

Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia

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ABSTRACT

Namibia as a country has been classified as an upper-middle income country. The country has a very rich culture, varied and attractive tourism products. Namibia has however, been rated as one of the most unequal country in the world. In relation to inequalities, poverty in Namibia has been a topical issue since the independence of the country. The Namibian government formulated various policies and strategies such as the Tourism Policy (2008); National Development Plans (1-5) and Communal Area Conservancy Legislation (1996) to tackle issues of poverty and to promote rural tourism. Yet, thirty years after the independence of the country, the poverty numbers are still considerably high. Poverty rates in the Zambezi region are still increasing. Hence, the main goal of this study was to establish the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia. The research focused on Kunene and Zambezi region. To achieve the main goal, five objectives were explored:

The first objective was to analyse the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism development through an in-depth literature review. Literature on the contribution of tourism to the global economy, tourism and infrastructure development, tourism development in Namibia, rural tourism concept and various forms of rural tourism, and the positive and negative (economic, socio-cultural, and environmental) impacts of rural tourism development was reviewed. Based on this review, the chapter concluded that the global tourism industry has been developing over the years and this development has the potential to revitalise communities and alleviate poverty. Furthermore, to develop rural tourism, many developing countries including Namibia utilises rural tourism development as a strategic tool for poverty alleviation.

The second objective was to explore the poverty concept, causes of poverty and impacts of tourism on poverty through the review of literature. To achieve this objective, literature on the poverty and inequality concept, causes of poverty and various approaches of evaluating poverty was reviewed. The chapter review concluded that poverty is a complex and multidimensional phenomenon, hence, measuring it using economic approaches cannot bring social justice and practical growth without the poverty alleviation and employment generating opportunities for the underprivileged and marginalised segments of the society. Furthermore, it is important for governments to design policies that address capability deprivation because emphasising on economic growth might not be beneficial to the poor, but it may profit the rich and fail to reduce poverty.

The third objective was to identify the benefits of rural tourism development and establish whether rural tourism development in Namibia alleviates of poverty in the Northern region of Namibia. To

achieve this objective the research adopted two methodological approaches phenomenological approach and grounded theory. Literature was not extensively reviewed before the data collection process. The research revealed that rural tourism development has the potential to alleviate poverty, however, all the stakeholders must be involved in the initiative and the causes of poverty must also be addressed first before focusing on who should benefit from tourism. It also found that it is difficult to compare which region benefits more from tourism development if the causes and extent of poverty vary from community to community.

The fourth objective was to develop a conceptual framework based on the empirical findings derived from the primary research. To achieve this objective the research started with three themes and six broad questions which were used to collect the primary data. The themes were

- Rural tourism development
- Impacts of rural tourism development
- Impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation

Phenomenological approach was utilised to capture data based on the views and experiences of the research participants. The views and experiences of the research participants were analysed and compared to identify recurring themes. New themes and patterns emerged from the data analysis. The data collection phase and analysis were a continuous process until theoretical saturation was reached. The recurring themes and patterns that emerged include: perceptions of rural tourism development, infrastructure and economic growth, concept of poverty, barriers to poverty alleviation, cultural tourism, stakeholder involvement, empowerment, education and training, and benefit sharing. These themes and patterns that emerged from the empirical results were thoroughly discussed and compared with literature.

The fifth objective was to draw conclusions and use the developed framework to provide recommendations on the strategies that alleviate poverty. To achieve this, a framework was developed based on the research participants' views and experiences of the poverty phenomena. This framework was utilised to provide recommendations as to how poverty can be reduced in developing countries such as Namibia. The themes and literature were used in the development of the framework. This framework is unique as it takes a pragmatic approach, it moves away from the "one size fits all" approach. Based on the research findings it encourages stakeholder involvement from the exploration phase until the designed strategies have been achieved. This framework is adaptable to different settings.

The study has made practical and theoretical contributions to the body of knowledge. It adopted two methodological approaches, phenomenological approach, and grounded theory, to explore the opinions and experiences of various stakeholders. The uniqueness of this research study is the development of a framework based on the opinions and experiences of various stakeholders involved in rural tourism development interventions.

