constitute the principles of environmental sustainability in tourism. However, like economic sustainability, as discussed above, there are varied versions of understanding of environmental sustainability. The UNWTO (2004 in Perez *et al.*, 2013:316) conceptual definition of sustainable tourism development consider tourism's relationship with the environment to mean;

“Optimal use of environmental resources that constitute a key element in tourism development, maintaining essential ecological processes, and helping to conserve natural heritage and biodiversity”

McKercher (2003:5) states that the underlying environmental principle in tourism development is that; *“development is compatible with the maintenance of essential ecological process, biological diversity and biological resources”*. Grundey (2008:126) notes that *“tourism development must be combined with the objective to preserve the main ecological systems, variety and uniqueness of the landscape and natural resources”*. While there are more versions of the environmental principle of sustainable tourism (Edgell Sr. & Swanson, 2013; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013; Mowforth & Munt, 2016), the aim is to

highlight a general understanding of what environmental principle entails. Therefore, from the highlighted variations of environmental principles, it is deduced that the environment is a critical element in tourism development. However, such development should be compatible with all facets of the ecology through optimal use to achieve preservation for future generations. As Carter (1995) alluded, the crosscutting nature of tourism predispose it to have much greater interaction with the environment than other economic sectors. Such greater interaction is encapsulated in the focus of tools (which will be discussed later in this chapter) of sustainability which address and assess impacts of tourism on the environment such as; Environmental Impact Assessment, Area protection (which offers various protected area categories), carrying capacity calculations and visitor management techniques to name just a few (Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Michailidou, Vlachokostas, Moussiopoulos & Maleka, 2016). Perhaps the criticality of the environment in tourism is best captured by the English Tourist Board principle that “*the environment has an intrinsic value and its long-term survival must not be prejudiced by short-term considerations*” (Wight, 2002:223). Mowforth and Munt (2016:104) also note that environmental sustainability is “*the only way in which sustainability is publicly perceived*”. This perception of sustainability is manifested through the industry’s efforts in addressing their operational efficiencies in their interaction with the environment. Carbon off-setting, carbon emission trading, certification and ecotourism are some of the efforts by industry players in displaying sustainability credentials through environmental awareness (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:115).

3.5.3 Socio-cultural sustainability principles

Socio-cultural sustainability comprises of two components; social and cultural issues. Earlier in the chapter (see section 3.5), the two aspects were defined and discussions drew the reader to the academic literature’s division of their consideration of whether they should be measured as a single sustainability aspect or two. Nonetheless, what is clear is that both occur within and are components of the setting of the local residents and in such cases interrelatedness of the two aspects is inevitable. Furthermore, the addition of tourism further compounds the interaction and challenges the functioning of society harmonically. Bartoluci *et al.* (2015:30) contend that tourism historically started developing “based on social values” by bringing people together which consequently brought down racial, classes, cultural and boundary differences. The authors continue that tourism in society plays both a social (extend of interaction with visitors) and cultural (extend of influence by visitors on the values, culture and norms) function which propositions the need for socio-cultural sustainability. Socio-cultural sustainability follows the same dynamic and changing pattern of society’s development which therefore highlights the cause-effect relationship between the two (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013; Bartoluci *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, both tourism and society are tasked with preservation of socio-cultural values and such cannot be the preserve of one stakeholder.

The understanding of sustainability is that all three elements; economic, environmental and socio-cultural, should be balanced. Carmen (2012:513) proposes a model of sustainability planning which

highlights at its core connections between the three elements of sustainability. The author recognizes the connection of all elements depends on the efficiency of the connections between them. Carmen (2012) states that the 'connectors' are; socio-economic efficiency, socio-ecology efficiency and eco-economic efficiency. What then is paramount, is the criticality and centrality of social aspects in the model and that for sustainable tourism to be realised all the three interface efficiency connectors must be satisfactory. The author also argues that social actors' role in planning and collaboration of these actors is important in the improvement of environmental and economic performance. On the other hand, James (2015:13) contends that social sustainability incorporates all human activities which include economics, politics, culture and ecology and the relationship of these elements. The author critiques the triple-bottom-line approach for elevating economics even though rhetorically parity between all three elements is claimed. James (2015:13) argues that social domain situates all elements within itself due to the irony of humans wanting to dominate and control nature for economic benefit thereby putting their own future in jeopardy.

Nonetheless, despite the debate, socio-cultural sustainability just like economic and environmental elements discussed earlier has principles guiding it. The UNEP and UNWTO (2005:11) consider tourism as a principle to be able to interact with society thus; "*respect the socio-cultural authenticity of host communities, conserve their built and living cultural heritage and traditional values, and contribute to inter-cultural understanding and tolerance*". Furthermore, socio-cultural sustainability considers elements of local participation and education as inherent in tourism sustainability, as articulated by Agenda 21 (UNWTO, 2001). However, Mowforth and Munt (2016:105) argue that participation, education and aid to conservation are enabling conditions and not a component of any of the pillars.

3.6 TOOLS OF SUSTAINABILITY

The following section analyses tools used to measure and manage sustainability in tourism. As Mowforth and Munt (2016:114) mentioned, sustainability tools are non-exhaustive and the list given below therefore makes no claim to be complete.

3.6.1 Sustainable indicators

UNWTO (1995 in Torres-Delgado & Palomeque, 2014:125) defines indicators as "*quantitative, synthetic instrument that facilitates analysis and assessment of information in such a way that, when used in combination with other types of instruments, it enables decision-makers to reduce the likelihoods of inadvertently making poor decisions*". While sustainability indicators rose from the Earth Summit, they were more conventional and one-dimensional without giving the overall picture of development (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:119). Therefore, the authors contend that a more balanced approach was needed to link all sustainability elements; environmental, economic and socio-cultural issues which gave birth to 'sustainability indicators'. Indicators help decision-makers to plan and

manage an area by describing and measuring it within the set objective parameters to help understand the elements and processes within the area (Torres-Delgado & Palomeque, 2014:124). The authors continue to note that there two types of indicators; simple indicators, and synthetic indices. The former is a result of simple data processing presented statistically while the latter are a result of simple indicators combined using a weighting system to signify the importance of the components (Mikulic, Kozic & Kresic, 2014; Torres-Delgado & Palomeque, 2014:125). Mikulic *et al.* (2014:312) add that weighting of indicators is critical as the indicators do not have equal importance. There are two approaches to weighting indicator's importance; opinion based (subjective) and data-based (objective) (Perez *et al.*, 2013; Mikulic *et al.*, 2014). Perez *et al.* (2013) state that an indicator system needs to be defined and the definition has to include indicators to be used to evaluate each component of sustainability, as well as weighting of the indicators and the system, should have a certain degree of freedom. It is also important to involve all stakeholders in the development of tourism sustainability indicators especially local communities (Perez *et al.*, 2013; Mowforth & Munt, 2016). However, Mowforth and Munt (2016:120) argue that acceptance of indicators often is a challenge nonetheless, due to the persistent economic-centric, biases and manipulation of those leading their formulation to suit their needs. Notwithstanding that, the literature observes that formulation of indicators and selection is a negotiated process involving the participation of all stakeholders (Goodwin, 2009; Perez *et al.*, 2013; Mikulic *et al.*, 2014; Torres-Delgado & Palomeque, 2014; Mowforth & Munt, 2016).

3.6.2 Area protection

While most of the protected areas existed prior to the advent of sustainable tourism, their use was to preserve nature, wildlife and their habitat. In fact, as mentioned in chapter 1, it was only in 1982 that tourism was used as a basis for a protected area's establishment (Cochrane, 2009). As such, much of the area protection was instigated by environmentalists and conservationists, yet they are still consistent with the values and principles of sustainable tourism especially as tourism's interaction with natural areas is growing in importance (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:113). Eagles, McCool and Haynes (2002) argue that the challenges for managers is to ensure visitors maintain protected area's values when they partake in tourism activities. While area protection has since increased into varying categories and statuses as tools for sustainable tourism, there have been varying degrees of success in their efficiency. Mowforth and Munt (2016:113) observe that even though countries with more land protected in proportion to their landmass are construed to be more sustainable, the reality is not always the case. The authors highlight resource availability as a critical element in the functioning and efficiency of area protection in sustaining tourism. Countries such as Guatemala and Brazil exemplify a scenario of a high proportion of area protected with little success for their efforts (Mowforth & Munt, 2016). Conversely, Butts and Sukhdeo-Singh (2010:173) note the success of conservation and sustainable development by the inhabitants of the Amazon rainforest on the Guyana side over the

years without area protection because practising sustainability principles is their way of life and their livelihoods depend on the rainforest. Nonetheless, area protection is integral to sustainable tourism, especially where nature and its inhabitants are the objects of interest. However, protection alone without funding management efforts erodes its efficiency as a sustainability tool.

3.6.3 Industry regulation

Regulation of the industry can be done through four avenues; “government legislation, professional association regulations, international control and regulation and voluntary self-regulation” (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:114). Brokaj (2014:105) and Mowforth and Munt (2016:115) allude to the gap between planning and implementation in sustainable tourism which stems from the lack of commitment due to absence in legislative instruments. Such inculcate a laissez-faire attitude amongst stakeholders which frustrates sustainable tourism development in the process. Mowforth and Munt (2016:115) assert that “*government legislation is intrinsically political*” in nature and that means political willpower needs to be present. Otherwise, the result will be half-hearted attempts leading to “fragmented legislation and ineffective regulation” which frustrate sustainable tourism development (Muhanna, 2006:15). International organisations such as UNWTO and UNEP offer regulatory frameworks as well as technical expertise on regulation formulation to foster the development of sustainable tourism through publications like “Making Tourism more Sustainable: A Guide for Policy Makers” (UNEP & WTO, 2005: UNWTO, 2017). Furthermore, Agenda 21 for travel and tourism was formulated through a multi-stakeholder process involving UNWTO, World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) and Earth Council and has since become a cornerstone of many legislative instruments by national tourism associations, industry organisations and travel and tourism companies the world over (Goodwin, 2009:75). This goes to demonstrate the role of professional associations such as WTTC in fostering industry regulation to manage sustainable tourism. The professional organisations are also at the forefront of self-regulation that aims to pre-empt often debilitating government legislation. An example of this self-regulation is the 2002 report “Industry as a partner for Sustainable Development”, a multi-stakeholder process involving UNEP, WTTC, International Federation of Tour Operators (IFTO), International Hotel & Restaurant Association (IH&RA) and International Council of Cruise Lines (ICCL). Likewise, the Global Sustainable Tourism Criteria (GSTC), which is the work of 32 tourism organisations, which was developed as a minimum standard that all tourism companies should aspire to in order to sustain tourism resources, is another good example of efforts to self-regulate the industry (Goodwin, 2009: 80).

3.6.4 Visitor management techniques

Movement and the presence of tourists often pose a threat to sustainable tourism. While tourism is necessary to create income for resource management, it also requires management to limit the negative impacts it might cause. A suite of visitor management techniques has been prescribed in the

literature (Eagles *et al.*, 2002; UNEP & WTO, 2005; Candrea & Ispas, 2009; Cochrane, 2009; Mowforth & Munt, 2016). These include zoning, rationing, site hardening, and vehicle restriction. Visitor management techniques are, therefore, prevalent in protected areas to guard against the degradation of the natural and cultural resources. According to Cochrane (2009:46) zoning is used to section an area according to its ability to withstand visitor pressure. The author notes that more fragile areas will be restricted or have limited access to protect them while traffic is diverted to more robust areas. Rationing on the other hand is used to control the influx of visitors to an area through pricing mechanisms that control a particular market (for example high paying clients instead of casual campers – prevalent in use in Botswana’s protected area tourism), limit on amount of accommodation facilities (also used in Botswana) and accrediting service providers to the area (Candrea & Ispas, 2009:134; Cochrane, 2009:49).

Another form of managing visitors is hardening the site of visitation, especially where tourism is limited to such an area which prompts high traffic and increased chances of degradation (Cochrane, 2009). In such a case, the surfacing of footpaths and roads can be done to make them physically robust to withstand pressure (Eagles *et al.*, 2002; UNEP & WTO, 2005). Mowforth and Munt (2016:116) note that the current trend in visitor management is to restrict motor vehicles especially in areas that attract nature lovers. The technique helps to lower noise pollution and carbon emissions which works favourably for sustainability. Nonetheless, it is to be noted that the list of techniques is not limited to the ones given above and application of multiple techniques is possible given the prevailing conditions in the area. The literature notes four strategic approaches to visitor management which inform the techniques to use; managing the supply of tourism or tourism opportunities (increasing the space or time to accommodate more visitors), managing the demand for visitation (by restricting numbers, length of stay or activities), managing the resource capabilities to handle use (through hardening the site or increasing facilities) and managing the impact of use (through re-distributing visitors) (UNEP & WTO, 2005:88; Candrea & Ispas, 2009:134).

3.6.5 Carrying capacity

Cochrane (2009:51) defines carrying capacity as the “*maximum population size that an environment can support at a particular time with no degradation to the habitat*”. The definition is closer to the UNWTO definition in 1981 which expands on the environment factor to include physical, economic and socio-cultural and further places the visitor satisfaction quality at the centre of the capacity debate (Cochrane, 2009; Maggi & Fredella, 2010; Castellani & Sala, 2012). Though the concept polarises debates in terms of application and definition in the tourism space, there is a consensus that there are different types of tourism carrying capacity. Fletcher *et al.* (2013:230) point out five types as physical, environmental, socio-cultural, tourist flow and economic. Cochrane (2009:51) also identifies a similar number of types but different categorisation namely; physical-ecological (number of tourists an ecological environment can hold), socio-demographic (number of tourism properties before locals

feel alienated), social/psychological (number of visitors to a village before local and traditional values are changed), aesthetic/psychological (Number of visitors to a heritage site before it feels crowded) and political-economic (the capacity of tourism facilities in a location that can support a major event).

Nevertheless, carrying capacity's effectiveness in tourism has been questioned due to the concept's origin in biology and rangeland ecology and whether it is applicable in tourism. The argument has revolved around the issue of capacity which in terms of humans (visitors) is difficult to articulate due to the heterogeneity of impacts as opposed to animals which may display high homogeneity of impacts (Cochrane, 2009; Maggi & Fredella, 2010). Mowforth and Munt (2016:117) argue that the carrying capacity calculations can be easily manipulated by tourism stakeholders to fit their agenda and interest, while Lindberg, McCool and Stankey, (1997) allude to its vagueness as it can be interpreted and measured differently in different circumstances by different people. However, Fletcher *et al.* (2013:232) argue that the best way to deal with ambiguity of the concept is to use 'tourism units' which "*is a standardised concept based upon tourist numbers weighted by some composite factor*" derived from elements such as length of stay, types of activity, degree of seasonality and characteristics of tourists and hosts. This way the author argues that understanding into the tourism activity threshold levels can be achieved. Mowforth and Munt (2016:106) note the use of carrying capacity calculations to determine physical-ecological capacity at the Guayabo national monument, Costa Rica. Managers at the Costa Rica case study used the length of stay by visitors, multiplied by number of visitors per square metre and multiplied again by duration of the visit. This successfully helped the managers to determine the number of visits they could allow per day (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:107).

3.6.6 Certification

Font, Sanabria and Skinner (2003:213) define tourism certification as "*the process of providing documented assurance that a product, service or organisation complies with a given standard*". The tourism industry has seen a proliferation of tourism certification schemes since the setting up of Green Globe 21 in 1994 by WTTC as a certification process espousing the values of ISO standards and Agenda 21 to engender sustainable development in the tourism industry (WTTC, IFTO, IHRA, ICCL & UNEP, 2002; Goodwin, 2009:79). Jarvis, Weeden and Simcock (2010: 83) note that by 2002 there were over a hundred tourism certification schemes globally with twenty of them based in the UK alone. The status quo intensified calls for accreditation of the schemes which are voluntary in nature, fragmented and some of which have questionable practices (Jarvis *et al.*, 2010). As alluded earlier, the Global Sustainability Tourism Criteria (GSTC) was a response by UNEP and UNWTO to establish minimum sustainability standards for businesses and an effort to bring credibility to the self-regulatory process by the industry. However, Goodwin (2009: 80-81) notes weaknesses in GSTC as the criteria is nothing more than a 'wish list' without a guide of how to achieve the criteria nor the presence of a reporting mechanism. The author continues to state that there is too much variation and no ranking

of the criteria coupled with no clear process for consumers to know what is achieved and no rights by the consumer to seek redress when standards claimed are not met. Notwithstanding the critic, certification schemes are still used in the industry and accredited by various international bodies and used by companies to display their level of attainment of the goals of sustainable tourism development. BTO (2019) launched the eco-tourism certification programme in 2009 focusing on two standards (accommodation standards – for fixed tourism facilities) and the eco-tour standards (for mobile operators). The programme saw a higher uptake in the Okavango delta and by 2012, 55% of the total accommodation facilities (safari lodges) had some form of certification (BTO, 2019). The programme offered three levels of certification; Green (basic level), Green + (intermediate level) and eco-tourism (higher level).

3.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter aimed to analyse sustainable tourism development. Therefore, in achieving the aim, the background of sustainability and definition of the concept of sustainable tourism were given. Through this background analysis, it was discovered how the global village responded to curb consumption of resources spiralling out of control. The response culminated in a world summit, paved the way for various industries including tourism, to consider their resource use and their impacts on the environment and social wellbeing. Therefore, sustainable tourism was anchored in the three principles of ecological, economic and socio-cultural sustainability. These three pillars, also known as the triple-bottom-line, have guided the development of the industry yet creating an optimal balance between them has often been an enduring issue in the sector. The industry, therefore, offered a suite of tools to help in addressing the conundrum faced in actioning sustainable tourism. While evidence from literature demonstrates that the tools are not an end by themselves, they offer a platform to build a sustainable future for the industry. The tools are also not mutually exclusive but inter-relate and can be applied together as the context dictates. Furthermore, the concept and practice of sustainable tourism can be applied in a variety of settings including niche tourism products as well as community-based tourism which will be further analysed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4:

Community-Based Tourism (CBT) development

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Community-Based Tourism (hereafter referred to as CBT) centres around tourism management that elevates the role of communities in resource management to achieve conservation through benefit recognition. The concept also espouses sustainability in that what is successfully conserved is sustained. However, not all CBT projects are successful which ultimately puts conservation efforts and sustainability in danger. In fact, the literature notes donor dependence in many CBT initiatives which will lead them to collapse once the flow of donor funds dries up (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Lenao, 2015). This then means what challenges the initiatives should be known and mitigation proposed. As discussed in chapter 1 (see section 1.2), community based tourism is anchored on utilisation of wildlife resources through the CBNRM programme. However, for wildlife resources to be conserved, community participation and involvement is needed. Therefore, CBT in Botswana brings together these aspects of wildlife resources and community participation for conservation to be realised. It is this unique character of CBT that makes it critical in the formulation of the sustainable strategy as outlined in the aim of the study. This chapter, creates an understanding of CBT and its link to the goal of the study.

Therefore, this chapter aims to review literature concerning CBT as a component of tourism development and how it fits into the sustainability agenda. Discussions will also highlight the characteristics of CBT, benefits, challenges and finally consider CBT models that have been used in the past to drive the discourse. As Harwood (2010:2) opined, CBT involves community's involvement in the planning, execution and management of initiatives which calls for an interrogation of how such aspects are addressed by the different models in CBT development.

4.2 COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM AND SUSTAINABILITY

The two concepts of sustainability and CBT, are both development paradigms as well as planning approaches. While there is a convergence of ideas between sustainable and community-based approach in that they both advocate for community involvement and shared benefit, sustainable approach further espouses the ecological consideration which makes all the three elements, namely economic, socio-cultural and environmental, pivotal. Hall (2000) opines that the approach is holistic and coherent as it focuses on a balance of the three bottom-line elements. On the other hand, community-based tourism considers local control through a bottom-up form "*which emphasised development in the community instead of development for the community*" (Sharma, 2004:71).

Furthermore, CBT espouses two forms of community involvement; generation of benefits from tourism development and involvement in the decision-making process (Andriotis, 2007). Dangi and Jamal (2016:10) allude to the focus on community involvement of CBT as well while adding that it “*applies the objectives of sustainable tourism*”. The authors further state that both concepts have similarities, conceptually and practically, in that they share a common definitional clarification, multiple stakeholders needed to drive them and are influenced by international organisations. However, sustainable tourism has a more international focus and is often criticised for being business-centric while CBT is more locally-focused and promoting grassroots development through indigenous knowledge and entrepreneurship (Dangi & Jamal, 2016:12). Nonetheless, the United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) and United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2005) view sustainability as applicable to any form of tourism even CBT, a view espoused by the Silva and Wimalaratana (2013) and Dangi and Jamal (2016:12) by advocating for sustainable community-based tourism concept as a more comprehensive approach to tourism development. Therefore, the next section takes a closer look at the different aspects and definitions of CBT.

4.3 DEFINING COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM

Community-based tourism is varied in its interpretation. As alluded earlier, the concept is an off-shoot of the alternative development paradigm which gave birth to numerous concepts whose differentiation is often ambiguous. However, while there is variation in the definitions, its cause is not due to ambiguity but rather application. The concept is noted to be applied too broadly, too narrow and anything in between (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009:12). The authors further opined that there are variations in interpretation between academics and industry practitioners. Furthermore, community-based tourism is often applied together with other alternative development concepts. Studies demonstrate that it is linked to ‘indigenous tourism’ (Taylor, 2017), ecotourism (Jones, 2005; Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014; Liu, Qu, Huang, Chen, Yue, Zhao & Liang, 2014), sustainable tourism (Silva & Wimalaratana, 2013; Dangi & Jamal, 2016) and cultural tourism (Lenao, 2015). This goes to show that while the aforementioned are niche markets, CBT is a planning, management and development approach which transcends niches but rather can be applied to drive such niche products.

The literature gives a plethora of definitions which will be analysed in this section. Goodwin and Santilli (2009:12) defined it as “*tourism owned and/or managed by communities and intended to deliver wider community benefits*” The authors based their definition on the findings of a study to evaluate the success of CBT projects in which they found out that the majority are community owned or managed with the sole purpose of benefiting those communities. Thailand CBT Institute (2013:2) defined the concept as “*Tourism that takes environmental, social and cultural sustainability into account. It is owned and managed by the community, for the community with the purpose of enabling visitors to*

increase their awareness and learn about the community and the locals' way of life". The Thailand CBT Institute is an organisation directly involved and advises on CBT issues, and therefore bring a practitioner's perspective. The Institute's definition draws a similarity with the work of Goodwin and Santilli (2009) on issues of community ownership, management and collective benefits but further brings in elements of sustainability and visitor's role. Indeed, Dangi and Jamal (2016:5) allude to the convergence of the principles of CBT and sustainability especially on "*host communities, equity and cultural recognition*" while also admitting that there are other different aspects of the two concepts as well. The Mountain Institute (2000:1) offers a broad definition of CBT as Goodwin and Santilli (2009:1) had indicated before and described CBT as "*a variety of activities that encourage and support a wide range of objectives in economic, social development and conservation*". The definition, unlike the ones previously mentioned leaves out the community aspect probably because it is implied in the term 'social development'. Nonetheless, 'variety of activities' and 'wide range of objectives' are too broad terms which provide no specifics. Another definition is offered by Harwood (2010:2) who opines that CBT "*centres on the involvement of the host community in the planning, construction, maintenance and management aspects of tourism development*". The author further added that Harwood (2010) definition implies ownership, control and involvement in the planning process while also linking the concept to community engagement and planning procedure as espoused by the literature.

Goodwin and Santilli (2009) are of the opinion that there are two differences that distinguish CBT projects from conventional investments; community-level collective benefits and empowerment of communities. However, the literature (Harwood, 2010; Taylor, 2017) further brings out the element of the effectiveness of tourism and its relevance in advancing conservation and social development goals as aspects that distinguish CBT. While such a position is not universally held, there are some authors who caution against the indiscriminate advancement of tourism as a development strategy for communities without due diligence of its viability in an area (Harwood, 2010), effectiveness in delivering set objectives (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009) and its viability as a sustainable tool to advance community development (Taylor, 2017). Nonetheless, the opposing argument is that such views are true and consistent with conventional tourism which failed to trickle-down to the poor (Zapata, Hall, Lindo & Vanderschaeghe, 2011). Zapata *et al.* (2011) contend that CBT projects run the risk of suffering a similar fate if they adopt a top-down approach as opposed to bottom-up approach. The bottom-up approach projects were observed to fare better in reducing poverty even though they faced similar challenges. Therefore, from the above-mentioned definitions the keywords defining CBT are; *community ownership and management, accrual of community benefits, increase in visitor awareness, support economic, socio-cultural and environmental goals as well as bottom-up approach.*

4.3.1 Characteristics of community-based tourism

CBT initiatives have been noted to share similar characteristics which helped to define them as CBT projects. Therefore, the section below offer an analysis of the characteristics of CBT (funding, development and engagement).

4.3.1.1 External funding

While donor funding is not necessarily a requirement in starting and capitalising CBT projects, the commonality in the presence of funding from external development agencies is documented in studies that have analysed these projects (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015). The dominant players in this sphere are mostly development agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) whose main mandate is to aid development in marginalised areas within less developed countries. Such funding is necessitated by the initial capital needs required to start-up projects of this magnitude which communities often cannot afford (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008).

4.3.1.2 Community development

As a critical element and the reason to devolve tourism resource management to communities, community development is synonymous with CBT. In fact, CBT as one of the alternative development approaches emerged to counter the failure of conventional/mass-tourism to develop peripheral communities. Giampiccoli, Saayman and Jugmohan (2016) assert that CBT is an avenue to holistic community development. Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2013:3) add that such development in communities is characterised by “*empowerment, self-reliance, social justice, sustainability, freedom*” to name but a few. Furthermore, Harwood (2010) contends that part of the development involves removal of constraints to participation to enable community members to be capacitated through gender equality, employment, training and education as well as participation in planning. Goodwin and Santilli (2009) in their paper draw a distinction between livelihoods and local economic development. They argue that livelihoods deal with individuals and households whereas local development is about broad economic effects on communities. The understanding is that the two concepts are not mutually exclusive as positive impacts on community development improve livelihoods. Nonetheless, the literature notes a conundrum in measuring success of CBT in achieving community development (Jones, 2005; Kontogergopoulos, Churyen and Duangsaeng, 2014; Taylor, 2017). Conventional measurements seem to favour financial aspects in gauging performance and exclude qualitative aspects such as social capital (trust, cooperation, innovation due to togetherness of social groups). In fact, Kontogergopoulos *et al.* (2014) argue that a different outcome will be reached if the two metrics are used in isolation in the same case study. Nevertheless, community

development remains the pinnacle in CBT regardless of the measurement metrics used though sustainability remains key. Goodwin and Santilli (2009) observed that local economic development was ranked first or second by a third of respondents in a study which analysed successful CBT initiatives, an outcome which demonstrates the importance of community development in CBT.

4.3.1.3 Community engagement

Zapata *et al.* (2011) argue that in CBT, both the top-down and bottom-up approach of development is prevalent. In their analysis of CBT projects in Nicaragua, the authors found that bottom-up modelled projects were initiated and funded by local businesses and experienced greater growth compared to top-down projects which are externally initiated and funded. However, while community engagement characterised both models, the engagement level differs and it was observed that top-down engages wide sections of the community. According to Zapata *et al.* (2011) the type of engagement was more critical in that the local bottom-up initiatives had more local control in all aspects of the project operations than the top-down projects. Which meant that quality engagement is more empowering than passive. Therefore, a bottom-up approach is more in line with community needs and it is the desired approach. Harwood (2010) and Ndlovu (2015) conceded that community influence and participation is paramount in all aspects of a project. Indeed, the Thailand CBT Institute (2013) bolsters the community engagement idea by mentioning three criteria in CBT; community located or situated (geographically located within the community); presence of ownership by one or more members of the community (community members involved in ownership); and community managed projects to influence decision-making. Therefore, engagement and participation should permeate all levels of the project operations to be meaningful to members of the community.

4.3.2 Challenges of community-based tourism

It is easy to assume that CBT is without problems, but studies have chronicled the challenges faced by CBT projects in various parts of the globe (Mbaiwa, 2004b; 2004c; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Stone & Stone, 2011; Lenao, 2015; Ndlovu, 2015). There have been numerous challenges faced by CBT projects that the literature has done well to document. Nonetheless, Goodwin and Santilli (2009) argue that while CBT has been the preferred model of development in peripheral regions, little monitoring and evaluation of the performance of the projects has been done. This means initiatives are often allowed to run without their future sustainability being ascertained. The status quo is more poignant when one considers the costs that communities bear to be able to participate in the projects. The studies that have evaluated CBT projects (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Stone & Stone, 2011; Lenao, 2015;) have noted challenges that impede the success of the initiatives in general. These will be discussed next.

4.3.2.1 Donor dependence

As previously indicated, most of the literature notes that CBT projects are not only externally initiated but are also externally funded. This has helped to capitalise the projects financially and aided them to get off the ground. However, the majority of these are dependent on such support so much that without external funds they will cease to exist (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Rainforest Alliance & Conservation International, ND in Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Lenao, 2015). Mitchell and Muckosy (2008) opined that such a status quo is prevalent across projects in Latin America, Africa and Asia and they mask the grim reality that they lacked financial viability in the first place. Goodwin and Santilli (2009)'s study demonstrates the magnitude of the problem by noting the response of managers and experts who ranked financial viability 6th and 5th respectively as an important criterion for success of a CBT project. While financial viability can be attributed to multiple factors, project feasibility studies could be questioned because elements of non-viability could have been addressed at the planning stage. This is more distressing given the community trade-off made in adapting CBT which often means traditional subsistence livelihoods are abandoned in favour of tourism. Lenao (2015) states that the Gang'O trust's Lekhubu Island project in Botswana has only managed to turn a profit once in 15 years and only survived from donor funds. The author attributed this lack of success to challenges such as "*lack of communication between stakeholders*" and incompatibility of developments to the site, given that the area was a protected heritage site (Lenao, 2015:39). The author further questioned the project's long-term sustainability as external funding has recently been hard to source due to financial institution's classification of Botswana as an upper-middle-class country.

4.3.2.2 Market issues

Often an attribute of lack of financial viability, market issues can be listed as; market access, marketing skills and isolation from mainstream tourism industry (Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015). Market access is a critical element for any business, but which is more profound in tourism as the consumer must travel to the producer for production to occur. Therefore, market awareness of the product and ability to access such is an essential element in the success of any tourism project as this affects visitor numbers. In most cases, the further away the market, the more resources are required to reach it. Zapata *et al.* (2011) note two projects in Nicaragua which had contrasting outcomes due to accessibility to the market. In such a scenario, a project tailored and marketed to the domestic market experienced rapid growth as opposed to the one focused on the international market. Nonetheless, that is not to say communication and access to external markets are impossible, especially if one is disposed to requisite marketing skills. However, such skills are in scarcity in most CBT projects not only within community members but even practitioners working in CBT projects have no knowledge of the tourism market (Ashley & Goodwin, 2007 in Stone & Stone,

2011). Lenao (2015) also notes in his study that a respondent from the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC) was ignorant of how his CBT project was marketed as they rely on the efforts of the National Tourism Organisation. Furthermore, Mbaiwa (2004c:45) noted that community-based organisations (CBOs) in Botswana sell hunting quotas cheaply to operators, who then sell them to their clients as a package for ten times more, due to lack of managerial and marketing skills. The importance of commercial marketing skills and their lack thereof in CBT initiatives can never be overemphasised (Keyser, 2009; Mbaiwa, 2004c).

Another market-related issue is the isolation of CBT projects from the mainstream tourism industry. The projects can benefit from accessing the same market that mainstream tourism businesses bring in if only they work together. Zapata *et al.* (2011) decried projects that are too far removed from tourism routes such that accessing them is a challenge, a sentiment shared Goodwin and Santilli (2009) who add that this is a consequence of viewing CBT as an alternative to mainstream tourism, isolating itself and limiting access to the market in the process.

4.3.2.3 Governance

Mitchell and Muckosy (2008:1) work on CBT in Latin America, brings the governance issue to the fore. They opine that due to the cumbersome nature of collective management and external influence from funders, there is “imposition of democratic and institutional form on communities” which fail to have any meaningful impact. Such top-down imposition fails as traditional governance structures are not taken into consideration. In fact, it is argued that 40% of CBT projects fail to involve communities in decision making (Rainforest Alliance & Conservation International, ND in Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008). Stone and Stone (2011) noted that 95% of residents in communities that make up Khama Rhino Sanctuary trust in Botswana had no idea their community-owned the project, a problem the authors attribute to elite dominance, as well as lack of transparency and involvement of communities.

Ndlovu (2015) also contends that power relations and transparency issues are the culprits in building trust and equity in CBT. However, the mode of participation and involvement can inculcate inefficiencies in the management of CBT projects instead of alleviating problems. Lenao (2015) noted a lack of skills in management by board members in Gang’O trust owing to the mode of selection which failed to ascribe minimum qualification to the selected individuals. Such a selection criterion fails to account for the capability of individuals in favour of their social standing much to the detriment of the project’s success. The noted selection process of participants results in deficiency of management skills such as maintaining financial records (Zapata *et al.*, 2011), marketing (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Lenao, 2015) and failure to see opportunities availed by mainstream tourism (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011). The CBT projects deemed

successful, in fact are those that abandoned collective management structures in favour of 'conventional management systems' (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008:1).

4.3.3 Benefits of community-based tourism

While the challenges are acknowledged, CBT is also noted to accrue benefits to communities both economically and in a non-economic way. Some of the benefits are discussed below.

4.3.3.1 Economic benefits

Often the economic benefits of projects are linked to their level of success. Nonetheless, in CBT projects, profitability need not be the only measure of economic benefits. As such even donor dependent projects as noted earlier (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Stone & Stone, 2011) have accrued some form of benefits to communities either collectively or individually. Employment is the dominant form of benefit displayed by CBT. However, in some projects, the impact of employment is minimal and fails to extend beyond those directly involved in the project. For example, Stone and Stone (2001) noted that only 48 individuals were employed in the Khama Rhino Sanctuary project from the three participating villages, a number that has not changed much since the project inception in 1992. Taylor (2017) presented a more optimistic figure of 70 individuals in a Mexican village which benefited eleven households. Nonetheless, Zapata *et al.* (2011:727) opine that CBT can still provide an important complementary source of income though it is not the envisioned "*solution for all impoverished areas*". Where tourism benefits extend beyond the project itself to encompass sale of handicrafts and other products, its impacts can be felt community-wide. Such impacts can be communal such as infrastructural development or provision of a nurse and a clinic and electricity transmission as was the case in Taffi Atome, Ghana (Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014). However, caution is advised that dependency on tourism should be minimised to avoid economic vulnerability (Zapata *et al.*, 2011). The Mountain Institute (2000) illustrated the relationship between resource conservation and community actions by placing benefits at the centre to indicate they incentivise actions. Such a rationale is premised on the notion that communities' actions to conservation are a response to tangible benefits accrued to them which makes preserving the resource worthwhile. Therefore, economic benefits are crucial which explains to some extent the reasoning behind supporting often donor-dependent projects, as they accrue benefits to communities and help stop indiscriminate resource extraction.

4.3.3.2 Non-economic benefits

The following non-economic benefits will be explained next, namely; environmental benefits, skills development and social capital.

4.3.3.2.1 Benefits to the environment

One of the benefits of CBT is the preservation of natural areas and their resources (Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014; Ndlovu, 2015; Taylor, 2017). The benefit to the environment and its resources is a culmination of understanding the link between resource utilisation and income benefits. Taylor (2017:441) notes the reforestation of the land “with plants that are used as both commercial products and for the improvement of forested areas surrounding the village” as a demonstration of the consciousness of the importance of natural resources. Afenyo and Amuquandoh (2014) and Ndlovu (2015) also note a similar observation which is attributable to awareness due to participation and accrual of economic benefits. DWNP (2010:102) note the positive impact of community escort guides in sustaining the environment. The community guides enforce regulations by ensuring that photographic guides drive in the designated game viewing tracks and trophy hunters follow stipulated hunting regulations (DWNP, 2010). The community guides are appointed and paid by CBT projects and this ensure that the environment is sustained. Mensah (2017) also note the positive impact of a community based ecotourism project in Mesomagor, Ghana. The community stopped logging and subsistence hunting within the local national park due to benefits being derived from the ecotourism enterprise within the park. However, where a project’s primary provider of products and services is based on the extraction of the said natural resources, it can lead to over-harvesting. Mbaiwa’s (2004b) study of a basket-making project in the Okavango Delta, Botswana observed that the craft has led to over-harvesting and scarcity of the palm tree whose leaves are used in making the baskets, so much that weavers had to travel in excess of 15km to harvest the plant. In such a case, an increase in the numbers of those participating in the craft, though economically beneficial, meant increased pressure on the environment.

4.3.3.2.2 Skills development

CBT participation also benefits community members by improving and imparting skills, especially in management and administration. In most cases, CBT projects are situated in peripheral areas where skilled personnel are scarce. Even where educated residents are available, they often choose to pursue better-paying opportunities in urban centres away from their communities (Lenao, 2015). This creates a skills gap, which compels project facilitators to train members in order to address the issue. The realisation that project success is dependent on the sharing of skills with community members for sustainability becomes a catalyst for project funders to invest in skills capacity building. However, certain skills can only be attained over time especially management skills which cause projects to depend on external technical expertise to ensure fulfilment of goals while community members accrue skills. Harrison and Schipani (2007) note this high-level assistance in a project in People Democratic Republic of Lao as the one responsible for its success. Nevertheless, assimilation of knowledge in such instances is bound to occur which will not only be relevant and useful for project success but

become a lifelong skill (Ndlovu, 2015). The author further noted that participation in CBT is not just a one-way knowledge accumulation process but rather a “cross-fertilisation of ideas with other cultures” (Ndlovu, 2015: 26) either between community members and technical experts or between host and guest. This, in turn, leads to the promotion of understanding and respect of diverse cultures.

4.3.3.2.3 Social Capital

Another benefit of CBT that accrues to community members is a concept the literature acknowledge is highly complex to measure called ‘social capital’ (Jones, 2005; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Kontogergopoulos *et al.*, 2014; Taylor, 2017). The concept is a sociological attempt to consider social aspects much the same way financial and environmental are considered relevant. However, it has gained a reputation for being a ‘slippery concept’ (Johnson & Percy-Smith, 2003 in Jones, 2005) while at the same time it’s importance has been taunted as “the missing link” in development (Jones, 2005). Social capital is understood to “refer to the degree of connectedness and the quality and quantity of social relations that lead to constructive outcome for the group” (Jones, 2005:306). Liu *et al.* (2014) illuminate that the concept describes the interactions of people in a group with each other to bring collective and individual benefit. Taylor (2017: 438) on the other hand considers the concept as linking the participation benefits from a theoretical view with “the actual success of the community-based approach”. The concept can also be understood through two dimensions; cognitive and structural (Jones, 2005; Liu *et al.*, 2014; Musavengane & Matikiti, 2015). Liu *et al.* (2014:191) simply clarify the two dimensions as; “cognitive social capital refers to what people feel while structural social capital relates to what they do”. Several studies highlight how social capital became a benefit to communities through participation in CBT. Meaningful interactions were observed in a community in South Africa due to involvement in CBT (Hwang, 2012), others noted attitude change towards pro-environmental behaviour (Liu *et al.*, 2014), improvement in trust, norms, equity and rule of law (Jones, 2005) and creating a conducive environment for visitors sufficient to promote a destination’s image (Musavengane & Matikiti, 2015). In conclusion of their paper, Musavengane and Matikiti (2015) noted that social capital is crucial and central to the success of CBT projects as both the norms and structures emerging from the interactions change individual behaviours for the better, a sentiment shared by Liu *et al.* (2014).

4.3.4 Success factors in community-based tourism

Various authors propose what they purport to be determinants of CBT success (The Mountain Institute, 2000; Rozemeijer, 2001 in Salazar, 2012; Hitchins & Highstead, 2005 in Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Manyara & Jones, 2007; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Kibicho, 2008; Nitikasetsoontorn, 2014; Kontogergopoulos *et al.*, 2014; Ndlovu, 2015). However, while CBT challenges are numerous and are universally common among the various projects already undertaken, success factors are not so

uniform. The underlying reason for this problem is that no set of criteria has been formulated to measure success (Manyara & Jones, 2007). This leaves such a determination of what constitutes success either with experts, researchers or the communities themselves. Taylor (2017:434) argues that the difficulty in measuring success stems from using the triple-bottom-line (TBL) approach which fails to effectively account for “*local differences in defining a successful project or variations in access to capital within the community*”. Furthermore, some approaches by researchers prioritize quantitative measurement (especially monetary) and neglect non-monetary benefits accrued (Taylor, 2017; Jones, 2005). Therefore, both quantitative and qualitative approaches to measuring success are acknowledged in this section and what are considered as determinants indiscriminate of approach taken.

Table 4.1 highlights the variations in the purported determinants of success. What is prominent about the analysis of the determinants is that they are not only destination-specific but also project or community-specific. Different conditions specific to communities’ influence factors that determine success. Therefore, each community needs its own specific model. For example, while Kontogergopoulos *et al.* (2014) noted the importance of external support in their study, Nitikasetsoontorn (2014) reported that it had no effect on some of the four case study projects neither directly or indirectly. This is despite the fact that both studies were conducted in Thailand albeit at various locations. Furthermore, even between sites in the same location, there is variance in success factors as was observed by Nitikasetsoontorn (2014). Nonetheless, there are commonality of factors upon analysis of the reported studies. Economic viability, environmental sustainability, equitable distribution of benefits, community empowerment or participation, as well as the presence of leadership, are crucial as they are observed across most of the studies highlighted in Table 4.1. The case studies that informed the success factors as observed in Table 4.1 are spread across the African and Asian continent and they also cover the triple bottomline pillars of sustainability. This, therefore, reinforce the understanding that CBT and sustainability are linked.

Table 4.1: Various success factors in CBT projects

| Author (s) | SUCCESS FACTORS IDENTIFIED in CBT |
|---|--|
| <p>Rozemeijer (2001 in Salazar, 2012) from a study of three sites in Botswana</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic viability • Environmental sustainability • Equitably distributing costs and benefits to all participants of the activity • Consolidation of institutions through transparency, recognition by all stakeholders and representative of all community's interests |
| <p>Hitchins & Highstead (2005 in Goodwin & Santilli, 2009) from a Namibian study</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Location in a prime area • Proximity to tourism routes • Links to the private sector • Narrow ownership structures |
| <p>Manyara & Jones (2007:641) observed from another case study in Kenya</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Awareness and sensitisation, • Community empowerment, • Leadership, • Capacity building • An appropriate policy framework. |
| <p>Kibicho (2008:218) work done Kenya</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusion of stakeholders • Recognition of individual and mutual benefits • Appointment of legitimate convener • Formulation of aims and objectives • The perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented |
| <p>Silva & Wimalaratana (2013) observed from a study in Sri Lanka</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Market issues (identification of attractions that are tourist-friendly, uniqueness, ability to cater to different visitors) • Prioritization of ecological sustainability where positives are maximised and negative minimised |

| | |
|---|--|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Financial matters (funds for infrastructural development and start-up capital) • Distribution of benefits and opportunities (employment, business opportunities arising from activities undertaken) • Availability of skills (quality of human capital) |
| Kontogergopoulos et al. (2014) work done in Thailand | <p>The Authors acknowledge that all five (5) of Kibicho's factors (Mentioned above) were evident in their case study but extend them with three additional factors identified as;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking advantage of fortunate circumstances (geographical or historical) • The necessity of external support • Transformational leadership |
| Nitikasetsoontorn, (2014) from a study of projects in Thailand | <p>The author found ten (10) factors across different projects yet not common to all;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation in decision-making processes, • Local ownership, • Local innovation, • Collective responsibility, • Sharing of resources, • Sharing of benefits among members, • Leadership and management, • Partnership and outside support, • Achieving authenticity, • As well as achieving distinction |

Source: Author's own compilation (Adopted from Kibicho, 2008; Kontogergopoulos et al., 2014; Manyara & Jones, 2007; Nitikasetsoontorn, 2014; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Salazar, 2012; Silva & Wimalaratana, 2013)

4.3.5 Community participation

What is also critical in the development of CBT, which the models seem to highlight is the role of actors. While it is presumed that communities by virtue of them being beneficiaries in CBT, play a central or leading role in the management of the ventures, the reality is rather grim. Most CBT projects are characterised by external initiators with communities playing a lesser role especially in the initial stages of projects (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). This, therefore, brings to the fore the concept of community participation and the level of participation in aiding CBT and sustainable development. The concept is understood variably by different authors but central to such attempts are the issues of involvement, engagement and power as well as decision-sharing. Okazaki (2008:511) quotes Connell's (1997) definition of participation as "*not only about achieving the more efficient and more equitable distribution of material resources; it is also about the sharing of knowledge and the transformation of the process of learning itself in the service of people's self-development*". However, doubts about the effectiveness of community participation have been raised. The approach is riddled with barriers such as; low education level of community members, inexperience in business, conflicting interests within communities and financial constraints which undermine the need for involvement by communities (Okazaki, 2008). The author, however, contends that despite criticism, the literature fails to offer alternatives in attaining sustainable tourism development. Having made such an observation, Okazaki (2008:512) further notes that while community participation is important, there is lack of clear practical actions to implement it due to "*failure to identify the existing level of community participation*". This makes it difficult to evaluate the success of any programme because the degree of involvement varies according to their application and therefore difference in forecasting and evaluations.