Secondly, it is one of the first attempts to develop a framework that focuses on the “how” than “what” the stakeholders should be doing to reduce poverty. This was made possible by carefully listening to different stakeholders, in particular the local communities and analysing their responses in light of the other stakeholders. It attempts to offer solutions that focus on poverty alleviation. Thirdly, this research study adds to the body of knowledge in particular, by providing a definition of rural tourism based on the understanding of the research participants. This forms a base in developing approaches that are valued by various stakeholders.

Forth, this research provided an in-depth exploration of the causes of poverty from two different regions and unearthed unique as well as common causes of poverty. This finding highlighted the importance of taking into account differences in settings when considering the causes of poverty. Fifth, it identified the difficulty in performing a comparative analysing of the benefits of tourism in different regions because the severity of poverty varies from community to community within the same region.

Sixth, from a practical standpoint the research developed a conceptual framework that amalgamates rural tourism development, causes of poverty and poverty alleviation. Instead of developing countries such as Namibia emphasising on economic growth to alleviate poverty, there is need for an adaptable approach in addressing causes of poverty and requires the involvement of all stakeholders in decision making. The research study has presented a framework that will influence governments to review their policies and strategies on poverty alleviation. It allows communication throughout the whole process of rural tourism development and encourages active participation of all tourism stakeholders.

Seventh, the overlap of responsibilities identified in this research can be used in reviewing the organisational structures of the stakeholders involved in rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. Furthermore, these findings can be used by NGOs and governments organisations to devise methods of addressing issues of trust, attitudes and understanding of the rural tourism concept.

This research, therefore, concludes that unless the rural tourism concept and poverty concept, barriers of poverty alleviation are removed and policies that support development of rural tourism and poverty alleviation are implemented, the impact of rural tourism development will remain minimal.

OPSOMMING

Namibië word as 'n land met middel tot hoë inkomste geklassifiseer. Die land het 'n ryke kultuurskat en beskik oor 'n wye verskeidenheid aanloklike toerismeprodukte. Namibië word egter as een van die lande in die wêreld met die ergste sosiale ongelykheid beskou. In verhouding tot hierdie ongelykheid, is armoede sedert dié land se onafhanklikheidswording 'n aktuele kwessie. Die Namibiese regering het sedert 2008 verskeie beleide en strategieë soos die Toerisme-beleid (2008), Nasionale Ontwikkelingsplanne (1-5) en Gemeenskaplike Bewaringswetgewing (1996) geformuleer wat armoede aanspreek en voorstelle vir die bevordering van landelike toerisme aan die hand doen. Tog gaan die land na dertig jaar van onafhanklikheid steeds onder erge armoede gebuk en dit neem veral in die Zambezi-streek toe. Met dit in ag genome, is die doel van die studie om die effek van landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling op die verligting van armoede in die noordelike streke van Namibië te bepaal. Die fokuspunte van die navorsing was die Kunene- en Zambezi-streke. Ten einde die primêre doel van die studie te bereik, is die volgende vyf doelstellings ondersoek:

Die eerste doelstelling was om deur middel van 'n in-diepte analise van beskikbare literatuur die ekonomiese-, sosio-kulturele- en omgewingsimpakte van landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling te beoordeel. Literatuur oor die bydrae van toerisme tot die wêreldwye ekonomie, toerisme- en infrastruktuurontwikkeling, toerisme-ontwikkeling in Namibië, die landelike toerismekonsep en verskillende vorme van landelike toerisme asook die positiewe- en negatiewe (ekonomies, sosio-kultureel en omgewing) impakte van landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling, is bestudeer. Na afloop hiervan is tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat die globale toerismebedryf oor jare ontwikkel het en dat sodanige ontwikkeling oor die potensiaal beskik om gemeenskappe te vernuwe en armoede te verlig. Verskeie ontwikkelende lande, ook Namibië, het landelike toerisme as deel van 'n strategiese plan gebruik om armoede te verlig.

Die tweede doelstelling was om deur middel van 'n literatuuroorsig die begrip en oorsake van armoede en die impak van toerisme op armoede te ondersoek. Om hierdie doel te bereik, is literatuur oor die begrip armoede en ongelykheid, oorsake van armoede en verskillende benaderings om armoede te evalueer, hersien. In die hoofstukoorsig is tot die gevolgtrekking gekom dat armoede 'n ingewikkelde en multidimensionele verskynsel is en dat die meting daarvan met behulp van ekonomiese benaderings nie sosiale geregtigheid en praktiese groei kan meebring sonder dat armoedeverligting en werksgeleenthede vir die minderbevoorregte- en gemarginaliseerde dele van die samelewing gebied word nie. Verder is dit belangrik vir regerings om 'n beleid te ontwikkel wat die vermoë van gemeenskappe in ag neem, want die beklemtoning van ekonomiese groei is nie

noodwendig voordelig vir die armes nie, dit kan tot gevolg hê dat die rykes bevoordeel word en armoede nie verminder word nie.