It is therefore appropriate given the importance of community participation in CBT, to consider and mention the models of participation that have since been the basis of some of the CBT models (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013;2016). These models and theories cover various issues in participation; collaboration theory by Gray (1989; 1996 in Graci, 2013), Selin and Chavez's partnerships model (1995 in Graci, 2013; and in Okazaki, 2008) and Arnstein's Ladders of Participation (1969). While community participation theories cannot be viewed as models for CBT development alone, Okazaki (2008) fused those above in creating a CBT model which will be discussed together with the others below.

4.4 COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM MODELS

As highlighted in the introduction to the chapter, the concept of Community-Based Tourism (CBT) has been backed as an avenue to address poverty reduction, socio-economic development as well as

advance sustainable utilisation of resources. Therefore, the literature has over the years put forth models of CBT to address various aspects of the concept. However, Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) caution that the models did not evolve linearly but rather are issue specific to address various aims and purposes of CBT, therefore case-specific. Therefore, when one considers that African value systems are different from communities outside the continent (Idang, 2015:97), applying any model to an African case without due consideration might be counterproductive. Nevertheless, Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) continue to say that there is some form of a trajectory to be established of the model's evolution from radical and social orientation to neoliberal, soft and environmental inclination in their approach. Nonetheless, the variations observed in the literature indicate that issues are numerous. For example, the key aspects of these models include: ownership and management issues in CBT projects (Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2003 in Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016), to explore potential of a CBT equestrian trail tourism product by utilising Reid, Fuller, Haywood and Bryden's 1993 model (Kline, Cardenas, Viren & Swanson, 2015), to consider "spreading the benefits to the wider community" (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013: 1), to evaluate and manage pre-conditions for CBT projects (Jugmohan & Steyn, 2015), CBT projects from a community planning perspective (Jamal & Getz, 1995) and to consider how theory and practice intersect in CBT development (Koster, 2007). Other models attempt to consider CBT from a broader, more comprehensive approach (Okazaki, 2008; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). The following nine models will be discussed, namely; model of Community-Based Tourism, Community-Based development planning model, A Collaborative process for CBT model, Pre-condition evaluation and management model, Bottom-up/Top-up model, A Comprehensive model of CBT development, Cooperative CBT development model, Community-Based natural resource management (CBNRM) and A Bio-Economic model.

4.4.1 Community-Based Tourism Development Planning Model (Reid, Fuller, Haywood & Bryden, 1993)

The model considers tourism/recreation planning at the community level and stemmed from the realisation by the authors that traditional tourism planning was top-down in its approach. Reid (2003 in Koster, 2007) maintained that while such planning approaches were rational and had taken a corporate view to determine actions, the models failed to reflect the views of community members who bore the cost of such developments. Therefore, the author argued that basing CBT on a social learning or mobilisation framework can foster sustainability of developments. The model was first created by Reid, Fuller, Haywood and Bryden (1993) and later expanded by Reid, Mair and Taylor (2000) to incorporate raising community awareness as highlighted in Figure 4.1 (Kline *et al.*, 2015). Nonetheless, Koster (2007) contends that before her study, Reid's model had been applied in several destinations, but only by the team that created it and no one else. Koster (2007) further noted the application of the model beyond Reid's team was made by Kline *et al.* (2015) in Virginia, USA.

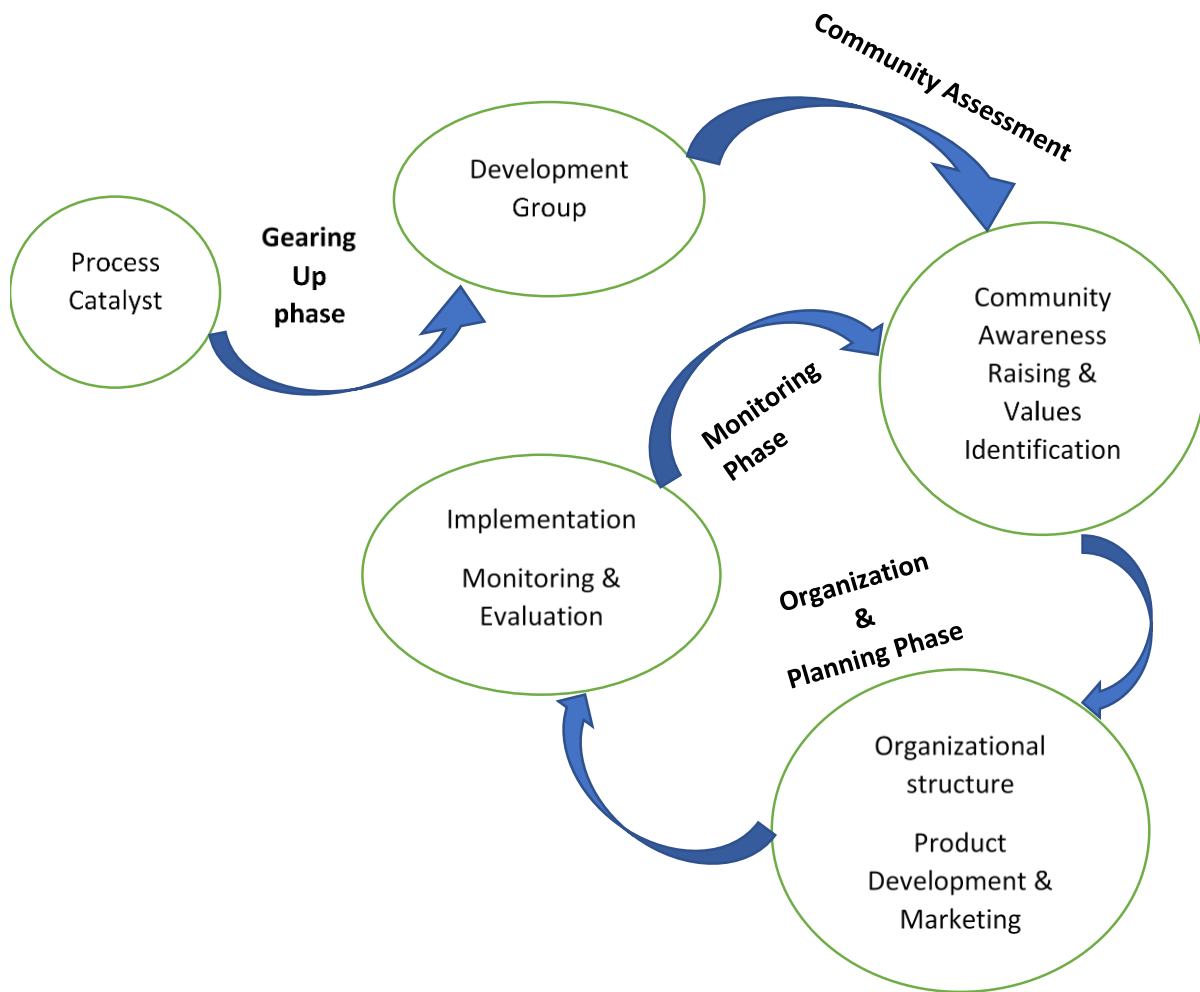


Figure 4.1: Community Tourism Development Planning Model

(Source: Reid, Fuller, Haywood & Bryden, 1993; 2000 in Kline *et al.*, 2015)

The model identifies a catalyst who is the initiator of the planning process, usually from outside the community. The individual plays a leading role in the initial stage of getting the planning process going. This stage is followed by the creation of a task force to lead the planning process comprising of technical experts and those with a vested interest. It is to be noted that the involvement of community members is non-existent or limited until the third stage due to the need for an external impartial assessment. The third stage comprises of raising community awareness of the intended tourism development. Koster (2007:71) believes that the third stage of the model differentiates the CBT development planning to conventional planning approaches as “*it integrates community residents in visioning and planning for their community’s future tourism development*”. Reid (2003) argues that the stage is crucial as it requires excellent group facilitation skills to organise the community to own the process. The skills assimilated in this process contribute to social learning thus are transferable to other future projects community members might undertake. The next stage is the

planning phase which involves several steps within the context of product development and marketing (illustrated in presented in Table 4.2) but further detailed by Koster (2007:72) below;

Table 4.2: Product development and marketing stage

| PRODUCT DEVELOPMENT AND MARKETING | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|--|
| STEPS | | |
| Step 1 | History | Utilize past strategic plans and surveys to determine what is already known about tourism in the community; |
| Step 2 | Objectives | Based on what is learned from past research, determine a vision of what the community might look like in the future in relation to tourism; |
| Step 3 | Strengths and Weaknesses of Existing Tourism Product | Examine what currently exists with regards to tourism (current/past tourism statistics and potential tourism developments); |
| Step 4 | An Inventory | Undertake an inventory of current tourism and recreation-related attributes in the community and immediate region; |
| Step 5 | Action Items | Identify what needs to be done and what the priority areas are. This should include the identification of partnerships and existing community groups and organisations that can potentially be involved. Action items and implementation strategies should be determined, along with a time frame for development. |
| Step 6 | Develop a Planning Document | Create a document that outlines the process, the priority areas, partnerships, actions & implementation strategies and potential time frames. |

(Source: Koster, 2007)

The final phase involves monitoring and evaluation of actions with constant community awareness-raising which then feeds into the planning stage again to create a cyclical process of plan reformulation.

Koster's (2007) application of the model was successfully done as those involved received a satisfactory outcome. However, the author argues that from a community participation perspective it was less favourable. In her assessment of CBT, Blackstock (2005 in Koster, 2007) noted three criticisms of CBT as; it results in limited transformative learning, the assumption of homogeneity among communities and external constraints to local control are rarely acknowledged. Koster's evaluation in her case study used these three criticisms as a framework to measure their relevance. Based on Reid's (2003) assertion, the heterogeneity of community members was acknowledged. The author observed that there was some degree of learning that occurred. Nonetheless, the community's level of participation was low due to the economic status of the area because community members still had other economic means they heavily relied on such as the mill and mines and as such tourism was not their priority. This also meant the criticism of lack of acknowledgement of external constraints to local control was rejected as local control was challenged by lack of participation by members as opposed to external forces. Kline *et al.* (2015) did not apply the model in its original form, but adapted it for their equestrian tourism case study.

4.4.2 A Collaboration Process for CBT Model (Jamal & Getz, 1995)

The model by Jamal and Getz (1995) outlines collaboration in the CBT planning process by using the collaboration theory by Gray (1989 in Jamal & Getz, 1995; Graci, 2013) as the foundation for their model. Jamal and Getz (1995) use the three stages of collaboration development; problem-setting, direction-setting and implementation to incorporate into their collaboration process model. At each stage of the collaborative development, the authors offer six propositions to aid collaboration "*where mechanisms for sharing ideas and developing directions are required*" (Jamal & Getz, 1995:195). Different propositions are offered at each of the three stages and the authors state that they are key in facilitating collaboration in planning as illustrated in Table 4.3. The model presents three-column, three-row structures where the rows give the stages in collaboration development as proposed by Gray along with propositions and the columns propose facilitating conditions for collaborations as well as steps or actions needed to carry out the collaboration. Jamal and Getz (1995) utilised work on inter-organizational relationships by fusing its two elements; the exchange perspective and the resource dependency approach and further considered issues of legitimacy and power to create facilitating conditions for collaboration.

Table 4.3: A Collaboration Process for Community-Based Tourism Planning

| Stages and Propositions | Facilitating Conditions | Actions/Steps |
|---|---|---|
| <p>Stage I</p> <p>Problem-Setting</p> <p>Propositions applicable:</p> <p>P1, P2, P3, P4, P5</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Recognition of interdependence ➤ Identification of a required number of stakeholders ➤ Perception of legitimacy among stakeholders ➤ Legitimate/skilled convener ➤ Positive beliefs about outcomes ➤ Shared access power ➤ Mandate (external or internal) ➤ An adequate resource to convene and enable collaboration process | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Define purpose and domain ➤ Identify convener ➤ Convene stakeholders ➤ Define problems/issues to resolve ➤ Identify and legitimize stakeholders ➤ Build commitment to collaborate by raising awareness of interdependence ➤ Balancing power differences ➤ Addressing stakeholder concerns ➤ Ensuring adequate resources available to allow collaborations to proceed with key stakeholder's present |
| <p>Stage II</p> <p>Problem-Setting</p> <p>Propositions applicable:</p> <p>P1, P2, P3, P6</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Coincidence of values ➤ Dispersion of power among stakeholders. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Collect and share information ➤ Appreciate shared values, enhance perceived interdependence ➤ Ensure power distributed among several stakeholders ➤ Establish rules and agenda for direction setting ➤ Organize subgroups if required ➤ List alternatives ➤ Discuss various options ➤ Select appropriate solutions ➤ Arrive at shared vision or plan/strategy through consensus. |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| <p>Stage III</p> <p>Problem-Setting</p> <p>Propositions applicable:</p> <p>P1, P2, P6</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ High degree of ongoing interdependence ➤ External mandates ➤ Redistribution of power ➤ Influencing the contextual environment. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Discuss means of implementing and monitoring solutions, shared vision, plan or strategy ➤ Select a suitable structure for institutionalizing the process ➤ Assign goals and tasks ➤ Monitor ongoing progress and ensure compliance with collaboration decisions. |
|---|---|---|

Note: P1, P2, means propositions
(Source: Jamal & Getz, 1995.)

As alluded earlier, the authors (Jamal & Getz, 1995:196-200) made propositions that guided the various stages in the collaboration process as follows:

Proposition 1: *Collaboration for CBT planning will require recognition of interdependence in planning and managing the domain.*

Proposition 2: *Collaboration will require recognition of individual and mutual benefits to be derived from the process.*

Proposition 3: *Collaboration for community-based tourism planning will require a perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented (i. e., the process has legitimacy and power to either make or strongly influence the planning decisions).*

Proposition 4: *Collaboration for tourism destination planning will depend on encompassing the following key stakeholder groups: local government plus other public organizations having a direct bearing on resource allocation; tourism industry associations and sectors such as Chamber of Commerce, Convention and Visitor Bureau, and regional tourist authority," resident organizations (community groups); social agencies (e.g., school boards, hospitals)," and special interest groups.*

Proposition 5: *A convener is required to initiate and facilitate community-based tourism collaboration.*

Proposition 6: *An effective community collaboration process for strategic tourism planning for the destination requires: formulation of a vision statement on desired tourism development and growth, joint formulation of tourism goals and objectives, self-regulation of the planning and development*

domain through the establishment of a collaborative (referent) organization to assist with ongoing adjustment of these strategies through monitoring and revisions.

Jamal and Getz (1995) conclude in their paper by stressing the need to identify facilitating and inhibiting elements in CBT through empirical research. This is emphasised by the complexity of tourism destinations and interdependence of stakeholders such that though collaboration is suggested as part of the process in managing tourism planning at the community level; appropriate measures need to be put in place to ensure the achievement of a shared vision. Vogt, Jordan, Grewe, and Kruger (2016) used the model in Sitka, a small community in South-eastern Alaska to analyse the collaborative planning process used and to “*examine some of the Jamal and Getz’s (1995) propositions*”. However, it was found that the community could not sustain proposition 4 (encompassing all stakeholder groups) which had a negative effect on proposition 3 (*planning will require a perception that decisions arrived at will be implemented*) (Vogt *et al.*, 2016:22). This meant that all stakeholder views could not be reconciled and therefore, the study concluded that in a small community tourism destination, planning that is holistic and all encompassing is complex and was not feasible. However, what is obvious is the need to listen to the residents as the most important stakeholder.

4.4.3 Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM)

Community-Based Natural Resource Management (hereafter referred to as CBNRM) as covered in Chapter 1 and 2 of this thesis, allude to a model of sustainable natural resource utilisation by local communities in order to aid their conservation. Swatuk (2005) noted that CBNRM has been predominant in the Southern hemisphere especially in Southern Africa where wildlife and protected area management became the focus of the programme. The programme advocates for devolution of power and management of resources to local people with the support of governments and civil society. At its core, CBNRM revolves around community involvement and participation in resource management, and while the different initiatives share similarities, there is divergence “*at the level of the detail of administrative, legal and financial structures and of policy implementation*” in different countries (Blaikie, 2006:1943). Such divergence gives the CBNRM model adaptability to different contexts in different locations in areas ranging from tourism to forest management which all utilise the natural resource. The difference in the models as per administrative, legal and financial structures and policy implementation will be discussed below.

4.4.3.1 Administrative Structures

CBNRMs by nature involve some form of community involvement in their administration. However, as the structures of CBNRM projects are different, this consequently determines the form of involvement

and responsibilities. Additionally, other factors such as policy predetermine administration structures. For example, the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme in Zimbabwe predetermines the constitution of the district sub-committees officials from government departments as technical advisors (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015:58). In contrast, in Botswana, the board of trustees in Community-Based Organisations (CBO) are comprised of community members and a representative of a private joint venture partner where such exist (Lepper & Goebel, 2010:730). Furthermore, the revenue sharing model which is an administrative function can be articulated in the policy as in the case of Botswana (Jones, 2008; CAR, 2016) and Zimbabwe (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015) though distribution becomes the preserve of the local communities. Even then, benefit distribution is administered differently in different contexts. Suich (2013:444) notes that village committees in Tchuma Tchato in Mozambique determines how the revenue is spent whereas, in Kwandu in Namibia, such responsibility lies with the traditional authority. Such administrative disparities have implications on the effectiveness of management in CBNRMs as factors such as power and authority, conservation impact and community perception of natural resources come to the fore.

4.4.3.2 Legal and Financial Structures

CBNRM projects differ in as far as legal structures are concerned (Lepper & Goebel, 2010; Suich, 2013; Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015; CAR, 2016). Most of the legal frameworks are articulated in policies created to drive natural resource devolution strategies and as such are context-based (CAR, 2016). Such frameworks have to a great extent exhibited the influence of the financial and technical partners initiating the projects (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015). Nonetheless, community participation and involvement are mainly configured into policies through the articulation of a formation of a legal entity to represent community or communities' interests (Jones, 2008). In Botswana, the legal entity is in the form of a Community-Based Organisation (CBO) in which the policy stipulates the composition of its board (GOB, 2007) whereas in Zimbabwe's CAMPFIRE programme the legal and management functions rest with Rural District Councils (RDC) (Frost & Bond, 2008) which are an extension of government rather than an autonomous legal entity. Furthermore, the choice of a private entity to partner the CBO (Botswana) is the sole prerogative of a Technical Advisory Council (TAC) which means communities might be saddled in an acrimonious relationship with a partner, not of their own choice. In such cases local institutions are neglected even though they can benefit projects by mediating "*external interventions into local contexts and articulate between local and extra-local social and political processes*" (Kamoto, Clarkson, Dorward & Shepherd, 2013:294). The same extends to the financial structures where the revenue share of proceeds to communities is imposed through policy with little input from communities (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015; Jones, 2008; CAR, 2016). Suich (2013:442) maintains that for participation of community members to be sustained, attention must be

placed on design of incentives and their delivery to meet evolving and often challenging economic circumstances.

4.4.3.3 Policy Implementation

As alluded above, CBNRM centres around devolution of the management of natural resources and accrual of benefits to communities as entrenched in statutory policies establishing the programme. Kamoto *et al.* (2013:293) argue that while the policies are well intended from inception, implementation reflects “*rhetoric more than substance*” as governments elevate conservation interests more than rural livelihoods. Frost and Bond (2008) note this anomaly in the conception when compared to implementation of CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe, where an original plan to devolve all aspects of resource management through cooperatives was replaced by RDC management for political reasons. Likewise, Kamoto *et al.* (2013) note the disparity in implementation of a policy to devolve Village Forestry Areas’ (VFAs) revenue collection, formulation and enforcement of forestry governance rules to community management committees was reneged and such responsibilities were placed within a government ministry. Furthermore, most programmes fail to satisfy the community management aspect aspired by the policy. Structurally, CBNRM initiatives across Southern Africa especially where wildlife is the predominant resource, are simply revenue sharing schemes without any form of involvement in resource management by communities. Tchuma Tchato project in Mozambique reflects this mode of operation where trophy hunting fees are shared between government and communities with tourism development mainly unsuccessful (Suich, 2013:442). Lepper and Goebel’s (2010) assessment of the Okavango Community Trust (OCT) in Botswana found that while the trust management is from the community, management of the business operations was left to the private joint venture partner. In contrast, however, Kwandu Conservancy in Namibia has the community involved in the different aspects of their revenue-generating activities (Suich, 2013:442). Therefore, while policies intend to allow communities to be not just custodians but also managers of resources, the reality is far removed which might be explained by Kamoto *et al.* (2013) assertion that policy development processes allow for limited community consultation. This, in essence, erodes the benefit of local knowledge and area contextual issues are left out.

4.4.4 Model of Community-Based Tourism (Okazaki, 2008)

Okazaki (2008) created and applied a CBT model (Figure 4.2) in analysing a community ecotourism project in Palawan, Philippines. The model in its development fused the concepts of ladder of participation, power redistribution, collaboration process and social capital to “*assess the current status of a community with regard to community participation*” (Okazaki, 2008:517). It uses collaboration theory and social capital to explain relationships of community with other stakeholders

both external and horizontal. The internal participation level, therefore affects external stakeholders and vice-versa.

The two-dimensional graph of the model presents a synthesis of all the elements utilising an 'S' shaped curve of Butler's TALC theory to display multiple scenarios that are underpinned by five propositions as illustrated in Figure 4.2. The left side of the model shows the level of community participation using Arnstein's ladder of participation together with power redistribution and bonding and social capital in a vertical axis. This is so because Arnstein (1969 in Okazaki, 2008) argued that participation should be considered along with power redistribution. The ladder of participation suggested eight-level or 'rungs' of participation further categorised into three gradually evolving levels of, non-participation, the degree of tokenism and degree of citizen power. The first category of non-participation comprises of two typologies of participation or lack thereof in; manipulation and therapy. In this category, power-holders contrive to substitute participation with a distorted view to educate members. The category of 'degree of tokenism' is characterised by 'informing, consultation and placation' of community members where those with power claim to hear those without power as well as inform them but do not allow them the power to ensure their concerns and views are enacted. Arnstein (1969) further states that the powerless are placated such that they are given the impression of decision making when in fact they only advise those with power to decide. The final 'rung', "Degree of Citizen Power" consists of three levels of power distribution to communities. Therefore, the degree of power distribution moves from partnership; in which planning and decision-making are the only responsibilities distributed to communities, to the final level of citizen control where power is fully given to citizens for policy and management.

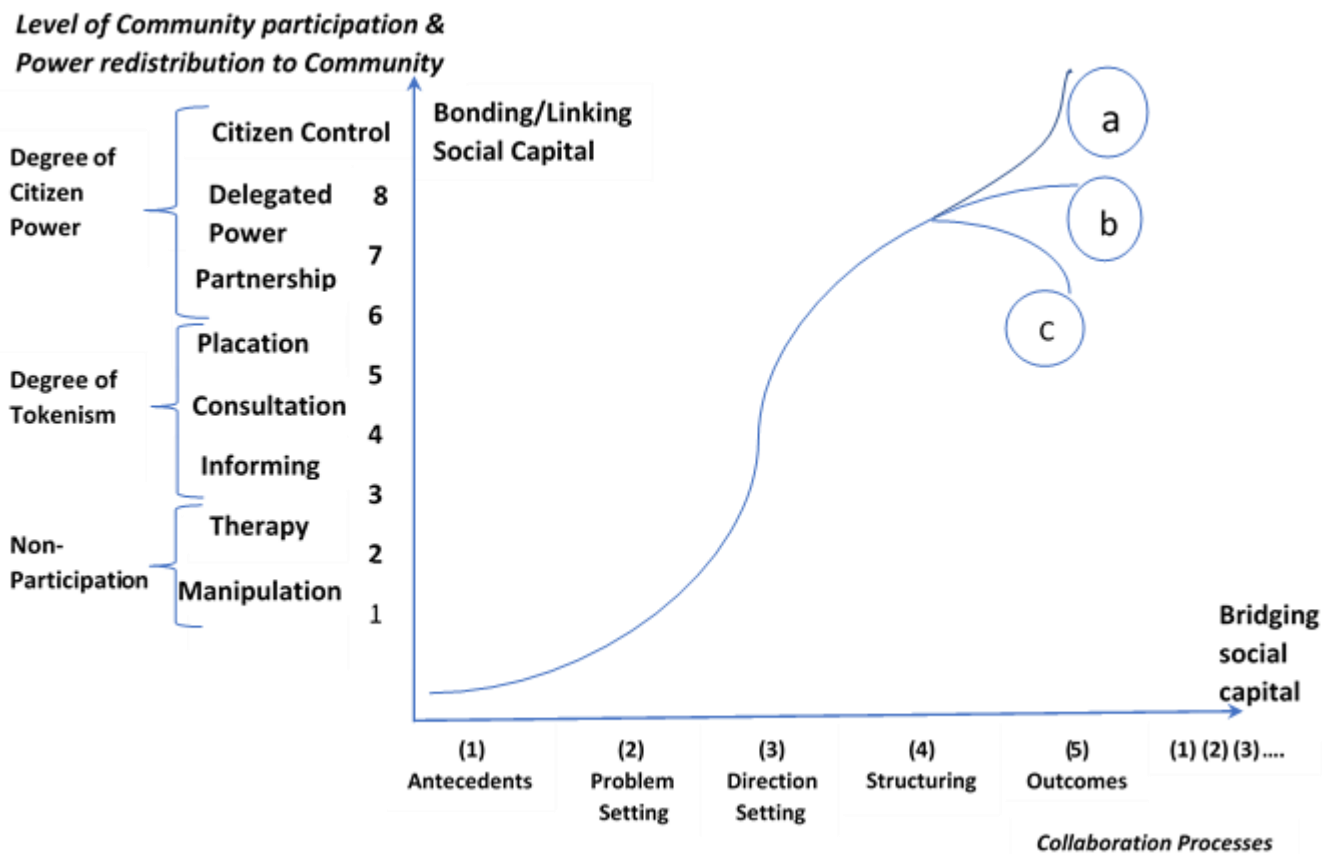


Figure 4.2 A Model of Community-Based Tourism

(Source: Okazaki, 2008; Facilitating conditions and steps suggested by Arnstein (1969) and Selin & Chavez (1995).

The horizontal axis of the model uses the concept of partnerships and collaboration process (Selin & Chavez, 1995) as applied in the context of tourism development. The model called the 'evolutionary model of tourism partnerships' introduces a five-step process; Antecedents, problem-setting, direction-setting, structuring and outcomes. According to the model, antecedents are triggers that cause initiation of a partnership, and that can be crisis, broker, common vision, existing networks, leadership and incentives. After the initiation stage, partnerships go through stages where problems are set (common problem definition), direction setting (goals are established) and structuring (formalising relationships and roles assigned) (Graci, 2013). The final stage of the partnership process is outcomes stage which gives the output of the partnership.

An upward curve as illustrated in Figure 4.2, therefore, shows the intersection of both the horizontal and vertical axes as determined by the above-presented conditions underpinned by the following propositions;

(1) when community participation is promoted, power redistribution will be facilitated; (2) if the collaboration process does not forge ahead, neither community participation nor power redistribution will occur; (3) if neither community participation nor power redistribution progress, collaboration will not be fostered; (4) inequities in power will undermine collaboration; and (5) social capital is established gradually in the processes and contributes to improving the sustainability of the destination by creating synergy both within the community and between the community and other stakeholders (Okazaki, 2008: 517).

The role of social capital is to act as a catalyst for participation, power distribution and collaboration. It is to be noted that according to Okazaki (2008) at both the low and final stages of community participation, the rate of collaboration is slow as denoted by the level of collaboration (antecedents) at both stages. Such is necessitated by the cyclical nature of the collaborative process. The author gives an example that even where the level of participation has reached the final stage of 'delegated power', problems with other stakeholders might cause the collaborative process to go back to the first level. However, when the community participation reaches stage six 'partnership' on the vertical axis, three scenarios emerge which are illustrated as (a), (b) and (c) on Figure 4.2.

- (a) If other stakeholders within the partnership agreement agree with community participation and power redistribution, then an upward movement is achieved on the graph
- (b) Where community and other stakeholders are satisfied with community participation and no further power redistribution is needed, the graph movement will remain constant
- (c) If other stakeholders resist power to be redistributed to community or division emerges within the community, then the graph takes a downward move.

In the application of the model, Okazaki discovered that the community participation at the case study project only achieved 'degree of tokenism' on the participation ladder whereas on the collaboration process the NGOs (stakeholders) managed to foster networks informally though there was a need for bridging social capital to be grown. While the model has been referenced in the literature, there is no evidence of its application outside the researchers' case study area. Okazaki (2008) also concede that this model or any other CBT approaches might not be standardised in application due to contingent factors that are unique to a particular case. Furthermore, even though the level of participation is central and has an overarching influence on power redistribution and collaboration, how it can be facilitated is not addressed by the model. As alluded by the Okazaki (2008), the model can be used to examine the situation within a CBT project, however, how to move forward after the status analysis is not clear.

4.4.5 Bottom-up/Top-down model (Zapata *et al.*, 2011)

While Zapata *et al.* (2011) allude to bottom-up/top-down CBT development as models, some in the literature regard them as approaches (Koster, 2007; The Mountain Institute, 2000). The authors through an analysis of CBT initiatives in Nicaragua, deduced the characteristics of the surveyed projects to define what is termed 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' model of development. Such an analysis further allowed the authors to measure the effect of the two modes on communities as illustrated in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4: Top-Down and Bottom-up CBT Model

| | Characteristics | Effects |
|----------------------|--|---|
| Top-Down CBT | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Externally induced • Supply-side development • Funded by external donations • Focusing on international markets: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ solidarity, volunteers • Often bad allocation regarding the mainstreaming markets • Organising: larger community based • Moderate growth of arrivals • Initial lack of knowledge, skills, social networks | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lower rates of employees and economic benefits • High rates of dead CBT or projects that are never born • Lower local ownership • Dependency on external mediators and knowledge • Environmental awareness • Actively working with equity issues • Equal redistribution of benefits |
| Bottom-Up CBT | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local entrepreneurship • Market-led development • Own capital risk, plus external support • Focusing on domestic markets • Organising: more business-based, lower representation of the community • Rapid Growth • Business based on some initial knowledge and networks | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Higher rates of employment and benefits (even if investment-return is not so efficient) • Strong ownership • Control over the external processes: management, marketing, networking • Larger economic indirect impact on the communities by connecting with the local supply chains |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Environmental and equity issues, including community redistribution, are less integrated • Limits to growth and carrying capacity (water, environment .) |
|--|--|---|

(Source: Zapata *et al.*, 2011)

The analysis revealed that a bottom-up approach was the one initiated by the community using their knowledge and networks. Due to the knowledge of the network, which constituted the market, and its closeness, communities easily knew and met their needs. Further to that this proximity to market translated to cheaper advertising and products. The authors also noted that much of the financial capital was raised by communities with external funders only offering limited support to complement what the communities availed in the form of legal advice and management skills. As a result, they observed more positive impacts in the form of employment and strong links to the informal sector to establish supply chains with much greater impact on poorer community members. However, there was a noted challenge of lack of environmental awareness and equity associated with this approach which was better addressed by the top-down model.

The top-down model of development is characterised by the external inducement of projects and decision making (Zapata *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, by the same token, choice of market is also influenced by external funder's knowledge, networks and values. The openness of market access is preferred culminating in increased importation of goods and selling to international rather than domestic consumers. Language, knowledge and cultural misunderstanding occur creating a wedge between CBT projects and poor communities and leading to inhibition of interpretation of the project to local specific outcomes. This lack of contextualisation of the project, participation while advanced in this discourse as crucial, fail to take off thereby leaving external agents with more control. Another problem the authors observed which is countering the ethos of CBT model is an erosion of local knowledge in favour of westernised knowledge sufficient to serve the international market. However, the study also revealed that some top-down projects progressed to local contextualisation by marketing to the domestic tourists and utilising local community networks.

Therefore, Zapata *et al.* (2011:745) concluded that a bottom-up model could be a viable avenue to CBT development due to the following reasons;

- i) *The mode of organising tourism starts from the bottom of the community (local entrepreneurship and ownership);*
- ii) *The allocation of the consumed places are accessible to the places where the potential visitors live;*
- iii) *The existence of the necessary elements to translate the global idea into the local cultural context, through cultural and social capital;*
- iv) *The communities assume the risk of investing its own economic capital to materialise the idea into physical objects and facilities;*
- v) *Product development is oriented to the existing local assets, and the communities do not only perform as passive objects of consumption, but also as producers, managers, and marketers; and*
- vi) *Project formulation and development is made regarding the local communities' networks, with a natural tendency to focus on the local markets as its closest nodes.*

As alluded, the question of whether these two approaches represent a model is still questionable. The authors' work, however, does highlight the characteristics of what constitutes a bottom-up or top-down model. Nonetheless, both approaches fail in prescribing what should be done and remain descriptive which will present problems in their application. Even as the literature refers to both terms, it is to describe events, situation or status quo and there is no blueprint as to how these models should be applied.

4.4.6 A Bio-economic Model (Fischer, Muchapondwa & Sterner, 2011)

The bio-economic model is a theoretical model to consider the conflict in resource conservation and the cost and benefit borne by communities for its fulfilment. The model was first formulated by Skonhofs (1998) after an analysis of the East African context and later extended by Fischer, Muchapondwa and Sterner (2011) through the study of the CAMPFIRE programme in Zimbabwe. The Skonhofs formulation considered the interaction of two agents and their three production activities. The first agent, park managers, engaged in tourism and trophy hunting as forms of resource production or utilisation and occurs within protected areas while the second agents are local agro-pastoralists whose production is livestock products. However, while wildlife may generate income within parks, outside the confines of the protected area it becomes a nuisance to local community production. The model, therefore, considered market solutions where resource management and local benefits are balanced in a management scheme.

Skonhofs (1998:78) concluded that if the community is given a fixed share of the hunting profits only, the wildlife nuisance will increase on their agricultural production whereas if the community also gets

a share of the tourism activity in addition to hunting, “the nuisance from the roaming wildlife will decrease as this scheme gives incentives for the park manager to increase the offtake and thereby decrease the wildlife stock in the long term”. The Fischer *et al.* (2011) model introduces several factors deviating from the earlier model such as; outside poaching vs poaching by community members; community anti-poaching efforts as opposed to park agency enforcement; hunting quotas determination and how it influences community behaviour; and interaction among the different agents (three as opposed to two) in park agents, community and poachers (see Table 4.5). Therefore, the model considers the three agents, two control variables (anti-poaching and hunting quotas) and wildlife as stock in order to determine how benefits allocation affects incentives to conserve and act on anti-poaching efforts.

Table 4.5: Summary of effects under different management regimes

| <i>Management Regime</i> | <i>Parks Agency Response</i> | <i>Community Response</i> | <i>Net Effect on wildlife Stock</i> |
|------------------------------|---|---|--|
| Fixed Quota | Strong wildlife target stock response to anti-poaching effort Unaffected by benefit-sharing | Effort clearly increases with tourism revenue shares Effort increases with hunting shares to improve trophy quality | Strong positive response to tourism shares Positive response to hunting shares |
| Biological-Based Rule | Less strong wildlife stock response to anti-poaching effort Additional hunting licenses are given Unaffected by benefit sharing | Effort increases with tourism revenue shares Effort increases with hunting shares to improve trophy quality and garner more licenses | Positive but weaker response to tourism shares Positive, likely stronger response to hunting shares |

| | | | |
|--|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| Profit- Maximising Parks Agency | Positive wildlife stock response to anti-poaching effort | Stronger effect of tourism revenue shares on effort | Ambiguous response to tourism shares |
| | Additional hunting licenses are given | Ambiguous effect of hunting revenue shares on effort | Ambiguous response to hunting shares |
| | Licenses decrease and wildlife stock increases with larger (hunting quota) relative to tourism | | |

(Source: Fischer *et al.*, 2011)

The author's analysis concluded that revenue sharing does not automatically result in benefit and conservation effort in communities revolves around three factors; the type of resource profits shared, the amount shared and how is the response to management by outsiders. Finally, the model proposes that CAMPFIRE utilise a biological-based rule to quota-setting as it will confer more benefits to communities. With the Biological based rule “*the parks agency determines a sustainable harvest depending only on the current wildlife stock, ignoring the revenue implications*” (Fischer *et al.*, 2011:309). The aim of the model is therefore to determine the equilibrium in benefit and conservation at which the community will feel adequately incentivised to support resource conservation efforts as well as partake in their management.

4.4.7 Cooperative CBT Development Model (Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013)

One of the Achilles heels of CBT, as highlighted in the literature, is the challenges of financial self-sustenance and governance (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015). Therefore, there is a growing admission that CBT can only be profitable and self-sustained if it assumes a business focus. Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) argue that community cooperatives are deemed a suitable business model that can achieve both profitability and communal benefit distribution. The rationale behind this argument is that cooperatives are essential due to the following:

- i) They allow competitiveness and efficiency to be stimulated among community members as they are beneficiaries;

- ii) they allow for the organisation to be broad and encompassing which negates local elites' dominance and manipulation;
- iii) and "*strong stakeholder participation that nurtures community empowerment*" (Aref and Gill, 2009 in Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013:316).

The Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) study considered the cooperative model through a case study analysis of a CBT project in Batu Puteh, Malaysia. Further information was drawn from the work of Mizal, Fabeil and Fazim (2014) who reference the same project in their article. The project named KOPEL (Koperasi Pelancongan, meaning Ecotourism cooperative), was first initiated in 1997 under the auspices of MESCOT (Model for Ecologically Sustainable Community Tourism) with funding from WWF (Malaysia and Norway) and the Discovery Television channel (Mizal *et al.*, 2014). In fact, the project was initially called MESCOT (Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013:318) with a "*simple association organisational structure*" where MESCOT coordinated the multiple income activities under it. Therefore, each unit was responsible for its operations and cash management. However, this led to inefficiencies observed with this model as lack of financial transparency, poor benefit distribution and elite dominance surfaced. These challenges also meant that the project was not appealing to donors for bigger grants. By 2002, KOPEL was launched as a tourism cooperative and increased community members participated in the programme. The cooperative structure allowed for the units to plan and operate the activities while financial management was the prerogative of a KOPEL committee. Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) note an improved income distribution marked by the new structure through employment and service provision in the form of accommodation (for their homestay business), transportation and craft production. Further benefits were realised such as increased donor funding, conservation and reforestation, social cohesion and dependency on CBT especially among the youths (Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013).

Nonetheless, while the mentioned benefits might demonstrate strength in the cooperative approach, the KOPEL project was not without challenges which might challenge the notion that tourism cooperative in CBT is a better option. Mizal *et al.* (2014:27) argue that the project is donor-dependent so much that even conservation efforts will be compromised without grants. Additionally, KOPEL's accounting procedures and management are experiencing problems due to lack of skills manifesting in inaccurate record keeping of financial performance.

Furthermore, a point that puts a dent in the aptness of cooperatives in CBT is community involvement. As noted by Mohamad and Hamzah (2013:316), there is believe that a cooperative model's strength lies in involving more community members, however, such counts for little if there is no commitment from those involved. Mizal *et al.* (2014) note this challenge as there are low motivation and encouragement from members who are partners in KOPEL and as such personal drive in taking up

relevant capacity building initiatives in areas of housekeeping, customer relations and food preparation is needed to improve the quality of experiences in homestay activities. The marketing of the project is posing a challenge as well because there is a noted small size of the market due to overemphasis in targeting only foreign tourists, a point Zapata *et al.* (2011) noted earlier in the chapter.

The cooperative model of CBT development presents some opportunities for success, although persistent challenges noted before in CBT projects characterising other models are evident. Donor dependency seems to be bedeviling CBT projects and as noted by Mitchell and Muckosy (2008), it is more an issue of viability with management structure assuming a secondary role. Nonetheless, other aspects of governance should be interrogated for assured sustainability and reduction of donor influence and dependence.

4.4.8 Pre-condition Evaluation and Management Model (Jugmohan & Steyn, 2015)

The authors considered conditions necessary before the development of CBT at the destination level. By using literature review to extract categories of pre-conditions, they devised a model termed “Pre-condition Evaluation and Management Model” (PEM) which they applied in a case study in the Eastern Cape, South Africa (Jugmohan & Steyn, 2015). By the authors’ admission, pre-conditions are context-specific and what they prescribe is how to identify and evaluate their relevance to the area and project envisaged. The model put much emphasis on the community as the main actor in evaluating and managing preconditions. Jugmohan and Steyn (2015) further state that the community needs to do a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis as part of a process in identifying pre-conditions relevant to their situation and avoid raising expectations or pursuing a project destined to fail.

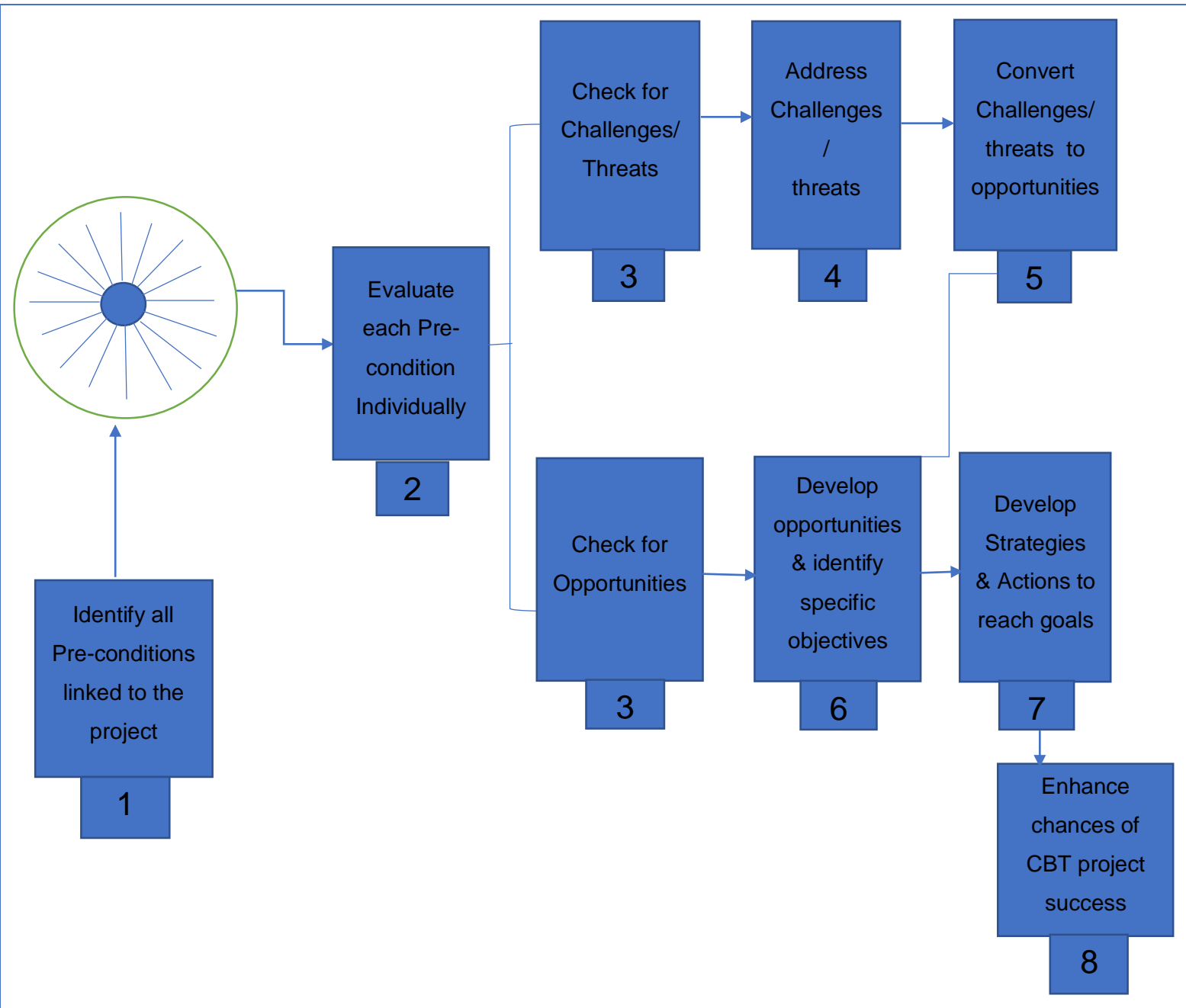


Figure 4.3: CBT Pre-Condition Evaluation and Management Model (PEM)

(Source: Jugmohan & Steyn, 2015)

In the model, the authors argue that to acknowledge external actors is a necessity to facilitate a project. However, they reiterate the community’s leading role in the model and advocate for the creation of a planning committee inclusive of all key stakeholders. The model proposes an eight-step process as illustrated in Figure 4.3 (Jugmohan & Steyn, 2015:1071);

- i) Step 1: Identification of pre-conditions;
- ii) Step 2: Individual evaluation of each pre-condition;
- iii) Step 3: Determination of whether each pre-condition is a challenge or an opportunity;

- iv) Step 4: Address of challenges after rating them according to the order of priority;
- v) Step 5: Convert challenges into opportunities
- vi) Step 6: Develop opportunities and identify objectives
- vii) Step 7: Develop strategies and action plans to achieve goals through a cycle process of plan-act-review-improve; and
- viii) Step 8: Enhance chances of project success by ensuring pre-conditions reach an acceptable standard to help achieve proposed goals

The first step of the model starts with identification of pre-conditions, represented in the model by a “wagon-wheel” diagram, which denotes the many pre-conditions to be evaluated. The pre-conditions are then each evaluated individually in step 2 which will inform the third step. The authors state that there are two options in stage three (3). The first option illustrates that the pre-condition could be a challenge, in which case step 4 (addressing challenges) and 5 (convert challenges to opportunities) are necessary. The second option in stage 3 is when a pre-condition is deemed to present an opportunity, which means step 4 and 5 will be rendered unnecessary and the process advances to step 6 to develop the opportunities and identify objectives. Following identification of objectives, there is need to develop strategies and action plans to achieve the objectives and finally the enhancement process is done to ensure goal attainment.