Die derde doelstelling was om die voordele van landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling te identifiseer en vas te stel of dit die armoede in die noordelike streke van Namibië kan verlig. Om hierdie doelstelling te bereik, het die navorsing twee metodologiese benaderings, 'n fenomenologiese benadering en gegronde teorie gebruik. Voor die data-insamelingsproses is literatuur nie intensief bestudeer nie, soos voorgestel deur die gegronde teorie benadering. Die navorsing het aan die lig gebring dat die ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme die potensiaal het om armoede te verlig, maar al die belanghebbendes moet by die inisiatief betrek word en die oorsake van armoede moet eers aangespreek word voordat daar gekonsentreer word op wie by toerisme baat vind. Daar is ook bevind dat dit moeilik is om te bepaal watter streek meer baat vind by toerisme-ontwikkeling indien die oorsake en omvang van armoede van gemeenskap tot gemeenskap verskil.

Die vierde doelstelling was om 'n raamwerk gebaseer op die empiriese bevindings wat uit die primêre navorsing verkry is, te ontwikkel. Om dit te bereik, het die navorsing met drie temas en ses breë spektrum-vrae begin wat gebruik is om die primêre data in te samel. Die temas was landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling, die impak van die ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme en die effek wat landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling op die verligting van armoede het.

'n Fenomenologiese benadering is gebruik om data vas te lê gebaseer op die sienings en ervarings van diegene wat deelgeneem het aan die navorsingsprojek. Hierdie inligting is geanaliseer en vergelyk om herhalende temas te identifiseer. Nuwe temas en patrone het uit die data-analise na vore gekom. Die data-insamelingsfase en -ontleding was 'n deurlopende proses totdat 'n teoretiese versadigingspunt bereik is. Die herhalende temas en patrone wat na vore gekom het, sluit persepsies oor ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme, infrastruktuur en ekonomiese groei, die konsep van armoede, hindernisse in armoedeverligting, kulturele toerisme, betrokkenheid van belanghebbendes, bemagtiging, opleiding en om te deel in voordele, in. Hierdie temas en patrone wat uit die empiriese resultate voortgespruit het, is deeglik bespreek en met literatuur vergelyk.

Die vyfde doelstelling was om gevolgtrekkings te maak en die ontwikkelde raamwerk te gebruik om aanbevelings te maak rakende die strategieë wat armoede verlig. Om dit te bereik, is 'n raamwerk ontwikkel gebaseer op diegene wat deelgeneem het aan die navorsingsprojek se sienings en ervarings van die armoedeverskytsel. Hierdie raamwerk is gebruik om aanbevelings te maak oor hoe armoede in 'n ontwikkelende land soos Namibië verminder kan word. Die temas en literatuur is

in die ontwikkeling van die raamwerk gebruik. Hierdie raamwerk is uniek aangesien dit 'n pragmatiese benadering volg, en wegbeweeg van die "one size fits all"-benadering. Op grond van die navorsingsbevindinge word betrokkenheid van belanghebbendes vanaf die verkenningsfase tot wanneer die ontwerpte strategieë bereik is, aangemoedig. Wat hierdie raamwerk nog meer uniek maak, is die aanpasbaarheid daarvan na gelang van die gevallestudie waar dit gebruik word.

Die studie het praktiese- en teoretiese bydraes tot kennis van die onderwerp gelewer. Dit het twee metodologiese benaderings, 'n fenomenologiese benadering en gegronde teorie gebruik om die menings en ervarings van verskeie belanghebbendes te ondersoek. Die uniekheid van hierdie navorsingstudie lê in die ontwikkeling van 'n raamwerk gebaseer op die opinies en ervarings van verskillende belanghebbendes wat betrokke is by landelike toerisme-ontwikkelingsintervensies.

Tweedens is dit een van die eerste pogings om 'n raamwerk te ontwikkel wat fokus op hóé armoede verminder kan word, eerder as wát gedoen moet word om dit te verminder. Dit is moontlik gemaak deur aandagtig na verskillende belanghebbendes, veral die plaaslike gemeenskappe, te luister en hul antwoorde met die van ander belanghebbendes te vergelyk. Dit poog om oplossings te bied wat op armoedeverligting fokus. Derdens dra hierdie navorsing veral tot die kennisbasis by deur 'n definisie van landelike toerisme te voorsien wat gebaseer is op die begrip van diegene wat deelgeneem het aan die navorsingsprojek. Dit vorm 'n basis vir die ontwikkeling van benaderings wat deur verskillende belanghebbendes geëvalueer kan word.

Vierdens bied hierdie navorsing 'n in-diepte ondersoek van die oorsake van armoede wat eie is aan twee verskillende streke sowel as die algemene oorsake daarvan wat universeel voorkom. Hierdie bevinding het die belangrikheid daarvan beklemtoon om verskille in die omgewing in ag te neem wanneer die oorsake van armoede bepaal word. Vyfdens is die kompleksiteit daarvan om 'n vergelykende analise van die voordele van toerisme in verskillende streke te doen, geïdentifiseer omdat die graad van armoede binne dieselfde streek van gemeenskap tot gemeenskap verskil.

Sesdens het die navorsing vanuit 'n praktiese oogpunt 'n konseptuele raamwerk ontwikkel wat die ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme asook oorsake van armoede en armoedeverligting, saamvoeg. In plaas daarvan dat ontwikkelende lande soos Namibië klem lê op ekonomiese groei om armoede te verlig, is 'n aanpasbare benadering nodig om oorsake van armoede aan te spreek, en moet alle betrokkenes by die besluitneming betrek word. Die navorsingstudie het 'n raamwerk aangebied wat regerings sal beïnvloed om hul beleide en strategieë rakende armoedeverligting te hersien en groter

buigsaamheid toe te laat. Dit laat ruimte vir kommunikasie regdeur die proses van ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme en moedig aktiewe deelname van alle belanghebbendes aan.

In die sewende plek kan die oorvleueling van verantwoordelikhede wat in hierdie navorsing geïdentifiseer is, gebruik word om die organisasiestrukture van belanghebbendes wat by landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling en armoedeverligting betrokke is, te hersien. Verder kan hierdie bevindings deur nie-winsgewende- en regeringsorganisasies gebruik word om metodes daar te stel om kwessies rakende vertroue, houding en begrip van die landelike toerismekonsep aan te spreek.

Vanuit die inligting wat uit die navorsing na vore gekom het, kan dus tot die gevolgtrekking gekom word dat tensy die huidige landelike toerisme- en armoedekonsep en die hindernisse rakende armoedeverligting geëlimineer word en beleide wat die ontwikkeling van landelike toerisme en armoedeverligting ondersteun, geïmplimenteer word, die impak van landelike toerisme-ontwikkeling minimaal sal bly.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ADMADE	Administrative Management Decision
AGE	Applied General Equilibrium
APT	Anti-Poverty Tourism
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
CAMPFIRE	Communal Area Management Programme for Ingenuous Resources
CBN	Cost of Basic Needs
CBNRM	Community-Based Natural Resource Management
CBT	Community-Based Tourism
CGE	Computable General Equilibrium
DFID	Department for International Development
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EMA	Environment Management Act
FeNaTa	Federation of Namibian Tourism Associations
FTT	Fair Trade Tourism
GDP	Growth Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
IRNDC	Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation
LDC	Less Developed Countries
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MET	Ministry of Environment and Tourism
MPI	Multi-dimensional Poverty Index
NACOBTA	Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association
NACOBTA	Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association
NASCO	Namibian Association of Community Based
National Planning Commission	
Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) Support Organisations	
NBSAP	National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan
NDP	National Development Plans
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organisations
NHIES	Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey
NNF	Namibia Nature Foundation
NPC	National Planning Commission
NTB	Namibia Tourism Board
NTGDS	National Tourism Growth Development Strategy