The authors also recommend the use of a Pre-Condition Assessment Resource Tool (PART) which is an instrument to use, which complements the Pre-condition Evaluation and Management model (PEM) in identifying pre-conditions, charting opportunities from challenges and helps rate and rank in order of priority of all pre-conditions.

The authors in creating the PEM model, highlight an extensive list of pre-conditions guiding CBT development. However, there is no link or evidence as to how the pre-conditions inform the development of the model. Furthermore, while the paper alludes to field-testing the model in the Eastern Cape, South Africa, there is no mention of the results, and therefore its application remains untested.

4.4.9 Comprehensive Model of CBT Development (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016)

The authors developed two models around community-based tourism in 2013 and 2016. The earlier model is named; ‘a model for spreading the benefits to the wider community’ (2013) while the model developed in 2016 is termed ‘a Comprehensive model of CBT development’. The models address different areas in CBT development, yet still, retain some similarities. The 2013 model considered CBT enterprises from the broader community-based enterprises context and concluded that only through local initiation, planning, management, control and ownership can CBT benefit the wider

community and help them achieve their needs. Nonetheless, both models consider the various levels of processes in CBT development.

The comprehensive model (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016) stipulates seven levels of processes to consider CBT development. The first level is the consideration of origin (which means originator) and gives three possible initiator options; local (within the community), local (but outside community) and external to the community. The second step considers the entity involved or facilitator who can be government, the private sector, NGO or a community-based organisation. This stage links well with the assertion made in the 2013 model which highlighted those above as facilitative actors that can work individually or in unison to aid CBT development. According to Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016), the third stage allows actors to consider a development approach. In this case, the work of Zapata *et al.* (2011) in the analysis of bottom-up and top-down development approaches are used to inform this stage in the model and establish a link with the informal sector businesses. The authors discuss at length the link of CBT with informal sector, but caution that such a link does not necessarily translate into a reduction of poverty nor does it engender gender and children's rights. Furthermore, there are fundamental challenges like employment and working conditions that need to be addressed before tourism development can be initiated. Nonetheless, the informal sector provides opportunities to those with social and skill disadvantages, a character that other sectors cannot provide. Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) note and highlight studies which demonstrated the link between CBT and the informal sector such as those (Tourism Product Development Co. Ltd, 2005; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2013) with much success in either economic or social objectives. This led the authors to conclude that informality does not mean failure and therefore CBT can either take a formal or informal approach.

The authors (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli, 2016) further bring the concept of partnerships which CBT initiatives should consider and draws attention to the type and the kind of partnership. The link with the authors' work in 2013 is further established using the partnership kinds of external and internal. External in this context implies a partner external to the CBT that might help in areas like "*marketing, quality control and skills development*" (Mtapuri and Giampiccoli 2016: 159) whereas internal refers to partnerships that a CBT venture is party to. Once the project has sorted its partnership structure, venture types can be considered which can be either formal or informal as discussed earlier. The model's next step is a market consideration which the authors drew lessons from the Zapata *et al.* (2011) study again. Zapata *et al.* (2011) noted a division of CBT projects in Nicaragua according to domestic or international market with those marketing to the domestic market experiencing rapid growth compared to others. Likewise, a growth of domestic and regional tourists' arrival to CBT projects is noted in Thailand and Indonesia (Ministry of Hotels and Tourism, 2013 in Mtapuri &

Giampiccoli, 2016). At the top-end of the model, a determination can be made as to whether to sustain the project through scaling or remaining micro/small scale is the preferred option.

The authors (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016) note the dynamism of the model due to its flexibility and non-exclusivity of the categories and further claim infinite options and trajectories that can be used in the application. Furthermore, while the model offers choice in the development approach (bottom-up or top-down), the authors, in conclusion, prescribe that a bottom-up approach is prioritised which counters the flexibility aspect earlier mentioned. The model also is not informed by empirical research, and its application remains questionable thus far.

4.5 CORE ASPECTS OF A CBT MODEL

The varied models discussed in this chapter address different aspects of the development of CBT. However, what can be deduced is that there are aspects that are core and critical for the success of a model. Therefore, below is a summary of the core aspects of a CBT model illustrated in Figure 4.4 and explained thereafter.

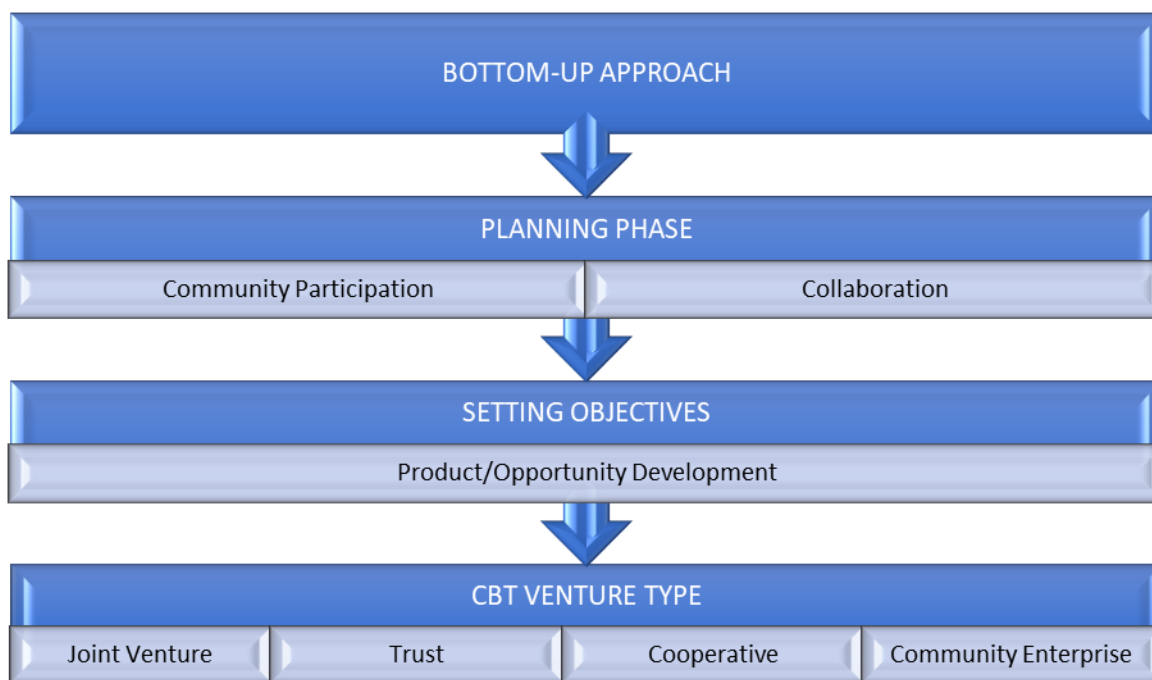


Figure 4.4: Core Aspects of a CBT Model
 (Source: Author’s creation)

4.5.1 A Development Approach

An inherent feature of CBT development is the consideration of the approach to be taken in project planning and development. Zapata *et al.* (2011), Okazaki (2008) and Reid (2003 in Koster, 2007)

alluded to the top-down dominance of many projects which minimised and often negated local community input. Therefore, while a choice can be made between top-down and bottom-up approaches, it is evident that community participation and collaboration will remain mere rhetoric if the approach is anything but bottom-up. In fact, a determination of an approach helps project initiators to clarify where, how and by whom decisions will be taken.

4.5.2 Planning Phase

CBT projects need to be planned for. This phase can be initiated by a catalyst either from outside the community (Koster, 2007; Kline *et al.*, 2015) or within (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). The process of planning is critical as it addresses varied issues such as; raising community awareness, community participation, setting objectives, opportunity/product development and organisational structure.

4.5.2.1 Community Participation

Community participation entails the level of involvement by community members in the projects meant to address their wellbeing. Participation necessitates moving from a passive and tokenistic approach to full devolution where power is gained and leads to community control. Okazaki (2008) and Reid (2003 in Koster, 2007) highlighted an issue with top-down approaches that impose ideas and fail to reflect community members' views by being opposed to community participation hence becoming an impediment to success.

4.5.2.2 Collaboration

As community projects involve multiple stakeholders, the significance of a harmonious relationship between them is paramount. Therefore, collaboration is advised to help forge an all-inclusive process that creates an environment to facilitate a shared vision and recognition of interdependence among the stakeholders (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008; Reid *et al.*, 2000; Kline *et al.*, 2015). The importance of collaboration is evident in its overarching role across the life-cycle of CBT projects, from planning to operations while also affecting the aspect of community participation. Okazaki (2008:517) propositions as espoused by the CBT model the author formulated, best encapsulate the symbiotic relationship between power distribution, participation and collaboration thus "*if the collaboration process does not forge ahead, neither community participation nor power redistribution will occur*".

4.5.2.3 CBT Venture Types

The type of a business model a community chooses to foster their development also helps determine the organisational structure. The type of community venture can be either formal or informal (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). Formal legal entities options available to CBT are; trusts (Leper & Goebel, 2010), cooperatives (Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013) or community enterprises (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli,

2016). The informal set-ups are often those without any legal structuring and can be controlled by the village/community leadership either in the form of traditional leaders or village committee (Tichaawa & Mhlanga, 2015; Suich, 2013). Often the business model chosen can elect to further enter into a partnership or joint venture arrangement with a private entity.

4.6 CONCLUSION

The chapter's aim was to review literature starting with discussions on CBT and its link to sustainable tourism development. The discussions encompassed benefits, challenges and characteristics of CBT as well as the models used in the discourse. The chapter, therefore, managed to analyse Community-Based Tourism as a concept and drew a parallel comparison with sustainable tourism. The similarity of the concepts prompted some in the literature to combine the concepts to create a new tourism development framework; 'sustainable community-based tourism'. While the framework is not widely operationalised, there are merits to its approach. The similarity of objectives in both concepts are further complimented by CBT's community participation and shared benefit focus as well as sustainable tourism's ecological grounding. This approach, therefore, enhances the tourism industry's concerted efforts of sustaining the industry into the future. Furthermore, CBT models analysed in the chapter cover the different aspects of CBT from community planning perspective, CBT benefits distribution, management and ownership of projects and evaluating pre-conditions of projects. Some of the models discussed are plainly theoretical and only help to explain the practice. While the models are varied in relevance and application, the fundamental aspects and questions that can usher the academics and practitioners into a preferred model of CBT development still remain. Some of the models exhibit different shortcomings such lack of applicability, non-flexibility, adaptability, top-down and too much external influence. Nonetheless, what characterises, and pre-disposes a project's success are questions that will continue to guide the debates even as much of the literature continues to deliberate on them. However, as it has been deduced in the discussions of the models, there are core features espoused by the models as fundamental in CBT planning and development. These features as discussed are; community participation, collaboration, planning for CBT, a determination of both a development approach and venture type.

CHAPTER 5:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Methodology in research refers to the clarification of how data collection, capture, preparation and analysis will be approached (Maree, 2016). A methodological choice, therefore, entails and influences design, strategies and data collection techniques as well as analysis (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2016). As articulated in Chapter 1, interpretivism is the research philosophy guiding this study. According to Saunders *et al.* (2016), interpretivism is subjective and socially constructed meanings about a phenomenon under study. This philosophy is associated with a qualitative research design which utilises an inductive approach towards a theoretical or conceptual contribution (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). This chapter's aim is to: review qualitative research designs and sampling criteria used in selecting participants. Furthermore, data collection techniques, analysis and methods used in establishing trustworthiness and credibility in this study will be discussed.

5.2 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN

Research design can be understood as a plan of action (Dadhe 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016) that helps the researcher answer the research question(s). Nieuwenhuis (2016) states that a design stipulates the data needed, the tools to collect the data, and how to approach the analysis of such data. At the centre of a choice of research, the design is "*the research question and the philosophical assumptions*" (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:72). Dadhe (2016) posits that the design is a signpost that guides the researcher on which direction to take.

Furthermore, Dadhe (2016:45) argues that a research design undergoes countless modifications during the process of a research study. Nieuwenhuis (2016:72) adds that qualitative research has moved from the traditional linear approach to design that is synonymous with quantitative studies to a more interactive approach informed by Maxwell's 2005 work. The author argues that this approach has allowed research design to be viewed holistically not as a simple abstract plan and this interaction allows the researcher to move back and forth between the five elements of research question, goals, conceptual framework, methods and validity. Maxwell (2005) reinforces the notion of this character of a qualitative design by reiterating that circular interaction between the five aspects leads to refinement and reflection.

Saunders *et al.* (2016) state that a research design can be led by an overlying purpose which the authors posit could be exploratory, descriptive, explanatory, evaluative or a combination of the listed purposes. Van Wyk (2012) also refers to the purpose of inquiry, which also has a bearing on the

design and methods of enquiry. Dadhe (2016:49) for example suggests that exploratory studies use methods such as 'survey of concerning literature', 'the experience survey' (which means surveying people's experience of the phenomenon/problem) and finally '*The analysis of 'insight-stimulating' examples*' (which is an intense study of a select few of those who experienced the phenomenon). Through an understanding of the purpose, researchers are in a much better position to focus on the design, which in qualitative research can be classified into a varied number of categories. Nieuwenhuis (2016:75) notes that there are five broad categories of designs in qualitative studies (narrative, phenomenology, grounded, ethnography and case study) which the author admits contain varied possibilities and hybridisation as they are not fixed entities. Saunders *et al.* (2016:183) add a further two designs in archival and documentary research as well as action research. Therefore, the following section will provide more clarity on the outlined seven designs and state the one used in this study.

5.2.1 Archival and documentary research

This is the most under-utilised and under-rated method whose research output constitutes only 10% of all research designs in the past twenty years (Das, Jain & Mishra, 2016:138). According to Saunders *et al.* (2016) archival research capitalises on the availability of varied sources of data. Das *et al.* (2016:139) state that archival exists as stored data before the research commencement. Sinner (2013) clarifies that archival research is an interaction between records interpretation and the perception of the documents at a particular time distinguishing the fluidity of the facts while recognising that interpretation can be achieved differently from various perspectives. Such data consists of varied sources such as, but not limited to; census data, patent office records, credit histories, court proceedings and educational records (Sinner, 2013; Das *et al.*, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Maemura, Becker & Milligan, 2016). Archival data also exists in online archives, which may include governmental, organisational, media and university-based records (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). However, according to Maemura *et al.* (2016), online archives pose problems to the archival research design as their appraisal does not follow the traditional processes of archival research. Moreover, the use of computational methods adopted to analyse the data challenge the traditional status quo. Maemura *et al.* (2016:3250) contend that researchers need to consider three critical factors when web archives are being considered. These are; firstly, interrogating sources; secondly, understanding new methods (be conversant with emerging methods of computational analysis) and thirdly, transparency of the research process.

Archival research can be advantageous as the data can be easily available and therefore, less costly to collect (Das *et al.*, 2016:139). The authors continue to state that secondly, the data set by default is rich and large. Thirdly, it helps reproduce research conclusions already arrived at and thereby augmenting the generalizability of theories. Nonetheless, the research design presents varied disadvantages as well. Das *et al.* (2016:140) concede that often the data might have been collected

for reasons other than scientific, leading to important and interesting variables missing. The data is also vulnerable to the biases of the researcher, while the other problem could be the documents whose access is restricted, therefore proving more difficult to obtain. Archival research is synonymous with citation and content analysis as the preferred methods of analysing data (Das *et al.*, 2016:140).

5.2.2 Grounded Theory

The research design was developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967 and its focus is on developing theory about a phenomenon (Lingard, Albert & Levinson, 2008; Peters, 2014). It employs an analysis that is systematic that grounds higher understanding of a phenomenon which means the grounded theory design does not test or verify theory but rather develops it (Lingard *et al.*, 2008; Peters, 2014). Peters (2014:6) further notes that the design uses a “combination of empirical facts and existing theoretical knowledge” to build and develop a theory which makes its classification as deductive or inductive misplaced. Saunders *et al.* (2016:193) concurs that the design moves between deduction and induction, making it appropriate to classify its approach as abductive. On the other hand, Holt and Tamminen (2010:421) allude to the multiple variants of the grounded theory design though the authors fail to mention the variants. However, the authors note that a researcher needs to choose a variant based on a philosophical perspective while also cognisant of the fact that no version of the design is better than the other. Peters (2014:1) states that one of the key features of the design is iteration which involves “*cycles of simultaneous data collection and analysis, where analysis informs the next cycle of data collection*”. Sampling in the grounded theory design is not determined at the start of the research process, but it purposefully emerges along with the progression of the analysis process to challenge or confirm the emerging theory due to constant comparison (Lingard *et al.*, 2008). Therefore, this design uses a constant comparison analysis method in the analysis of data. Peters (2014:5) bemoans the vagueness and complexity of the grounded theory as the cause for most first-time researcher’s decision not to use it. Peters (2014:7) further mentions three elements that are central to the design; “building of concepts instead of description”, “theoretical sampling and theoretical saturation” and “writing of memos throughout the whole research process”.

5.2.3 Ethnography

According to Nieuwenhuis (2016:80), ethnography was birthed in anthropology studies and referred to the description and interpretation of what is learned in terms of people’s behaviours, values, language and beliefs from their perspective. Saunders *et al.* (2016:187) simply term it the study of a group’s social and cultural world and their interaction. Ethnography is characterised by the observed behaviours and description of the condition, with a focus more on what participants utter instead of how they describe themselves (Marcen, Gimeno, Gutierrez, Saenz & Sanchez, 2013). Another character of the design is trying to understand people’s reason for their actions through living within the group by the researcher to observe as well as to conduct in-depth interviews (Nieuwenhuis,

2016:80). The author states that there has to be a rapport between the observed and the observer for trust to be established, a feature which can often pose a danger to the research if the researcher gets too emotionally attached and resulting in clouded judgement and analysis.

However, Saunders *et al.* (2016:188) note that there are three ethnographic strategies that make up the design; realist, critical and interpretive ethnography. The realist ethnographer is objective, writes in the third person and seeks not to be biased or present himself or herself as a change agent (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:188). The author notes that in contrast, critical ethnography adopts the advocate role and works to bring change by radical exploration and explanation of authority and power dynamics within an organisation or community between the wielders of power and those subjected to it. The third strategy, interpretive is often also referred to as impressionist and is more concerned with subjective impressions where the researcher accepts the likelihood of varied connotations instead of a single one (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:188). The researcher assumes a pluralistic approach where the observed are treated as participants and not subjects, and the reporting of the reflection covers both the observer, in the first person, and the observed. Saunders *et al.* (2016), therefore suggest that the choice of the strategy is directed by the research question.

5.2.4 Narrative Inquiry

Narrative inquiry is simply “*a story; a personal account which interprets an event or sequence of events*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:197). Nieuwenhuis (2016:76) notes that as by nature, people lead storied lives, the researcher’s role is to collect, analyse and retell these stories as an account of the experience. In narrative inquiry, there is interaction with the audience, which leads to knowledge generated within a specific socio-cultural context. Saunders *et al.* (2016:198) clarify that the narrative preserves sequencing and chronological connections of events as a participant narrated, which help to enhance understanding. Nieuwenhuis (2016:76) argues that the retelling of events “*is like editing the past*” and is situated within a framework of social roles and construct of time, place, plot and scene. The data in this type of design is mostly collected through interviews, but other methods are likely to be used such as; “*field notes of the shared experience, journal records, interview transcripts, other’s observations, storytelling, letter writing, autobiographical writing documents to name but a few*” (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:77). Due to a small and purposefully selected sample that is taken through in-depth interviews, the data is often large, unstructured and incoherent. To help in achieving an analytical coherence, Saunders *et al.* (2016:199) suggest that the following elements should be addressed;

- *What is the story about?*
- *What happened, to whom, whereabouts and why?*
- *What consequences arose from this?*
- *What is the significance of these events?*

- *What was the final outcome?*

The authors conclude that in the narrative design, the researcher is central to the storytelling and he/she needs to make decisions on what is to be included or to leave out and how the parts are connected given the research question being answered.

5.2.5 Phenomenology

The research design is credited to the work of Edmund Husserl (1859 – 1938) which rejected the positivist approach of an objective, absolute truth view in human science studies (Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Fendt, 2018). Phenomenology is best described as an *“inquiry where deep understandings of lived experiences are sought”* (Fendt, 2018:174) and focuses on what meanings the lived experiences hold for participants (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:77). At face value the phenomenology design presents similarities with the narrative research design, however, Nieuwenhuis (2016:77) clarifies that while the latter focusses on a single individual’s life, the former *“describes the meaning for several individuals of their lived experiences of a concept or a phenomenon”*. Fendt (2018:177) potently points out that in phenomenology, the researcher seeks to describe in detail what is someone else’s perspective of “things” in front of them as opposed to the “things” themselves. Fendt (2018:177) states that this design *“is often referred to as the study of consciousness”*. Neubauer, Witkop and Varpio (2019:91) note that the objective of phenomenology is to answer the “what” and “how” questions of the lived experiences. The authors argue that there are different phenomenological approaches rooted in a variety of philosophical assumptions. Neubauer *et al.* (2019:91) highlight five of these approaches in which the first three are contemporary; Lifeworld approach (an approach that blends sociality, selfhood, embodiment and spatiality in life world manifestation of an individual); Post-intentional approach (the approach considers a phenomena from a multiple, within a context, concurrently producing and being the object of analysis). Other approaches are; Interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) which interprets the phenomena through the participants’ perspective of the experiences and objects, while transcendental emphasises on the researcher being subjective and his/her role assessed to neutralise biases so that the influence on the object of study is minimised (Neubauer *et al.*, 2019:93). The last approach Neubauer *et al.* (2019:94) mention is hermeneutic phenomenology which asserts that the researcher is not free from biases as he/she is part of the observed world and interpretation helps them understand the phenomena. The critical aspect about the design is not only the reliability of the research question, methodology and philosophy but the robustness of the engagement with the data during analysis (Neubauer *et al.*, 2019:95).

5.2.6 Case Study

A case study is an in-depth study of a phenomenon within the setting it occurs in (Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Ridder, 2017). The case may refer to any but not limited to the following;

community, organisation, event, individual, group, problem, anomaly or process. Ridder (2017:282) posit that, unlike in experimental studies, in the case study, the context of the conditions is part of the investigations and therefore no control is exercised over it. Case study requires understanding the dynamic interaction between subject and context of a case (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The case study research design has seen a widespread application for different purposes from deduction by positivists and induction by interpretivists researchers as well as in exploratory, descriptive and explanatory studies (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Unfortunately, it is this widespread use that has drawn criticism as the design is used for any study that is outside experimental, survey and historical research designs (Ridder, 2017: 282). Case study design can use different strategies depending on the objective of the inquiry. Saunders *et al.* (2016:186) highlight four strategies situated within two dimensions; single (one unique or critical case) versus multiple cases (more than one case with the view replicate findings across the different cases) and holistic (treating a case as one whole unit of enquiry) versus embedded (multiple units within a case embedded with a case are considered in the enquiry) case design. Nieuwenhuis (2016:82) adds a further two strategies in Intrinsic and Instrumental case studies. Due to the need for in-depth inquiry that is rich in data, case study design can utilise varied data collection techniques. Saunders *et al.* (2016:186) outline ethnography, different forms of observation, archival and documented records, questionnaires, interviews and focus groups and reflection as some of the tools that can be used in this design.

5.2.7 Action Research

Action research's origin is not clear save for the noted imperious contributions by Dewey in 1938 and Lewin in 1946 who came from divergent backgrounds in psychology and education (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Jennings, 2018). What is clear is that this research design is informed by the participatory paradigm (Jennings, Kensbock & Kachel, 2010; Jennings, 2018). The design can be understood as a participative, collaborative and iterative approach, which helps to develop practical knowledge to help the participants with worthwhile implications (Jennings, 2018; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Jennings (2018:220) further clarifies that action research is an outcome-oriented, action inquiry approach that "*inserts action into knowledge creation*". The author notes that the design helps bridge the disconnect of traditional research and application of its findings. However, Jennings (2018:218) notes the criticism levelled against this design as it is seen as best relevant in consultancy work, lacking a scientific basis, determined subjectively instead of objectively and favouring practical over intellectual knowledge. The criticism, as often is the case, stems predominantly from "*positivist or post-positivistic stances regarding what constitutes research*" (Jennings, 2018:218).

There are different contemporary approaches to action research as advanced by Jennings (2018:221) which are outlined, and their explanations summarised in table 5.1 below;

Table 5.1: Contemporary Approaches to Action Research

| ACTION RESEARCH APPROACH | DESCRIPTION |
|--|--|
| ACTION RESEARCH SPIRAL | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A three cycles framework consisting of each cycle with four stages of diagnosing, planning action, taking action and evaluating actions before the results of the first cycle feeds the next cyclical process and so forth |
| PARTICIPANT ACTION RESEARCH (PAR) | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focuses on relationships between community partners and academic where mutual benefits, shared-learning are core. It involves both in the process from design, data collection, analysis to conclusions and actions. |
| CLASSROOM ACTION RESEARCH | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A classroom-focused interpretive method of data collection and analysis that aid teachers in how their practice could be improved. |
| COMMUNITY ACTION RESEARCH | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To foster organisational transformation through the theory of learning in communities which brings together research, capacity building and practice. |
| ACTION LEARNING | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An approach employed in organisations that aid people’s development by using the task as a catalyst for learning. |
| COOPERATIVE (ECOLOGICAL) LEARNING | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cooperatively working with other people with similar issues to: 1. understand and make sense of your life, which leads to a new perspective on things and 2. Learn actions needed to change the things that need changing and inform the future better approach to life. |
| EMANCIPATORY | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Collectively practitioners work to identify the issues, actions that need taking, monitoring and reflect cyclically to achieve change. |
| DEVELOPMENTAL ACTION INQUIRY | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Blending of action and reflection is a human action. The inquiry negotiates a clearer awareness of how the action and reflection optimally blend in a specific time and place so that intervention can be made at a particular time. |
| FOURTH GENERATION EVALUATION | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> The approach advocates for focused responsiveness through the concerns, claims and problems of stakeholders, aiming to develop judgemental consensus within the stakeholders who once had conflicting views. |

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| ACTION SCIENCE | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> An inquiry that combines social practice with production and use of knowledge to advance learning among individuals and systems where the context is characterised by uncertainty, instability and uniqueness. |
|-----------------------|--|

(Source: Jennings, 2018)

From Jennings (2018) profiling of these approaches, a variety of applications for the action research design are evident which revolve around the situation needed to be addressed that the author admits is not exhaustive. Therefore, this thesis is built on the action research design, using the action science approach. The action science approach is further discussed in the next section.

5.3 Action Science

Edmondson, Beer, Friedman and Putnam (2014:2) state that action science is an action form of research where knowledge generation is focused on what people can use “*to create behavioural environments characterized by valid information, informed choice, and internal commitment*”. Raelin (1997:23) notes that it is an intervention approach which demands deliberate questioning of “*existing perspectives and interpretations*”. This approach is applied in this study because as Edmondson *et al.* (2014:2) intimated, it is more relevant “*when the objective is knowledge for action*”. The work included in-depth interviewing of community trust leaders and community members as Schon (1983 in Edmondson *et al.*, 2014:4) suggests knowledge resides; “*in the skilful performances of expert practitioners*” and “*in reflecting on their knowing-in-action*” which leads to development of themes that could be used in developing solutions. Raelin (1997:23) clarifies that through reflection and describing a situation, participants form a frame which explains what is inferred by other’s responses which ultimately informs solutions. The study entails investigating practitioners and communities in order to allow their reflections and interpretation of the phenomenon and their perspective to inform a sustainable framework on how to mitigate the hunting ban. As Edmondson *et al.* (2014) noted, through action science, knowledge that resides in the participants can be used to find better and workable solutions to the problem.

5.4 SAMPLING CONSIDERATION

Non-probability sampling techniques were used to select participants of this research (refer to section 1.6.3 for further explanation). The participants were drawn from the community, community trusts, public tourism organisations, former hunting employees and business operators.

Community (Sankuyo and Mmadinare)

Firstly, community members were sampled using a quota sampling technique from the two case study villages of Mmadinare and Sankuyo (refer to section 1.6.3 for discussion of how quota sampling was carried out). Quota sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that ensure that the target population is grouped into homogeneous sub-groups in order to address possible variations in the

target population (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:299). This study used geographic quotas to ensure representation of all areas within the communities in the sample. The total sample size for the study was forty-six (n=46) from both communities. Saunders *et al.* (2016:297) state that in deciding sample size, the degree of homogeneity of the population should be taken into consideration. For example, a heterogeneous population would require a large sample, while a homogeneous one needs a smaller sample. Similarly, Maree and Pietersen (2016:199) add that aside from homogeneity, other factors such as time, costs, research aim also play a role in size determination. In studies that require comparing groups, equal sample size needs to be determined for each group with a minimum size of fifteen (15) recommended and a minimum of thirty (30) for correlational studies (Maree & Pietersen, 2016:200). Saunders *et al.* (2016:297) propose a size of between (4 and 12) for homogeneous non-probability sample and between 12 to 30 for a heterogeneous sample size. Therefore, considering the homogeneous population in both areas, the need for comparison and the non-probability criteria used, led to a sample size of forty-six (46).

Community Trust Leaders

Secondly, a purposive sampling technique was used to select participants (see section 1.6.3.2). Purposive sampling describes the technique where the researcher uses judgement to select participants who can best answer research questions (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:301). There are different types of approaches/strategies under purposive sampling method which researcher's use and these include key informants, intensity purposive and expert sampling techniques (Patton, 2002; Mahachi, Mokgalo & Pansiri, 2015; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Key informants' strategy in purposive sampling method was used in this study, as key informants have leading positions in society or their area (Payne & Payne, 2004). In this case, key informants as a strategy were used to purposively select participants, which included; Current Manager of Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT) and the previous chairman of STMT (see section 1.6.3.2 for clarity) as well as the vice-chairman of Mmadinare Development Trust for a total of three participants.

Public tourism organisation

The key informants sampling strategy was also used to select the participants from public organisations which constitute the third group of participants. Only one participant from Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) was interviewed after another from the Ministry of Environment, Natural Resource Conservation and Tourism participant pulled out (see section 1.6.3.2). Key informants as a purposive sampling technique is used where there is need to gain knowledge from individuals that have particular expertise (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Similarly, a semi-structured interview was used to collect data from participants.

Former Hunting employees

A different sampling method was used in this population due to difficulty in locating the participants. Snowball sampling technique derive its name from the snowball, which grows in size as it is rolled in the snow, and therefore, the method works through referral of a case who refers another meeting similar characteristics until the size grows to the required level (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Saunders *et al.* (2016:303) state that snowball is a volunteer technique which is used when participants are “difficult to identify” within a population. Saunders *et al.* (2016:303) note the limitation of this technique in finding new cases as well as being slow as the identification of other participants is dependent on others’ recommendations. The authors, however, concede that where the participants are difficult to find, the technique remains the best option. The sample size for this population was four (n=4) participants

Business operators

A snowball sampling technique yielded two participants in Sankuyo; however, in Mmadinare, no participants were interviewed as the businesses could not meet the inclusion criteria (see section 1.6.3.2). Therefore, two (n=2) participants were selected from the population.

5.5 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES

Data can be anything from “numbers, images, words, figures, facts or ideas” (Dadhe, 2016:65). Data is not an end by itself but rather leads to knowledge gained from its analysis. There are various types of data which are classified into secondary and primary data (Dadhe, 2016; Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). However, the focus of this section is to review various primary data collection techniques that are predominantly used in qualitative studies and to clarify the ones that were used for this study. Therefore, this section reviewed documents, engaged in observations and conducted different types of interviews as forms of data collection techniques.

5.5.1 Documents

This form of data can be found in both secondary and primary form. Nieuwenhuis (2016) notes that in this form of data collection technique, both published (secondary) and unpublished (primary) data may form part of the required data needed to address the research question. However, there is often a grey area in the classification of whether documents are primary or secondary. Dadhe, (2016:76) and Saunders *et al.* (2016:319) classify all documents as secondary data sources though new insights can be gained from them through different methods of analysis. Notwithstanding that, Nieuwenhuis (2016) cautions that care should be taken in determining the accuracy and authenticity of document data. The breath of the various classification of what constitutes document data is large. It includes; government records, company reports, administrative correspondence records like faxes, emails, letters; magazines, newspapers, blogs, minutes of boards and committees (Dadhe, 2016; Saunders

et al., 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Nieuwenhuis (2016:89) offers selection criteria when determining which documents to form part of your study. The author argues that consideration should be placed on the kind of document one is dealing with (official or unofficial), publication date (is it still relevant to the phenomenon studied), is it empirically informed or based on opinion and also the “*purpose of the document*” should be established. This form of data collection can be used to corroborate findings from other sources (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016).

5.5.2 Observation

Observation is a data collection technique that entails recording systematically behavioural patterns of objects, participants and occurrences with neither communication nor questioning the observed (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Radel (2018:274) opines that observation is complex and is usually used where interactions and behaviours are needed to be described in a group “*who interact with each other regularly in a relatively fixed setting*”. Saunders *et al.* (2016:354) clarify that this complex and systematic discovery involves “*viewing, recording, description, analysis and interpretation of people’s behaviour*”. The authors further state that this data collection method could either be structured or participant centred. The difference in the two being that structured observation is more quantitative focused with a recording of action frequencies, while the participant centred approach is more qualitative and is interested in meanings. It is the participant observation that is further reviewed below due to its focus on qualitative data.

Participant observation allows the researcher into the observed social world (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Radel, 2018). Radel (2018:275) credits Junker as well as Gold in the 1950s with advancing the participant observation method which culminated in four typologies identified to explain the roles played by the observer. The roles or types of participant observations are; complete participant, complete observer, observer as participant and participant as an observer (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Radel, 2018). A complete participant attempts to immerse him/herself in the social setting while concealing the researcher role they play. Nieuwenhuis (2016) notes that this often raises ethical concern issues as prior consent is absent. Complete observer role involves non-participation in the social setting but takes a less conspicuous observation (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). However, its effectiveness might be hampered by non-immersion in the situation or setting and therefore might not fully comprehend what is being observed (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). In the ‘observer as participant’ role, the researcher is involved primarily as an observer and his/her identity as a researcher is known yet makes no attempt to influence the observed (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Finally, the ‘participant as observer’ role, the researcher immerses in the situation or setting by taking part and acting to influence the outcome. Nieuwenhuis (2016) states that this form of observation is predominant in action research studies. Nonetheless, Saunders *et al.* (2016:363) caution that in participant observation, researchers need to guard against threats that can affect the reliability or dependability of the data such as observer bias, error and observer effect.

5.5.3 Interviews

Interviews in research entail two or more people purposefully conversing (Saunders *et al.*, 2016) while Picken (2018:415) concurs that the main principle of the interview is “*that talking to people is a useful way of answering a question, understanding a problem or solving it*”. Picken (2018) argue that in tourism, interviews are preferred in answering the question that requires in-depth investigation. There are three types of interviews; unstructured, semi-structured and structured, which will be discussed in this section. **Two of these types (semi-structured and structured) have been used in the study.**

5.5.3.1 Unstructured Interviews

This is an interview that takes an informal approach (Saunders *et al.*, 2016), is conversational and explorative (Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Picken (2018:423) further notes that this type of interview is preferable where exploration of a hazy topic is required or to uncover a complex concept that requires in-depth investigation. Nieuwenhuis (2016:93) argues that unstructured interviews and participant observation are often applied together such that information from observation is gathered while informally interviewing subjects. In this interview type, there are no predetermined questions listed, and the subject can freely talk about the phenomenon.

5.5.3.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews strike a balance between ‘non-standardised’ and ‘standardised’ where a researcher has key themes and questions to be covered during the interview (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:391). This type of interview also allows additional questions outside the interview schedule to allow the interviewer freedom to explore the issues further (Harrell and Bradley, 2009; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). According to Saunders *et al.* (2016:392) semi-structured interviews are expedient in exploratory studies as they allow interviewers to probe answers from participants gaining interpretive insights into a phenomenon. Semi-structured allows for a “*list of themes and questions to be covered*” during the interview (Saunders *et al.*, 2009:320). Picken (2018:421) notes that with semi-structured interviews, “*each question that is repeated across interviews serves as an ‘item’ that can then be analysed and compared across interviews*”. Therefore, the strength of this interview type is the comparability of responses across groups or individuals. The objectives were used to guide the formulation of questions as well as the work of Joppe (1996) on sustainable community tourism development as well as Richards and Hall (2000) book on tourism and sustainable community development to investigate the same in this community. The line of predetermined questions was informed by five themes. The first section looked at the background of the area or CBO (or background of CBNRM in the case of BTO). The questions were informed by previous literature on background of wildlife conservation and community-based organisations in Botswana (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010) as well as literature on impacts, challenges and community participation in

CBNRM (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010; Mbaiwa, 2004c). Section B and C asked questions on management of the CBT hunting project and Management of the current project. The questions were informed by previous literature on monitoring and evaluation of performance (Bothma & du Toit, 2016), success factors (Thakadu, 2005) and structure of CBOs (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010). Finally section D and E covered topics on Community involvement in CBT and sustainable development strategies, whose questions were informed by previous literature by Joppe (1996) and Richards and Hall (2000).

This data collection instrument was used in collecting data from community trust leaders, former hunting employees, small business operators and public entity participants.

5.5.3.3 Structured Interviews

A structured interview uses pre-determined and structured questions to obtain information of a larger pool of participants in a cost-effective and timely manner (Altinay *et al.*, 2016) and they are also referred to as “*quantitative research interviews*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:391). The interview comprises of the same questions across participants asked by the same interviewer in the same order (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:93). The author argues that there is no probing in this type of interview as the researcher is more interested with factual data, which Saunders *et al.* (2016:391) adds that the data is quantifiable. Structured interviews were used to collect data from community members in the villages of Sankuyo and Mmadinare. This allowed qualitative descriptive data that is quantifiable and can be compared across the two groups. As a data collection method, its appeal in this study was the flexibility of consistency as structured interviews are preferred in “*multiple case studies or larger sample groups*” (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:93).

Structured interviews in this study, were only administered to the community members sample and were guided by the study objectives guided by previous literature on impacts, challenges and community participation in CBNRM (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010; Mbaiwa, 2004c), success factors (Thakadu, 2005), Community involvement in CBT and sustainable development strategies (Joppe, 1996; Richards & Hall, 2000) as discussed under semi-structured interviews (see section 5.5.3.2). The questions were structured such that enquiries on experiences of tourism before and after the hunting ban used a mix of both closed and open-ended questions. Questions were read out to the respondents and the responses were then recorded by the interviewer. Saunders *et al.* (2016:391) reiterates this process of reading out questions and recording by the same researcher for all participants in the same tone of voice to minimise biasness. Questions on the impacts of tourism were in a Likert scale that rated the statements from one (1) to six (6) with one being “totally disagree” to five being “totally agree” while six was “not applicable”. The questions on

strategies that could be applied to mitigate, were all open-ended to allow the community members to express themselves.

The questions from the interviews (semi-structured and structured interviews) will inform the proposed strategy through the different themes communicated in the five sections of the instruments. Questions on structure of CBOs and their management and impacts before and after the ban of hunting informs the facilitation conditions and process of the strategy (see Figure 7.1). Community involvement, challenges and recommendations on mitigation, contribute data on the enabling environment (see section 7.3.2 and Figure 7.1).

5.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis entails interpretation and making sense of the data. Nieuwenhuis (2016:109) states that most qualitative research designs have similarities in approaches to data analysis. What is evident is that there are various strands of qualitative data analysis methods. Nieuwenhuis (2016) and Ratcliff (2013) mention fifteen (15) methods, while Saunders *et al.* (2016) highlight eleven (11) methods some of which share commonalities with the Ratcliff (2013) review. However, the authors admit that the most predominant analysis methods practiced in most qualitative studies are; content, thematic, discourse, constant comparative and narrative analysis (Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Ratcliff, 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Nieuwenhuis (2016: 105) clarify that various qualitative designs birthed variants of the analysis methods. For example, grounded theory, phenomenology and ethnography all use the content analysis method to analyse data with variation due to the focus of each design and coding procedures. Likewise, case study design studies are noted to use constant comparison analysis, a method Lingard *et al.* (2008) also ascribe to ethnography. Nonetheless, Saunders *et al.* (2016: 572) note that the qualitative data analysis process involves transcription, familiarisation with data, categorising data, coding data and refining the codes even though such processes are not linear and can follow no particular order. The following sections review the most practiced analysis methods as espoused by the literature and identified in this section. **The study utilised thematic analysis to analyse qualitative data and cross-tabulation on the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to analyse numerical data.**

5.6.1 Discourse analysis

Central to the meaning of the discourse analysis method is language written or spoken and the different patterns revealed by people's utterances (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Nieuwenhuis (2016) argue that unlike in content analysis where the focus is factual information, in discourse analysis social relations can be constructed. The analysis is not on the use of language but rather how subjects express their social world through text or speech (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). This

approach Nieuwenhuis (2016:113) note helps to uncover the “*ideological assumptions*” inherent in written or oral speech. Saunders *et al.* (2016) contends that discourse analysis has different approaches that include interdiscursive and intertextual analysis. Interdiscursive refers to the interlinking of discourses within a study, while intertextual means the overt and covert borrowing of texts from one another.

5.6.2 Constant comparative analysis

Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007:565) intimate that constant comparative is the most commonly used analysis method in qualitative studies. Its formation is credited to Glaser and Strauss in 1967 (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Ratcliff, 2013). As with other qualitative analysis techniques, the data needs to be read and re-read, categorised into meaningful units, then code the categories or label them and finally compare the labelled units by similarity to establish themes (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007; Ratcliff, 2013). Glaser (1965:438) argues that this analysis method is not restricted to one single type of information as it can be applied to “*observations, interviews, documents, articles, books and so forth*”. The analysis method allows constant comparison of codes to see differences and consistencies (Ratcliff, 2013) or doing participant checking by going back to the participants for them to verify whether the codes represent their statements (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007:565) which validates the data. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007:565) state that constant comparison can be used inductively (where codes are allowed to emerge from the data), deductively (where codes are created prior to analysis and then identified in the data during analysis) or abductively (codes emerge from an iterative interaction with data).

5.6.3 Narrative analysis

Mostly used in narrative study design, this analysis technique intersects with other qualitative analysis techniques and allows the researcher to “*track sequences, chronology, stories or processes in the data*” while being cognizant that narratives can take a forward or backward trajectory that needs to be tracked (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:104). However, Saunders *et al.* (2016:600) argue that narrative is not necessarily an analytical technique but rather a collection of approaches used in different aspects of a narrative. The authors contend that while themes or codes might emerge in the analysis, the narrative context should not be lost as it is paramount in the analysis. Saunders *et al.* (2016:601) note that a narrative analysis is rather a collection of approaches, it might pursue a thematic narrative or structural narrative analysis, which Nieuwenhuis (2016:104) refers to as functional and structural analysis. The thematic or functional narrative is concerned with the content or what is being narrated while structural is about the ‘how’ and deals with the development, organisation or construction of the narrative (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Therefore, narrative analysis is more important where sequencing and preservation of chronological events is needed to enhance understanding.

5.6.4 Content analysis

Content analysis is a technique that is systematic, replicable and follows explicit rules in coding of qualitative data to quantify it (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Ratcliff, 2013). However, Krippendorff (2004:87) argues that quantification is not a requirement but merely a convenience within this analysis method. Nonetheless, the author admits that “*content analysts have to be more explicit about what steps they follow than qualitative scholars need to be*” (Krippendorff (2004:88)). This is what leads Saunders *et al.* (2016:608) and Kassirjian (1977:8) to argue that there are fundamental concepts that differentiate this analysis method from others, and they are; systematic, objective, quantitative description and manifest content. Saunders *et al.* (2016:609) and Nieuwenhuis (2016:112) concur that the researcher has to make a choice on the content aspect between manifest and latent content. Manifest is what is palpable, visible and what the message conveys from the data, while latent refers to the meaning and the relationship aspect of the text (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Kassirjian (1977:9) states that the concept of objectivity is based on the question “*can other analysts, following identical procedures with the same set of data, arrive at similar conclusions?*”. Objectivity is interested in factuality not on subjective connotations. This aspect of objectivity is similar within the context of content analysis to the ‘systematic’ concept which is interested in consistency, transparency and replicability of findings (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Thus, the steps in the process of the analysis must be explicit and based on rules and procedures. The quantification concept according to Kassirjian (1977) is the feature that makes content analysis distinctive, though Krippendorff (2004) argues that its merely a convenience. However, Kassirjian (1977:10) admits that quantification can take the form of quantifying using words like many, more, increases and often and not necessarily strict numerical values. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2007:569) clarify that in content analysis, once the codes have been identified they can be analysed descriptively, quantitatively or both. Choosing this analysis method depends on the research question as Saunders *et al.* (2016:610) intimate that its suitable in descriptive designs where the ‘what’, ‘when’, ‘where’, ‘who’ and ‘how’ questions need to be answered.

5.6.5 Thematic analysis

The thematic analysis method is used in this study and the analysis process is further discussed in the next section. For discussions of the analysis method, refer to section 1.6.6 in chapter 1.

5.6.5.1 Thematic analysis process

This thesis utilised thematic analysis due to its flexibility as it can be adopted regardless of whether the study is objective or subjective. In this study, the processes of analysis as outlined by Saunders *et al.* (2016:580) above were followed. Transcribing as the first step, should be cognizant of both words and sounds like laughter and gestures and should not be summarised, but every word should

be written as it was spoken (Nieuwenhuis, 2016:115). The researcher recorded interviews using a Dictaphone. This tool gives functions such as reversing, pausing and forwarding data which makes it easy in the transcribing process. The researcher transcribed and translated the information as most of the interviewees responded in the local language of Setswana. Therefore, this researcher led transcriptions and translation allowed the researcher to ensure meaning, words and impressions were not lost in translation. The next stage in the data analysis process involved “to get to know the data” which meant reading and re-reading the transcribed text in order to understand it. The process of familiarisation was also done which included making self-memos and reflective notes which help in the analysis process (Saunders *et al.*, 2016; Nieuwenhuis, 2016). Saunders *et al.* (2016:576) suggest making transcript summaries which involves compressing data into brief statements that capture the essence of what each particular interview section conveys. The transcript summaries along with self-memos and a reflective journal are what Saunders *et al.* (2016:575) term aids of analysis.

Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:2) add that there is a need to focus the analysis along the line of your study focus and study objective. The authors suggest that the analysis may be focused in two ways; by the research question, time period, topic or event and the second way is through a case, individual or group. Therefore, the data was focused through questions and topics, such that responses answering the main pertinent questions were put together and those classified according to topics. For example, “management of CBT projects” and all responses relating to questions answering this topic were grouped together. The next step in the process which Saunders *et al.* (2016:580) define as coding, is an act of assigning categories to data presenting similarity in their extract meaning. This process helps to manage big data that is often generated by qualitative research into manageable pieces for further analysis. Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:2) note that while this stage can be intensive, it is the core of the analysis process. A code can be a phrase or a word which Nieuwenhuis (2016:116) clarifies as being assigned wherever there is “meaning units” or “meaningful segment” in the text. Codes are in two forms; emergent (developing as you interact with the data) and *a priori* (developed in advance from existing theory and literature) codes. The study was driven by both emergent and *a priori* codes in the analysis which Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003:3) allude to being possible in an iterative process. Therefore, pre-set codes from the structured interviews were combined with emergent ones from the semi-structured interviews. The emergent codes used were further abbreviated for ease of the coding process. For example, a code such as “multiple partners” will be “*MLT-part*” as that is shorter to apply in the text being analysed.

The next stage in the analysis process was looking for themes which is basically a “*broad category incorporating several codes that appear to be related to one another*” and points to an idea related to the research question (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:584). The authors also state that some codes might assume the theme status due to their importance. Braun and Clarke (2006:82) ask a pertinent question of what constitutes a theme. The consideration often centres around prevalence and

importance. However, Braun and Clarke (2006:82) add that there is “*no hard-and-fast answer to the question of what proportion of your data set needs to display evidence of the theme for it to be considered a theme*” but that the rule of thumb is that the data must reflect something critical to the research question. Nonetheless, the criteria of importance and prevalence were both used in the analysis of data in this study. Prevalence was considered relevant in the structured interview analysis as the concept of recurrence (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:2) was applied due to a significant sample size, while importance was applied in semi-structured interviews. The final step taken in the analysis process which involves re-reading the codes and themes to check if the themes developed are really relevant which culminates in a refining process taking place (Saunders *et al.*, 2016:585). This entails some themes being separated to form new ones while others can be combined. Closed questions in the structured interviews were analysed using descriptive statistics.

5.6.6 Descriptive statistical analysis

The study uses categorical variables and therefore frequencies and cross-tabulation were used to analyse data from the community structured interview sample. Further discussion of the analysis techniques is provided in section 1.6.6 in Chapter 1.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The chapter is a clarification of the methodological design of the study. Therefore, the chapter started by reviewing and providing insight into the various research designs applicable in qualitative studies. The discussions considered seven (7) designs from archival, grounded theory, ethnography, narrative inquiry, phenomenology, case study and action research. The chapter indicated that action research design is used for this study utilising an action science approach. Action science utilises the knowledge that resides in practitioners in their everyday interpretations and experiences of the phenomenon to formulate solutions. The chapter then considered sampling techniques to select participants and three non-probability sampling methods were used. Firstly, quota sampling was used to select community members' participants in the two communities of Mmadinare and Sankuyo. Secondly, a purposive key informants' method was used to select trust leaders in both communities as well as BTO representative. Thirdly, a snowball sampling technique was used to sample the former hunting employees and businesses. The data from the participants was then collected using both semi-structured and structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with trust leaders, former hunting employees and businesses, while structured interviews were administered to community members. The chapter also reviewed various methods of qualitative data analysis. Thematic analysis was chosen as the analysis method for this study due to its ability to establish patterns within the data, offer interpretation of these patterns and describe in detail their meanings. Furthermore, descriptive statistics was used to numerically give frequencies of responses from the structured interviews as the data was extracted in categorical variables.

CHAPTER 6

EMPIRICAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter's focus is on presentation and discussion of results from the data collected. The data was collected from four populations; trust leaders, former hunting employees and businesses, community members and Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO). The first population generated three (n=3) participants, the second had four (n=4), third had two (n=2), the fourth had forty six (n=46) and the last (BTO) only one interviewee. There was a total of fifty-six (n=56) participants overall. The findings from each population were presented and discussed individually to show perspectives of experiences of the phenomena by each population. The relationship to the findings from the different groups were established and convergent as well as divergent views highlighted in the chapter summary. Therefore, the chapter first sought to clarify the data analysis procedure, presented results from participants according to the stated populations in the same order and draw key findings in the summary.

6.2 THEMATIC ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

6.2.1 Assembling and organising data

The analysis process drew on the work of various authors in order to provide clarity as to how the whole procedure of data reduction and identifying key findings was done. Figure 6.1 illustrates the Saldana (2013:12) model of moving from data to assertions or theory in a thematic qualitative inquiry which was the main model informing the analysis procedure. Furthermore, Adu (2013) concept of anchor codes was used to guide the coding process. According to Adu (2017) anchor coding is the label used to organise codes in accordance with the research questions.

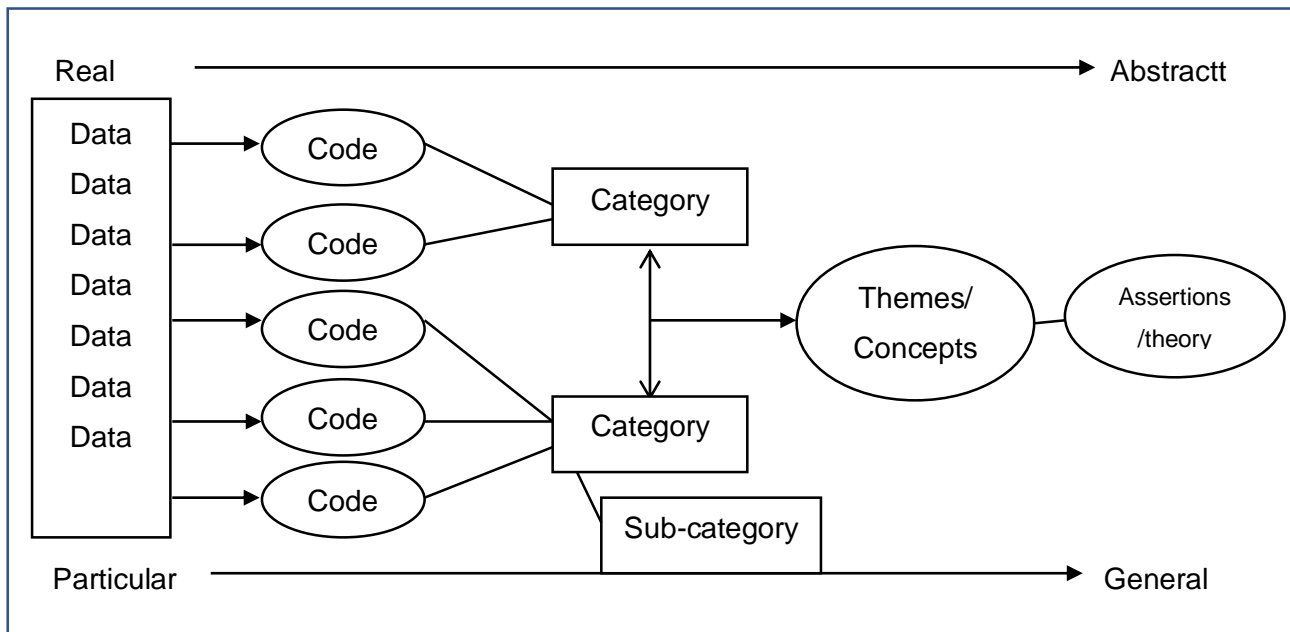


Figure 6.1: A streamlined codes-to-theory model for qualitative inquiry
(Source: Saldana, 2013:12)

Therefore, the anchor codes were first developed to guide the coding, guided by the research questions and the main study objective. For example, the Trust leaders interview schedule was divided into five sections in line with what the research question wanted to ascertain. Each section contained questions that were tailored to address the research objectives of the study.

The first section sought to solicit data on background to the area and wildlife tourism. Under the section the main questions sought to draw out the following main issues which were used as anchor codes to guide the initial coding of the data:

- Reasons for hunting ban
- Benefits of hunting to communities
- Challenges of hunting
- Impacts of hunting on communities

The second section sought to investigate the management of the CBT hunting projects and the following anchor codes were used to guide the coding of data;

- Monitoring and evaluation of hunting project
- Success factors
- Management challenges
- Legal and administrative structure

The third section is similar to the second in terms of the investigation but looks at the current CBT project, and thus the anchor codes used to guide coding were identified as follows;

- Monitoring and evaluation of current project
- Success factors
- Management challenges
- Legal and administrative structure

The fourth section looked at the aspect of community involvement in hunting tourism as well as the current CBT project. The initial coding analysis was guided by the following anchor codes;

- Involvement in management
- Decision making

The last section was specific to sustainable development strategies and the initial coding was guided by the following anchor codes;

- Attitudes towards wildlife
- Best approach to conserving wildlife
- Tourism products and services that can be developed
- What is needed for tourism products/services to be successful?
- Strategies to increase community participation

The coding of data from former hunting employees and businesses was similarly approached through a combination of predetermined and emerging codes (Botma, Greeff, Mulaudzi & Wright, 2010: 225). The anchor codes were first developed to guide the coding. The interview sought to compliment the data from trust leaders and as such much of the questions were related in order to deduce issues surrounding the phenomena and improve the trustworthiness of the findings. Therefore, the following anchor codes were used to categorise the codes from this population;

- Benefits of hunting to the participants
- Opportunities created by hunting
- Success factors
- Challenges of hunting
- Current challenges
- Hunting vs Photographic tourism (ecotourism)
- Reasons for the ban
- Consultation
- Tourism products to recommend
- What is needed for recommended products to succeed?

6.2.2 Coding Process of Interviews

One must understand that the coding stage appears as the third stage (the different stages in the thematic analysis were discussed in Chapter 5, section 5.5.5.1). Therefore, after the identification of anchor codes, coding of data was done line-by-line as suggested by Saldana (2013:3) and Nieuwenhuis (2016:116). The coding was both 'In Vivo' and structural. In Vivo codes are those terms or labels that are derived from the language used by the participants (Botma *et al.*, 2010; Nieuwenhuis, 2016; Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2016) while structural is coding that is most useful in semi-structured data and uses content phrases shaped by "*specific research question used to frame the interview*" (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013:10). Highlighting colours on Microsoft word were used in the coding process by assigning a similar colour to codes that fall within the same anchor code. Coding was done on each of the transcribed interview scripts. The next step in the analysis procedure was to group all the codes together and develop categories. This process, often referred to as codifying, "*helps to group and link data so as to enact and consolidate meaning and explanatory interpretation*" (Hedlund-de Witt, 2013:6). Saldana (2013:8) describes categories as classifying or grouping codes with similar characteristics. Therefore, all codes from trust leaders were grouped together and classified according to the created topics (anchor codes), and categories assigned to groups of codes which shared the same message or characteristics. The categorising process was done in a word table document with codes arranged according to their similarity and categories assigned in a corresponding column. The next stage following categorisation is what Saldana (2013:10) refers to as re-categorisation. The author argues that rarely anyone gets coding and categorisation process correct the first time, therefore a review is necessary to pay attention to the reflections, language and meanings the data communicates. Re-classification and re-categorisation of codes is bound to occur as the data's salient meanings are refined. Following re-categorisation, the researcher then created a new Microsoft Word document where all the categories were put together from trust leaders and a different Word document was created for each of the samples; former hunting employees, business participants and public organisations. Relationships between the categories for trust leaders were then established (Saldana, 2013:9) as per (Figure 6.1) and presented as Table 6.2 and the same approach done for former employees, businesses and public organisations and presented in Table 6.4, 6.5 and 6.14 respectively.

The act of establishing relationships helps to move the analysis process from categories to themes, which is a higher, general and abstract level construct (Saldana, 2013; Hedlund-de Witt, 2013). The Theming process took into cognisance the initially created topics or anchor codes which are discussed above. However, the theming process allowed the topics themselves to be refined to eliminate repetition and redundancy, and the new topics are presented as illustrated in Table 6.2 , 6.4 and 6.5 and further discussed in the following section.

6.3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF TRUST LEADERS' INTERVIEWS

The section presents and discusses results from interviews with the two trusts' leaders in Sankuyo and Mmadinare. The section also presents background information of the trusts and their current state to give the context of the discussion. Therefore, this section provides clarity on trusts, the time the trust was founded, wildlife utilisation products present before the ban of hunting and after the ban was imposed. It further presents the findings from the interviews in themes arranged according to predetermined topics.

6.3.1 Demographic data

The participants were all males who had tertiary qualifications. Their positions in their respective organisations ranged from vice chairperson, former vice chairperson and trust manager.

Table 6.1: Trust Leaders' demographic profiles

| INTERVIEWEE | PSEUDONYM | GENDER | LENGTH IN POSITION | LEVEL OF QUALIFICATION |
|---------------------------------------|---------------|--------|--------------------|------------------------|
| Current Sankuyo trust leader | Interviewee 1 | Male | 18 months | Post-graduate degree |
| Former Sankuyo Trust leader | Interviewee 2 | Male | 6 Years | Undergraduate degree |
| Current Mmadinare Trust leader | Interviewee 3 | Male | 5 years | Undergraduate degree |

There were two interviewees from the STMT trust as the current leader has only been in the position for just over one (1) year and an additional participant in the form of the previous leader was included to improve the reliability of the information, especially on information prior to the ban of hunting in 2014. However, the current leader has a strong background in tourism, as he worked in the industry for various businesses around the Okavango Delta for the past six years. The Mmadinare Trust representative assumed his position as one of the leaders in 2014 but before that, he was a board member of the trust.

6.3.2 Background of Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust (STMT)

Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust was founded in 1994 by the village of Sankuyo which is situated about 85 kilometres northeast of the major village of Maun in northern Botswana.

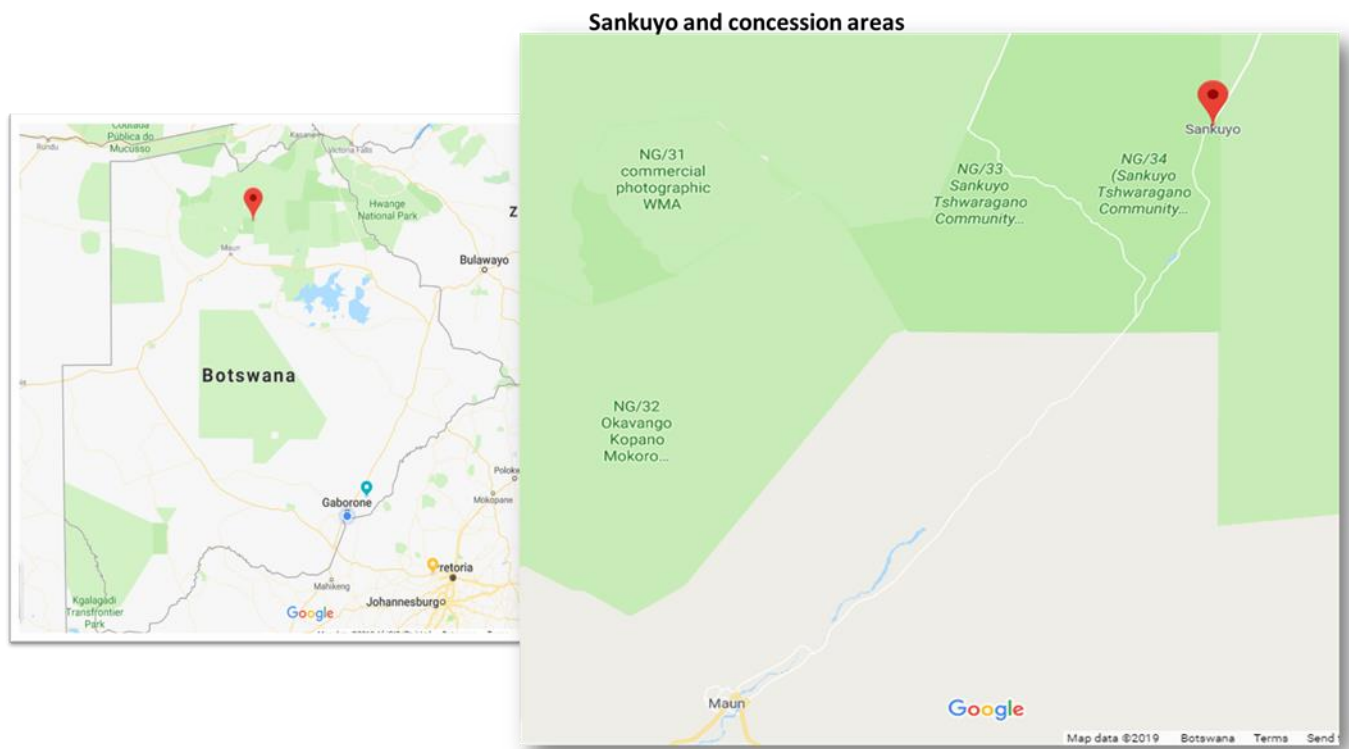


Figure 6.2: A Map of Sankuyo Village and the Concession areas
(Source: Google maps, 2019)

According to the current trust leader, the trust is a legal entity representing the villagers and owns 'head-leases' to two Wildlife Management Areas (WMA), otherwise known as concessions called NG33 and NG34 as shown in figure 6.2. The trust owns a campsite, called Kaziikini, which is situated on the road to Moremi Game Reserve bordering the Okavango Delta. The campsite, however, only offers campsite accommodation and offers no game drive activities. The trust also has a cultural village which demonstrates local culture. The trust has four (4) partners that have been leased sections of their concessions though they are at different stages of operational development. One concession, NG33, is leased to one operator who is still awaiting a lease from government to offer photographic tourism. The other concession, NG34, has been divided into four (4) sections; high, two medium and one low-value zones. The high-value zone is operational as a photographic tourism operation (Ecotourism) and run by a company called 'One Botswana Sky', while the two medium zones are leased to two different operators who are at different stages of their operational lease process with government and therefore not yet operational. The low-value zone has no operator, and it was one of the zones used for hunting tourism before the ban. Currently, the different tourism operators employ 110 people, the vast majority of which are from the village of Sankuyo.

6.3.3 Background of Mmadinare Development Trust

According to the current leader, Mmadinare Development Trust was founded in 2000 by the village of Mmadinare community. The village is semi-urban and is about 15 kilometres from the copper mining town of Selebi-Phikwe in eastern Botswana (MDT, 2014). The position of the village on the map of Botswana as well as relative to the town is illustrated in Figure 6.3.



Figure 6.3: A Map of Mmadinare
(Source: Google maps, 2019)

According to the current leader, since its inception, the trust's revenue source was hunting of predominantly elephants within one concession (CT27) and at the time of the interview, there was no source of income. In 2013, the trust initiated and formulated a strategic plan which ran from 2014 and will end in December 2019. The plan had elaborate ideas which included the utilisation of the two main dams (Letsibogo and Dikgatlong) adjacent to the village, utilisation of land for a guesthouse, eco-lodge and game park as well as the development of heritage sites. Information from the interviewee is that land has been acquired for the lodge, game park and plans are drafted for heritage sites development. However, at the time of the interview, no development had been done as yet. The interviewee is one of the current leaders as already alluded and was a board trustee before the ban of hunting in 2014.

6.3.4 TRUST LEADER'S FINDINGS

The interview results from the two case study trusts were analysed together, and the findings are presented in themes in line with the topics guiding the research as presented in Table 6.2

Table 6.2: Trust Leader's themes

| TOPICS/ ANCHOR CODES | CATEGORIES | EMERGING THEMES |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> BENEFITS OF HUNTING | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Revenue Generation Revenue Community projects Community Projects Community Skills | Revenue aided community projects and skills development |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> CHALLENGES OF HUNTING | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of Pricing Strategy Technical Advisory Committee (TAC) lacks expertise | Lack of expertise in pricing quotas |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> REASONS FOR THE BAN | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ulterior motive Different reasons are given | Different messages imply ulterior motive |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> MONITORING AND EVALUATION | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Aerial Surveys Community guides | Government and community monitoring efforts |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reports in current CBT | Business reporting |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> FACTORS FOR SUCCESS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Community Involvement Benefit realisation | Community involvement leads to benefit realisation |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Good relationship | Good business relationships |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Abundance of wildlife | Abundance of wildlife |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • STRUCTURE OF OPERATIONS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legal Agreements • Donor initiated • Government facilitated • Community as decision-maker • Community input • Trust governance level involvement • Community-level involvement | <p>Donor initiated, government facilitated and bottom-up initiatives</p> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CURRENT CHALLENGES | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centralisation • Bureaucracy | <p>Bureaucratic challenges</p> |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative community attitudes threatening wildlife | <p>Negative attitudes threatening wildlife</p> |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Loss of revenue • No Transition plan from hunting to ecotourism | <p>Loss of revenue due to the absence of a transition plan from hunting to tourism</p> |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community engagement delays progress <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Community decision making eroded | <p>Resistance of community engagement in business operations</p> |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RECOMMENDATIONS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lift ban • Improve management | <p>Lift ban and improve management</p> |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Autonomy in operating own facilities <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Lack of confidence in the current processes | <p>Communities' autonomy in operating own facilities</p> <p>Sub-theme: Developing available</p> |

| | | |
|--|--|--------------------------------------|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop available assets • Partnerships | assets through partnerships |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FACTORS NEEDED FOR RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUCCEED | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Funding is needed • Various funding sources | Funding |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Calibre of trustees | Good calibre of trustees |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multi-stakeholder approach • Bottom-up approach | Bottom-up multi-stakeholder approach |

TAC – Technical Advisory Committee

6.3.4.1 Benefits of hunting

The results demonstrate that, there were benefits that accrued to communities from the hunting operations of their wildlife management areas (WMA). These benefits were derived by both case study trusts, though impacts on the respective communities were varied owing to the length of time the hunting operations existed. One theme emerged; Revenue aided community projects and skills development, which is further discussed below.

6.3.4.1.1 Revenue aided community projects and skills development

The trusts benefited from revenue generated through hunting tourism. While in Sankuyo photographic tourism was later initiated, the impact of hunting on the community was still immense. The revenue generated from hunting was substantially more than tourism and was earned in a short period of time. Interviewee 1 clarifies this point;

“hunting brought in a lot of money in a short space of time. Say for instance they wanted to hunt in a specific area, they would pay land rental, followed by wildlife quotas. This would generate a substantial amount of money which would then again be injected back into the community for development purposes”.

The revenue emanated from both lease rentals and hunting quotas per animal sold to the hunting operator. This has been used in community projects ranging from houses to the needy, pension to the elderly and public drinking water pipes in Sankuyo village. The same could also be said about the impact of the revenue in Mmadinare as the money was used for capacity building within the community, used to cover costs of land acquisition and run the trust office. The participants;

interviewee 2 and 3 reiterated these benefits from hunting which demonstrated its impact on communities as mentioned below;

“..because they (communities) would tender the animal’s quota to the hunting safaris and that was the money that was used to bring developments into the village. They connected water pipes in the villages” (interviewee 2)

“most people under the trust needed capacity building either through management skills, financial skills etc” (interviewee 3).

Therefore, the hunting operations in both communities delivered some tangible positive impacts either through projects led by the trusts themselves or as part of corporate social responsibility (CSR) of the hunting operators.

“They (operators) will also help in our schools and charitable organizations. I remember there was stipulated maximum amount that each school will be helped with” (interviewee 3).

The benefits, both tangible and intangible are noted incentives for participation and conservation in Community-Based Tourism (CBT) as mentioned in the studies by Afenyo and Amuquandoh (2014) in Ghana and Zapata, Hall, Lindo and Vanderschaeghe (2011) in Nicaragua.

6.3.4.2 Factors for Success

The interview sought to know the verdict on the performance of the hunting operations to which all interviewees stated that they considered the operations successful. Therefore, it was important to know what led to the success. Thus, the following factors came out; community involvement through benefits realisation, good business relationships and abundance of wildlife. These factors are further discussed below.

6.3.4.2.1 Community involvement leads to benefit realisation

The findings point to the fact that communities were galvanised in their involvement in hunting operations. Firstly, due to their active participation in the whole tendering process to identify suitable hunting operators.

“During the times when hunting was still permitted, the community had a say in deciding the role of a hunting company within the community” (Interviewee 1).

“Because the community had the power to set the prices for the animals they were selling. The community had an upper hand in the pricing of the wildlife being sold” (Interviewee 2).

The aspect of involvement in decision making was noted as a factor in the success of the hunting operations. Communities, as noted by interviewee 1 and 2, had powers to dictate terms to operators and set prices for the specified animals allocated in their quotas. This ensured that the community’s

expected benefits are realized, according to what was agreed between the two parties. This led to expectations being met and satisfaction on both parties, as highlighted by interviewee 2 during the interview.

“Therefore, the community was satisfied with the money received from hunting because they got what they wanted” (Interviewee 2).

The finding is consistent with previous studies (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Silva & Wimalaratana, 2013; Nitikasetsoontorn, 2014; Rozemeijer, 2001 [in Salazar, 2012]) that emphasized community involvement and benefit realization as key factors in the success of CBT operations. However, the mentioned studies did not link the two factors as one leading to the other as it has been found in this study.

6.3.4.2.2 Good business relationships

The transparency between communities and hunting operators provided a good platform for cordial relations. The aspect of community involvement in decision making (see 6.3.4.2.1) was central in avoidance of incongruent expectations which could lead to dissatisfaction. One of the participants noted that:

“they (community) would evaluate and select the best bidder based on their preference, followed by terms and conditions set by the community. This helped to strengthen the relationship between the community and the operators. There was a lot of transparency” (Interviewee 1).

That meant that as long as the hunting operator conceded and delivered on stipulated agreements, business relations were cordial. This strengthened the working conditions even in future engagements as was highlighted by interviewee 2 thus;

“the operator would tender for quotas every time and the community kept selecting them all the time which proves that the community is happy with their performance. And that is one measure of whether the people were happy with your performance or not”.

Nitikasetsoontorn (2014) noted the issue of good partnerships in CBT in Thailand, while Rozemeijer (2001 in Salazar, 2012) noted the importance of transparency as an important factor in the success of CBT in Botswana.

6.3.4.2.2 Abundance of wildlife

The theme as a factor for success was not applicable to all the two trusts. This is because it came as an important factor in Sankuyo, which explains the presence of photographic tourism (ecotourism) in certain areas of their concessions. However, in Mmadinare due to the hunting operations being predominantly based on elephant hunting as already alluded, the area is not rich in other species

especially the other big-five family of animals which are the main draw in photographic tourism (CAR, 2016). Such a scenario inadvertently led to the collapse of wildlife utilisation initiative in the Mmadinare area once hunting was banned. Nonetheless, the experience of Mmadinare clearly shows the importance of wildlife in natural resource beneficiation. The finding supports what CAR noted regarding the density of wildlife in the central district which is less than the densities in Ngamiland (where Sankuyo is located), Ghanzi and Kgalagadi districts (CAR, 2016: 20). Nevertheless, Interviewee 1 had this to say regarding wildlife in the Sankuyo area;

“Our location is filled with wildlife. When you talk about, lions, elephants, cheetah, leopard you find them there. Even the photographic operators I don’t think they do much marketing really. Therefore, tourists have something to do”.

Therefore, though hunting could do well with selling a single or few species of animals, photographic tourism cannot be sustained in areas where certain popular species are in scarcity.

6.3.4.3 Challenges in Hunting Tourism

The study sought to consider what could have been challenges related to hunting tourism that were faced within the case study trusts. There was only one theme in this regard from the interview, which was; Lack of expertise in pricing quotas.

6.3.4.3.1 Lack of expertise in pricing quotas

The knowledge of what value is expected to be derived from wildlife resources was haunting the trusts. This meant that communities could have been accruing less than the probable market values, which diminish their returns. During the interview, the participant, interviewee 2 noted the following;

“The advisors we had were the Technical Advisory Committee (TAC), consisting of the Department of Wildlife and National Parks, the Land Commissioner and other smaller departments. In which I believed they also had little to no knowledge with regards to the market value of the wildlife being sold”.

Therefore, this underlines the fact that, even the advisors couldn’t help the trusts derive the maximum benefits from the wildlife or at least that was the impression the trust leaders got. Mbaiwa (2004) study noted the great disparity in prices hunting operators buy quotas and the selling of the same quotas to their customers. This points to a gap not only in pricing (for animals being hunted) but also knowledge of the market dynamics which ultimately have a bearing on pricing. The literature noted similar challenges on market access and marketing skills as exemplified by studies (Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). More specifically, Lenao (2015) noted the lack of marketing knowledge by the TAC in his case study in central Botswana, an anomaly that is evident here as well.

6.3.4.4 Reasons for the Ban

The interview asked the leaders to state their understanding of the reasons for the hunting ban. All three leaders raised doubts with the official position on the reasons for the ban while also giving different messages of what was officially communicated as a reason for the hunting ban.

6.3.4.4.1 Differing messages imply ulterior motive

While the interviewees were asked at different times and places, they were similar in raising doubts about the motive behind the ban. As one participant observed:

“The hunting ban was delivered to our trust as an instruction without any reasons supporting that instruction. Even when we asked, we were told that it was an instruction” (Interviewee 3).

Another participant also concurred:

“They said they couldn’t tell if a gun is shot whether it was from a hunter or from a poacher. However, I believe it wasn’t a valid reason and that it was motivated by other interests” (interviewee 1).

One participant was of the view that:

“The report stated that the numbers of wildlife were drastically reducing. So, the ban was an attempt to stop wildlife from becoming extinct. However, in my own opinion, I don’t know how truthful that statement was and to what extent” (interviewee 2).

There is an underlying assertion that what the government communicated was not truthful. However, what the participants could not ascertain was the reasons behind the alleged untruthful government position. The messages that kept changing from declining numbers, to poaching or giving no particular reason at all, intensified doubts on what the real reasons are. Alternatively, it might be that all of the given reasons were all relevant from the government perspective. Interviewee 2 provides a bit more clarity around the issue by stating that the Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) forum held in Ngamiland District, did independently call the Elephant Without Borders (EWB) experts (whose research advised government before the hunting ban decision) for clarity. At the meeting, EWB noted that;

“indeed, some animal species were decreasing but numbers of Cape Buffaloes were unchanged and those of elephants were actually increasing” (interviewee 2).

This explanation might have given rise to the ‘ulterior motive’ conspiracies, because while some animals experienced declining populations, numbers of elephants and buffaloes, which are the predominant hunted species, were not. Which begged the question, why apply a blanket ban and not a selective one?

6.3.4.5 Structure of Hunting Operations

The majority of CBT operations in Botswana had hunting as a major activity, if not one of the predominant wildlife utilisations in communities. Therefore, the structure to be discussed is not exclusive to hunting operations but was a standard template from inception until the implementation of the CBNRM policy.

6.3.4.5.1 Donor initiated, government facilitated and bottom-up initiatives

The theme emanated from consideration of the various facets that characterised the structure of CBTs during the hunting operations period. These 'facets' consisted of legal agreements, donor initiation, government facilitation and devolution of powers to communities.

According to one of the participants; *"at that time there were still many donors that were under the impression that Botswana was still unable to support itself" (interviewee 1).*

It is further noted that; *"When the trusts started, they began with the assistance from USAID and the government" (interviewee 2).*

Donor initiated initiatives are not peculiar to Botswana as various studies in the literature alluded to the role of donors in setting up CBT projects (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Mitchell & Mucksoy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Zapata et al., 2011; Lenao, 2015). The role of donors also involved technical support as alluded by interviewee 2 below;

"The purpose of USAID was to establish and facilitate ways in which communities in Sankuyo could benefit from their environment".

Furthermore, the initiators ensured powers were devolved to communities, as it was the objective of CBNRM programmes worldwide (Harwood, 2010; Ndlovu, 2015). Therefore, local CBT projects centred around community powers in decision making as elucidated by interviewee 1:

"During the times when hunting was still permitted, the community had a say in deciding the role of a hunting company within the community".

The government role in the whole structure was relegated to advisory and facilitation, while the communities oversaw major decisions that affected resource utilisation in their area.

6.3.4.6 Monitoring and Evaluation

The study sought to find out how monitoring and evaluation of performance have been done, both prior and after the ban of hunting. Thus, there are two themes that were deduced from the categories within the data, as presented in Table 6.2. The themes are; government and community monitoring efforts as well as business reporting.

6.3.4.6.1 Government and community monitoring efforts

The findings point to efforts from both government and the community in monitoring the performance of operations in wildlife utilisation. The communities used “community escort guides” which are hired community members used to police the concession areas to dissuade incidents of poaching, note and record animal movements and monitor hunting expeditions. Interviewee 1 adds that, a system adopted from Namibia was used to guide and enable the escort guides to have a systematic reporting template.

They explain that; *“Community escort guides had to keep their own record using MOMS which was a system from Namibia. Escort guides would keep a record of the location of spotted wildlife so as to identify wildlife patterns: where they travel to and in what sort of locations they would travel to” (Interviewee 1).*

Interviewee 3 added that:

“We had escorts that were hired to monitor hunting”.

In addition to the community monitoring efforts which are still carried out in Sankuyo where there is the presence of photographic tourism, the government also made an effort in monitoring as well. They made aerial surveys to observe animals and determine their numbers through the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP). One of the interviews explained that:

“When the department of wildlife would conduct their aerial survey, they would make suggestions as to the recommended number of wildlife that could be hunted based on the availability of that wildlife” (interviewee 2).

These surveys informed and became the basis of recommendations of hunting quota numbers to CBTs. Nonetheless, though there were evident monitoring efforts, evaluation of performance and impact of operations seems to have been missing. Thus far, the monitoring focused much on the species and there is no evidence to demonstrate how the environmental impacts are monitored, which can have implications on sustainability. However, the use of escort guides and Management Oriented Monitoring System (MOMS) have been recommended as tools in the management of natural resources by DWNP (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010:105).

6.3.4.6.2 Business Reporting

As with most businesses, the trusts also have annual reports that are presented at Annual General Meetings (AGM) where community members attend. According to the participants, the reporting covers aspects of finance, operational achievements and challenges. A participant stated that;

“We hold AGM every year where reports are communicated. This also involves auditing of finances” (interviewee 1).

It was further noted that; *“The trust gets audited at the traditional kgotla annually in order to evaluate how funds have been allocated and if the trust is using funds correctly”* (Interviewee 3).

The most critical aspect of the reporting is that communities get to interrogate the reports, especially the finances. Therefore, this arrangement passes as transparency even though the efficiency of this reporting mechanism depends on the availability of expertise in the interrogation of these reports within communities. Literature has noted the dearth in management skills in communities, especially in finance (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015). Nonetheless, the fact that the financial reports are audited by qualified firms, adds a layer of accountability on the trust management in upholding their responsibility to the communities.

6.3.4.7 Current Challenges

The findings thus far, have shed light on the different aspects of hunting tourism. Therefore, there is a need to understand the conditions of communities after the ban of hunting. This section looks at challenges faced currently. Three themes emerged from the data that will be discussed further, and they are; Bureaucratic challenges, Negative attitudes threatening wildlife, Loss of revenue due to the absence of transition plan and Community Engagement in operations’ resistance.

6.3.4.7.1 Bureaucratic challenges

The participants decry the usurped powers from the communities which have literally over-turned the factors that were responsible for success in the early days of the CBNRM programme. It is to be understood that some of the changes and indeed the increased bureaucracy, didn’t come with the ban of hunting but rather with the introduction of the CBNRM policy and other regulations thereafter like the change in land management and change in the tendering process for community concession leases. A participant lamented the status quo:

“Right now, the community has no say. The government signs leases with operators and excludes the communities in those lease agreements. It is difficult because the communities cannot raise issues with the operators because they don’t appear anywhere in the lease agreement” (Interviewee 2).

The comments above from interviewee 2 reflects the precarious situation the communities find themselves in. While section 6.3.4.2.2 highlights good business relationships as a success factor in hunting tourism, the changes highlighted by the interviewee above points to an erosion of such relationships. Interviewee 1 provides more clarity on the current role of communities in concession lease agreements:

“Botswana Tourism Organization would release technical proposals that private companies would apply for. After they receive the proposals, they would then invite community for the evaluation of tenders for them to observe” (Interviewee 1).

Therefore, the communities have moved from the involvement that was construed as a success factor (see section 6.3.4.2.1) to passive observers. The status quo goes against the concept of devolution of powers which is central to CBNRM and resource management (see section 1.2). The scenario is what Okazaki’s (2008) model of community-based tourism describes as ‘degree of tokenism’ which includes; informing, consulting and placation. The model looks at community participation, power redistribution and collaboration and supposes that if participation and power redistribution are not optimized, then collaboration cannot be achieved. The reverse is also true in that when collaboration and power redistribution is low; then participation will not materialize (Okazaki, 2008). The latter is what is coming out in the findings, as due to the passiveness of communities in collaboration, there is no power redistributed to them, which ultimately curtails their participation. The status quo is also contrary to one of the sustainability guiding principles suggested by UNWTO (2001:17) (see principle vii in section 3.5). Issues of tourism development are to be considered with the full participation of communities and any decisions should be locally situated (UNWTO, 2001).

6.3.4.7.2 Negative community attitudes threatening wildlife

All participants believe that attitudes towards wildlife have changed for the worse. Members of the communities currently have negative attitudes towards wildlife. At the centre of this animosity is the issue of human-wildlife conflict. The communities also cannot rationalise and come to terms with what was communicated as reasons for the ban with the reality on the ground. Interviewee 1 puts this into perspective;

“When the government banned hunting, they told the general public that it is because wildlife numbers are reducing however, based on what the community is experiencing, that isn’t the case. There are still many elephants and buffaloes that are roaming around and destroying people’s crops”.

Another observed that: *“After the hunting ban, elephants then became more of a liability than an asset as they began to destroy crops. Right now, we are unable to plant our crops because of the elephants” (interviewee 3).*

The responses above show the changed attitudes towards wildlife due to their increased numbers such that they are viewed as a ‘liability’ as interviewee 3 has put it. The main culprits; elephants and buffaloes were the main hunted species in hunting tourism and as discussed earlier (see section 6.3.4.4.1), the verification measures done proved that their numbers were not declining and their current destruction gives credence to the notion that their inclusion in the ban was ill-informed. The

gravity of the issue, however, does not just come from change in attitudes but threats to wildlife that come from community members as highlighted by interviewee 1;

“other people seriously despise elephants to the extent of being comfortable with poisoning them or shooting them. However, these are people that are well aware of conservation but have become very hostile after the ban of hunting” (interviewee 1).

This highlights frustration with the status quo, which could escalate or is already escalating to antagonistic behaviour. The threat to animals puts the sustainability of the wildlife resources in jeopardy by the very people who are supposed to be the custodians of the resources. Mbaiwa (2018:50-51) notes the recurrence of adverse attitudes within communities regarding wildlife conservation as well as increase in poaching incidences, which supports the assertion by participants in this study.

6.3.4.7.3 Loss of revenue due to the absence of transition plan

The participants all agree that the transition from hunting ought to have been managed much better than it was. There was a palpable loss of revenue in both community trusts as hunting constituted a very important revenue stream. In a trust such as Mmadinare, the situation was even severe as hunting tourism was the sole income earner for the trust which then scampers their diversification plans because of lack of revenue as highlighted by one of the respondents:

“With there being a hunting ban, we have lost our source of revenue. At this current moment we are trying to get funding from different sources to fund our tourism projects however, it is causing a strain on the trust” (interviewee 3).

The above statement clearly shows the gravity of the matter in Mmadinare, in those five years since the ban, they are yet to find funding for their projects. However, the lack of a transition plan was not kind either to Sankuyo Trust even though the community had a photographic concession. One of the respondents explained that;

“The transition from consumptive to non-consumptive tourism took a period of about 4 to 5 years, which meant that people weren't employed for that long” (Interviewee 2).

Another observed; *“We had no transition approach. The only trust that was well prepared was that of Khwai. However, areas such as Sankuyo were not ready. Since the ban, Sankuyo only started generating money two years later. However, we still had Photographic Tourism” (interviewee 1).*

The assertion by interviewee 1 that the transition was 4 to 5 years might be far off the mark considering the interview was carried out 5 years after the hunting ban. Furthermore, the statement contrasts with the current leader who estimated the transition period to be 2 years. Nonetheless, the period of adjustment was characterised by revenue loss and loss of jobs as the community was unprepared.

The findings correspond with the noted “*loss of income, jobs and provision of social services*” observed by Mbaiwa (2018:47). The author noted income losses of about 85% in Mababe village together with 30 jobs lost, while Sankuyo lost 49% in revenue and 35 jobs (Mbaiwa, 2018:48).

6.3.4.7.4 Resistance of Community Engagement in business operations

While the aspect of community involvement was highlighted as a success factor (see section 6.3.4.2), it comes out in the findings again in a different light. There is an admission by participants that the community needs to be involved and participate in matters of conservation and issues relating to resource utilisation. However, one participant notes that community involvement should not extend to the trust’s day to day operations. The excerpt below illustrates the point:

“Operational issues need to be left to management. Typical example, we don’t have a generator in Kaziikini and the place attracts ‘white people’ as tourists. So, we need to purchase the generator which was not budgeted for. When we go to the board to seek funds, they want us to go first to the community for permission and this delays progress” (Interviewee 1).

The assertion by the participant stems from the realization that, community consultations in operational issues delay progress. This will lead to missed opportunities as the consultation process takes long. The other argument from the participant is that, personal interests may interfere when decisions have to be made and to resolve such will cause untold delays as well in the operations of the business. They explain that;

“...these are some of the issues that we take to the AGM that we can’t always be running to the community over operational issues” (interviewee 1).

Therefore, the community’s participation in operational issues is resisted such that the issue will be put to a vote at an AGM to allow the management to eliminate bottlenecks in operational processes that comes with what they see as excessive consultation which delays progress.