NTIPPS	National Tourism Investment Profit and Promotion Strategy
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
RoN	Republic of Namibia
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
SAMs	Social Accounting Matrices
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SLA	Sustainable Livelihood Approach
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
ST-EP	Sustainable Tourism Eliminating Poverty
SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation
TIES	The Interaction Ecotourism Society
TSA	Tourism Satellite Accounts
TTCI	Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WTO	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWF	World Wildlife Fund

CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) (2019b) reported that the tourism industry is a leading and robust economic sector in the world generating US\$1,7 trillion in export earnings. International tourist arrivals increased from 25 million in 1950 to 278 million in 1980, 674 million in 2000, 1 186 million in 2015 and 1,5 billion in 2019 (UNWTO, 2016:2; UNWTO, 2019a:1). The international tourist numbers are expected to reach 1,8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO, 2011). Although the tourism industry has been growing, the industry experienced peaks and troughs over the years. In 2003, tourism figures decreased by 0,6% whilst in 2004, the industry had a 10,4% growth increase (Consultancy, 2016). Negatively, the COVID-19 pandemic caused a 22% decline in international tourist arrivals, however, these numbers are anticipated to rise in 2021 again (UNWTO, 2020). Kumar (2020) reported that tourism numbers are expected to increase at a faster pace after the pandemic because the industry is resilient. However, the duration of the COVID-19 pandemic is uncertain (UNCTAD, 2020:7) which will influence the forecasts.

Muchapondwa and Stage (2013:85) highlighted that the share of international tourist arrivals received by developing countries increased from 31% in 1990 to 47% in 2011. The development of tourism, particularly international tourism, has been recognised as a priority by governments in the Southern Africa region including the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007:443). Developing countries have experienced an increase in tourist numbers, mainly from developed countries due to the declining of travel costs, improvement of disposable income and improvement of holiday entitlements (Muhanna, 2007:42). Africa, as a developing region received an increase in international tourist arrivals of 2,9% between 2011-2016 (SESRIC, 2016:4). Africa received 53 million international tourists and earned US\$ 33 billion in international tourism receipts and maintained a 5% share in worldwide arrivals (UNWTO, 2016). The World Travel and Tourism Council (2017) revealed that Gross Domestic Product (GDP) increased in 2016 by 3,1% (US\$2,306 billion). Whilst in 2019 Africa's GDP was 3,4% which is expected to increase to 4,1% in 2021 (African Development Bank, 2020:15), COVID-19 is pending. Thus, "tourism has progressively become an important sector for governments and regions searching for socio-economic development and employment creation" (Kavita & Saarinen, 2016:79). Most Least Developed Countries (LDCs) recognise tourism as a significant sector which has a capability for considerable economic growth

(UNWTO, 2016). LDCs contribute an average of 9,5% to their respective GDP's (UNCTAD, 2020:8). There are 47 countries classified as LDCs of which 33 are in Africa (United Nations, 2020).

Namibia, as a developing country, aimed to increase its tourist arrivals to 8% in 2020 (Republic of Namibia, 2016), however, this figure will be different at the end of the year. In 2019, Namibia's tourism sector contributed 10,3% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) to the Namibian economy and it contributed 114 600 jobs (WTTC, 2020). The employment numbers are expected to rise to 186 000 jobs in 2025 (WTTC, 2015). After independence in 1990, the Namibian government affirmed that tourism was a priority sector because of its potential to generate employment, reduce poverty and contribute to economic growth (Jenkins, 2000:114). This government developed various legislations and policies such as the National Development Plans (NDPs) – 1, 2, 3, and 4 – that support tourism, among other sectors (National Planning Commission (NPC), 2002; Republic of Namibia, 1994, 1995a, 1995b, 2004, 2008). The enabling legislation was developed with the aim of promoting economic growth, employment and income creation and promoting rural development (Republic of Namibia, 2017).

Tourism development has been pursued by governments because of its impact on economic growth (GDP) and foreign exchange earnings (Muhanna, 2007:42; Cooper *et al.*, 2008). The tourism industry is also predicted to provide economic benefits to a community through the provision of jobs to the poor (Scheyvens, 2011). Hence, the growth of the tourism industry should directly or indirectly influence the lives of the local communities, particularly rural tourism, because it has the potential to alleviate poverty (Croes & Vanegas, 2008:94). Holland *et al.* (2003) and Chaudhry and Gupta (2010:146) indicate that 75% of the world's population live in rural areas. About 57% of Namibians live in rural areas (Population and Housing Census, 2011). In addition, Namibia Planning Commission (NPC), (2015) updated that Namibia's poverty rates are highest in the rural areas (37%) compared to urban areas (15%). Northern regions such as Kavango, Oshikoto, Zambezi, Kunene and Ohangwena are the poorest with more than one third of the population being classified as poor (Republic of Namibia, 2015). The World Bank (2020) estimated that the poverty rate will increase from 17,4% in 2016 to 18,9% in 2022 due to COVID-19. Considering that Namibia is a small country with a population estimate of 2,4 million (NSA, 2018), these figures indicate that poverty is prevalent in the country.