6.3.4.8 Recommendations

The study revolves around the strategies that can mitigate the ban of hunting. Therefore, the interviews sought to find what participants consider appropriate strategies in addressing the challenges faced due to the hunting ban as outlined above (see section 6.3.4.7). The following three (3) themes emerged as recommendations to mitigate the ban; Lift the ban and improve management, Communities’ autonomy in operating own facilities and Developing available assets through partnerships.

6.3.4.8.1 Lift the ban and improve management

The consensus is that the government needs to lift the ban for communities to see the benefits of conservation and most importantly to alleviate the destruction animals have on community livelihoods.

Some used different words to convey the message of lifting the ban as illustrated by interviewee 3 below;

“I think other measures like as people mentioned before, the use of chillies etc. But my advice is also to cull them or reduce their numbers because they are many”.

The concern is the increased numbers especially of elephants and their destructive nature on farms. A respondent suggested that to solve this problem;

“The government should remove the hunting ban, or it will result in members of the community poisoning those animals” (Interviewee 1).

As stated by one of the participants and already highlighted (see 6.3.4.7.2) the threat to wildlife is growing due to the situation communities find themselves in. This is consistent with the observation by Chardonnet and Le Bel (2011) and Stone and Nyaupane (2016) on human-wildlife conflict, though the authors attributed the conflict to human encroachment. Nonetheless, there is also a realization that lifting the ban is not a panacea, and other measures need to be improved to manage human-wildlife conflict (HWC). As highlighted by interviewee 3;

“People are not anti-wildlife, but they however would like management measures to be put in place so as to control the movement of elephants” (interviewee 3).

Therefore, other human-wildlife conflict mitigating measures should be explored such as the use of chillies as hunting alone might not be enough in managing the conflict experienced currently. Suich (2015:443) alludes to cultural capital being derived by communities from *“protection from human-wildlife conflict”*.

6.3.4.8.2 Communities' autonomy in operating own facilities

The current setup in CBT in Botswana is predominantly either joint venture (where the private operator is in partnership with community trust) or leased concessions with communities ceding rights to an area in return getting lease fees. The case study trusts operated in the latter arrangement during hunting tourism as well as current operations (in the case of Sankuyo). However, the Sankuyo participant views the arrangement as insufficient and inadequate in optimising returns to the trust. They make the following observation:

“Photographic tourism would be able to bring in more tourists if we had our own facilities such as lodges, vehicles etc. But if we base our assessment only on land rentals, then there isn't much money, but we need to have opportunities to run our own facilities. If we could move Kaziikini to be a fully-fledged 5-star lodge, then we will make money” (interviewee 1).

The assertion is that by relying on land lease rentals alone is insufficient and in fact inferior to hunting tourism whose revenue streams included wildlife quotas in addition to land rentals. Therefore, the

need to move to autonomous ownership is recommended as according to the participant, joint venture partnerships are no different in maximizing returns for the community. According to interviewee 1, the Chobe Enclave Community Trust (CECT) partnership greatly favours the private investor as the trust only receives 6% dividend even though they invested equal capital as well as availing land to the partnership. The participant blames this on the TAC advise. They argue that;

“...one of the reasons that makes me doubt TAC is that CECT have entered into a partnership with a third party in a joint venture partnership... but all in all the division of revenue is insufficient and doesn't reflect the investment made” (Interviewee 1).

The participant therefore prefers an autonomous arrangement as he argues that, the trust has the skills needed to run an eco-lodge on their own and the requisite financing can always be sourced either through donors or banks. The participant further argues that;

“Finances could be attained from donors and loans could be asked for, only under the condition that we have leases” (Interviewee 1).

6.3.4.8.3 Developing available assets through partnerships

In contrast to the autonomous pursuit recommended by Sankuyo, in Mmadinare, the participant views that the best approach will be through partnerships. Part of the reasoning is evoked by the fact that the community does not have many skills in operating an eco-lodge for example (which they have land for), they do not have an operating facility and the area as alluded earlier (see section 6.3.4.2.2) is not endowed in wildlife as Sankuyo is. They explain that;

“However, after assessing our intentions, I realized that in order for us to build a lodge, we would need a certain level of expertise. We therefore then agreed that we would partner with those that had capital to inject into the lodge project” (Interviewee 3).

The idea of partnership would best suit the Mmadinare trust as it will minimise risk of capital loss and at the same time allow the community to build skills set needed to operate the establishment independently as suggested in Sankuyo. The trust advocates for adopting the partnership approach as well in pursuit of development of other places of interest like heritage sites and the dam. Partnerships are not new as a business arrangement in CBNRM in Botswana, with the Department of Wildlife and National Parks offering guidelines on their establishment (Department of Wildlife and National Parks, 2010:70).

6.3.4.9 Factors needed for recommended products to succeed

The literature highlights factors responsible for CBT projects to succeed (see section 4.3.4 and Table 4.1 in chapter 4). However, what is apparent is that each study observed different factors for success. It is, therefore, imperative for this research to consider the factors needed for the recommended

strategies to succeed. In this section three (3) factors; funding, good calibre of trustees and bottom-up multi-stakeholder approach are discussed.

6.3.4.9.1 Funding

CBT initiatives require capital to start which can always be prohibitive for communities. Silva & Wimalaratana (2013) highlight this factor in their analysis of a project in Sri Lanka. Therefore, as mentioned in section 6.3.4.5.1, most of the CBT projects had external capital help when they were setup. The issue of funding, though not new, is still critical as communities lack the financial resources to start new projects. It is not surprising that all participants highlighted funding as a requisite for strategies to work. Nonetheless, all the participants did not see sourcing funds as much of a problem but rather the pre-requisites needed. The expertise needed in formulating winning and convincing business plans and land lease agreements that are in line with financial requirements are some of the pre-requisites communities decry as highlighted by one of the participants;

“I remember our patron saying, if we plan well, then money is not a problem. I know even in the Museum & Art Gallery; they have a fund that can be tapped into. But we need properly done business plans to convince the funders and have access to such funds” (Interviewee 3).

On the same issue, interviewee 1 had this to say;

“Finances could be attained from donors and loans could be asked for only under the condition that we have leases. With the leases we can even approach a bank to finance the building of the lodge”.

Nevertheless, sourcing funds presents a risk especially if it is a loan. This explains why the board in Sankuyo are said to be afraid of such financial commitments. Which then means that lesser riskier options need to be explored. Interviewee 3 notes the various options available for funding in addition to the Museum & Art Gallery mentioned above;

“in the CBNRM policy, there is a provision for [conservation Trust Fund] CTF which can give money..... I hear even the Americans have a conservation fund and if we plan and do our research we can be funded”.

Though there seems to be myriad of options for funding available, the Mmadinare Trust still sits with land undeveloped due to lack of funding. This means efforts need to be intensified in finding alternative ways to source expertise to help the trust put together business plans and or land management plans to access funding.

6.3.4.9.2 Good calibre of trustees

Board members in CBT are known as trustees and are sourced from the community which setup the trust. These trustees advise and guide management as well as hold it accountable. It is, therefore, imperative for the members to be a certain calibre, who understand governance issues and can lead

the trust strategically. Lenao (2015) noted the lack of skills by board members which the author attributed to the selection criterion used. However, with the case study area the problem is with dearth of skills in communities. One of the participants raised an issue with board trustees at their disposal;

“But in our boards if we could have people who would be able to fully participate with the requisite skills as well, then our trusts would go far. We also need educated leaders and educated members in the board” (Interviewee 1).

The researcher further asked to know if there was no provision of getting some trustees from outside the community to which the participant replied that there is such provision. However, the trustees always feel intimidated and fail to make any contributions, which is detrimental to the board in the long term as the decisions will not be owned by all. There is also a lack of professionalism as highlighted by Interviewee 1:

“I introduced these meetings where we met together with TAC and members resisted because they asked what they would say in the presence of the TAC. So, the level of professionalism is still low”.

On the other hand, trusts without much income, like that of Mmadinare face another kind of problem in that board members end up doubling up as management. Interviewee 3 had this to say;

“Even though the trust runs. We have to double up and do multiple roles in addition to our duties as trust members. We have interns who are really not skilled, so we end up using the knowledge we have from our previous jobs to help in areas of managing, finance etc”.

The status quo is, therefore, more desperate as there are no separation of powers between board and management and accountability can be lost. Furthermore, again due to lack of finances, the trust members are literally volunteering which might explain inefficiency in delivering the plans proposed.

6.3.4.9.3 Bottom-up multi-stakeholder approach

The findings point to aspects of the bottom-up approach, which makes it come under consideration here as a factor for success. The participants raise issues such as; community involvement (see section 6.3.4.2.1), business ownership (see section 6.3.4.8.2) and lessening community involvement in operations (see section 6.3.4.7.4). These are highlighted because when one considers the bottom-up/top-down model by Zapata *et al.* (2011), the realisation is that bottom-up is not just confined to community participation or involvement but cuts across the operational issues within CBT management like local entrepreneurship, developments that are market-led, more business-based and with lower community representation and knowledge of business networks. Therefore, what Zapata *et al.* (2011) consider bottom-up resembles the issues the participants highlighted in the study.

Obviously, principal among them is allowing communities to have a say in their projects as stated by one participant;

“You can’t have a person in Gaborone taking decisions for someone in Sankuyo. Whatever one might see as noble in Gaborone might not be what the person in Sankuyo desires” (interviewee 2).

When Zapata *et al.* (2011) allude to lower community representation as a character of bottom-up, it does not mean exclusion but rather involvement by community individuals who are knowledgeable and who can have control of external processes of marketing and networks instead of delegating them to external organisations for help which is synonymous with top-down approach. Therefore, one participant’s desire to have autonomy in business operations resonate with the idea of Zapata *et al.* (2011). The literature alludes to the different aspects of what constitutes bottom-up in the approach to CBT development. Rozemeijer (2001 in Salazar, 2012) talks about recognition of all stakeholders and community interests; Manyara and Jones (2007) suggest community empowerment; Kibicho (2008) mentions the inclusion of stakeholders and Nitikasetsoontorn (2014) indicates participation in decision making. However, these all speak to one aspect of the bottom-up approach and according to the Zapata *et al.* (2011) model, other aspects need to be considered for any approach to be bottom-up. Hitchins & Highstead (2005 in Goodwin & Santilli, 2009) study in Namibia best encapsulates the bottom-up approach as it highlights the following success factors; location in a prime area, proximity to tourism routes, links to the private sector and narrow ownership structures. This is closer to what the participants desire, which is what could make their ideas successful as well.

6.4 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF FORMER HUNTING EMPLOYEES AND BUSINESSES’ INTERVIEWS

The data in this section is a presentation of results from the interviews of former hunting employees from both Sankuyo and Mmadinare communities. Therefore, the section starts by describing the demographic profile of the participants which is then followed by the presentation of results.

6.4.1 Demographic data

Table 6.3 presents the demographic data of the interviewees and there were four (n=4) former hunting employees that formed part of the study. The female and male representation was equal at 50% each. The analysis also shows that 75% have attained junior secondary certificate qualification (10 years of formal education) while only (25%) have O-level certificate (12 years of formal education). In terms of age, all of the participants were aged between 40 and 50 years.

Table 6.3: Demographic profiles of former hunting employees

| Participant | Residence | Gender | Age | Level of Qualification | Current employment/business |
|-------------|-----------|--------|-----|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Employee 1 | Sankuyo | Female | 40 | Junior Secondary | Unemployed |
| Employee 2 | Sankuyo | Female | 39 | Junior Secondary | Board member - STMT |
| Employee 3 | Mmadinare | Male | 37 | Junior Secondary | Butchery Buyer |
| Employee 4 | Mmadinare | Male | 47 | O-level | Unemployed |

6.4.2 Results and discussions

The interview results presented in this section are from the two case study areas on former hunting employees. The data is presented in themes coming out from the two populations and they were guided by seven (7) topics that were used in the analysis process as presented in Table 6.4. The results show a convergence of ideas and the similarity of themes with the findings from trust leaders.

Table 6.4 Former hunting employees themes

| TOPICS/ ANCHOR CODES | CATEGORIES | EMERGING THEMES |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> BENEFITS OF HUNTING | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development of new skills Reduced conflict with wildlife | Skills and reduced HWC |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> FACTORS FOR SUCCESS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Food Tangible benefits | Tangible benefits |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> HUNTING CHALLENGES | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conflict among stakeholders | Conflict |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Photographic avails more employment More tourists availed by photographic, hunting had few | Hunting offered limited employment |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> CURRENT CHALLENGES | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Human-wildlife conflict Increase in wildlife numbers | Increased wildlife numbers have escalated HWC |

| | | |
|--|--|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • REASONS FOR HUNTING BAN | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Hear-say about declining wildlife numbers • Ulterior motive • No consultation | Second-hand information about declining wildlife numbers, increase the impression of ulterior motive |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RECOMMENDATIONS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wildlife resource utilisation • Natural and cultural resources • Hunting tourism | Natural and cultural resources utilisation |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • FACTORS NEEDED TO SUCCEED | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Funds • Infrastructure • Community centred decisions | Improved infrastructure, funding and bottom-up approach |

6.4.2.1 Benefits of hunting

As with the trust leaders' findings, the results demonstrate that benefits were accrued to communities from hunting tourism in both case study areas. The results indicate the benefit is; skills and reduced HWC.

6.4.2.1.1 Skills and reduced HWC

Table 6.4 indicates the theme and the categories that informed it. It's evident that participants gained skills from their interaction with hunting tourism that ranges from tracking techniques, using animal by-products for craft production and improving employability skills. A participant observed that;

“community members only got opportunities to improve their skills. Like learning to be a chef, moving from other low paying jobs” (Employee 1).

Another participant noted; *“So, nowadays I make baskets but because I have a Dealer Trophy license, I can make leather jackets and hats” (Business 1).*

One respondent shared; *“I met professional hunters, trackers and they taught us about animals and tracking techniques” (Employee 3).*

The skill accumulation as a benefit link well with the findings from trust leaders (see section 6.3.4.1.1). While the trust leaders alluded to skills capacitation through formal means, the employees and business participants allude to skill transfer through informal interactions with the industry. Ndlovu (2015: 26) also notes this two-way transfer of knowledge as an important benefit in CBT. Further to the skills benefit, communities profited from reduced human-wildlife conflict. As acknowledge by one respondent;

“The animals were also not harassing the community as much as it is happening now” (Employee 1).

Another respondent added; *“The hunting was protecting the lives of people” (Employee 4).*

Yet another responded concurred that; *“During hunting season, they avoided coming near areas where people were because elephants don’t forget. If they have been disturbed in an area, they will remember and avoid such a place” (Employee 3).*

The participants are of the view that due to hunting, animals, especially elephants, moved far from human settlements because of the disturbance they experienced due to hunting. This allowed communities to exist with little conflict with wildlife, especially farmers. These intangible benefits allow communities to tolerate and conserve wildlife because of the added incentive accruing to them as was noted by Zapata *et al.* (2011) and Afenyo and Amuquandoh (2014), a point which was highlighted earlier in section 6.3.4.1.1.

6.4.2.2 Factors for Success

The hunting operations were considered successful by all participants (n=6), and therefore, it was important to know the reasons for the success. One theme came out “tangible benefits” in the analysis of responses as the determining factor for success.

6.4.2.2.1 Tangible benefits

Benefits can be both tangible and intangible. Thus far section 6.4.2.1 highlighted the intangible that accrued to the community members from hunting. This section’s results demonstrate that even tangible benefits accrued to communities and according to the participants, these tangibles were the ones responsible for the success of the hunting operation. As one participant argued;

“Some of the benefits included meat. Like when an elephant has been killed, because it’s such a huge animal, the operator will commission a vehicle to get the villagers to come and share the meat” (Employee 2).

Another added that; *“It generated more income for the community” (Employee 1).*

The tangible benefits included meat from the killed animals, food rations given to employees and income both at a personal level and to the community. From the perspective of the participants, one can deduce that success is apportioned based on what they received at a personal level, whereas, in comparison, trust leaders ascribe success mostly to non-economic factors. The literature also noted the realisation of benefits as a success factor in the management of CBT (Kibicho, 2008; Silva & Wimalaratana, 2013; Nitikasetsoontorn, 2014).

The understanding that the participants viewed success from a personal perspective is not really a bad thing as community initiatives meant to benefit the community should be felt at a personal level.

6.4.2.3 Challenges in Hunting Tourism

Similar to the trust leaders' interviews, the interview to this population wanted to understand from their perspective the challenges encountered during hunting tourism. There were two themes that came out as findings; conflict and hunting offered limited opportunities and employment.

6.4.2.3.1 Conflict

The issue of conflict came not as a recurring code but rather as a standout issue that could not be ignored. Saldana (2013) refers to codes which stand out and are not necessarily appearing multiple times, which cannot be dismissed. Therefore, conflict as a challenge is understood from the participants' perspective to be a result of incongruent expectations. According to one of the participants, there were often conflicts between the operator and the community in Sankuyo which stems from meat distribution from hunted animals. Employee 2 had this to say;

“Sometimes a hunter would buy and kill a small animal, like antelope and often he would want to keep the carcass while the regulations don't allow such. And this often-caused conflict”.

As mentioned, the description from the participant implies miscommunication between the operator and their clients as information of expectations and regulations were apparently not passed to the hunter thereby causing conflict. Furthermore, another conflict arose between the trust and the community due to bad relations with a third party, the hunting operator. Employee 2 explains:

“The other problem was that, an operator will delay the payment to the trust on the agreed fees. This would affect some projects in the village that were budgeted for and this further caused conflict between villagers and the trust because the villagers would think the Trustees have mismanaged the money” (Employee 2).

The resulting conflict from missed payment on agreed deadlines had a ripple effect on the trust relationship with the community members. This alludes to an issue of miscommunication again by all parties from the operator to the trust and from the trust to communities.

6.4.2.3.2 hunting offered limited employment

A recurring message from all of the participants (n=4) is that hunting employed fewer people and that it was seasonal. Information from the former hunting employees in both community trusts, shows that each hunting camp employed a maximum of just fifteen (15) employees. That means in Sankuyo who had two camps, that translated to thirty (30) individuals, whereas in Mmadinare the figure is just fifteen (15) as they had only one hunting camp. The figures, when compared to 110 currently employed by operators in photographic lodges where all but one are non-operational as stated in the Sankuyo background information (see section 6.3.2), are significantly lower. Employee 1 notes;

“I think photographic [is better]. Because it brings revenue to the community as well as employ more people than hunting” (Employee 1).

In contrast, Employee 2 posits; *“I think hunting was better. We now have lodges and when you look at numbers of employment, yes, they are higher but other than that, during hunting people had support of their livelihoods” (Employee 2).*

While the above-mentioned participants differed on which wildlife utilisation they support, one thing they agreed on was that hunting employed fewer people.

6.4.2.4 Reasons for the ban

As with the trust leaders, the participants were asked to give their understanding of the reasons for the ban of hunting out of which their responses pointed out one theme. Coincidentally the theme is similar to what the trust leaders raised in their responses; therefore, the theme is discussed in the following section.

6.4.2.4.1 Second-hand information about declining wildlife numbers, increase the impression of ulterior motive

The theme is a description of the sentiments that came out of the participant's responses. One thing that was peculiar about the responses to the question on reasons for hunting is that all participants (n=4) indicated that they heard that hunting would be stopped due to declining wildlife numbers. While the point on declining numbers was a sensible reason, the participants state that they got second-hand information which in itself implies lack of consultation especially since all were important stakeholders in the hunting industry. Employee 2 offered;

“I don't know the reasons well. But when I read the newspapers, I heard that animals were diminishing in numbers and there was need to allow them to reproduce. But I felt that the reasons were not valid because I think there was something else” (Employee 2).

Similar to the trust leaders' responses, there seem to be different reasons coming from participants ranging from; no explanation, increase in poaching and declining numbers. However, the predominant reason given was declining wildlife numbers, which might give credence that it was somewhat a valid reason. Nonetheless, the doubts and conspiracies kept coming up as was observed in trust leaders' responses (see section 6.3.4.4.1). One of the participants had this to say concerning the issue;

“If we look carefully, you can tell that there were certain individuals who had game-farms and they allowed hunting in these farms, with hunters coming all the way from Canada and other places. This means there are benefits to certain highly placed people” (Employee 4).

Therefore, the ulterior motive theme is recurring across the different interview data sets, most probably due to the imposition of the ban on the concerned communities without due consultation.

6.4.2.5 Current Challenges

Current challenges are important to note as they help gauge how far the phenomena is unfolding. The section, therefore, discusses what participants consider to be pressing challenges they are dealing with about the ban of hunting. There is one theme that was generated from the responses and it is discussed below.

6.4.2.5.1 Increased wildlife numbers have escalated HWC

The participants decry the growing number of wildlife in and around inhabited areas in both communities, especially around farming areas. In a similar concern to responses from trust leaders, the participants note the destruction brought by animals such as elephants. The situation affects both case study communities but more so in Sankuyo where marauding elephants are a common sight in the village. As observed by one respondent;

“Also, in the past because of hunting it was not easy to see animals around, nowadays, they are everywhere, sometimes we see them in our yards” (Employee 2).

Another added; *“Today’s challenges are a result of animal conflict. Elephants walk through the village, people can’t plough their fields because elephants eat their produce before they can harvest, and lions kill domesticated animals” (Employee 1).*

The toxic interaction between humans and wildlife has given rise to conflict as the community’s livelihoods are affected. From observation by the researcher during the data collection phase in Sankuyo, good vegetation was evident which is a good condition for ploughing, yet the farms lay bare and there was no sign of domesticated animals on the way and within the village. This gave an impression that farming is untenable in the area. Likewise, in Mmadinare, the participants share similar sentiments as stated by one of the participants;

“Destruction by animals. Elephants nowadays kill people because they have increased and have become many” (Employee 3).

Just as the trust leaders have noted as well, the result of this escalation threatens wildlife itself as community members might retaliate and take the law onto their hands by harming the wildlife. These sentiments are echoed by Employee 4, who is concerned by the possible killing of wildlife due to frustration. The issue of human-wildlife conflict escalation is noted in the literature (Stone & Nyaupane, 2016; Mbaiwa, 2018), which confirms the sentiments shared by the study participants.

6.4.2.6 Recommendations

The interviewees were asked to offer possible mitigation strategies to alleviate the effects of the hunting ban on communities. The categories of responses were themed into one overarching theme

that encapsulates the ideas offered. The theme; natural and cultural resources utilisation, is further discussed in the following section.

6.4.2.6.1 Natural and cultural resources utilisation

Natural resources are a vital component of life in the case study communities. Much detail is given on the background of both villages (see 6.3.2 and 6.3.3) and the natural resources bordering them. Therefore, it is not surprising that much of the strategy hinges on the utilisation of the resources. The strategies advised include lifting the hunting ban, increasing campsites, increasing photographic lodges and the creation of a game park.

These all speak to wildlife utilisation, and most of them were brought out by Sankuyo participants except for the game park idea which was recommended by Mmadinare participants, which is inline with what the trust had planned. Furthermore, in Mmadinare, other ideas include the utilisation of the dam, fishing and river sand harvesting which are also natural resources available in the vicinity of the village which can be harnessed for the benefit of the community.

A participant reasoned that; *“There is also fishing at the dam that can be done to benefit the community. I heard someone from a different community saying that they utilized river sand as a resource to sell and benefit the community. I think we can also do the same, we have sand here”* (Employee 3).

Participants also believe cultural assets could also be used for the benefit of community members as was alluded by Employee 2;

“Most of the villagers are elderly. So, you find that there will be those that are woodcarvers, basket weavers etc. I believe if there could be a craft shop where they could sell their crafts it would help” (Employee 2).

The utilisation of cultural assets will also include heritage sites which remain undeveloped thus far in Mmadinare. As mentioned by Employee 2, skills do exist within the communities that can be harnessed for tourism purposes provided a platform is created to showcase such skills.

6.4.2.7 Factors needed for recommendations to succeed

The understanding is, for any strategies to succeed, there has to be factors available that catalyse such success to occur. It is on this notion that the section considers what the participants view as critical to the success of the given strategies.

6.4.2.7.1 Improved infrastructure, funding and bottom-up approach

The theme encapsulates two aspects that came to the fore from the trust leaders' responses; funding and bottom-up approach. Therefore, to avoid repetition, the discussions of these aspects are not discussed in depth except to highlight the difference in perspective from where they were addressed.

The issue of the top-down approach is a persistent concern that was revealed in the interview with trust leaders. The concern centres around enforced ideas from government leaders without due consideration of the wishes of the communities. Therefore, the perspective of the participants is more individual, and community-focused on how the decisions directly affect them. Employee 4 explained that;

“The problem is if you take decisions as the Tourism leadership about tourism in the community without involving the community, then the community can do nothing. Likewise, as a minister, when you take decisions without community input, the community can do nothing” (Employee 4).

Likewise, funding as a factor needed to advance community development is looked differently by community members from trust leaders. While the trust leaders look at funding sources outside their trusts, the participants look at the trust as the source as outlined by one of the responses:

“I think the trust should be the one to head the creation of a craft shop” (Employee 2).

Another issue coming out from the interviews relates to infrastructural development especially in Sankuyo which in comparison to Mmadinare, still lacks most basic infrastructural developments. The participants decry the bad road, lack of electricity and improved telephonic connectivity which are critical in the development of any industry. Employee 1 noted;

“The problem right now is that our roads are bad. So, I think we need to improve the roads and provide electricity because there is no electricity so that developments can come” (Employee 1).

The participant’s comments echo the sentiments of one of the business participants who also believes that for tourism development to occur, the infrastructure should be improved as they affect and undermine the potential of the area. Infrastructural development and funding were highlighted as well by Silva and Wimalaratana (2013:24) as a critical success factor in the management of CBT. The authors argue that funding is pivotal in any commercial setup as it is needed for the provision of transport, water and electricity to improve accessibility in often marginal areas.

6.5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF BUSINESS INTERVIEWS

The section presents and discusses results from interviews undertaken with businesspersons in Sankuyo. Mmadinare business participants could not be included as they failed to meet the inclusion criterion for the study. The participants ought to have been in operation before the ban of hunting to be included in the study as the questions sought information on both experiences and therefore, none of the businesses in Mmadinare met this criterion. Therefore, the section starts by presenting the demographic profile of the participants, followed by the presentation and discussions of results.

6.5.1 Demographic data

Table 6.5 presents the profile of participants from the business population in Sankuyo. They are all female in their 40s who have been doing basket weaving since before the ban of hunting. One of the participants has attained O-level certificate and another a Junior secondary certificate.

Table 6.5: Demographic profile of Business persons

| Participant | Residence | Gender | Age | Level of Qualification | Current employment/business |
|-------------------|-----------|--------|-----|------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Business 1 | Sankuyo | Female | 45 | O-level | Basket Weaver |
| Business 2 | Sankuyo | Female | 40 | Junior Secondary | Basket Weaver |

6.5.2 Results and discussions

The results are presented in eight (n=8) themes guided by six (n=6) initial codes as illustrated by table 6.6. The initial codes are consistent with the ones used previously in trust leaders and former employees' presentation of findings.

Table 6.6: Businesses interview themes

| INITIAL CODES | BUSINESS CATEGORIES | THEMES |
|--|---|---|
| BENEFITS OF HUNTING TO THE PARTICIPANTS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Products from animal by-products • Expanded product range | Expanded product range due to animal by-products |
| CHALLENGES OF HUNTING TOURISM | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More tourists and income with photographic • Photographic tourists show more interest | Photographic tourism provided more tourists who showed interest in crafts |
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Short stay by tourists • Few opportunities • Low income because of few tourists | Few opportunities and low income from hunting tourism |
| CURRENT CHALLENGES | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Elephant destruction • Increased wildlife numbers • Inaccessibility of material | Increased wildlife numbers have made raw material inaccessible |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regulatory impediments | Regulatory impediments |
| REASONS FOR THE BAN | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Heard about declining wildlife No consultation done | Second-hand information about declining wildlife numbers due to no consultation |
| RECOMMENDATIONS | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Guesthouse Curio shop | Guesthouse and Curio shop |
| FACTORS NEEDED FOR RECOMMENDATIONS TO SUCCEED | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Marketing | Marketing |

6.5.2.1 Benefits of hunting

Participants were asked to state how hunting benefited them. Therefore, just as with other populations in the study, the participants allude to benefiting from hunting tourism. There was one theme deduced from their responses which is; expanded product range due to animal by-products.

6.5.2.1.1 Expanded product range due to animal by-products

Basket weavers, as the name implies are skilled in the craft of making traditional baskets mostly from plant leaves. The participants clarified that they use leaves from a plant locally referred to as *Mokola*, which is Palm tree species and scientifically known as *Hyphaene petersiana* (Cunningham & Milton, 1987:387). However, due to hunting, opportunities arose to expand the products offered from just baskets to include bracelets, necklaces, jackets and other leather products. One of the business owners reflects that;

“They [tourists] were also interested in beaded necklaces (dibaga) and bracelets. Also, during the time of hunting, I realized something, I was one person who enjoyed doing necklaces than baskets and I liked using Mokola leaves and Porcupine quills” (Business 1).

The animal by-products however, needed licensing from the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) before one could trade in their products. One of the basket weavers explained that this made her to apply for such a license which was later granted, allowing her to increase her products offering. She explains her experience:

“But I learned that the porcupine quills needed license from the wildlife department for one to possess. So, I ended up going to wildlife to get the license. The license is called Dealer Trophy license...So, nowadays I make baskets but because I have a Dealer Trophy license, I can make leather jackets and hats” (Business 1).

While the participant still makes products from animal by-products, she noted that she is forced to buy domestic animal alternatives from slaughter houses in the towns of Maun and Gantsi. This point is further discussed later in the chapter under current challenges faced by the businesses.

6.5.2.2 Challenges in hunting tourism

The participants were asked to state the challenges they faced as a result of hunting tourism. Therefore, from the analysis, two themes emerged from the data, the inter-related themes are; Photographic tourism provided more tourists who showed interests in crafts and few opportunities and low income from hunting tourism. These are further discussed below.

6.5.2.2.1 Photographic tourism provided more tourists who showed interests in crafts

While the theme is inclined more towards photographic tourism, the comparison could not be averted in Sankuyo as photographic was offered in the area a few years before the ban and continued after the ban. Both participants posit that hunting tourists were few and somehow showed less interest in crafts than what was experienced with ecotourists. The participants had this to say;

“You have to understand that the basis of our contact or our market are the shops at the Safari camps. So, with photographic safari the tourists rotate, in that a group will come for 3 days and when they leave another one comes” (Business 2).

And also; *“I think it’s because photographic tourists show more interest in crafts than hunters because I believe hunters spend much time on the animals” (Business 1).*

Therefore, this translated into lower income for the businesses, a point which is further discussed next in section (6.5.2.2.2) because of inter-relatedness.

6.5.2.2.2 Few opportunities and low income from hunting tourism

Due to the lower numbers of hunters, coupled with their noted lack of interest, businesses experienced low income. The comparison with ecotourism cannot be avoided as explained previously (see section 6.5.2.1.1) and therefore, participants drawing comparison between the two types of tourism to drive their point as illustrated by their comments below;

“During hunting my income was very low from the weaving business. That’s because unlike in photographic tourism, hunting tourists were few. There will be only 2 groups of tourists in a month” (Business 2).

Moreover, even the opportunities availed by hunting tourism were limited especially to businesses;

“The notable challenge was that it usually took time for the crafts to be sold...because I believe hunters spend much time on the animals” (Business 1).

According to the participants, hunting tourists also had limited interaction with the community which inadvertently meant the businesses had no access to them as Business 1 clarified;

“But the photographic tourists allow themselves time to come into the curio shop or even when we display them [crafts] by the roadside, they take time to stop and carefully look at these baskets and if there is interest then they buy” (Business 1).

6.5.2.3 Reasons for the ban

The business participants were asked to state their understanding of the reasons for the ban of hunting and one theme emerged from their responses. The theme; Second-hand information about declining wildlife numbers due to no consultation, is discussed below.

6.5.2.3.1 Second-hand information about declining wildlife numbers due to no consultation

Both of the participants allude to different information as to the reason for the ban of hunting. One of the participants, Business 1, said she heard about the ban and reasons thereof from a village meeting as well as radio broadcast while Business 2 states that she did not hear about reasons for the ban except that they were told the hunting will be stopped. Business 1 said;

“Not sure but I think they said the reason was that the number of animals was reducing. So, they wanted to stop hunting so that the animals could have a time to recuperate and increase in number. To be given time to breathe and not live in danger” (Business 1).

While Business 2 stated; *“Aah, I don’t know I just heard them saying it will be the last hunting season and they didn’t explain why” (Business 2).*

However, Business 1, was adamant that there was consultation as the authorities came to inform the village of the impending ban of hunting:

“They came to inform us of the coming of the ban due to the reasons I already told you of. But they didn’t mention when the ban will be lifted” (Business 1).

When it was further enquired of the participant if this ‘consultation’ involved asking the community of their opinions, the participant noted that she didn’t remember their opinions on the issue being sort:

“I don’t remember them doing that, what I remember is them informing us that hunting is being stopped. As for asking for our opinions, I don’t remember them coming to do that” (Business 1).

From the analysis, the authorities failed to adequately consult communities and instead resorted to informing them, which according to Okazaki’s (2008) model of Community-Based Tourism, is tokenistic in nature. The findings are consistent with data from former hunting employees and trust

leaders who were also consistent on the notion that authorities failed to do proper consultation of stakeholders (refer to section 6.4.2.4.1 and 6.3.4.4.1).

6.5.2.4 Current Challenges

Notwithstanding the challenges hunting presented, it was important to know the challenges the businesses are currently facing. Therefore, two themes emerged from the findings as; Increased wildlife numbers have made raw material inaccessible and regulatory impediments.

6.5.2.4.1 Increased wildlife numbers have made raw material inaccessible

Increased numbers of wildlife, especially elephants have been noted previously by other interviewees such as trust leaders (refer to section 6.3.4.7.2) and former hunting employees (refer to section 6.4.2.5.1). The situation affects not only farmers but businesses as well. The trail of destruction left by elephants, has affected the availability of raw material that the basket weavers depend on. It was observed that;

*“The other challenge now is that elephants have destroyed the raw material especially Mokola (Palm tree - *Hyphaene petersiana*) because the elephants have increased so the trees don’t grow well because they love the Mokola tree” (Business 2).*

Another respondent noted that; *“The challenges I encounter are mostly to do with material I need for basket making. I use mokola and mokwaepa and nowadays they are not easy to find because to find them you have to travel far. The elephants eat them especially Mokola in the area where we used to harvest the plant. So, I end up being forced to buy the leaves” (Business 1).*

The fact that the businesses have to resort to buying the raw material which they previously accessed for free, demonstrates the gravity of the issue. Due to the status quo, one might postulate that selling prices of the crafts will increase due to increase in cost of material which can adversely affect the attraction of the crafts to the market. The problem has implications on sustainability of both resources (due to elephant destruction) and small traders who rely on the income from crafts for their sustenance. UNWTO (2001:17) notes the importance of tourism in fulfilling the role of job creator and protecting the environment (see principles ix and xi on section 3.5) in their sustainability guiding principles. Therefore, the current status has negative sustainability implications for the tourism industry.

6.5.2.4.2 Regulatory impediments

The participants also raised as a challenge, an issue that emanates from relationships with other stakeholders but yet have a similar devastating impact on their businesses as elephant destruction. The participants note obstacles in accessing raw material in areas presently occupied by ecotourism operators:

“Nowadays its difficult [because] the Safari operators are not allowing us. Regulations have been changed, I mean for those Safari companies who have been leased the land. So, for us to get access to harvest raw materials we have to ask for permission from the Safari Operator. At present we resort to buying material from places like Shorobe village” (Business 2).

The participants argue that the current lease agreement with the photographic tourism operator, gives the operator powers to restrict access to their areas of operations which have adversely affected businesses in accessing the needed raw material. When asked if the current arrangement prevailed and was practiced by hunting operators, the participant had this to say;

“No, the Hunting Safari Operators were not a problem then. You have to understand they (Hunting operators) were operating closer to the village but the raw material is predominantly available in the area where the present photographic Safaris are operating from” (Business 2).

Therefore, the lease agreement is no different now than during the time of hunting, but hunting operators did not have to make such determination of granting access to villagers into their areas as raw material was not in their area of operation. Nonetheless, from analysis, it looks like the exercise of these powers was the prerogative of the operator as Business 2 explains;

“Yes, it [the area] was still used for photographic tourism, but it was a different operator to the one operating now” (Business 2).

Therefore, while the previous operator granted the community access, the current one is not so willing yet both were within their rights. However, the impediments go against the ethos of sustainable tourism which advocates for preservation of living cultural heritage and contribution “to *inter-cultural understanding and tolerance*” (UNEP & UNWTO, 2005:11). Therefore, the status quo that business participants find themselves in, threatens not only their livelihoods but their heritage and promotes intolerance between operators and the community which adversely affects the sustainability of tourism.

6.5.2.5 Recommendations

The participants were asked to make suggestions as to what could be done to alleviate effects of the hunting ban on their lives. Their responses pointed to one theme; Guesthouse and curio shop which is discussed next.

6.5.2.5.1 Guesthouse and curio shop

The business participants suggestion is that, what can alleviate the current effects of hunting ban is to provide opportunities for skilled personnel in the village to showcase their products. According to the participants, craft production is a skill which is already available within the community of Sankuyo,

hence a platform needs to be created to allow them to reach the market. Business 1, in her response, is of the opinion that the trust should not retain any revenue from the arrangement but allow the community members to keep all the profits and only play a facilitation role.

She argues; *“Hey... What can be done? I think if there was a curio-shop in the village and then we have a person who can market these baskets. Then the community shouldn’t take a share in this arrangement” (Business 1).*

Business 2 suggests; *“But maybe guesthouses and if they can make a curio shop for us in the village as well” (Business 2).*

The other participant, Business 2, also feels that in addition to curio shop, there is a need to have a guesthouse in the village. Sankuyo is positioned along the road to places like Mababe, Khwai and the southern reach of Chobe National Park which according to the participants is frequented by self-drive tourists. The participants had this to say;

“Yes, they [tourists] pass through the main road and if we could have a curio-shop by the roadside, they will stop and buy our wares” (Business 2).

The two products, guesthouse and curio shop, are not far fetched when you consider the relevance and importance of the road in accessing places further north of the village.

6.5.2.6 Factors needed for recommendations to succeed

The suggested recommendations discussed in the previous section, can not work if measures are not taken to ensure a conducive environment for their success. Therefore, the participants were asked to consider factors needed to ensure the recommendations come to fruition. There was only one factor that was mentioned during the interviews and that is; marketing and it is further discussed.

6.5.2.6.1 Marketing

Marketing is an essential element in getting products to the market. Therefore, it is no wonder that one of the participants, Business 1, advocates for a marketing personnel to help them make tourists aware of their products. The point is valid especially when one considers that some of the challenges of CBT are marketing related such as lack of marketing skills, failure to access target market and isolation from mainstream tourism industry (Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Lenao, 2015; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009). Therefore, the aspect of marketing needs to be sensibly considered as the participants have alluded, because the success of any product undertaken within the community depends on efficiency in accessing and communicating with the market.

6.6 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF COMMUNITY STRUCTURED INTERVIEW FINDINGS

The section presents results of structured interviews done within the two communities of Sankuyo and Mmadinare. The interviewees were selected using a quota sampling technique (see section 5.3)

with the representation of all the areas in the villages considered. The sampled interviews were 25 in Sankuyo and 21 in Mmadinare. The disparity was a result of a few of the participants opting out of the interview in Mmadinare mid-way through the process which made their responses incomplete and therefore not included in the analysis. The results were analysed using both Microsoft Excel and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The Excel tool was used to capture data and formulate graphs; SPSS was used for cross-tabulation analysis. According to IBM (2019), cross-tabulation is an analysis used to compare two or more categorical variables. The variables used for comparison in the study were the place of residence in the column against other variables in rows. This allowed for data to be analysed between the two study areas. Therefore, this section looks at the demographic profile of the respondents and the presentation of the results. A similar approach was taken in data presentation as the other sections prior (Section 6.3 and 6.4) where similar defined topics were used to present the results.

6.6.1 Demographic data

Table 6.7 shows the gender of participants from the two case study locations. Male participants in Sankuyo were 67% compared to 47.6% in Mmadinare. This means more males took part in the study in Sankuyo, whereas in Mmadinare there was more of a balance in gender distribution of participants. Single participants in both locations represented a higher proportion of respondents at 80% in Sankuyo and 71.4% in Mmadinare. In terms of age, the higher representation in Sankuyo was the 28-37 age group at 40% of participants in the area, while for Mmadinare, the 38-47 was marginally highest at 28.6%. The study also sought to understand the education level of participants and the results show that in Sankuyo most participants (60%), have junior secondary and O-level education while in Mmadinare 48% fall within a similar bracket.

Table 6.7: Demographic profile of community structured interview participants

| Variables/Description | Class | Sankuyo | | Mmadinare | |
|-----------------------|---------------------|---------|------------|-----------|------------|
| | | Number | Percentage | Number | Percentage |
| GENDER | Male | 16 | 64.0% | 10 | 47.6% |
| | Female | 9 | 36.0% | 11 | 52.4% |
| | Total | 25 | 100% | 21 | 100% |
| AGE | 18-27 | 7 | 28.0% | 5 | 23.8% |
| | 28-37 | 10 | 40.0% | 2 | 9.5% |
| | 38-47 | 0 | 0.0% | 6 | 28.6% |
| | 48-57 | 1 | 4.0% | 3 | 14.3% |
| | 58-67 | 0 | 0.0% | 2 | 9.5% |
| | Over 68 | 2 | 8.0% | 3 | 14.3% |
| | Unknown | 5 | 20.0% | 0 | 0.0% |
| EDUCATION | Primary | 1 | 4.0% | 5 | 23.8% |
| | Junior Secondary | 8 | 32.0% | 3 | 14.3% |
| | O-Level | 7 | 28.0% | 5 | 23.8% |
| | Certificate | 1 | 4.0% | 1 | 4.8% |
| | Diploma | 1 | 4.0% | 3 | 14.3% |
| | Degree | 0 | 0.0% | 4 | 19.0% |
| | No formal education | 7 | 28.0% | 0 | 0.0% |
| MARITAL STATUS | Single | 22 | 88.0% | 15 | 71.4% |
| | Married | 2 | 8.0% | 6 | 28.6% |
| | Widowed | 1 | 4.0% | 0 | 0.0% |
| OCCUPATION | Escort Guide | 2 | 8.0% | 0 | 0.00% |
| | Teacher | 1 | 4.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| | Ipelegeng | 5 | 20.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| | Unemployed | 11 | 44.0% | 5 | 23.80% |
| | Self-employed | 1 | 4.0% | 7 | 33.30% |
| | Civil Service | 2 | 8.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| | Tourism employment | 3 | 12.0% | 0 | 0.00% |
| | Fishing | 0 | 0.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| | Farming | 0 | 0.0% | 3 | 14.30% |
| | Student | 0 | 0.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| | Domestic Worker | 0 | 0.0% | 1 | 4.80% |
| INCOME LEVEL | No Income | 10 | 40.0% | 9 | 42.90% |
| | Less than P500 | 4 | 16.0% | 2 | 9.50% |
| | P501-1000 | 3 | 12.0% | 3 | 14.30% |
| | P1001-1500 | 3 | 12.0% | 0 | 0.00% |
| | P1501-2000 | 2 | 8.0% | 2 | 9.50% |
| | P2001-2500 | 0 | 0.0% | 2 | 9.50% |
| | P2501-3000 | 2 | 8.0% | 0 | 0.00% |
| | More than P3000 | 1 | 4.0% | 3 | 14.30% |

Furthermore, the occupation of participants was analysed, and the results show that 44% of Sankuyo respondents are unemployed compared to 23.8% in Mmadinare. Nonetheless, of the Sankuyo respondents that are employed, 20% are in the tourism industry while in Mmadinare there is none employed in tourism. However, a higher proportion of the Mmadinare respondents are self-employed at 33%. In terms of income, both locations recorded similar proportions of participants who indicate they have no income at 40% in Sankuyo and 42.9% in Mmadinare. Other than that, small percentages are spread across the income brackets in both villages.

6.6.2 Community Structured interview findings

The structured interview findings were analysed together and presented in tables and figures according to the topics previously used for the other interview participants. The topics are; benefits of hunting, challenges during hunting, reasons for the ban, current challenges, mitigation strategies and factors needed to succeed. In addition to the outlined topics, another topic was added that sought to understand the impacts and perception of tourism in the communities. The findings are presented below.

6.6.2.1 Benefits of Hunting

The participants had to select the options of benefits identified from the literature (Taylor, 2017; Afenyo & Amuquandoh, 2014; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; The Mountain Institute, 2000). The options allowed the participants to select multiple benefits as might apply to them. The table below (Table 6.8) presents those that responded “Yes” to each of the provided benefits menus. They were also allowed to offer “other” options that did not appear as the prescribed option.

Table 6.8: Cross-tabulation of the Benefits of Hunting and place of residence

| | | RESIDENCE | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|--------|
| | | Sankuyo | Mmadinare | |
| Benefits of Hunting ^a | Sale of Meat | Count | 19 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 79.2% | 0.0% |
| | Employment in tourism | Count | 19 | 1 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 79.2% | 100.0% |
| | Sale of Souvenirs/crafts | Count | 7 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 29.2% | 0.0% |
| | Community Development | Count | 11 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 45.8% | 0.0% |
| | Tour Guiding | Count | 4 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 16.7% | 0.0% |
| | Financial Dividends | Count | 13 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 54.2% | 0.0% |
| | Sale of Services to Tourists | Count | 3 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 12.5% | 0.0% |
| | Other Livelihoods Opportunities | Count | 8 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 33.3% | 0.0% |
| | Old Age Pension | Count | 3 | 0 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 12.5% | 0.0% |
| Total | Count | 24 | 1 | |

Participants in Sankuyo indicated that the predominant benefits they received from hunting were “sale of meat” and “employment in tourism” with 79% of respondents indicating that both these benefits accrued to the community. Furthermore, 54% and 45.8% of the respondents (in Sankuyo) said the community also benefited through financial dividends and community development respectively. Some respondents alluded to the knowledge of the other benefits accruing to the community such as old-age pension, sale of crafts, sale of services and other livelihoods opportunities. However, of major concern are the responses from Mmadinare, where only one participant indicated that there were employment benefits from hunting tourism. The rest of the participants responded “No” to all the benefits presented to them and none could offer alternative benefits accruing to the community.

Nonetheless, the findings are in contrast with the results from former hunting employees as well as the trust leader, who indicated that there were employment and sale of meat that accrued to the community (see section 6.3.4.1.1 and 6.4.2.2.1). It can be understood that the hunting operation in Mmadinare employed only 15 individuals which is very small relative to a population in excess of 3000, and according to the trust leader, much of the income accrued was used for skills capacity building and charitable donations especially to schools (refer to section 6.3.4.1.1). Therefore, these

initiatives might not have been felt by the rest of the community who as it will be discussed later, most were not even aware of the existence of hunting operations in their community. Nevertheless, the findings from the Sankuyo community, were consistent with semi-structured interviews from other participants who alluded to tangible benefits like employment and meat (former hunting employees) and community projects (trust leaders' responses). The results in Sankuyo are also consistent with the findings by Mbaiwa (2004) and Thakadu (2005) who also noted employment, meat and social services accruing to communities as a benefit of hunting tourism. Therefore, the community in Sankuyo allude to hunting to have had benefits that helped them as a community, while Mmadinare did not feel any benefits.

In a bid to further explore the issue of disparity between the community, an analysis of responses on the question of "what type of tourism activities existed before the ban of hunting" was done and results presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.9: Tourism Activities before the Ban awareness comparison by RESIDENCE

| | | | RESIDENCE | | |
|--|---------------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|----|
| | | | Sankuyo | Mmadinare | |
| Tourism Activities before the ban ^a | Cultural Shows | Count | 12 | 6 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 48.0% | 37.5% | |
| | Photographic Safari | Count | 18 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 72.0% | 0.0% | |
| | Hunting Safari | Count | 18 | 3 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 72.0% | 18.8% | |
| | Traditional Dance | Count | 12 | 10 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 48.0% | 62.5% | |
| | 4x4 Trails | Count | 4 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 16.0% | 0.0% | |
| | Other (Specify) | Count | 2 | 2 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 8.0% | 12.5% | |
| | Total | | Count | 25 | 16 |

As evidenced in Table 6.9, majority of Mmadinare residents only acknowledge the presence of traditional dance and cultural shows at 62.5% and 37.5% respectively. While only (n=3) or 18.8% noted the presence of hunting safari in their area. In contrast, Sankuyo participants demonstrate knowledge of hunting and photographic tourism at 72% each. This further proves the disconnect of residents and the hunting initiatives in the area of Mmadinare.

6.6.2.2 Challenges during Hunting Tourism

The participants were asked to indicate what were the challenges brought about by wildlife during the period before the ban of hunting. The analysis was cross-tabulated by residence for comparison in the two locations of Mmadinare and Sankuyo. The participants had multiple response options to select from. The findings are presented in Table 6.10 and discussed below.

Table 6.10: Challenges of Wildlife before the ban of Hunting

| | | | | RESIDENCE | | |
|--|--------------------------------|-------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|----|
| | | | | Sankuyo | Mmadinare | |
| Challenges of Wildlife before the ban ^a | Damage to Crops | | Count | 14 | 12 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 82.4% | 92.3% | |
| | Reduction in Pasturelands | | Count | 1 | 1 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 5.9% | 7.7% | |
| | Poaching of Wildlife | | Count | 1 | 0 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 5.9% | 0.0% | |
| | Causes Diseases | Livestock | Count | 2 | 0 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 11.8% | 0.0% | |
| | Financial losses from wildlife | | Count | 4 | 0 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 23.5% | 0.0% | |
| | Limited Opportunities | Livelihoods | Count | 4 | 0 | |
| | | | % within RESIDENCE | 23.5% | 0.0% | |
| | Total | | | Count | 17 | 13 |

The findings indicate that in both communities, the most challenge presented by wildlife before the ban of hunting was damage to crops with 82.4% and 92.3% of respondents in Sankuyo and Mmadinare respectively. This is in complete contrast to responses from trust leaders, whose only challenge was in the pricing of quotas and did not allude to crop destruction as an issue in both communities. The finding which demonstrates the convergence of experiences is in limited opportunities offered by hunting alluded to by former employees and businesses in Sankuyo, an observation reflected in community responses albeit at only 23.5%. The results indicate that, from a community perspective, challenges to farming which is a fundamental community livelihood aspect, were still prevalent during the days hunting tourism was allowed. Nonetheless, findings from other participants; trust leaders and former employees, are divergent to community views which might reflect that the leaders are far removed from the reality of the villagers. For example, in Sankuyo the community trust is headquartered in Maun which is 80 kilometres away from the village. However, in Mmadinare, the trust's offices are within the village but due to inadequate staff compliment (see section 6.3.4.9.2) where board members are performing operational duties, it could be the reasons

for divergent views. Nonetheless, the Mmadinare community's lack of awareness of hunting tourism in their area as alluded earlier in section 6.5.2.1, could also mean that the concerns on this challenge never reached the trust leadership.

6.6.2.3 Current challenges

The interview addressed the issue of current challenges as an open-ended question which required participants to consider the broader issues concerning wildlife tourism development. Therefore, the issues that were raised by the respondents were grouped together and placed in categories which informed the themes to be discussed below.

6.6.2.3.1 Problems with ecotourism operations

The participants especially in Sankuyo (n=7) raised the issue with the status of the tourism operations as they currently have photographic tourism in their area which Mmadinare residents do not have. Therefore, one of the predominant problems raised was the foreign ownership status of tourism operations. One of the participants decried that;

“Batswana are not the ones managing tourism operations, most of the time they are hired as employees”.

Another participant had this to say on the same issue;

“Government is discriminatory in their approach. That is why few locals participate in tourism as opposed to foreigners”.

The point is the community wishes for tourism to be moving towards local ownership and they blame the government for the status quo. The next direct quote from a community participant cements this narrative:

“The challenge I can talk about is that, its like the people from overseas have been given total control over our land”.

The participants view foreign dominance as a challenge facing them. Furthermore, the participants note concern with conditions that are not met nor clear by the operator conducting business in their concessions. One participant raised this point as highlighted below;

“There is a new Safari company in place which is not clear what they will do to improve skills. Some agreements implemented in the past are not done now, like employment criteria”.

There is no escaping comparison with past operators when assessing the performance of the present especially at the community level where the impacts are felt. This is exacerbated by the fact that communities no longer select partners nor set conditions of what they would want the impact to be in the community by the operator, as was the case with hunting. These powers were alluded to in section

6.3.4.2.2 which led to good business relationships. The present scenario means the operator and the community relationship has soured, which is contrary to what Rozemeijer (2001 in Salazar, 2012) noted when the author mentioned transparency as a recipe for success in an earlier study in Botswana.

6.6.2.3.2 *Wildlife Challenges*

Another challenge that emanates from the data is the challenges brought about by wildlife. The challenges are brought about by crop destruction and livestock loss. This issue cuts across both study locations with (n=22) or 48% of participants noting this problem in total. One participant points to their desperation in the whole human-wildlife conflict (HWC) issue as stated below:

“We have given up on animals, the onus is on those who control them [animals]”.

This means for both communities, the struggle of wildlife destruction in their ploughing fields continues unabated from the time of hunting until now. Therefore, as alluded to by one of the trust leaders from Mmadinare, other management strategies to deal with the HWC are needed (see section 6.3.4.8.1).

Furthermore, in further exploration of the challenges brought by wildlife to the communities, a scaled question was asked where participants had to indicate their attitudes towards wildlife after the ban of hunting. Figure 6.4 presents the findings.

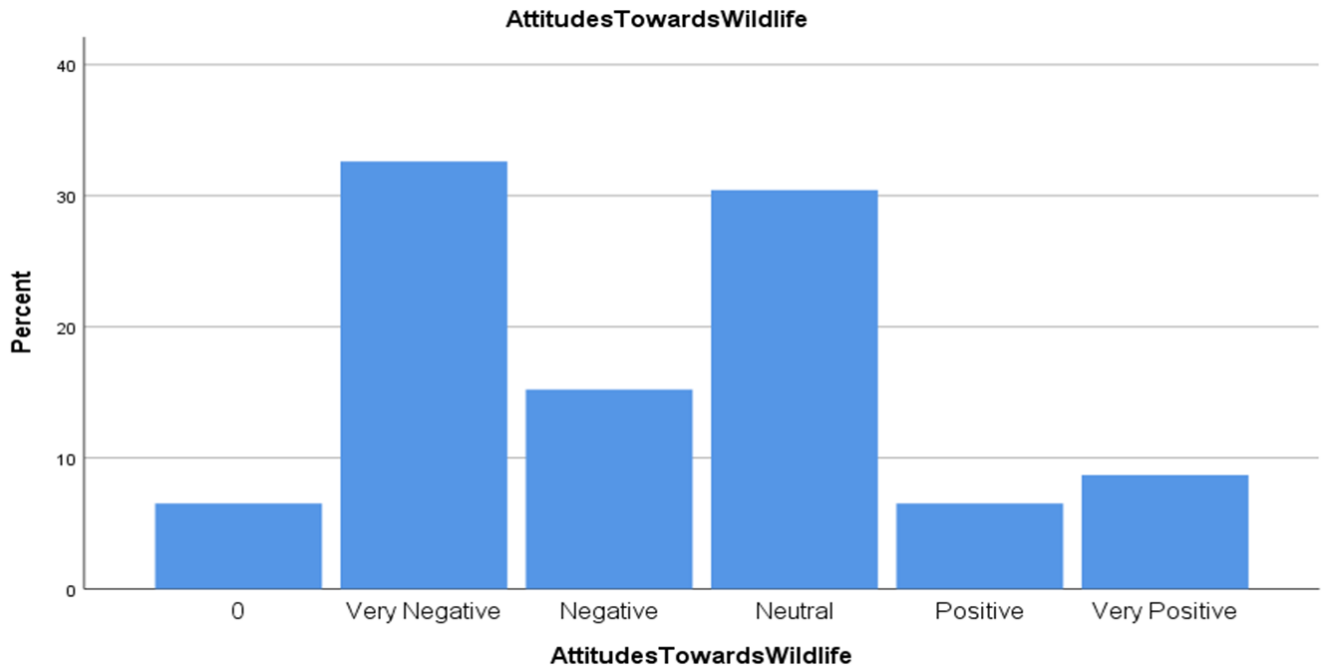


Figure 6.4: Attitudes towards wildlife after the ban of hunting

The findings indicate a total percentage of 47.8% by participants from both communities rate their attitudes to be either negative or very negative. The findings are consistent with similar negative

sentiments noted in Botswana by Mbaiwa (2018:51) which were observed after the ban of hunting. In contrast, only 15.2% of respondents said their attitudes are positive towards wildlife since the ban of hunting, while 30.4% responded neutral, which means their attitudes neither changed for worse nor for the better. The responses to the scaled question compare well with what participants voiced as their current challenge in an open-ended question.

Furthermore, results of the Likert scale statements in the structured interview were considered that relate to the issue of wildlife challenges. The results considered three statements which sort to gauge the community member's sentiments on wildlife after the ban of hunting and results are presented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.11: Current effects of Wildlife on Communities

| STATEMENTS | No. | Totally Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Totally Agree | Not Applicable | Total % |
|--|-----|------------------|----------|---------|-------|---------------|----------------|---------|
| I value wildlife the same way before and after the hunting ban | 46 | 24% | 7% | 9% | 9% | 33% | 20% | 100% |
| Wildlife has caused negative impacts on the environment | 46 | 11% | 2% | 15% | 11% | 52% | 9% | 100% |
| Wildlife negatively affects community livelihoods | 46 | 11% | 7% | 4% | 9% | 59% | 11% | 100% |

The findings indicate that the first statement on how communities value wildlife seems to contradict the results of Figure 6.4, where majority indicate that they hold a negative attitude towards wildlife. Nonetheless, while 42% of respondents note that they value wildlife, a higher number note wildlife's negative impacts on the environment and community livelihoods at 63% and 68% respectively. That is to say, communities value wildlife even though they acknowledge the challenges they face from it, which affect their livelihoods especially crop destruction (see Table 6.10) and the increased destruction of the environment. The latter issue was also raised by business interview respondents in Sankuyo who noted the elephant's destruction of the raw material they use for basket weaving.

6.6.2.3.3 No Involvement

The other issue prevalent across both study locations is the lack of involvement by communities in decision making. A total of (n=20) participants raised this issue when asked about current challenges they face. The issue of lack of community involvement is recurring when one considers the views of other interviewees. The problem is more significant in communities as they are the ones being side-

lined in issues of tourism development in their areas. One of the participants had this to say on the issue;

“most of the decisions are taken by government, the community is given directives by government”.

Another concurred; *“It will be proper if government could give the community the chance to take part in decision making”.*

The issue discussed by the community participants gives credence to the call for bottom-up approach advocated by Zapata *et al.* (2011) discussed in section 6.3.4.9.3 and buttressed by other authors in the literature such as; Manyara and Jones (2007), Kibicho (2008) and Nitikasetsoontorn (2014). It cannot be overemphasised that communities feel the need to take part in issues that concern them and about resources they consider their own.

6.6.2.4 Impacts of Tourism on communities

Tourism has impacts and, in an effort, to ascertain impacts of wildlife utilisation in communities of Sankuyo and Mmadinare, various statements were put to communities' participants to answer.

6.6.2.4.1 Benefit accrual to Communities

Likert scale statements were asked of respondents. The participants had to indicate their degree of agreeability with the statements from a scale of one (1) to six (6) with 1 being totally disagree and 6 being not applicable. Table 6.12 presents findings on issues of financial benefits, improved infrastructure, improved employment and equal opportunities in management of current CBT projects.

Table 6.12: Reflections on Ecotourism Benefits Accrual to Communities

| STATEMENTS | No. | Totally Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Totally Agree | Not Applicable | Total % |
|--|-----|------------------|----------|---------|-------|---------------|----------------|---------|
| The financial benefits from tourism are adequate to sustain my livelihood | 46 | 22% | 13% | 9% | 11% | 9% | 37% | 100% |
| Tourism has improved employment opportunities in the area | 46 | 9% | 11% | 4% | 22% | 24% | 30% | 100% |
| There has been an improvement of infrastructure in my area due to tourism development | 46 | 20% | 17% | 13% | 15% | 13% | 22% | 100% |
| The financial benefits from tourism are the same before and after the hunting ban | 46 | 48% | 9% | 0% | 2% | 4% | 37% | 100% |
| I have equal opportunities to be employed in the management positions of the CBT project in the area | 46 | 15% | 9% | 11% | 17% | 9% | 39% | 100% |
| AVERAGE % | | 23% | 12% | 7% | 13% | 12% | 33% | |

The findings indicate that across all five statements, the highest average percentage is “not applicable”. This means most people felt the statements did not apply to them and followed by those who disagree with the statements at 23%. Nonetheless, a statement per statement analysis demonstrates that majority (46%) are agreeable to the statement that “Tourism has improved employment opportunities in the area”, while most participants (57%) disagree with the statement that “The financial benefits from tourism are the same before and after the hunting ban”. The disagreement means financial benefits after the ban of hunting could have improved for the better or become worse. Therefore, for a clarification of the source of the disagreements, results presented in Table 6.8 and Table 6.13 below are further considered. Understandably, Mmadinare residents indicate very little benefits from wildlife tourism, simply because the community has presently no wildlife utilisation initiatives. Sankuyo on the other hand, shows that the most benefit they derive from wildlife tourism currently is employment with 77.8% of respondents agreeable to the option. According to Table 6.8,

employment was still one of the important benefits during the time of hunting. However, there were other notable benefits such as “sale of meat” at 79%, community development at 45.8% and financial dividends at 54.2% that also accrued to the community during hunting tourism.

Table 6.13: Current benefits of Wildlife tourism

| | | | RESIDENCE | | |
|--|---------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-----------|---|
| | | | Sankuyo | Mmadinare | |
| Current Wildlife Benefits ^a | Sale of Meat | Count | 1 | 2 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 5.6% | 50.0% | |
| | Employment in tourism | Count | 14 | 2 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 77.8% | 50.0% | |
| | Sale of Souvenirs/crafts | Count | 7 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 38.9% | 0.0% | |
| | Community Development | Count | 6 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 33.3% | 0.0% | |
| | Tour Guiding | Count | 6 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 33.3% | 0.0% | |
| | Financial Dividends | Count | 3 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 16.7% | 0.0% | |
| | Sale of Services to Tourists | Count | 3 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 16.7% | 0.0% | |
| | Other Livelihoods Opportunities | Count | 5 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 27.8% | 0.0% | |
| | Royalties to Trust | Count | 2 | 0 | |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 11.1% | 0.0% | |
| | Total | | Count | 18 | 4 |

The said benefits currently, are indicated to be less according to responses from the participants (see Table 6.13). Of particular importance is the reduction by the sale of meat from 79.2% to 5.6% and community development down to 33.3% as well as financial dividends down to 16.7% from 54% during hunting. This shows that in disagreeing with the statement “The financial benefits from tourism are the same before and after the hunting ban”, the participants simply mean that benefits have decreased in accrual to them as a community. Findings from the former hunting employees and businesses alluded to the accrual of tangible benefits (see section 6.4.2.2.1) as a success factor in the operation of hunting tourism. The same sentiments are shared by trust leaders who intimated that the benefits of hunting were revenue that aided community projects and skills development (refer to section 6.3.4.1.1). Therefore, current wildlife tourism utilisation initiatives in Sankuyo accrue fewer benefits to communities than hunting tourism.

6.6.2.4.2 Decision-making in Communities

Community participants were required to state their involvement in decision making and also to state who they believe is best placed to make decisions about tourism in their area. Table 6.14 presents the findings.

Table 6.14: Reflections on Decision making in communities

| STATEMENTS | No. | Totally Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Totally Agree | Not Applicable | Total % |
|---|-----|------------------|----------|---------|-------|---------------|----------------|---------|
| I am involved in the decision-making regarding tourism in my area | 46 | 30% | 7% | 4% | 22% | 20% | 17% | 100% |
| Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the community | 46 | 28% | 11% | 0% | 11% | 41% | 9% | 100% |
| Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the private sector | 46 | 28% | 15% | 13% | 13% | 24% | 7% | 100% |
| Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the government | 46 | 22% | 11% | 22% | 11% | 24% | 11% | 100% |
| AVERAGE % | | 27% | 11% | 10% | 14% | 27% | 11% | |

An analysis of the results demonstrates that when considering averages of all statements, 27% of participants totally disagree with all statements and another 27% “totally agree” with the statements. However, a statement per statement analysis shows that most participants (50%) either agree or totally agree with the statement “Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the community”. This indicates that community members believe that decisions about the type of tourism development in their community or areas around them, are best left to the communities themselves. The sentiments are consistent with findings from trust leaders and former hunting employees and businesses who felt that engagement and involvement of communities are critical for the success of tourism operations. Rainforest Alliance & Conservation International (n.d. in Mitchell & Mucksoy, 2008) noted that 40% of CBT projects fail to involve communities in decision making while Stone and Stone (2011) reiterated the issue by citing a study in Botswana where community involvement in decision making was a thorny issue. Therefore, while it is noted that communities need to be involved in decision making, the reality is different.

6.6.2.5 Mitigation Strategies

Community participants were asked of their views on what could mitigate the effects of the ban of hunting in their areas. This was an open-ended question which allowed participants to express their views. The following are themes that emerged from the analysis of the responses given.

6.6.2.5.1 Improve management of Human-Wildlife Conflict

Unsurprisingly, the most prominent response (n=18) by participants in both communities, revolve around the reduction in incidences of wildlife conflict with humans. The issue of human-wildlife conflict has been noted in different sections in the findings of the community interviews (refer to sections; 6.6.2.2 and 6.6.2.3.2), former hunting employees (refer to section 6.4.2.5.1) as well as trust leaders (refer to section 6.3.4.7.2). Therefore, management of the conflict is of paramount importance not only to the communities but also to conservation as well. The participants advanced a plethora of ideas to manage the conflict. The following are some of the participants' suggestions;

“Educate people in the community on wildlife tolerance to prevent conflict between the two”;

“Fence farming area to keep out animals to allow farming to thrive”;

“Use escort guides to fight Human-Wildlife Conflict”;

“Improve management skills in the community”.

The improvement of management in dealing with human-wildlife conflict reflect the same views held by one of the trust leaders. This also is a concern which resonates with the previously articulated view by the community that animals negatively affect their livelihoods (refer to Table 6.11). The case study communities practice subsistence farming. Therefore, improved management of wildlife interaction in farming areas will improve their field yield and their tolerance of the animals.

6.6.2.5.2 Increase Tourism Products

One of the recurring themes in the findings is in reference to tourism products. Most participants (n=12) believe that the best way to mitigate the ban of hunting is to increase the tourism products offered in community areas. The products suggested include increasing campsites especially in Sankuyo area, utilising previous hunting concessions for photographic and agro-tourism in Mmadinare. One of the participants in Sankuyo had this to say;

“Create campsites especially where hunting camps were located”.

The communities' suggestions mirror what is already available within the country's tourism industry in terms of products. However, a previous study by Winterbach, Whitesell and Somers (2015) noted that most Wildlife Management Areas (WMA) especially those previously used for hunting have low photographic tourism potential. Therefore, even though the communities might look to diversify

income by considering the photographic option, the areas ear-marked might not hold much value for the photographic tourism market due to scarce animal concentration. Nonetheless, participants also suggested agro-tourism as an option to increase the tourism product. The prevalence of subsistence farming in the two case study communities give credence to the idea as traditional farming methods and practices could be harnessed for tourism consumption especially in an area like Mmadinare which has much bigger farmland than Sankuyo.

6.6.2.5.3 Lifting the ban

Few people have considered the lifting of the hunting ban as a mitigating strategy (n=4) while others have indicated that they have no idea (n=9) and a further (n=3) suggested what was classified as “other” strategies. The “other” options included youth empowerment, funding and constructing a fuel station in the community. Nonetheless, lifting of the ban of hunting is not peculiar in this study as other interviewees indicated their desire to see the hunting ban lifted (refer to section 6.4.2.6.1 and 6.3.4.8.1). One of the participants had this to say;

“open hunting camps and allow hunting to resume”.

The issue is more desperate in Mmadinare where there are currently no tourism projects ongoing since the ban of hunting coupled with the low photographic tourism potential of their area. It is, therefore, only hunting as a form of wildlife utilisation that is possible in the Mmadinare area aside from other natural resources.

6.6.2.6 Factors Needed to Succeed

The strategies highlight in section 6.5.2.5 can only be achieved if certain conditions are available to ensure success. The section, therefore, considers what the community participants view as important for the success of the strategies to be realised. The responses are summarised in Table 6.15 as presented below.

Table 6.15: Factors Needed to Succeed

| | | RESIDENCE | | | |
|--|-------------------------------|--------------------|-----------|-------|----|
| | | Sankuyo | Mmadinare | Total | |
| Factors Needed to Succeed ^a | Improve CBT Management Skills | Count | 11 | 3 | 14 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 52.4% | 16.7% | |
| | Avail Funding | Count | 6 | 5 | 11 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 28.6% | 27.8% | |
| | Improve infrastructure | Count | 9 | 9 | 18 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 42.9% | 50.0% | |
| | Increase Access to Market | Count | 8 | 4 | 12 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 38.1% | 22.2% | |
| | Improved product | Count | 4 | 5 | 9 |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------|-------|-------|----|
| | development | % within RESIDENCE | 19.0% | 27.8% | |
| | Increase knowledge on tourism | Count | 11 | 13 | 24 |
| | | % within RESIDENCE | 52.4% | 72.2% | |
| | Diversify the Source Market | Count | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| % within RESIDENCE | | 19.0% | 16.7% | | |
| Total | | Count | 21 | 18 | 39 |

There were (n=39) responses to the question as opposed to (n=46) as seven participants stated that they have no idea of what is required. The question was a multiple-choice question which allowed the respondents to select multiple responses as might apply. Therefore, only results of those who indicated with a “Yes” to a selection are presented and analysed here. The findings demonstrate a divergence in ideas between the case study communities as to what is required to succeed in mitigation strategies. However, on the items of “Improve Infrastructure” and “Increase knowledge on tourism”, the communities share similarly high observations of what is required with 42.9% and 50% in Sankuyo and Mmadinare respectively on the former and 52.4% and 72.2 on the latter. Improvement of infrastructure was also noted by former hunting employees as a factor that could enhance the success of mitigation strategies (see section 6.4.2.7.1). Nonetheless, Sankuyo residents also believe that improvement of skills on CBT management is equally important. One might argue that the factors that garnered the most responses are those the community members are directly impacted, or they can be directly involved. For example, for Mmadinare residents, limited knowledge of tourism in their area might galvanise most to call for increased knowledge of tourism, which they responded to at over 72%. Likewise, in Sankuyo, one of the important factors is “Improve CBT management skills” which directly will increase employment at management levels from community members. Therefore, the responses are in line with community needs. In contrast, items like “diversify the source market” and “avail funding” scored low as they are more operational business issues better handled by those in the running of the CBT projects. The factors highlighted are also consistent with findings from former hunting employees and businesses who also alluded to the need to improve infrastructure as well as funding which they believed should be availed by community trusts.

6.7 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS OF BTO SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW

One of the participants in the study was a representative of the public, semi-autonomous tourism marketing; Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO). The organisation as alluded in chapter 2, section 2.6.2.3.2, advises government and implements policies as one of its mandates. Furthermore, BTO has often come out in literature and results of this study as a player in CBNRM management to some extent. Therefore, the organisation was deemed relevant to include in the study. The section presents and discusses the findings of the interview with a representative of the organisation. The participant is a male aged 35 years and a holder of a bachelor’s degree, who works within the public relations

unit of the organisation and referred to by the pseudonym, *Representative 1* in this study. The coding and theming process used was identical to procedures done with other interviews, where anchor codes were used to guide coding. This was followed by categories and themes developed from grouped categories. The anchor codes used are as follows:

- Benefits of hunting to communities
- Challenges of hunting
- Reasons for the hunting ban
- Project structures
- Monitoring and evaluation of projects
- Recommendations

The anchor codes or topics, however, did not control the presentation of the results as some categories transcend the given topics. Therefore, themes are not confined to topics in a presentation to allow links to be discussed without hindrance. The results are presented in Table 6.16.

Table 6.16: BTO INTERVIEW THEMES FROM INTERVIEWS

| ANCHOR CODES | CATEGORIES | THEMES |
|--------------------------------|--|--|
| BENEFITS OF HUNTING | Revenue directly to communities Meat and leather | Direct benefits to communities |
| PROJECT STRUCTURE | Community managed projects BTO initiated initiatives | BTO initiated, community-managed projects |
| MONITORING OF PROJECTS | Various BTO departments monitor projects New monitoring processes Management support Exposure to markets No skills capacity done | Increased administrative support of projects |
| CURRENT CHALLENGES | Unsatisfactory Policy No transition & consultation | Unsatisfactory Policy |
| SUSTAINABILITY MEASURES | Civic and BTO sustainability efforts | Combined sustainability efforts |

| | | |
|---------------------------|---|--|
| | Management through knowledge | |
| RECOMMENDATIONS | Cultural tourism Exploration of other products | Diversify through culture and other products |
| REASON FOR THE BAN | Threats to conservation Preservation | Threats to conservation led to preservation |

6.7.1 Direct benefits to communities

The participant intimated that hunting brought benefits to the communities in the form of revenue, meat, leather and other animal by-products. The respondent further clarified that, in comparison between hunting and photographic, the benefits from hunting go directly to the communities through their trusts in the form of land lease rentals and animal quotas. Though photographic brings land lease rentals, it offers little else beyond that:

“That question was posed to the minister earlier. Photography is slow as far as making money. Hunting tourism brings in more money ... The good thing as we spoke earlier, the money coming from hunting goes back to the communities” (Representative 1).

The assertion that hunting brings more money, is shared by trust leaders (refer to section 6.3.4.1.1) as well as former hunting employees (refer to section 6.4.2.2.1). Furthermore, the literature (see section 2.4.3.1.2) also notes the higher contribution of revenue by hunting compared with ecotourism ventures (Mbaiwa, 2018). The benefits are what has been the rationale behind CBNRM (The Mountain Institute, 2000; Zapata *et al.*, 2011).

6.7.2 BTO initiated, community-managed projects

The participant admits that earlier CBNRM projects were donor-funded but was quick to point out that certain recently established projects were initiated and funded by BTO itself. However, the BTO funded projects are few and none of them has wildlife as a resource to manage. The said projects were initiated in the early years of BTO as an organisation, with Goo-Moremi gorge, for example, originated in 2008. The projects funded by the organisation also enjoy administrative support as well as monitoring. The participant emphasises that the projects are community managed and BTO is just an overseer. However, old projects remain isolated with little help due to an unclear CSR agenda of BTO:

“I’ll take you back now to what we do as BTO, we don’t have a CSR policy as an organisation, but it is through the ministry of Tourism that we are able to, uhm harness or make sure that we extend our CSR work in whichever way we decide through the ministry” (Representative 1).

The projects, unlike externally funded initiatives, have an extended support both financially and administratively until they are sustainable due to the local presence of the donor.

6.7.3 Increased administrative support of projects

As discussed in 6.7.2, the projects that BTO initiated enjoy support both financially and administratively. The administrative support includes monitoring the business performance and market access initiatives. The participant notes that various departments within the organisation help address the different needs in monitoring efforts. Representative 1 responded:

“Yes, we have a projects department here in BTO... Every now and then, they go and check their books through assisting them with bookkeeping to see if they are doing things right. So on and so forth. Even maintenance, they make sure that things are done” (Representative 1).

However, there is an element of pampering which might lead to the limited transfer of knowledge to community members which will ultimately have an adverse effect on the sustainability of the operations. This is more profound when one considers the lack of skills capacity buildings the respondent mentioned. When asked if there are any measures taken to skill the community, Representative 1 had this to say;

“We encourage, we shouldn’t forget that we are in competition with the rest of the world so obviously the output/services that we provide should be of quality”.

The understanding is that while the desire is there to have skilled employees in the operations of the businesses, deliberate efforts are not taken to ensure the community supply such skills through building their capacity. The aspect of lack of skill-building within communities goes against the ethos of CBT, where participation and skilling are allied (Harrison and Schipani, 2007; Ndlovu, 2015). Nonetheless, efforts to increase market access by the organisation should be commended. As the country’s tourism marketing entity, their expertise in the area could go a long way in helping CBT projects current and old in this ever-important area in tourism commerce. Representative 1 clarified;

“Botswana Travel and Tourism Expo which is hosted annually where we get international operators to come and join the national operators. It’s just a simple product exchange so in that case, we are able to give them a platform to market themselves” (Representative 1).

The literature cites market access as a challenge in CBT operations and the problem is attributed to lack of skills overemphasised (Keyser, 2009; Mbaiwa, 2004c) and isolation by CBT from mainstream tourism (Goodwin and Santilli, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, in the light of the BTO efforts which are aimed at availing the platform to link and interact by various entities, market access can be realised by CBT projects.

6.7.4 Unsatisfactory Policy

The CBNRM policy has been in existence since 2007, and reference has been made to it in earlier discussions (refer to section 2.6.2.2.5) and some of its challenges have been highlighted by other participants (refer to section 6.3.4.7.1). Therefore, it was important to understand the view of the public sector on this issue. The BTO representative alluded to the limitation of the policy and the need for improvement to help CBT management:

“So I think that was made to make that relationship [between communities and wildlife] or to smoothen the coexistence that already existed even though it was slightly troublesome hence I am saying that we need to look at the policy again because a lot has changed since 2007” (Representative 1).

The sentiments of the participant are that, the policy needs to be revised since it has been overtaken by events though the respondent is not specific as to which areas need to be revised or considered. Nonetheless, the issue that came under scrutiny was the benefit-sharing framework in the policy (CAR, 2016), which however has not attracted complaints from communities according to the BTO representative as noted below;

“I haven’t heard any complaints so far. Obviously, there being no complaints doesn’t mean that everyone is satisfied with how things are being done. I believe that we can still do better with the ratio that is to be shared”.

6.7.5 Combined sustainability efforts

In CBT management, one of the overarching issues is the sustainability of resources. The responsibility as to who must advance this cause, is often blurred. CBNRM by design was instituted to allow communities to drive conservation and sustenance of resources through benefits realisation (Mitchell & Mucksoy, 2008; Goodwin & Santilli, 2009; Lenao, 2015; Zapata *et al.*, 2011; Harrison & Schipani, 2007). This means that the communities have a responsibility to sustain the resources as they benefit from them. The results that informed the theme demonstrates that there are efforts to bring communities and BTO to play a role in the sustenance of resources. According to the participant, the communities have a big role to play in sustainability of resources and therefore, BTO does education initiatives to enhance this aspect. They explain:

“We have the environmental department. They go around sensitizing communities on the issue of sustainability which is important. The government of Botswana has actually committed themselves to the issue of sustainable use of natural resources” (Representative 1).

The issue of community education is however not isolated as communities have indigenous knowledge in addressing the sustenance of resources. This aspect is also highlighted by the BTO representative during the interview:

“Education all in all is important for a person to know what is dangerous and what isn’t dangerous. Fortunately, these communities have lived long enough in these areas to understand the dynamics”.

However, education of communities on sustainability should not be one-dimensional but must be a symbiotic learning process between the authorities and the communities, who are the custodians of resources (Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Wight, 2002).

6.7.6 Threats to conservation led to preservation

The participant was asked the reasons for the hunting ban which was instituted in 2014. The responses are that, there was need to preserve wildlife after it was discovered that certain species were declining in number. Representative 1 elaborates;

“Before 2014, the government was under the impression that they were losing a lot of endangered species. The issue of poaching I think was also one of the main reasons to try by all means to cut it completely” (Representative 1).

The ban or suspension, as the respondent has termed it, was also instituted from a growing fear that poaching was being encouraged by hunting tourism. The reasons are consistent with what came out from the trust leaders as well as former hunting employees and businesses (refer to sections 6.3.4.4.1 and 6.4.2.4.1). However, the message was doubted by the interviewed participants due to the lack of consultation by the authorities, a sentiment the BTO representative shared;

“The suspension like I said was done with little consultation. I want to confidently say I don’t think enough was done as a follow up on the ban and the transitioning phase” (Representative 1).

The words of the representative confirm the results of the other interviewees in this study that both consultation and a transition plan were not considered prior to the decision to ban hunting was implemented.

6.7.7 Diversify through culture and other products

The interview also needed to understand what strategies could be implemented to mitigate the ban of hunting on communities. Therefore, the participant acknowledged that communities in peripheral areas are endowed in culture which can be harnessed for tourism purposes. Representative 1 said;

“I think our culture is one of the things we don’t celebrate that much. In some countries there is no tourism like the one we have in Botswana, its only culture” (Representative 1).

The reasoning by the participant is that, culture has proved successful as a tourism commodity in other regions and local communities need to follow suit. The argument supports the findings by former hunting employees (refer to 6.4.2.6.1) who believed that cultural assets available within communities

can be used to benefit their areas. Furthermore, the exploration of other tourism potentials, allow communities to avoid dependency on a single product which causes adverse effects on communities once such a product faces a challenge. However, the lack of diversity in the tourism product base in Botswana is not just confined to CBT projects but it is an industry wide problem noted in other studies (Morupisi & Mokgalo, 2017). The BTO representative also echo these sentiments;

“I think as we are busy with CBNRM, we shouldn’t put our sole purpose on wildlife. Wildlife has its consequences. I think it’s high time for our communities to divert their energies, to divert their focus on products that they are well equipped with.”

Therefore, as noted by the participant, communities need to tap into their other asset bases to explore and unlock tourism potential.

6.8 SUMMARY OF EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The empirical results presented were derived from five samples; community trust leaders, former hunting employees, businesses, community members and Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO). This section summarises the findings.

Community trust leaders

The community trust leader’s interviews were conducted on three participants from the two communities. The responses were analysed together. The analysis yielded a total of nineteen (19) themes from the data as presented in Table 6.2. The results have shown that hunting revenue aided community projects and also helped in developing skills in communities. The hunting operations were deemed to be successful by all participants. This success was attributed to community involvement which resulted in benefits being realised. Other factors responsible for the hunting operation’s success were good relationships between the community and hunting operators as well as the abundance of wildlife, which was a factor in Sankuyo. Nonetheless, the participants raised only one challenge experienced in hunting tourism. There was noted lack of expertise in the pricing of hunting quotas which affected revenue accrued to communities. Nonetheless, it was revealed that the hunting operations were initiated by donors specifically the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), with the government as the facilitator and at the time of inception the operations were bottom-up with more control given to communities. The control also allowed communities to participate in monitoring efforts through community escort guides who worked together with government departments to ensure proper utilisation of resources and to curb any misuse. Communities were also given annual audited reports of the performance of the trust business operations. However, when the ban was instituted, the participants decry lack of proper consultation before the decision was taken. Furthermore, reasons for the ban varied, which gave an impression that there were ulterior motives behind the ban especially when the participants could not rationalise

the reality of increasing wildlife numbers with the reason for the ban. This increased wildlife presence and the consequent conflict is part of the current challenges pointed out by the participants. The increased Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) has led the participants to be concerned about wildlife resource conservation due to increasing negative sentiments and attitudes towards wildlife by community members. In addition, the communities have lost benefits which they enjoyed from hunting such as meat, employment and community social projects as a result of the hunting ban which poses a danger to sustainability. The findings from trust leaders also show that there is also a challenge of bureaucracy which they are presently facing. This has relegated communities to passive observers in the development of tourism in their areas and usurped the control they had when CBNRM projects started. On the other hand, the trust leaders also resist what they term excessive consultation of communities on the business operations of the trusts. This is because the leaders view this consultative process excessive and delaying progress. The trust leaders propose that to mitigate the ban of hunting, the authorities should re-instate hunting tourism and improve the management of HWC. Furthermore, trusts need to move and graduate from depending on private tourism operators and autonomously operate the tourism businesses themselves. The move is seen as a demonstration of confidence in skills acquired by communities in executing certain operations like ecotourism ventures. On the other hand, the partnership model should not be discarded, but used where expertise in certain business ventures like game farms is lacking. Finally, the trust leaders believe that for the mitigation to work, there is need for funding to be availed, be considerate of the calibre of board trustees being attracted and give power to communities by considering and returning to a bottom-up approach.

Former hunting employees

The sample for the former hunting employees was a total of four participants with two each coming from Sankuyo and Mmadinare. The findings from this population mirror the community trust leaders in many aspects. There were eight (8) themes emanating from the analysed responses. The participants allude to benefiting through skills development from hunting tourism which is consistent with the findings from trust leaders. However, the former hunting employees introduce a different benefit, reduced HWC, which was experienced as a result of hunting tourism. These benefits, together with tangible personal benefits such as food, meat and employment are also considered to be the factors responsible for the success of hunting tourism which is consistent with one of the factors highlighted by trust leaders. Nevertheless, the participants mentioned conflict which came about due to mis-communication between hunting operators, trust leadership and communities as a challenge experienced during hunting. Furthermore, though hunting created employment, the numbers of those employed were small especially compared to employment numbers in photographic safaris (see section 6.3.2). These challenges are different from what was observed in the trust leaders' findings. The participants imply an ulterior motive was behind the ban which mirrors what the trust leaders

mentioned. However, the former employee's reason for this claim stem from the lack of consultation when the decision was taken. Currently, the participants believe that an increase in the number of wildlife has escalated the HWC in their areas. This has in turn increased frustration on the community which the participants fear might threaten wildlife resources, a sentiment expressed by the trust leaders as well. Nevertheless, the participants propose that cultural products like craft shop as well as natural resource utilisation such as lifting the ban (also mentioned by trust leaders) and increasing photographic lodges and creating game farms, should be developed to mitigate the ban and its consequent loss of benefits in communities. The participants believe that for these recommendations to materialise, there is need to avail funding and change the resource management approach from what they view as top-down to a bottom-up approach. These factors were also shared by trust leaders. In addition, there is need to improve infrastructure like roads and electricity to aid product development in the communities of Sankuyo and Mmadinare.

Businesses

The sample of business operators consisted of two participants who are both craft makers from the village of Sankuyo. Mmadinare businesses could not meet the inclusion criteria and therefore, were excluded from the study. The participants note that they derived benefits from hunting in the form of an expanded product range like beads, bracelets and leather products due to the availability of animal by-products. However, they also faced a challenge of few opportunities to sell their wares as the tourists were few and were spending more time away from places where they displayed crafts. This meant that, it took long to sell crafts culminating in low income. The participants feel they experience better returns with ecotourists than they did with hunting tourists. The findings demonstrate that, the business operators, just like other participants discussed before them (trust leaders and former hunting employees), were not consulted prior to the ban of hunting. In fact, they got to learn of the reasons for the ban through second hand information; that wildlife numbers are declining hence the need to ban hunting. Nevertheless, the participants currently are challenged by increased wildlife numbers which makes it difficult to access the needed raw material. This inaccessibility is caused by destruction by elephants especially, of the plants they need for basket making like *Mokola* (palm leaves). Furthermore, lack of access to raw material is worsened by regulatory impediments they currently face which allows present ecotourism operators the powers to deny them access to areas where there is raw material within the concessions. Therefore, the craft makers find the sustainability of their businesses threatened as they are forced to buy material they used to access for free. However, as a recommendation of mitigating the effects of the ban, the participants advocate for the creation of a craft/curio shop where their crafts could be sold and be easily accessed by tourists. They also believe that a guesthouse be developed within the village to lure self-driving tourists passing along the Mababe road which passes through the village. Therefore, as a factor to increase the

success of the recommendations, the participants conclude that marketing is needed to help create awareness of the curio shop and guesthouse.

Community Members

The study had community members as a population and data from them was collected through structured interviews in the two locations of Sankuyo and Mmadinare. The total number of interviews conducted was 46, representing 25 in Sankuyo and 21 in Mmadinare (see section 6.5). Frequency and cross-tabulation analysis were used to analyse the data. The findings demonstrated that community members in Sankuyo benefited from hunting more than those in Mmadinare. The benefits were sale of meat, employment, financial dividends and community development. The results are consistent with responses from trust leader and former hunting employees. In contrast, current benefits of tourism in Sakuyo are employment, while other benefits experienced during hunting such as meat, financial dividends are lacking. Community development is also noted by a minimal percentage of participants as a current benefit. However, in Mmadinare, community members indicated that they felt no benefits. The interviewees were asked to state the challenges they experienced during hunting, and the results shows that 'damage to crops' garnered more responses in both villages. This demonstrates the prevalence of HWC even prior to the ban of hunting in 2014. Nonetheless, the same problem still persist as participants view HWC as a current challenge which has given rise to negative attitudes towards wildlife as per Figure 6.4. Furthermore, participants in Sankuyo allude to current problems with tourism development in the area where foreign ownership dominates. The other problem is that in Sankuyo, business agreements with private safari operators are not clear, which is a departure from previous practices during hunting tourism which can be blamed on lack of involvement currently experienced in both communities. Therefore, when community members were asked to reflect on who is best left to make decisions regarding tourism in their areas, majority believed that the community is better placed to make decisions. When asked to state what could mitigate the ban of hunting, community members felt that there was need to improve management of HWC which reflects the same views as the trust leaders. Nevertheless, few of the participants also recommend lifting the ban as a mitigation strategy. This sentiment is similar to trust leaders suggestion as well though it is suggested by few community members. Furthermore, community members feel there is a need to increase tourism products by having more campsites and ecotourism lodges especially in Sankuyo, while in Mmadinare they recommend agro-tourism as an option. For these recommended strategies to work, the findings revealed that improvement in management skills of community-based tourism, increase in knowledge of tourism within communities and improvement of infrastructure are needed in both communities.

BTO Representative

The final sample was a participant from the quasi-governmental organisation, BTO (see section 6.6). The representative noted direct benefits that accrued to communities from hunting in the form of revenue which was greater than what photographic tourism provides. The sentiment is also shared by trust leaders (see section 6.3.4.1.1) as well as Mbaiwa (2018), who also noted more revenue was realised from hunting. The participant also noted that currently BTO has been involved in initiating the development of CBT projects whose focus is not predominantly wildlife utilisation. These projects are supported by BTO itself administratively and financially which though welcome, do not seem to be supported by skill capacitation. Furthermore, the support afforded the new CBOs has not been transferred to old projects. Nonetheless, the representative revealed that BTO does environmental education initiatives to sensetise communities on environmental sustenance in support of available community efforts on the ground. The findings also revealed that from a government perspective, threats to conservation of wildlife resources led to the ban of hunting. According to the participant, this was necessary after it was discovered that numbers of certain species were declining along with increase in poaching incidences meant that preservation became a priority. The representative asserts that currently the challenge facing CBT is the CBNRM policy which was termed 'unsatisfactory' since a lot has changed since the policy's enactment in 2007. Indeed some challenges have been attributed to it (see section 6.3.4.7.1) by other participants. In order to mitigate the ban of hunting, the representative recommends diversity to cultural products as dependence on wildlife resource have shortcomings and therefore, communities should leverage on available cultural assets for mitigation.

6.9 CONCLUSION

The chapter presented analysis and discussion of empirical results. The results were obtained from a total sample size of fifty six (n=56) participants sourced from five population sets. The analysis employed both thematic and descriptive statistics. The results revealed various themes that emerged from the analysis and the themes were guided by "anchor codes" used to organise the data reduction process (see section 6.2.1). The analysis was undertaken and presented per each population. Nonetheless, the findings revealed overlaps with some of the themes across the different set of participants. For example, benefits of hunting tourism as an anchor code, revealed themes that hunting benefited communities through skills development, tangible benefits like meat, employment and community projects as outlined by all participants. The convergence of themes across various participants was also evident in findings about the reasons for the hunting ban, current challenges experienced and factors needed for strategies to succeed. However, there were certain areas where participants expressed divergent views on their experiences. Challenges of hunting tourism is one such area where different participants allude to dissimilar challenges. Community trust leaders voiced concern over the lack of expertise in pricing hunting quotas, former hunting employees mentioned limited employment, business operators also had limited business opportunities while communities

had problems with Human-wildlife Conflict. Similarly, the participants had varied suggestions that can be used to mitigate the ban of hunting. Therefore, chapter 7 will present the conclusion of the study and propose a strategy to mitigate the hunting ban guided by these findings.

CHAPTER 7:

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The research study primarily aimed to formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana. In an effort to achieve the aim, five objectives were stated in chapter 1 and this section will outline the objectives and indicate the corresponding chapters where the objectives were addressed.

- Objective 1 was to conduct an analysis of literature on the contextualisation of hunting tourism in Botswana. This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 through analysis of various components of wildlife tourism, their impacts and review of management frameworks.
- Objective 2 was to critically analyse the literature on sustainable development of tourism. This objective was achieved in Chapter 3 through a review of the concept of sustainability, principles and tools used to manage sustainable tourism.
- Objective 3 was to conduct a critical literature analysis on community-based tourism models. This objective was achieved in Chapter 4 by establishing the link of CBT to sustainability, analysing CBT characteristics, challenges and reviewing models used for CBT development.
- Objective 4 was to present empirical results on the effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation. This objective was achieved in Chapter 6 by presenting and analysing the results from community trust leaders, former hunting employees, businesses and community members.
- Objective 5 was to draw conclusions and make recommendations for the study. This objective will be achieved in the current Chapter by presenting conclusions from the literature review and empirical results as well as present a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting.

Therefore, the following section presents the conclusions of the study.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

The chapter draws conclusions on the study. The conclusions are presented in two sections; conclusions on the literature review and conclusions from the empirical results, which are discussed below.

7.2.1 Conclusions from the literature review

The literature review covered three chapters, that is Chapter 2, 3 and 4 and addressed various aspects of the study. The literature reviewed in the chapters are best conceptualised by Figure 1.2 (see section 1.2 in Chapter 1) which establishes the link between resources, communities and

sustainability. Therefore, Chapter 2 reviewed literature to contextualise hunting tourism in Botswana. Chapter 3 focussed on reviewing literature on sustainable tourism and chapter 4 looked at community-based tourism development. Furthermore, the study's methodology was analysed in chapter 5 and the conclusion on the Chapter is addressed in this section as well.

- In contextualising hunting tourism (Chapter 2), the chapter reviewed literature and considered the significance of wildlife tourism, of which hunting is a part. The findings are that wildlife tourism constitute a small proportion of the global tourism spending (see section 2.1). However, the wildlife tourism sector is quite significant on the African continent, contributing significantly to the GDP of most countries including Botswana (see section 2.3. As a sub-sector in wildlife tourism, hunting is seen as an income generator and a contributor to conservation, even though it polarise debates (2.4.1.1 and 2.4.1.3). Nonetheless, in managing hunting and indeed wildlife tourism, it was found that either master or community-based planning approaches can be used (see section 2.6.1.1 and 2.6.1.2). The findings indicate that Botswana's use of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) is inline with the trend employed by most Southern African countries that use a community-based planning approach to wildlife tourism management (see section 2.5.3.2). This management approach in Botswana is driven by various legislative instruments which allows communities to play a central role in wildlife utilisation in demarcated protected areas (see section 2.5.3.3).
- In Chapter 3 the literature review revealed that, there are different aspects to sustainable tourism development. The findings revealed that the concept of sustainability in tourism development came about as a departure from the laissez-faire economic approaches which placed little emphasis on social and environmental issues in development. The review revealed that while there is vagueness in the definition of the sustainable tourism concept (see section 3.4 and Table 3.1), what is agreed is that, sustainability espouses a synthesis of economic, socio-cultural and environmental goals in a balanced approach by stakeholders to achieve common goals. These goals are guided by principles that aid practitioners in the pursuit of a more sustained tourism development. To successfully address sustainability, it was found that there are tools that can be used (see section 3.6) which are also applicable in a wildlife tourism setting. Therefore, it is important for practitioners to make use of sustainability tools for furtherance of sustainable tourism goals in a variety of settings including community-based tourism.
- The literature in chapter 4 revealed that, Community-based tourism (CBT) has a link with sustainable tourism as they both espouse similar principles of shared benefits and community involvement (which correlate with economic and socio-cultural aspects of sustainable tourism). Furthermore, the literature revealed that as a result of the community benefiting and being involved, natural resource conservation gets realised (which fulfils the environmental

principle of sustainable tourism). Nonetheless, nine models of CBT development were also discussed and analysed which revealed that the models have specific aspects that they are addressing concerning CBT. Table 7.1 best summarises the analysis of the models by detailing their strengths and weaknesses. Reid, Fuller, Haywood and Bryden's (1993) Community-Based Tourism Development Planning Model is focused on the areas to consider in the planning of CBT and therefore leaves out the specifics on organisational structure, resources and products to be considered. Jamal and Getz, (1995) Collaboration Process for CBT Model, solely considers the aspect of collaboration in CBT development and conditions needed to facilitate for collaboration. CBNRM as a strategy is broad as an operational strategy in CBT development and comprehensively looks at administrative, legal and financial as well as policy implementation but leaves out the aspect of a conducive environment. On the other hand, Okazaki's (2008) model of community-based tourism looks at the level of community participation and power distribution in CBT. Zapata, Hall, Lindo and Vanderschaeghe (2011) explore the development approach of CBT projects in their Bottom-up/top-down model by considering the characteristics and effects of both approaches. Fischer, Muchapondwa and Sterner's (2011) Bio-economic Model considers the biological and economic factors in the determination of quotas in hunting operations and how these could help incentivise resource conservation in communities. Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) introduced a model; Cooperative CBT Development Model, which looked at a cooperative business model as a vehicle to foster sustainability in CBT development and management. The model therefore, is narrowly focused on the management approach in CBT and is not particular about the operating environment. Jugmohan and Steyn (2015) developed a model, Pre-condition Evaluation and Management Model (PEM), to consider all pre-conditions needed in a CBT project, however, the model does not provide specifics of the conditions to consider and is generic. Finally, Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) Comprehensive Model of CBT development considers the different steps needed in the formulation of CBT projects, but as discussed earlier in this section, only capacity building and marketing are mentioned as factors to enable the environment for development.

Table 7.1: CBT Models Analysis

| Authors | Model name | Strong points | Weakness | Shortcomings |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|---|
| Reid, Fuller, Haywood & Bryden (1993) | Community-based Tourism Development Planning Model | It Considers areas in the CBT planning | Assumption of homogeneity among communities and external | Leaves out the specifics on organisational structure, resources and |

| | | | | |
|--|---|---|--|--|
| | | | constraints to local control are rarely acknowledges | products to be considered. |
| Jamal & Getz (1995) | A Collaboration Process for CBT Model | Considers conditions needed to facilitate collaboration | Limited in achievement of a shared vision | Its sole focus is collaboration in CBT development |
| | Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) | Devolution of natural resource management to local communities | Mis-alignment between CBNRM and legislative goals | Fail to articulate the need for a conducive environment |
| Okazaki (2008) | Model of Community-Based Tourism | Articulates the relationship between community participation and power distribution | Does not state how community participation can be facilitated. | Its sole focus is participation and power distribution only. |
| Zapata, Hall, Lindo & Vanderschaeghe (2011) | Bottom-up/Top-down Model | Help to define and measure effects on projects of certain development characteristics which helps understand their development approach | Describes project's status and does not prescribe an analysis method. No blue print of how to apply the model. | Only describes the development approaches. |
| Fischer, Muchapondwa & Sterner (2011) | A Bio-economic Model | Use biological and economic factors in determining | Limited to hunting operations and determination of | Limited to hunting operations and determination of wildlife quotas |

| | | | | |
|---|---|--|--|--|
| | | hunting quotas and how they can incentivise resource conservation in communities | wildlife quotas | |
| Mohamad & Hamzah (2013) | Cooperative CBT Development Model | Negates elite dominance and encourage stakeholder participation | Weak in funding conservation as stakeholders' business interests are supreme | Participation is limited to those are members. Fail to consider the impact of a conducive environment. |
| Jugmohan & Steyn (2015) | Pre-Condition Evaluation and Management Model | Good to evaluate and manage conditions for CBT prior to development. Pre-conditions (by definition) similar to enabling environment in the strategy proposed in this study | Have not been tested and no mention of how pre-conditions are formulated | Does not consider the facilitation conditions and processes of facilitating CBT development |
| Mtapuri & Giampiccoli (2016) | Comprehensive Model of CBT Development | Considers different stages in CBT development and offers choices of paths of development by communities | Model not informed by empirical results but borrows from an earlier 2013 model to improve it | Fail to consider external factors and how they can affect the environment needed for business operations |

(Author's Own Compilation)

The literature also revealed that there are core aspects from the models which are essential in the development of CBT (see section 4.5 and Figure 4.4). The core elements informed the formulation of the proposed strategy (see Figure 7.1).

- In summary, the literature findings are best encapsulated in Figure 1.2 which demonstrate the link between wildlife resources, sustainability and local communities. Wildlife resources are important to the country and local communities through significant economic contribution of both wildlife watching and hunting tourism. These two modes of resource utilisation, need to be managed well to achieve sustenance. However, for sustainability to be realised, the economic and social needs of communities have to be addressed. The community on the other hand have to play a critical role in the conservation of wildlife resources, but that can only be realised if their interests (economic benefits) are met. Therefore, the findings have demonstrated the inter-dependence of the “wildlife resource, sustainability and local community” elements presented in Figure 1.2.
- Chapter 5 reviewed the methodology underpinning the study. Qualitative research was the main focus of the study guided by an interpretivism philosophy as the underlining meanings of the lived experiences were paramount in the investigation. Therefore, different qualitative designs were considered and analysed which included; archival, ethnography, grounded theory, narrative, phenomenology, case study and action research designs. The analysis revealed that, action research was appropriate due to emphasis on action in the creation of knowledge to find solutions. Further to that, action research has diverse approaches through which action can be taken in the fulfilment of research objectives. Therefore, ten of the action research approaches were discussed and action science was deemed appropriate as prominence of the need to use knowledge and experiences of practitioners to devise solutions was fundamental. As a result, sampling considerations took into account the need for practitioners and those who lived and experienced the phenomenon, and selected community trust leaders, community members, former hunting employees, small businesses and public agents to participate in the study. The participants were purposefully selected except for community members who were selected through quota sampling method. Two qualitative instruments were deemed relevant for data collection; structured interviews (to collect data from communities) and semi-structured on the rest of the participants. Thus, data analysis methods were analysed and it was revealed that descriptive statistics as well as thematic analysis were appropriate to analyse structured and semi-structured interviews respectively.

7.2.2 Conclusions from empirical results

This section presents conclusions on the empirical results. The study consisted of five sample populations; community trust leaders, former hunting employees, business operators, community members and a public entity. The findings were presented and discussed per sample population. However, the questions used to solicit responses followed similar categories across the different populations in order to elicit an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. Therefore, the conclusions are presented as per the different categories that guided the discussion of results; benefits of hunting, challenges of hunting, reasons for the hunting ban, current challenges, recommendations and factors needed for the recommendations to succeed. A summary of the results are presented in Table 7.2 and explained below.

Table 7.1: Summary of empirical results

| RESULTS | |
|---|---|
| Benefits of Hunting | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revenue for trusts • Community development • Employment • Game meat • Financial dividends • Animal by-products • Skills development • Reduction of Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) |
| Challenges of Hunting | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of expertise in quota pricing • Limited opportunities and employment • Incidents of HWC |
| Reasons for the Hunting ban | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ulterior motive • Need for preservation of wildlife species |
| Current challenges in Communities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Escalation in HWC • Increased wildlife numbers • Increase in negative attitudes towards wildlife • Bureaucratic challenges • Dominance of Foreign tourism operators • Limited community involvement • Loss of revenue |
| Recommendations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lifting of the hunting ban • Improve management of HWC • Develop new products • Diversify business arrangements in trusts |
| Factors needed to ensure recommendations succeed | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Funding • Bottom-up approach • Improvement of infrastructure • Develop management and marketing skills • Election of good calibre of people in trusts' boards • Improve basic tourism knowledge in communities |

(Author's own compilation)

7.2.2.1 Conclusion on the benefits of hunting tourism

All the participants alluded to various benefits that were realised from hunting tourism. There is commonality of certain themes attributed to benefits of hunting while others are specific to certain participants. The results revealed that hunting benefits were revenue, community development and employment which were revealed by community trust leaders (see section 6.3.4.1.1) communities (see section 6.6.2.1) and the Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) representative (see section 6.7.1). Additionally, communities benefited from meat sold from hunted animals and financial dividends, business operators benefited from animal by-products which they used to create new products, while former hunting employees benefited from skills they developed working for hunting operators. The employees also allude to the reduction of Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) due to hunting practice. Therefore, the results demonstrate that hunting had benefits that various sections of the community enjoyed.

7.2.2.2 Conclusion on the challenges of hunting

The study revealed that, though hunting benefited the communities, it had its own challenges. Firstly, the communities did not get the full value of the wildlife quotas they were allocated due to lack of expertise in determining the right price. This means that revenue that accrues to communities is minimal. Secondly, business operators and former hunting employees also revealed that there was a challenge of limited opportunities and employment offered by hunting. Though various participants alluded to the creation of employment as a benefit attributed to hunting, the number of employment opportunities was minimal. For example, Mmadinare hunting operation directly employed only fifteen (15) community members. The limit of opportunities was also felt by businesses due to few hunting tourists that were received at a time which consequently led to low income for the businesses. Lastly, there was a noted challenge of damage to crops by wildlife during hunting practice. Ironically, the former hunting employees refer to reduction of HWC during hunting, which community members seem to disagree with as they noted incidents of crop damage. Therefore, though hunting was beneficial, it had its own problems that needed to be addressed for the sustainability of the practice.

7.2.2.3 Conclusion on the Reasons for the ban of hunting

The ban on hunting was instituted in 2014, and there was a need to clarify the reasons behind the decision. The results on this aspect, conclude that there were noted sentiments of an ulterior motive behind the ban among participants. However, there are different reasons by participants as to why they formed this opinion. Trust leaders question the fact that many reasons were given by government for the ban, former hunting employees and business operators note the lack of consultation and the fact that they heard of the reason for the ban from second-hand informants as the source of doubt. Nonetheless, from a government perspective (through the BTO representative), there was need to preserve wildlife species due to declining wildlife populations of some species. Though some of the

participants alluded to hearing the reason as stated by the BTO representative, they fail to rationalise that with the reality on the ground. Therefore, there was need for proper consultation by government of all stakeholders and the need to ensure a single message is communicated.

7.2.2.4 Conclusion on the current challenges

The results revealed that there are multiple challenges currently facing different sections of the communities. Some of the challenges are a result of the ban on hunting and others are regulatory issues. The findings conclude that challenges attributed to wildlife are the most common across the participants; trust leaders, former hunting employees, businesses and community members. The challenges range from escalation in HWC, increased wildlife numbers and increasing negative attitudes which threaten these wildlife resources. The challenges ascribed to wildlife are linked to the ban of hunting by participants. This means that the ban of hunting has led to an increase in problems caused by wildlife (see sections 6.3.4.7.2, 6.4.2.5.1, 6.5.2.4.1 and 6.6.2.3.2). Another issue raised as a concern are regulatory issues, some of which are blamed on the CBNRM policy in place. The BTO representative admits that the policy is overtaken by events and needs revision, trust leaders decry that it causes bureaucratic challenges and businesses also complain about issues around regulations that impede their businesses (see section 6.5.2.4.2). Furthermore, community members also raise issues with current dominance of foreign tourism operators which they blame on government's lack of commitment to localisation and also feel left out in decision-making. The issue of no community involvement was also raised by trust leaders which they ascribe to bureaucratic misalignment with the concept of devolution of powers to achieve resource management. In addition to the wildlife and the regulatory challenges, loss of revenue is an issue facing trusts and communities especially when one considers the notion from participants that hunting brought in more revenue in a short period than ecotourism. However, an issue that was raised by trust leaders was their concern that the current practice where communities have to be engaged on the day-to-day operations of the trust business is counter-productive and a challenge which the Sankuyo trust wants to bring to their AGM to address. Therefore, the results have shown that there are various challenges encountered in Community-Based Tourism (CBT) which need to be addressed for the sustainability of CBT operations to be achieved.

7.2.2.5 Conclusion on the recommendations

The results revealed that there are several recommendations that can be considered in order to mitigate the ban on hunting. The first suggestion that was put forward by trust leaders and community members was that the ban is lifted. The move will reverse the negative attitudes noted which threaten wildlife resources (see section 6.3.4.8.1) and also will increase revenue which was lost as a result of the ban (see section 6.3.4.7.3). Secondly, an issue which is meant to address wildlife challenges currently being experienced is to improve the management of HWC. The results have shown that

HWC existed even before the ban of hunting (see section 6.6.2.2) even though not at the same magnitude as at present. Still, there is a need to address the issue separately independent of the hunting ban as neither the presence nor absence of hunting tourism will address the problem. The results, thirdly, propose development of products either to increase the current offering (photographic camps and campsites) or diversify to new ones. The new products could be developed from natural resources (the use of available bodies of water like dams, consumptive and non-consumptive fishing, sand harvesting etc.) or from cultural resources (cultural villages, heritage sites, curio shops etc). These will allow more revenue to be attained which could go a long way in replacing the lost revenue from hunting. Lastly, the results demonstrate that participants recommend the diversity of the business arrangements that trusts undertake in the development of products. Suggestions are that some community trusts are skilled enough to run the business autonomously without the need for private joint venture partners especially on ecotourism products where skills have been built over the years. Other products could be developed in partnership arrangements so that communities can leverage skills brought and availed by private partners.

The conclusion on recommendations is that the hunting ban should be lifted, and as at the time of writing, the government had initiated the steps to lift the ban on hunting (see section 2.6.2.4.4). However, the aim of the study to formulate a strategy to mitigate the effect of the ban, still remains relevant as evidence has shown that community trusts failed to re-invest proceeds from hunting (see section 2.6.2.2) which left some trusts with no revenue when the ban was instituted. The strategy can help trusts and other stakeholders to get the best out of wildlife resources by considering diversification and creating an environment conducive for sustainability.

[7.2.2.6 Conclusion on the factors needed to ensure recommendations succeed](#)

The results considered factors that could lead to the success of the suggested recommendations. The findings revealed that various factors need to be in place to ensure success in mitigating the ban of hunting.

Firstly, funding is considered a critical aspect as a factor for success as raised by trust leaders and former hunting employees. This is important as most of the recommendations require finance to be actioned, therefore, funding sources need to be considered.

Secondly, for success to be realised, bottom-up approach need to be employed as it places communities at the centre of decision-making (see section 1.2). In a bottom-up approach, community involvement is key as that is the catalyst to accountability and responsibility on the part of communities in order to help in resource conservation. Furthermore, community members and former hunting employees revealed that there was need to improve infrastructure in communities of Sankuyo and Mmadinare. Infrastructure is critical in tourism development and its improvement will go a long way in aiding the success of the proposed products. Nonetheless, the results also revealed that marketing

and management skills need to be improved. This will allow communities to fully participate in business operations and not just import such skills especially as the participants earlier indicated a desire for communities to run the tourism operations (see section 6.3.4.8.2). The community participation can also be enhanced by the need to increase knowledge of tourism within communities which the results brought out as a factor for recommendations to succeed.

Lastly, the results conclude that board trustees elected to serve in community trust boards, need to be of a good calibre with skills that can add value to the guiding and strategic direction of trusts to ensure their sustainability. Therefore, in general the results demonstrate that the participants believe that as part of creating an environment to ensure success, there is need for the communities to also improve themselves either through increasing their tourism knowledge, improving management and marketing skills in order to add value and contribute to the success of CBT operations.

7.3 PROPOSED SUSTAINABLE STRATEGY TO MITIGATE THE BAN OF HUNTING ON RURAL COMMUNITIES

The study's goal was to formulate a strategy that can be used to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities. Therefore, through an assessment of literature and analysis of the results, a strategy was formulated (see Figure 7.1) with the aim of addressing the goal of the study. This section discusses the strategy in detail. First, the section clarifies how the strategy was formulated and what makes it different from other CBT strategies analysed in the literature chapters. The section then further provides the details in the strategy.

7.3.1 Formulating the strategy

At the centre of the literature review input, is Figure 4.4 (see section 4.5 in chapter 4), which summarises the core elements in the CBT models. Figure 4.4 highlight the approach, planning phase, setting objectives and venture type of a CBT are the key processes in the facilitation of community projects. These core aspects formed the planning phase and the legal set-up stages in the proposed sustainable strategy.

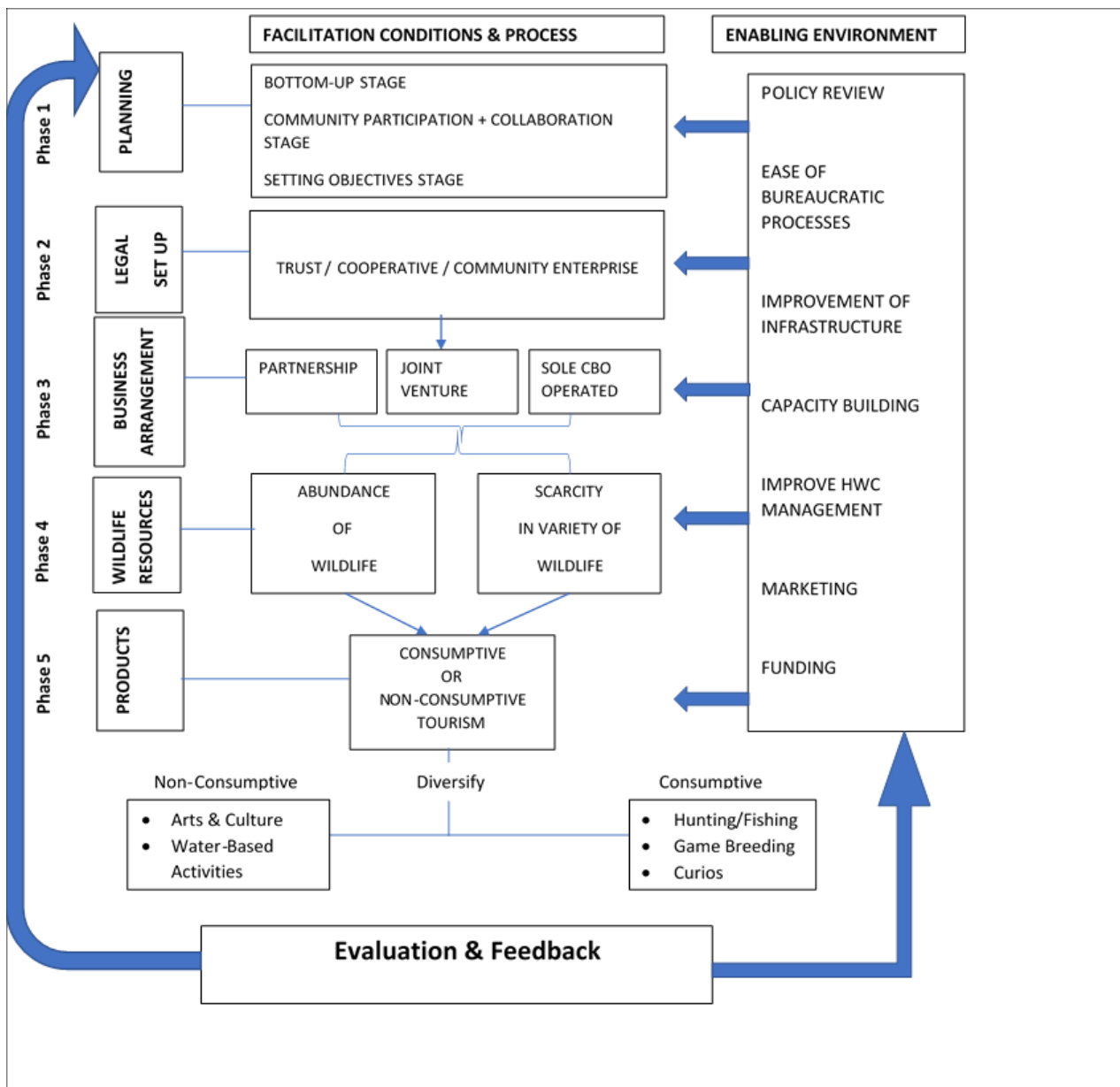


Figure 7.1: Proposed Sustainable Strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting (Author’s own creation)

The strategy is made to demonstrate a process flow from top to bottom, from planning to suggested products. The facilitation process is supported by a conducive setting created by an enabling environment, all of which will be explained in detail in section 7.3.2.

Motivation for the proposed strategy

Firstly, the proposed strategy draws a difference between legal set-up and business arrangement of community-based organisations (CBOs) which makes it different from CBT models. The literature as illustrated in Figure 4.4, mentions the different types of legal entities CBO can form; trusts, cooperatives, joint ventures, partnerships and community enterprises (Leper & Goebel, 2010; DWNP,

2010; Mohamad & Hamzah, 2013; Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). However, how the community proceeds in terms of business or investment options cannot be combined with how they define themselves as a legal entity. Therefore, the proposed strategy differentiates the legal set-up from the business arrangement. For example, a community can form a trust, which defines it as a legal entity, and then get into a joint venture or partnership agreement with a private investor, which is a business arrangement.

Secondly, the proposed strategy considers the utilisation of wildlife resources within communities. Unlike the models reviewed in chapter 4, which are generic in their consideration of CBT development, the proposed strategy admits the importance of wildlife resources to the communities' previous and current operations. Nonetheless, it is not all areas that are endowed with an abundance of a variety of wildlife which the proposed strategy is cognizant of. Therefore, how a community proceeds will be informed by abundance or scarcity in variety of wildlife. The findings have demonstrated that, where there is wildlife resource abundance, ecotourism has become a credible option. However, where there is scarcity, communities have found their options limited. The proposed strategy demonstrates that in both scenarios, communities can develop other natural and cultural products as an option or as a way of diversification to avoid over-dependence on wildlife resources. Finally, the proposed strategy advocates for an enabling environment to be created for mitigation to be successful. While Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) model does mention the aspect of skill capacitation and marketing as important (see Table 7.1), they fail to consider the other aspects considered in the proposed strategy such as; the relevance of policy, bureaucratic processes, infrastructure and funding. These elements are important within the context of Botswana as the findings have shown that they impede current CBT development. A further detailed explanation will be given in section 7.3.2, however, the importance of these aspects is that, for any mitigation strategies to work, an enabling environment needs to be created to facilitate success.

7.3.2 Discussion of the sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting

As alluded in sections 7.2 and 7.3, the proposed strategy is constructed through both inputs from the literature and the empirical results in order to deliberate on what could best work in communities to mitigate the ban of hunting. The strategy is made of five phases which are referred to as “facilitation conditions and process” and the “enabling environment” which has seven aspects deemed to make the environment conducive for development (see Figure 7.1). These different facets of the strategy are discussed below.

FACILITATION CONDITIONS AND PROCESS

7.3.2.1 Phase 1: Planning

The strategy's first phase is the planning stage. This stage allows CBT leaders to consider factors like the planning approach, participation, collaboration and set the objectives.

- *Bottom-up stage*

The stage is informed by the literature review. Zapata *et al.* (2011:741) mention bottom-up and top-down as approaches in the development of CBT. The authors argue that it is important to clarify how and by whom will decisions be taken. Nonetheless, the top-down approach was characterised by being induced and funded by external agents which lead to dependence on these agents for mediation and knowledge. The bottom-up projects are characterised by market-led development, local entrepreneurship and are business based (Zapata *et al.*, 2011:741). This leads to strong ownership, meaningful economic impact due to linkages with local suppliers and more control in management and marketing processes. The CBNRM model practised in Botswana is theoretically centred around a bottom-up approach, even though the reality is far removed from what was intended (Lepper & Goebel, 2010; Kamoto, Clarkson, Dorward & Shepherd, 2013). One of the factors that lead to failure to adhere to a bottom-up is the Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) policy which will be discussed in detail in section 7.3.2.6 as an enabling environment. Therefore, this strategy advocates for a bottom-up approach as it also has implications on the second aspect of community participation.

- *Community participation stage*

Community participation and collaboration with other stakeholders is critical in CBT development and as has been bemoaned by participants in the study (see sections 6.3.4.7.1, 6.3.4.9.3 and 6.5.2.3.3). The study has demonstrated that participants from trust leaders, businesses and community members decry the lack of involvement by members of the community as they feel such powers that allow them to participate have been usurped by authorities. The status quo goes against the ethos of CBNRM which is centred around devolution of powers to communities to incentivise them to partake in resource conservation. Okazaki's (2008) model critically looks at the aspect of community participation and collaboration with other stakeholders and states three levels at which participation and collaboration can be considered. The model contends that there is non-participation, degree of tokenism and degree of citizen power. Therefore, applying the Okazaki (2008) model, the current scenario where communities are informed and consulted is tokenistic in nature (see Figure 4.1) and require a move to the highest level of degree of citizen power for devolution of powers to be realised. It is on this argument that the proposed strategy advocates for more devolution of power to

communities through collaborative partnerships with other stakeholders that will allow the communities to have control in the development of CBT projects.

- *Setting Objective Stage*

The third stage of the planning phase is the “setting of objectives”. Once the approach, community participation and collaboration have been rationalised, then an empowered community can be in a better position to articulate its vision and goal of what they aim to achieve through tourism. Koster (2007) and Kline, Cardenas, Viren and Swanson (2015) reiterate the point that setting objectives is part of the planning stage and argue that it can be initiated by an external party. However, Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) contend that the setting of objectives can be either internally or externally. Nonetheless, it’s the contention of this strategy that the initiative should start internally within a community and shaped together with collaborative partners in what the literature (Jamal & Getz, 1995; Okazaki, 2008; Reid *et al.*, 2003; Kline *et al.*, 2015) views as a demonstration of inter-dependence and sharing a vision.

7.3.2.2 Phase 2: Legal set-up

Community-based tourism has a choice in how they want to structure their organisation. Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016:161) call this arrangement a “venture type” and argue that it can be either formal or informal. The authors argue this choice of formal or informal depends on the rationale behind involvement in CBT (in other words, the vision or objectives), where informal can be preferred for small operations and formal for scaled-up operations. These options are not prescriptive but rather possibilities depending on prevailing conditions. The proposed strategy argues for a more formal legal set-up based on the status quo in CBT projects in Botswana. Furthermore, the CBNRM policy (Government of Botswana, 2007: iii) advocates for the setting up of a legal entity which could be a trust or cooperative and which will ensure that all community member’s rights are protected. Therefore, as illustrated in Figure 7.1, the legal set-up could be a trust, cooperative or community enterprise.

The first option, the Trust, is the most predominant legal entity in Botswana’s CBT development (Leper & Goebel, 2010; Pienaar, Jarvis & Larson, 2013, Mbaiwa, 2015; CAR, 2016), though no particular reason is given for the preference of this type of legal entity. Nonetheless, trusts are governed by board of trustees, who are elected from the community to run their business affairs for the benefit of the entire community.

Second option, community cooperative, implies an organisation formed by community members who produce goods and services where the members are the beneficiary of their produce (Birchall & Ketilson, 2009). In tourism, Mohamad and Hamzah (2013) argue that cooperatives foster creation of different businesses meant to improve the member’s aspirations. The authors contend that

cooperatives prevent elite's manipulation, engender community empowerment and elicit competitiveness from members.

The third option in the legal set-up is community enterprise, which denotes a mature state in a CBT initiative where the project is treated like any other business (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016:163), there is collective ownership (Goodwin, 2009:28) and local entrepreneurship (Zapata *et al.*, 2011:741). In this scenario, Zapata *et al.* (2011) argue that capital is raised from within through risking own funds with external agents only providing support, while Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016) note that this set-up allows communities to access loans from the banking industry. The proposed strategy highlights these legal set-ups as options but is not prescriptive on the one to be chosen by a community. This allows for communities to interrogate a legal set-up best aligned to their objectives and prevailing conditions.

7.3.2.3 Phase 3: Business Arrangement

A business arrangement follows a legal set-up. It sometimes might happen that it takes place simultaneously. That is to say, once any business is legally registered, it has different choices of how it wants to proceed as a business venture. The same is relevant to community-based tourism. Community-Based Organisations (CBO) have a choice to team up with a private tourism entity in a joint venture or partnership agreement. UpCounsel (2019) clarifies that though a joint venture and a partnership involve an agreement between two parties or more, their difference lies in that joint ventures are short-term and are for a specific project. A partnership is more long-term and has no time defined for its end. Both business arrangements require some form of contribution that can be either; property, knowledge, money, effort or talent (UpCounsel, 2019). The study findings have demonstrated that joint venture agreements entail communities ceding rights of land they hold for a fee which are proving to be insignificant (see section 6.3.4.8.2). Likewise, the same section (6.3.4.8.2) decries experiences from CBOs that have partnership arrangements which fail to bring any meaningful contribution to their bottom line. Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2016:159) caution that clarity of roles in a partnership should be formalised to allay any problems. Therefore, this has led the Sankuyo CBO for example, to consider a sole CBO operated arrangement. This means a CBO foregoing teaming up with a private entity in a joint venture or partnership arrangement, in favour of autonomously operating their business venture. However, such an option presents a challenge as there is need for skills in organising, marketing, funding and business management for the venture to stand any chance of success (Mtapuri & Giampiccoli, 2016). Nonetheless, as stated by one of the participants, “*..but we need to have opportunities to run our own facilities. If we could move Kaziikini to be a fully-fledged 5-star lodge, then we will make money*” (see section 6.3.4.8.2), where a CBO has confidence in the skills developed from constant interaction and knowledge transfer from private entities, running a venture independently should be a serious option to be considered. Therefore, the

proposed strategy considers all three alternatives as options because CBOs without much access to skills will have to consider partnership or joint venture arrangement, while those with developed skills capacity can run their own ventures (which is something that has not been done in the country as yet) for better returns.

7.3.2.4 Phase 4: Wildlife Resources analysis

Wildlife is a critical resource for CBT in Botswana as most of the CBOs in the country had wildlife utilisation as a revenue earner prior to the ban of hunting in 2014 (CAR, 2016). However, the variety of wildlife resources in these areas is not the same. In fact, over 78% of concessions in northern Botswana have low photographic tourism potential (see section 1.2), meaning that there is limited variety of wildlife resources in those areas (Winterbach, Whitesell & Somers, 2015). This made certain CBOs to struggle more than others, or in certain cases, some had no source of revenue at all after the ban of hunting (see Figure 2.7 in Chapter 2). Therefore, it is an aspect the proposed strategy considers as it has a bearing on possible products that can be developed in an area. In areas where there is abundance of wildlife, communities have successfully started ecotourism ventures. However, where there is less variety of wildlife and scenic beauty, the communities have struggled. The proposal is for communities found in each of these scenarios to consider other natural and cultural resources as alternatives to mitigate the loss of hunting revenue. Section 7.3.2.5 further discuss this aspect of diversity of products

7.3.2.5 Phase 5: Product development

The products development phase allows communities to consider possible products that are best possible for their communities. This can be in the form of consumptive and non-consumptive wildlife tourism products. Prior to the ban of hunting, there was often lack of diversity in the products offering within communities, which reinforces the notion of dependence in a single source of revenue as well as complacency. Mbaiwa (2004c:46) noted the lack of re-investment of revenue from hunting proceeds which ultimately led to misuse of such funds (see section 2.6.2.2 in chapter 2). This demonstrates the failure by communities to adequately diversify revenue sources even though funds were available which ultimately had implications on their livelihoods and sustenance of the projects. Section 6.3.4.7.3 in the findings discussed the struggles experienced by communities due to the ban, even in communities where ecotourism was practiced. Therefore, the proposed strategy advocates for diversity of products to allay dependence on a single source such as in the case of hunting. Currently, the natural resources base available in Botswana is varied. CAR (2016:20) identifies 10 natural resource products such as veld product, landscapes, terrestrial animals, birds, fish, thatching grass, fire wood, heritage sites and salt. All the resources are developed or ear-marked for development under the CBNRM programme, meaning communities are seen as an avenue towards their conservation. Therefore, the strategy calls for diversification of products. Firstly, to relief the dependency on wildlife resources which pose a risk to wildlife due to the proliferation on many impacts

that can hamper conservation efforts. Secondly, to increase the income generating sources for communities which will increase benefits to communities and incentivise community members to participate in the conservation of all natural resources they benefit from.

Products

As discussed above, not all communities are endowed with a wide variety of wildlife (see section 7.3.2.4). CBOs can engage in ecotourism (non-consumptive) where the wildlife resource conditions allow them. Likewise, communities with limitations in variety of wildlife that attracts ecotourists, should consider consumptive or a mix of consumptive and non-consumptive products to mitigate the loss in revenue after the hunting ban. The suggested products emanate from the findings as proposed by the participants; trust leaders (interviewee 1, 2, 3), former hunting employees (employee 2 and 3), businesses (business 1 and 2) and representative 1 (from BTO). A community may choose consumptive, non-consumptive or a mixture of options in their efforts to diversify their product base. Firstly, consumptive products that can be developed are wildlife farming and breeding, hunting tourism and curios. Breeding of wildlife in game farms as an option requires land to develop. Nonetheless, the Mmadinare community for example, sit on land they acquired, which can be used for game farming and breeding (see section 6.3.3). Game farms could be developed by any community as the most important requirement is land which communities have in abundance. The game farm suggestion is noteworthy when one considers the significant contribution of private game farms to the South African hunting industry (see section 2.2.2 in chapter 2). The contribution is not only in monetary terms but conservation as well through increase in the number of species (see section 2.4.3.1.1 in chapter 2) which leads to sustainability of resources. Furthermore, game farms could also be a source of game meat to the local market, thereby diversifying the market and revenue streams for communities. The South African example also comes to mind, where the 'biltong hunting' which serves the local market is estimated to be five (5) times more than the trophy hunting sector (Saayman, Van der Merwe & Saayman, 2018; Van der Merwe, 2018).

However, for this to materialise, a policy needs to be formulated to support this endeavour. The current policy, game ranching policy of 2002, does not cover game farming. In fact, the policy explicitly states that a different policy needs to be developed for game farming, which is a more intensive form of production than game ranching (Government of Botswana, 2002:2). Another product to be considered is hunting tourism as well as fishing. While the study's main aim is to mitigate the ban of hunting, findings show that there is a desire for the ban to be lifted and hunting is needed in some areas (see sections 6.3.4.8.1 and 6.6.2.5.3). The lifting of the ban is supported by the fact that Botswana practised a controlled hunting approach, where quotas were determined after survey data informed species to be hunted (see section 6.3.4.6.1). The controlled hunting approach coupled with the noted increased number of certain species like elephants (see sections 6.3.4.7.2, 6.4.2.5.1,

6.5.2.4.1 and 6.6.2.3.2) and their destruction, calls for the re-consideration of the ban on hunting. The wildlife resource conservation is threatened due to escalation in hostile attitude towards wildlife by communities (see section 6.3.4.7.2 and work by Mbaiwa, 2018 cited in section 2.6.2.2), though their buy-in is needed in successful preservation of wildlife species. The animosity therefore, threaten the sustainability of resources. Finally, curios are suggested as a consumptive option because animal by-products could be used in this endeavour. This will also supplement and increase art and craft products as was observed by business participants prior to the ban of hunting (see section 6.5.2.1.1).

Communities can also consider non-consumptive products. Some of the products to be considered are art and culture based, like cultural villages, cultural sites and curios. Culture as a resource has been noted by various participants in the study; BTO representative (see section 6.6.7), former hunting employees (see section 6.4.2.6.1) and community members (see section 6.5.2.1). Therefore, this demonstrates that the requisite resources for cultural products are available in the case study communities, which includes heritage sites already present in the case of Mmadinare (see section 6.6.7). Additionally, cultural villages serve as an amalgam of cultural performances where villagers can share their skill and knowledge in return for financial gain. The products could serve the domestic market, which presents an opportunity for the communities to diversify their market. Another non-consumptive product is water-based recreational activities especially in areas where there is presence of bodies of water like Mmadinare. Recreation especially in less ecologically sensitive areas like dams are ideal to attract wide variety of clientele including the domestic market. This allows activities like water sports (e.g. jet skiing, speed boats), cruise and sport fishing.

Nonetheless, for the products to be developed, funding will be a critical factor, especially in communities with scarce variety of wildlife as they currently have no or limited revenue they accrue. However, various funding options are available (see section 6.3.4.9.1) that will aid in the realisation of these ventures. Notwithstanding all, other factors are needed to be addressed for the products to be successful, which are further explained in the next section.

ENABLING ENVIRONMENT

The findings from the empirical results alluded to various issues that were deemed to be current challenges that were raised by different participants. These challenges, together with findings on what the participants believed to be factors required for any strategy to work, informed the consideration of the enabling environment.

7.3.2.6 Policy Review

A critical factor in enabling a conducive environment is a legislative instrument. Findings in the study have shown that community participation is lacking as espoused by the trust leadership (see section 6.3.4.9.3), businesses (see section 6.5.2.4.2), community members (see section 6.6.2.3.3) and former hunting employees (see section 6.4.2.7.1). This anomaly was brought about by the introduction

of the CBNRM policy. Therefore, communities' feel their powers have been appropriated by other stakeholders like TAC and private tourism operators, which defeats the basic crux of CBNRM to devolve powers to communities. As such, the bottom-up approach and increasing community participation (discussed in the Planning phase of the proposed strategy) will remain mere rhetoric until sections of the policy can be rationalised to align with the aim of the CBNRM model. Furthermore, the benefit-sharing model proposed in section 10.3 of the CBNRM policy (Government of Botswana, 2007:14) is another area of concern. This provision means communities retain only 35% of their revenue (see section 2.6.2.3.5) which limits the full realisation of benefits by communities and threaten efforts to incentivise resource conservation (see section 1.2). Therefore, this will impede communities in the development of other products and needs to be addressed for successful implementation of the mitigation strategy. For example, as discussed in section 7.3.2.5, a policy on game farming is needed to address the breeding of wildlife and aid communities in diversifying their products.

7.3.2.7 Ease of Bureaucratic Processes

Bureaucratic challenges as highlighted in the study findings are both a result of the existing land management and licensing processes as well as the CBNRM policy itself (see sections 6.3.4.7.1 and 6.5.2.4.2). These have created an impediment on the functions of trusts and businesses. Therefore, there is need to straighten processes to ensure that they are efficient in delivering service to other stakeholders. Noted delays in licensing of operators (see section 6.3.2) and regulations that impede basket weavers in accessing raw materials (see section 6.5.2.4.2) will have a detrimental effect on the proposed mitigation.

7.3.2.8 Improvement of Infrastructure

Infrastructural development has been a critical component in tourism development, so it is less surprising when study findings indicate that community members (see section 6.5.2.6) and former hunting employees (see section 6.4.2.7.1) want infrastructure to be improved. Some of the communities that engage in CBT such as Sankuyo, are located in peripheral areas. This means certain developments lag behind like roads, telecommunications and electricity which then have an unfavourable effect on tourism development. Therefore, improvement of infrastructure helps to create a conducive environment for tourism development and aid the mitigation strategies to be successful.

7.3.2.9 Improvement of Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) Management

Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC) is a long-running issue in communities in peripheral areas and one of the catalysts of CBNRM adoption during its inception (Lindsey *et al.*, 2007; Winterbach *et al.*, 2015; Mutanga *et al.*, 2015). Human-wildlife conflict is also a problem that was prevalent before the ban of hunting in 2014 (see sections 6.5.2.2) and escalated due to the ban (see sections 6.5.2.3.2, 6.3.4.7.2 and 6.4.2.5.1). Therefore, one of the issues communities would want an improvement on, is the management of HWC (see section 6.5.2.5.1 and 6.3.4.8.1). HWC has an impact on an individuals'

livelihoods which are derived through farming. This means income from tourism and wildlife utilisation is supplementary to traditional livelihoods (McGranahan, 2011) and therefore there is need to address HWC by improving management efforts. Improved management will ensure sustainability of wildlife resources while at the same time safeguarding community livelihoods which in itself is a mitigation in the ban of hunting.

7.3.2.10 Capacity Building

The issue of capacity building as a factor in the success of CBT is noted in the literature (Manyara & Jones, 2007; Silva & Wimalaratana, 2013; Kontogergopoulos, Churyen and Duangsaeng, 2014). The study findings also allude to skills capacitation as a factor, either as a gap that needs to be addressed in board trustees and employees (see section 6.3.4.9.2) or there is the adequacy of skills enough to allow a trust to run its own operations (see section 6.3.4.8.2). However, what is of concern is that there seems to be limited deliberate efforts to capacitate communities as expressed by a BTO representative (see section 6.7.3). The lack of effort incapacitating communities hampers their empowerment and this will limit and frustrate communities' efforts in mitigation initiatives. Therefore, building skills capacity creates an environment conducive for the realisation of initiatives intended to mitigate the impact of hunting.

7.3.2.11 Marketing

Marketing is a factor that has come out in the literature review as one of the challenges bedevilling CBT initiatives (see section 4.3.2.2). The issue of marketing is linked to skill capacity building (discussed in 7.3.2.6.4) as it is quite often a result of lack of skills. The study findings also allude to the need for marketing of community produced services and products to aid their distribution (see section 6.5.2.6.1) as a factor that can lead to the success of mitigation. Marketing ensures that there is access to the market for the products and services from CBT and this entails specialised skills to reach the international market, which is the predominant market in the consumption of nature-based and community-based tourism in Botswana. The findings note the support offered by the Botswana Tourism Organisation (BTO) in providing an avenue for local producers to access international markets (see section 6.7.3). However, such efforts are not enough as the local Travel and Tourism Expo does not have the appeal yet, to draw a good number of international operators as other well-established expo's do. Furthermore, the exposure is not commensurate with building capacity in the area of marketing which still leaves communities dependent on BTO experts for anything marketing related.

7.3.2.12 Funding

At the centre of the mitigation strategy is the utilisation of natural and cultural alternative products as illustrated in Figure 7.1. Therefore, there is a need for capital to get most of the products off the ground, making funding a critical aspect for the success of the mitigation. The trust leader's

participants mentioned the myriad alternatives that can be pursued to avail funding for products to be developed (see section 6.3.4.9.1). However, as demonstrated in section 6.3.4.9.1, land in some areas remains undeveloped despite availability of funding options. Therefore, there is need to address other issues discussed in the “enabling environment” section before funding becomes a reality. For example, ease of bureaucratic processes is needed to address issues especially surrounding issuance of leases (see section 6.3.4.9.1), skill capacity needs to be built on areas of business management and marketing (see section 7.3.2.6.5 and 7.3.2.6.6) and improvement of infrastructure (7.3.2.6.3) to aid development and movement of goods and customers, are some of the issues discussed that have a bearing on the successful attainment of funding from some of the funding sources available.

7.3.2.13 Evaluation and Feedback

Inskeep (1991:450) argue that evaluation of progress in tourism development is essential as it helps to monitor the impact of the development on communities and to determine how objectives are effectively met. As mentioned in the discussion of phase 1 of the strategy, it is important for the stakeholders to set and agree on the main objective of initiating a CBT project (see section 7.3.2.1). It is the set objective that will influence the rest of the other phases in the facilitation process of a project. Nonetheless, irrespective of the project’s objective, one needs to note the overriding objective of the CBNRM programme of conservation through incentivising community participation. In that case, CBT projects have to incorporate the CBNRM objective in setting their own objectives. Therefore, evaluation of how effective the objectives have been met is necessary as unmet objectives have a negative bearing on conservation of resources. A world conservation strategy document by IUCN (1980) note the cure and prevention roles of a strategy by addressing current problems while allowing stakeholders to anticipate and avoid problems in the future through an evaluation process. The proposed strategy will allow the objectives to be redefined through feedback from the evaluation. The feedback will also help to constantly improve the enabling environment. The evaluation process in the strategy will be guided by the four principles advanced by UNESCO (2009) for community-based projects. The evaluation needs to be participatory (including all stakeholders direct interest), negotiable (allow the evaluation process to be agreed by stakeholders), learning centered (establish process of how lessons learned will be used) and Flexible (be adaptable to changing factors affecting the management of CBT projects).

7.4 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The study made several contributions to the body of knowledge which are outlined in this section. The contributions of the study are presented in three sections; literature, methodology and practice.

7.4.1 Literature Contribution

- The study made a contribution to the body of knowledge through a literature analysis which revealed core aspects of CBT models. The critical analysis of nine (9) models formulated to address different aspects in CBT development, have demonstrated elements that are central to CBT success and illustrated in Figure 4.4 (see section 4.5). These literature findings were instrumental in the formulation of the proposed strategy presented in this chapter (see section 7.3).

7.4.2 Methodological Contribution

- The study further makes a contribution to the body of knowledge in the form of semi-structured interview and structured interview instruments. These instruments can be adopted and used to assess community-based tourism in issues that address impacts, challenges, mitigation of challenges and ascertaining factors needed to succeed. Data collection from communities was done through a structured interview schedule. Thus, this instrument is a contribution as it can be used by other researchers in the collection of qualitative data in similar larger sample groups. Furthermore, semi-structured interview schedules can be used in the interviews to collect data from key informants, informal businesses and former hunting employees. The instruments are appended to the thesis (see Appendix D and E).

7.4.3 Practical Contribution

- The contribution to practice is made through the formulated sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on communities (see Figure 7.1). Tourism consists of varied stakeholders, however for nature-based tourism, local communities rank among the most important as they are the people closest to the resources (Cochrane, 2009). The understanding is that community led conservation approaches can only achieve their objectives when the gap between costs and benefits for communities is not wide (Suich, 2012). Therefore, the strategy proposed articulates the process to be followed to facilitate for CBT development. Furthermore, the strategy propositions an enabling environment to be created which will catalyse CBT development. The strategy was informed by the research findings as well as the literature as outlined in section 7.3. Therefore, the outcomes expected from the implementation of the strategy are;
 - The strategy be used by the public sector and communities in the improvement of current CBT projects and establishment new ones
 - Galvanise the public sector towards improving their role in order to positively impact natural resource management by communities.
 - Improve community benefits from natural resources so that they can use the benefits as an incentive in natural resource management and conservation

- Improve knowledge among stakeholders (communities, public sector agencies and private sector players) of their inter-dependence in natural resource conservation

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

At the end, the study makes the following recommendations to be addressed for the success of communities in the mitigation of the hunting ban. The recommendations are presented in two sections; first are recommendations informed by study respondents and secondly, the recommendations advised by the author.

7.5.1 Recommendations by participants

- The study recommends the lifting of the ban on hunting. Participants pointed to the ban of hunting as a source of HWC escalation leading to threats on wildlife resources (see sections 6.3.4.7.2 and 6.4.2.5.1) as well as work by Mbaiwa (2018). Therefore, the study participants recommended the lifting of the ban as illustrated by results of trust leaders (see section 6.3.4.8.1) and community members (see section 6.6.2.5.3). This is even more poignant given the controversy surrounding the ban (see sections 6.3.4.4.1, 6.4.2.4.1 and 6.5.2.3.1) as well as findings by Mbaiwa (2018:47) that the ban faced criticism due to methodological flaws in a study that informed it and opposition from communities. Nonetheless, current experience with HWC escalation and threat to species should get government to re-consider the ban, especially its blanket approach. The government need to action this recommendation urgently to alleviate the negative attitudes communities hold towards wildlife.
- The study recommends the improvement of infrastructure in the study villages. The study findings demonstrate concern by participants that infrastructure inhibits tourism development in these villages. Therefore, while infrastructural development does not directly bring benefits, it aids the tourism industry in availing income generating developments to be possible. The government as a provider of infrastructure, needs to include the development of infrastructure in the case study villages in the current development plans.
- The study further recommends that the authorities (government) and community trusts should invest in imparting knowledge about tourism in communities. The communities need to have an understanding of tourism for them to be able to identify opportunities within the industry. Therefore, educational programmes can be devised to help increase knowledge on tourism within communities. While the participants view government responsible for playing a role in imparting knowledge, the community trust is better placed to action this recommendation. The trusts need to devise programmes in partnership with institutions of higher learning (which can be done as part of an institution's social responsibility programme) to help impart knowledge to community members on the basic aspects of the industry as well as their role

in conservation. This can be done during Annual General Meetings (AGM) and done in batches annually.

- It is recommended that Human Wildlife Conflict (HWC) management be improved. The participants, mentioned its devastating impacts on community livelihoods. This calls for improvements on the current management of the conflict as evidence from the respondents indicate that the problem is not abating. Therefore, other initiatives should be considered that can improve the efficiency of HWC management. The government agency responsible for wildlife (Department of Wildlife and National Parks), need to work with NGOs like ECo-exist (an organisation based in Maun and working on alleviating HWC) to improve current strategies. The approach can be applied in Ngamiland (Northern Botswana) first before being expanded to the rest of the country. This recommendation will need to be attended to urgently as HWC is currently threatening conservation of wildlife resources.
- The study participants further recommend an increase in the current tourism products offered by communities like lodges and campsites. Further to that, the participants recommend the creation of new products which can help diversify the tourism product offering within communities. Products such as game breeding and farming, arts and culture and water-based recreation activities should be considered. To increase tourism products, community trusts need to apply for funding as any product development will require financial resources. Donors and local development funds available (see section 6.3.4.9.1) can be pursued as the cost of sourcing such funds will be low. However, as noted earlier in the discussions (see section 6.3.4.9.1), expertise in making convincing business plans is required which is something communities do not have. Therefore, partnering with organisation like Local Enterprise Agency (LEA) which guide individuals in entrepreneurship from perfecting a business concept to financing, could be brought on board to help community trusts in this regard.

7.5.2 Author's recommendations

- The author recommends that community participation be made the centre of CBT initiatives. This is because the success of conservation and sustainability depend on this aspect being realised from the perspective of communities. That is to say, whether communities are involved and participate in CBT, should be measured from the perspective of community members not any other stakeholder. The government needs to address this by revising the CBNRM policy urgently to remove impediments to community participation currently experienced.
- The author further recommends that communities should be allowed to determine what they perceive to be the best approach in terms of legal set-up and business arrangement through rationalisation with their objectives. Other stakeholders should act to advise but not impose

their will over that of the community, as the community is the one that bears the burden of decisions made on their behalf. Therefore, the government in particular should revise the role of the Technical Advisory Committee as they have usurped powers from communities (see section 4.4.3.2 and 7.3.2.6) and relegate the committee to an advisory role they were meant to play in the past. This can be covered by the revision of the policy which needs to be urgently attended to.

- Improvement in marketing and management skills in community members is also recommended. This will allow community members to be active participants in tourism operations. The improvement of skills will further reduce communities' dependence on external skills which also limits the type of business arrangements communities can participate in. The trusts will need to finance the skill capacity building as they will be the ones benefiting from such endeavour in the long run. However, marketing and management skills will require sponsoring deserving community members to full time formal education in these fields. The community trusts have been involved in educational upliftment of members (see section 6.3.4.1.1) but now such resources need to be geared towards these specific skill shortages. This can be done immediately to allow the trusts to have graduates ready in four years time.
- The author further recommends that communities should consider game farming and breeding which could help efforts of conservation of wildlife, increase revenue and diversify the market. However, the government should support this initiative with policy formulation to support the industry. The game ranch policy allude to the need to have a game farming policy which as of the time of writing, has not been done. Therefore, for the industry to grow, there is need for a formulation of a policy. The government need to formulate a game farming policy to allow communities to participate in the game farming industry. This can help in conservation of species and the policy formulation will require the participation of other stakeholder including communities within the country.
- The author further recommends for the revision of the tourism policy. The existing policy was formulated in 1990, which is thirty (30) years ago. There have been a lot of changes in the tourism industry that have superseded the policy. The focus of the policy was to regulate and take advantage of the growing tourism industry (see section 2.5.3.3.1). However, issues of sustainability were not addressed as well as diversification of the industry away from dependence on wildlife resources. These aspects need to be addressed by improving the tourism policy to align it to current evolving market trends.

7.6 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following section highlight study limitations and recommends areas to be considered for future research to augment knowledge contribution availed by this study.

- The voice of the public sector is limited in the study due to the withdrawal of the ministry participant. This meant that the government's perspective was limited to one participant from Botswana Tourism Organisation. Though BTO is relevant, given its role in CBNRM management, it might not best represent the government's position as the ministry would have done as it is a quasi-governmental organisation. This limited the study.
- Financial resources limited the choice of case study communities to only those that were easily accessible due to their close proximity to major villages or towns. This therefore, meant that the length of time the community had been involved in CBNRM was not considered. The longer length in CBNRM means communities have more experiences to share and future research should consider this aspect in approach to selection of case study communities.
- Future research should focus on finding the best approach to improve the management of Human-Wildlife Conflict (HWC). HWC is a longstanding issue which has implications on resource sustainability. Furthermore, the problem seems to have eluded current mitigation measures and therefore, future research should consider the limitations of the current strategies in order for improvements in the management of the problem to be realised.
- The study also recommends that further research be undertaken to determine a balanced revenue distribution model for communities. The status quo is that communities retain 35% of revenue from CBNRM projects as prescribed by the policy (see section 2.6.2.3.5). However, the literature demonstrates that CBOs struggle to achieve financial sustainability (see section 2.6.2.4.4) as they fail to break-even and others are not making enough to invest in capital expenditure. Therefore, a revision to the current revenue distribution model needs to be explored.

Further research is recommended to investigate the factors that led authorities to reduce community participation in CBT management. The findings have demonstrated that communities feel that their participation in decision-making and other areas in resource management have been reduced when compared to the era when CBNRM was introduced (sections 6.6.2.3.1 and 6.3.4.7.1). It will benefit the body of knowledge to ascertain the reasons for this change in approach by public agencies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: CBT trust leaders' interview schedule

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Interview Schedule – CBT Project Leaders

You are kindly invited to participate in an interview I intend to conduct for my doctoral study titled; “A Sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana”. My name is Lelokwane Mokgalo, (Student Number: 27817822) currently enrolled with the School of Tourism Management at North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) in South Africa for Doctoral studies. The study aims to:

- Critically analyse the sustainable development of community-based tourism in Botswana
- Present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation, and principally,
- Formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in the country

You have been chosen to participate based on the role you and your organization played in driving the agenda for community tourism development in the area and therefore will be best relevant to provide needed information. Please note that the North-West University abide by strict ethics and professional principles that govern the process of collecting, analyzing and publishing data, hence the ethical rights to privacy and confidentiality of those participating in the study are duly guaranteed. Upon completion of the study, the researcher will only publish the findings in an academic thesis as well as academic journals. The interview will utilize a tape recorder for ease of reference and all data contained therein will be treated confidentially. Please note that you have the right to withdraw from the study and request information already collected to be destroyed.

Your cooperation is highly regarded and appreciated, any further questions or comments regarding the study can be directed to myself on telephone +267 3980881/77524950 or lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com or through my promoter, Professor Peet Van der Merwe on +27 18 299 4140 or peet.vandermerwe@nwu.ac.za.

Participant Consent

I have read and understood the contents of this consent and briefing letter, and freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this research.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

SECTION A: BACKGROUND TO THE AREA

1. What type of wildlife tourism products is offered in Sankuyo and Mmadinare?
2. What forms of wildlife resource utilization are the communities currently involved in?
3. Are there currently people employed by wildlife tourism-related projects in Sankuyo and Mmadinare?
4. What other positive impacts accrued to the community from wildlife utilization? For example, bush meat.
5. Outline the human resource skills availed by community members within the CBT project regarding tourism
6. During the time hunting tourism was practised, what skills did the community provide and which jobs were availed by hunting tourism?
7. There was hunting tourism in Sankuyo and Mmadinare until 2014, so according to your understanding what were the reasons for the hunting ban?
8. How did hunting tourism benefit the community?
9. What challenges did you encounter with hunting tourism?
10. How was the community involved in hunting tourism?
11. Was hunting seen as a positive impact on the community?

SECTION B: MANAGEMENT OF CBT HUNTING PROJECT

12. Were there any efforts done to monitor and evaluate the performance of the hunting tourism project in Sankuyo and Mmadinare?
 - 12.1 What metrics are used to measure performance?
 - 12.2 How often is the evaluation done?
13. Was the CBT hunting venture successful?
 - 13.1 If yes, what can you say are the key success factors responsible for the success
 - 13.2 What are the challenges you encounter in the management any CBT tourism related projects?
14. How was the structure of the CBT hunting venture particularly regarding the following issues;
 - 14.1 Legal set-up and type of venture
 - 14.2 Administrative structure
 - 14.3 Financial responsibility and benefit sharing
15. Was there any external help sourced in setting up the project? Either financially or administratively

SECTION C: MANAGEMENT OF THE CURRENT CBT PROJECT

16. Are there currently any tourism related projects?
17. **If No, please skip to Section D below.**
18. If yes, are there any efforts done to monitor and evaluate the performance of the CBT project presently since the ban on hunting?
 - 18.1 What metrics are used to measure performance?
 - 18.2 How often is the evaluation done?
19. Has the CBT venture been successful so far?
 - 19.1 If yes, what can you say are the key success factors responsible for the success
 - 19.2 What are the challenges you encounter in the management of the CBT project?

20. Was there any external help sourced in setting up the project? Either financially or administratively
21. Is there any difference in the structure of the current CBT project to that of the hunting project?
22. Regarding financial benefits, which project between the current and the previous hunting operation accrued more to the community?
23. Which other areas does management address apart from operational issues?
24. What CBT projects do think will work which is currently not present or planned.
 - 24.1 What is needed to succeed in such projects?

SECTION D: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN HUNTING TOURISM

25. How was collaboration approached in the project and who were the stakeholders involved?
26. To what extent did the community participate in the CBT project? Especially in areas of;
 - 26.1 Management of the project
 - 26.2 Decision making
27. How involved are the communities of Sankuyo and Mmadinare in tourism development and planning?
28. What other role/s does the community play in tourism development in the area
29. As a community project, how did you gain access to the market to keep the project operational?

SECTION E: SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

30. Have attitudes toward wildlife changed from the times of hunting? If Yes, how have they changed?
31. Will you still conserve wildlife if you are not benefiting from it?
32. What will be your advice on the best approach to ensure wildlife conservation?
33. What approach was used to manage the transition from hunting tourism?
34. How was the community involved in the transition?
35. What other products and services are offered since the ban on hunting?
36. What other products can be developed to benefit the community?
37. What other benefits can you consider that were brought about by hunting tourism?
38. Is there any structure that foster community and other stakeholder's involvement in tourism development and planning? If Yes which structure is it?
39. If No, then what structure do you think can be put in place to help involve communities and other stakeholders in tourism development and planning?
40. What strategies can be put in place to increase community participation in tourism development and planning?
41. What can be done to mitigate the ban of hunting in Sankuyo and Mmadinare?
42. Do you have any additional points on sustaining tourism in Sankuyo and Mmadinare areas?

INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

Information about the interview and the interviewee

Date of the interview:

Place of the interview:

Duration of the Interview:

Name of the interviewee:

Address and contact details of interviewee:

Gender of the interviewee:

| | |
|--------|--------------------------|
| Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

The profession of the interviewee:

The period spent working in this profession:

Appendix B: Former hunting employees' interview schedule

DEMODGRAPHIC PROFILE

1. Gender: Male Female
2. Marital Status: Single Married Widowed Divorced/Separated
3. Level of Education:

| | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Primary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Junior Secondary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| O-level | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Certificate | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| No formal Education | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. Place of Residence / **Lefelo la Bonno** _____ Name of Village (**Leina la Motse**)

5. Number of People in the Household / **Palo ya batho baba nnang mo lelwapeng:**

6. Date of Birth / **Letsatsi la botsalo:** _____

7. How long have you lived in this area? / **Ona le lebaka le lekae o nna mo lefelong le?**

| | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| Less than 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6 - 10 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 11 - 15 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 16 - 20 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21 - 25 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26 – 30 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| More than 30 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> |

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

8. What is your current occupation? _____
9. What is your level of Income?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Less than P500 | P501 – P1000 | P1001 – P1500 | P1501 – P2000 | P2001 – P2500 | P2501 – P3000 | More than P3000 |
|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|

10. What was your job description when working for the hunting operator?

11. How long were you employed by the hunting operator?

12. What was your level of income then?

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Less than P500 | P501 – P1000 | P1001 – P1500 | P1501 – P2000 | P2001 – P2500 | P2501 – P3000 | More than P3000 |
|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|

13. What other ways did you benefit while you were employed by the Hunting operator?

| |
|--|
| |
| |
| |
| |
| |

- 14. What type of employment was offered by hunting operations before the ban of trophy hunting?
- 15. How many people were employed by the hunting operator you worked for?
- 16. Due to hunting operations, what other opportunities were being created that communities had benefited from?
- 17. Was the hunting operation successful during the time of operation?
- 18. If yes, what can you say are the key success factors responsible for the success of the hunting operation.
- 19. What are the challenges that were encountered with hunting tourism?
- 20. What challenges are you facing now without hunting tourism?
- 21. When you compare hunting, and photographic safaris, which one do you believe is more successful and why?
- 22. What happened to your fellow employees who worked in the hunting industry?

SECTION C: HUNTING BAN AND MITIGATION

- 23. The hunting ban was instituted in 2014, so according to your understanding what were the reasons for the ban?
- 24. Was there consultation of communities, hunting operators, employees and other stakeholders before the decision to ban hunting?
- 25. What other wildlife or ecotourism products were being practised before the hunting ban in this area?
- 26. What tourism products/ activities do you think will work in the area where hunting was conducted?
- 27. What is needed by the community to make it work?
- 28. What else can be done to mitigate the ban of hunting in the area?

Appendix C: Business participants' interview schedule

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY Tourism Research in Economics Environs and Society

Private Bag X6001
Potchefstroom 2520
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +267 3980881
Email: lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com

Interview Schedule – Businesses

You are kindly invited to participate in an interview I intend to conduct for my doctoral study titled; “A Sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana”. My name is Lelokwane Mokgalo, (Student Number: 27817822) currently enrolled with the School of Tourism Management at North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) in South Africa for Doctoral studies. The study aims to:

- Critically analyse the sustainable development of community-based tourism in Botswana
- Present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation, and principally,
- Formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in the country

You have been chosen to participate based on the role you and your organization played in driving the agenda for tourism development in the area and therefore will be best relevant to provide needed information. Please note that the North-West University abide by strict ethics and professional principles that govern the process of collecting, analyzing and publishing data, hence the ethical rights to privacy and confidentiality of those participating in the study are duly guaranteed. Upon completion of the study, the researcher will only publish the findings in an academic thesis as well as academic journals. The interview will utilize a tape recorder for ease of reference and all data contained therein will be treated confidentially. Please note that you have the right to withdraw from the study and request information already collected to be destroyed.

Your cooperation is highly regarded and appreciated, any further questions or comments regarding the study can be directed to myself on telephone +267 3980881/77524950 or lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com or through my promoter, Professor Peet Van der Merwe on +27 18 299 4140 or peet.vandermerwe@nwu.ac.za.

Participant Consent

I have read and understood the contents of this consent and briefing letter, and freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this research.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

SECTION A: MANAGEMENT OF OPERATIONS

43. How did your business benefit from hunting tourism in this concession? / **Kgwebo ya gago ene e boelwa jang ka nako ya letsomo mo kgaolong e?**
44. How is your business benefiting from wildlife tourism now? / **Morago ga kemiso ya letsomo, kgwebo ya gago e boelwa jang?**
45. During hunting tourism operations, what other opportunities were being created that businesses could benefit from? / **Ka nako ya letsomo, ke dife ditsela tse dingwe tse kgwebo ya gago e neng eka boelwa ka tsona?**
46. What determined the suitability and choice of the hunting area?
47. Was the hunting operation successful during the time of operation? / **A kgwebo ya letsomo ene e boelwa?**
48. If yes, what can you say are the key success factors responsible for the success of the hunting operation. / **Fa gone go ntse jalo, ke eng sese neng se dira gore letsomo le nne le dipoelo?**
49. What are challenges that were encountered with hunting tourism? / **Ke dife dikgwetlho tse di neng le kopana natso ka nako ya letsomo?**
50. What challenges are you facing now without hunting tourism? / **Ke dife tsele lebaganeng natso jaanong?**

SECTION B: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

51. Did your business have any direct relationship with hunting operators? / **A kgwebo ya gago ene ena le kamano nngwe le Bagwebi ba letsomo?**
 - 51.1 If "YES", Can you describe the structure of the relationship with the community/s in the utilization of wildlife resources? / **Fa go ntse jalo, tihalosa gore kamano ya lona ene e ntse jang?**
52. In your view, what role did the business community play in tourism development and planning in general in the area? / **Ka tumelo ya gago, ke karolo efe e bagwebi ba Sankuyo/Mmadinare ban ang le yone mo tihabologong ya Bojanala?**
53. How many people did your company employ during the time of hunting operations? / **Ka nako ya letsomo, kgwebo ya gago ene e thapile batho bale kae?**
54. Was there an increase/decrease in employment after the hunting ban? / **A go nnile le koketsego kgotsa phokotsego ya babereki morago ga go emisiwa ga letsomo?**
55. What skills did your business develop as a result of hunting tourism? / **A Kgwebo ya gago e nnile le tihabolo ya dikitso mo babereking ka ntlha ya letsomo?**

SECTION C: HUNTING BAN AND MITIGATION

56. The hunting ban was instituted in 2014, so according to your understanding what were the reasons for the ban? / **Letsomo le kganetswe ka 2014, goya ka kitso ya gago, ke afe mabaka ago le emisa?**
57. Was there consultation of communities, hunting operators, businesses and other stakeholders prior to the decision to ban hunting? / **A go nnile le therisanyo mo Motseng, batsumi, bo-rakgwebo le babangwe pele ga kemiso ya letsomo?**
58. What other wildlife or ecotourism product do you think might work in this area? / **Ke efe mefuta mengwe ya Bojanala ee ka dirwang mo kgaolong e?**
59. Are you involved in any structure that foster community and other stakeholder's involvement in tourism development and planning? If Yes which structure is it? / **Ao na le karolo mo ngwe ya tsamaiso ya Bojanala le tihabololo ya bone mo Motseng? Ke efe tsamaiso eo tsayang karolo mo go yone?**

60. If No, then what structure do you think can be put in place to help involve communities and other stakeholders in tourism development and planning? / **Fa go sena tsamaiso epe, ke efe eo dumelang gore eka dirwa go thusa gore morafe o tseye karolo mo tlabololong ya Bojanala?**
61. What can be done to mitigate the ban of hunting in the area? / **Goka dirwa eng go fokotsa matlhoko aa tlisitswe ke kemiso ya letsomo?**
62. Do you have any additional points on sustaining tourism in this area? / **A gona le sengwe seo ka se oketsang mabapi le gore Bojanala boka tlabololwa jang?**

INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

Information about the interview and the interviewee

Date of the interview:

Place of the interview:

Duration of the Interview:

Address and contact details of interviewee:

Gender of the interviewee:

| | |
|--------|--------------------------|
| Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

The profession of the interviewee:

The period spent working in this profession:

Appendix D: Community members' structured interview

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY
Tourism Research in Economics Environs and Society
Private Bag X6001
Potchefstroom 2520
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +267 3980881
Email: lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com

LOCAL COMMUNITY INTERVIEW

You are kindly invited to participate in an interview I intend to conduct for my doctoral study titled; **“A Sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana”**. My name is Lelokwane Mokgalo, (Student Number: 27817822) currently enrolled with the School of Tourism Management at North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) in South Africa for Doctoral studies. The study aims to:

- Critically analyse the sustainable development of community-based tourism in Botswana
- Present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation, and principally,
- Formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in the country

You have been chosen to participate based on the role you and your organization played in driving the agenda for tourism development in the area and therefore will be best relevant to provide needed information. Please note that the North-West University abide by strict ethics and professional principles that govern the process of collecting, analyzing and publishing data, hence the ethical rights to privacy and confidentiality of those participating in the study are duly guaranteed. Upon completion of the study, the researcher will only publish the findings in an academic thesis as well as academic journals. The interview will utilize a tape recorder for ease of reference and all data contained therein will be treated confidentially. Please note that you have the right to withdraw from the study and request information already collected to be destroyed.

Your cooperation is highly regarded and appreciated, any further questions or comments regarding the study can be directed to myself on telephone +267 3980881/77524950 or lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com or through my promoter, Professor Peet Van der Merwe on +27 18 299 4140 or peet.vandermerwe@nwu.ac.za.

Participant Consent

I have read and understood the contents of this consent and briefing letter, and freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this research.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

DEMODGRAPHIC PROFILE

29. Gender: Male =1 Female =2

30. Marital Status: Single =1 Married =2 Widowed =3
 Divorced/Separated =4

31. Level of Education:

| | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|---|
| Primary | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| Junior Secondary | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| O-level | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| Certificate | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| No formal Education | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

32. Place of Permanent Residence _____ (Name of Village)

33. Number of People in the Household: _____

34. Year of Birth: _____

35. How long have you lived in this area?

| | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|---|
| Less than 5 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| 6 - 10 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| 11 - 15 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| 16 - 20 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| 21 - 25 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| 26 – 30 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| More than 30 Years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |

SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE

36. What is your occupation? _____

37. What is your level of Income

| | | | | | | |
|----------------|--------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Less than P500 | P501 – P1000 | P1001 – P1500 | P1501 – P2000 | P2001 – P2500 | P2501 – P3000 | More than P3000 |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

38. What is the main source of income for the household?

| | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|---|
| Cattle Farming | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| Crop Farming | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| Self – employment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| Civil Service employment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |

| | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Tourism employment | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| Fishing | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| Crafts Production | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |
| Other(specify) | | 8 |

39. How many members of your family are employed? _____

40. Please, indicate the number of those family members employed, in the following fields of employment;

| Field of employment | Number | Sun, daughter, wife, grandchild, etc |
|---------------------|--------|--------------------------------------|
| a) Tourism | | 1 |
| b) Cattle Farming | | 2 |
| c) Cross Farming | | 3 |
| d) Retail | | 4 |
| e) Civil Service | | 5 |
| f) Self-employment | | 6 |
| g) Craft Production | | 7 |
| h) Fishing | | 8 |
| i) Other(Specify) | | 9 |

41. In your opinion, which of the following provides the best opportunities for future employment in the area? (Please tick (✓) what is applicable)

| ACTIVITY | RESPONSE |
|----------------------------------|----------|
| a) Tourism | 1 |
| b) Cattle Farming | 2 |
| c) Cross Farming | 3 |
| d) Tourism | 4 |
| e) Harvesting Veld Products | 5 |
| f) Craft Production | 6 |
| g) Fishing | 7 |
| h) Other(Specify) _name_them_ | 8 |

42. According to your view, which Wildlife Tourism product (activities) will work, and which ones will not work in Sankuyo?

43. Explain why? _____

BEFORE THE HUNTING BAN

44. What type of tourism activities were offered in the area by the community? (Select as many as may apply)

| | | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Cultural shows | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| Photographic safari | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |

| | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Hunting tourism | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| Traditional dance | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| Hiking | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| 4x4 trails | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| Other (Specify) | | |

45. What type of employment was offered by hunting tourism before the ban of trophy hunting?

| | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|----------|
| Tracker | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| Skinner | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| Guide | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| Cook | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| Supplier | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| Crafts Production | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| Other(specify) | | |

46. How did wildlife personally benefit you before the ban on trophy hunting?

| | Tick (v) Select as many as may apply | |
|--|--------------------------------------|----------|
| Sale of meat | | 1 |
| Employment in Tourism camps/lodges | | 2 |
| Sale of souvenirs/crafts to tourists | | 3 |
| Community development from wildlife sale | | 4 |
| Tour Guiding | | 5 |
| Financial dividends from tourism | | 6 |
| Sale of services to tourism | | 7 |
| Increased livelihood opportunities | | 8 |

47. What were the challenges you faced from wildlife (individually and as a community) before the hunting ban?

| | Tick (v) Select as many as may apply |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Damage to crops | |
| Reduction in pasturelands | |
| Poaching of wildlife | |
| Minimum access to resources | |
| Causes diseases to livestock | |
| Financial losses from wildlife | |
| Limited livelihoods opportunities | |

AFTER THE BAN

48. Indicate in a scale of 1 to 5 if your attitude towards wildlife has changed since the ban of trophy hunting or not (The scale is as follows: 1 = Very Negative, 2 = Negative; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Positive; 5 = Very Positive)

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|

49. What type of tourism activities are offered in the area by the community currently?

50. What type of Tourism related products are offered by private organizations currently?

51. Are there any individuals interested in developing tourism related products in Sankuyo?

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

52. If yes, what type of tourism products are these individuals interested in developing?

53. How is wildlife personally benefiting you presently?

| | Tick (v) Select as many as may apply |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| Sale of meat | |
| Employment in Tourism camps/lodges | |
| Sale of souvenirs/crafts to tourists | |
| Community development from wildlife sale | |
| Tour Guiding | |
| Financial dividends from tourism | |
| Sale of services to tourism | |
| Increased livelihood opportunities | |
| Other? | |

What tourism products/ activities do you think will work in this area (lodge, 4x4 trails)?

What is needed by the community to make it work?

| | Tick (v) Select as many as may apply |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| Skills | |
| Funding | |
| Infrastructure in the area (like roads, telecommunication) | |
| Support by government | |
| Mentors | |

IMPACTS OF TOURISM

Indicate if you agree or disagree with the following statements by ticking a number on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 representing totally disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Neutral, 4 – Agree, 5 – Totally Agree 6 not applicable).

| | STATEMENTS | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|-----|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 26. | I am involved in the decision making regarding tourism in my area | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. | I am involved in tourism management in the community | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 28. | Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the community | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. | Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the private sector | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. | Decisions about what kind of tourism we should have are best left to the government | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. | I have a role to play in the wise use of resources in my area | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. | The financial benefits from tourism are adequate to sustain my livelihood | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 33. | Tourism has improved employment opportunities in the area | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 34. | There has been an improvement of infrastructure in my area due to tourism development | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 35. | The financial benefits from tourism are the same before and after the hunting ban | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 36. | I have equal opportunities to be employed in the management positions of the CBT project in the area | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 37. | I value wildlife the same way before and after the hunting ban | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 38. | Wildlife has caused negative impacts on the environment | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 39. | Wildlife negatively affects community livelihoods | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 40. | I was consulted before the decision to ban hunting | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 41. | Current CBT project has brought positive change in the community | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 42. | Current CBT project has brought problems to the community | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 43. | The CBT project participation in tourism has improved the skill base of locals | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | | | | | | | |

44. What challenges are you currently facing (individually and as a community) as a result of wildlife since the ban of Hunting?

| | Tick (✓) Select as many as may apply |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Damage to crops | |
| Reduction in pasturelands | |
| Poaching of wildlife | |
| Minimum access to resources | |
| Causes diseases to livestock | |
| Financial losses from wildlife | |
| Limited livelihoods opportunities | |

45. What challenges are you currently facing now regarding the development of tourism?

46. In your view, what is the role of the Sankuyo community in tourism development and planning?

47. How can the contribution of the community be enhanced in tourism development and planning?

48. In your view, what is the role of national government agencies in tourism development and planning in Sankuyo?

49. In your view, what is the role of the private sector in tourism development and planning in Sankuyo?

50. Is there any structure that foster community and other stakeholder's involvement in tourism development and planning? If Yes which structure is it?

51. If No, then what structure do you think can be put in place to help involve communities and other stakeholders in tourism development and planning?

52. What can be done to mitigate the ban of hunting in the area? (Please tick (v) as might apply)

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Improve CBT Management Skills | |
| Avail funding | |
| Improve infrastructure | |
| Increase access to market | |
| Improved product development | |
| Increase knowledge on tourism | |
| Diversify the source market | |

53. What other strategies can be used to mitigate the ban of hunting in the area?

Appendix E: BTO interview schedule

NORTH WEST UNIVERSITY
Tourism Research in Economics Environs and Society
Private Bag X6001
Potchefstroom 2520
Republic of South Africa
Tel: +267 3980881
Email: lockie.mokgalo@gmail.com

Interview Schedule – Botswana Tourism Organization

You are kindly invited to participate in an interview I intend to conduct for my doctoral study titled; “**A Sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana**”. My name is Lelokwane Mokgalo, (Student Number: 27817822) currently enrolled with the School of Tourism Management at North-West University (Potchefstroom campus) in South Africa for Doctoral studies. The study aims to:

- Critically analyse the sustainable development of community-based tourism in Botswana
- Present empirical results on effects of hunting ban on communities and conservation, and principally,
- Formulate a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in the country

You have been chosen to participate based on the strategic position you and your organization holds in driving the agenda for tourism development in the country and therefore will be best relevant to provide needed information. Please note that the North-West University abide by strict ethics and professional principles that govern the process of collecting, analyzing and publishing data, hence the ethical rights to privacy and confidentiality of those participating in the study are duly guaranteed. Upon completion of the study, the researcher will only publish the findings in an academic thesis as well as academic journals. The interview will utilize a tape recorder for ease of reference and all data contained therein will be treated confidentially. Please note that you have the right to withdraw from the study and request information already collected to be destroyed.

Your cooperation is highly regarded and appreciated, any further questions or comments regarding the study can be directed to myself on telephone +267 3980881/77524950 or lelokwanem@bac.ac.bw or through my promoter, Professor Peet Van der Merwe on +27 18 299 4140 or peet.vandermerwe@nwu.ac.za.

Participant Consent

I have read and understood the contents of this consent and briefing letter, and freely and voluntarily agree to participate in this research.

Signature: _____

Date: _____

SECTION A: BACKGROUND TO THE CBT INITIATIVE

63. What benefits do communities receive from wildlife in Sankuyo and Mmadinare?
64. To what extent do they participate in projects? Especially in areas of;
 - 64.1 Management of the project
 - 64.2 Decision making
65. What determines the suitability of areas for CBT projects and in particular wildlife tourism?
66. Was there any external help sourced in setting up the project? Either financially or administratively
67. Who initiated the Sankuyo project before the hunting ban and after?
68. Who initiated the Mmadinare project before the hunting ban and after?
69. What kind of approach informs the planning for CBT in general?
70. How is the management set-up of these projects?
 - 70.1 Which stakeholders are part of management?
 - 70.2 What is their role in management?
71. Is there a difference in their management prior to the hunting ban and currently?

SECTION B: MANAGEMENT OF PROJECTS

72. What approach is taken to ensure human resource skills availability in communities participating in CBT projects?
73. Are there any efforts done to monitor and evaluate the performance of the project?
 - 73.1 What metrics are used to measure performance?
 - 73.2 How often is the evaluation done?
74. Has the present Sankuyo and Mmadinare CBT ventures been successful so far?
 - 74.1 If yes, what can you say are the critical factors responsible for the success
 - 74.2 What are the challenges you encounter in the management of the CBT project?
75. What determines the structure of the CBT venture particularly in terms of the following issues;
 - 75.1 Legal set-up and type of venture
 - 75.2 Administrative structure
 - 75.3 Financial responsibility and benefit sharing
76. Which other areas does management address apart from operational issues?

SECTION C: SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND MITIGATION STRATEGIES

77. How is collaboration approached in CBT projects and who are the stakeholders involved?
78. What other role/s does the community play in sustainable tourism development in the Sankuyo and Mmadinare areas?
79. How do you ensure that CBT projects are aligned to the principles of sustainable tourism?
80. Is there any help offered to communities in gaining access to the market?
81. What kind of impacts accrue to the community from wildlife utilization?
82. What measures are taken to minimize negative impacts of wildlife tourism in communities and the environment?
83. The hunting ban was instituted in 2014, so according to your understanding what were the reasons for the ban?
84. Was there consultation of communities and other stakeholders prior to the decision to ban hunting?
85. According to you what were the main benefits communities in hunting concession area received from hunting?

86. What can be done to replace these benefits?
87. What challenges were encountered with hunting tourism?
88. What approach was used to manage the transition from hunting tourism?
89. How was the community involved in the transition?
90. What studies were conducted to see what can replace the ban on hunting which will be sustainable?
91. In terms of financial benefits, which of the two wildlife utilization modes (photographic & hunting) accrued more to the communities?
92. What type of CBT projects do you think can work in this area?
93. What are the future plans for the Sankuyo and Mmadinare areas?
94. What assistance do you give to the communities?

INTERVIEW INFORMATION SHEET

Information about the interview and the interviewee

Date of the interview:

Place of the interview:

Duration of the Interview:

Name of the interviewee:

Address and contact details of interviewee:

Gender of the interviewee:

| | |
|--------|--------------------------|
| Male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Female | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Level of Education:

| | |
|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Primary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Junior Secondary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| O-level | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Diploma | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Degree | |
| Post- graduate | |
| No formal Education | <input type="checkbox"/> |

| | |
|-----------------|--|
| Other (specify) | |
|-----------------|--|

The profession of the interviewee:

The period spent working in this profession:

Appendix F: Research Permit – Ministry of Environment, Natural Conservation & Tourism

TELEPHONE: 3914955
TELEGRAMS: MENT
TELEX:
TELEFAX: 3951092
REF: EWT 8/36/4 XXXX (169)



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

Lelokwane Mokgalo
P O Box 236 AAH
GABORONE

09th April 2018

Dear Sir/ Madam,

RESEARCH PERMIT: LELOKWANE MOKGALO

We are pleased to inform that you are granted permission to conduct research, for a study entitled **a sustainable strategy to mitigate the ban of hunting on rural communities in Botswana - Botswana**

The research will be conducted in these villages – **Sankuyo and Maun – Ngamiland District.**

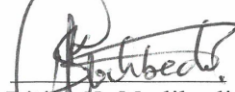
This permit is valid from the **01st June 2018 to 31st August 2018 (Three Months Only)**

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
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*



TELEPHONE: 3914955
TELEGRAMS: MENT
TELEX:
TELEFAX: 3951092
REF: EWT 8/36/4 XXXXIII (73)



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

Lelokwane Mokgalo
P O Box 236 AAH
GABORONE

05th September 2018

Dear Sir/ Madam,

**AMENDEMENT FOR RESEARCH PERMIT (EWT 8/36/4 XXXX(169):
LELOKWANE MOKGALO**

We are pleased to confirm the following amendments to your Research Permit (Ref. EWT 8/36/4 XXXX(169).

The research will be amended to cover this village – **Mmadinare area.**

Validity of the permit is from : - **01st September 2018 to 31st August 2019**

Please note that conditions stipulated in the original permit still apply.

Yours Faithfully

Ditiro K. Modibedi

FOR / PERMANENT SECRETARY



cc. Regional Wildlife Officer – Ngamiland
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*



CERTIFICATE OF LANGUAGE EDITING AND PROOF READING

This certificate serves to confirm that

Dr. Chandapiwa Butale

Proof-read and edited the following PhD thesis:

**A SUSTAINABLE STRATEGY TO MITIGATE THE BAN OF HUNTING ON
RURAL COMMUNITIES IN BOTSWANA**

Author: **Lelokwane Lockie Mokgalo**

The language editing focused on:

- Grammar and syntax
 - Spelling
 - Style

Any concerns or questions can be forwarded to

butalec@mopipi.ub.bw or butalec@ub.ac.bw

Date of language editing/proof reading: November 2019

Signature: 