The purpose of this research study is to establish the effect of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. The research study focuses on two northern regions of Namibia (Kunene and Zambezi) where poverty rates are considerably high.

This research study utilised both grounded and descriptive phenomenological principles (Kafle 2011:181). The application of basic hermeneutics methods in this research study is validated in two theories (grounded and phenomenology). According to Charmaz (2006) the researcher is viewed as a co-constructor of meaning and it is important for the researcher to avoid preconceived ideas from preceding knowledge. Grounded theory seeks to discover theory; thus, the research study allows theory to emerge from the primary data. A conceptual framework was therefore developed based on the views of the participants in the primary research.

Phenomenological approach can be employed to a single case or to purposefully selected samples. This research design fit well with this research because it sought to explore how rural tourism development influences poverty alleviation in the regions where poverty rates are high. The local communities in the poverty-stricken areas are part of this research. Therefore, using descriptive phenomenological approach would provide a clear understanding of the poverty phenomena through the perceptions of the players in a situation (Creswell, 2013). The other participants in the studied regions provided their views on the poverty concept from a Namibian perspective. Grounded theory will be used to develop a conceptual framework based on the information gathered from the respondents. This approach offers an opportunity to address the how, what and why questions.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This section provides an overview of rural tourism development and poverty alleviation in Namibia to determine prior research that has been conducted around the research topic. The problem statement is provided and linked with the research objectives of this research study.

Defining rural tourism has been of much debate (Doohyun *et al.*, 2014:328). Petrič (2003) and Frochot (2005:335) state that the heterogeneity and versatility of rural areas make it difficult to clearly define what rurality is. Interestingly, Holland *et al.* (2003) highlight that it is easier to identify a rural area when one sees it than to define it. Ghaderi and Handerson (2012:47) define rural areas as less densely populated places which provide tourists with an impression of space. Chaudhry and Gupta (2010:146) add that rural tourism should be utilised as a device for the development of rural areas and should thus comprise of diverse activities that revitalise rural areas. These activities should incorporate natural or man-made attractions, transportation, marketing and information systems (Eruera, 2008). Mutana *et al.* (2013:154) also add that the rural activities should comprise of historical, cultural and heritage tourism. It also includes different types of tourism such as community-

based tourism (CBT), agri tourism and ecotourism. However, there are discrepancies between the types of rural tourism.

Rural tourism development in Namibia is linked to CBTs and it is supported by the government because of the benefits it presents to the local community (Keane, 2009). It has also been used as a tool to alleviate poverty and emphasis has been placed on community benefits, involvement and empowerment. The local communities tend to have a positive attitude towards tourism development if they view the development as providing benefits such as improved standard of living (Jaafar, 2013:407). Although Manwa and Manwa (2014:5698) acknowledge that tourism can alleviate poverty, they argue that it does not necessarily mean it can improve the welfare of the poor since tourism is mainly aimed at meeting the tourists' and investors' interests. Ashley *et al.* (2001) echo the same sentiments and state that varied actions are required for the poor to fully benefit from tourism. These actions go beyond promoting community tourism, they encompass participation in decision making and working across levels and stakeholders. Poverty can also be linked to inequality; in developing countries the distribution of income between households is more unequal currently compared to decades ago (Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015:451).

To bridge the gap between the rich and the poor, the government of Namibia formulated numerous redistributive policies. Namibia's Vision 2030 (Republic of Namibia 2004) envision that by 2030 poverty will be reduced to a minimum level. Thus, its vision is to improve the quality of life of the people of Namibia and reduce poverty to a minimum; the vision, however, does not define "minimum". Namibia's vision of reducing poverty is in line with strategies such as the NDPs, the 1998 poverty reduction strategy and the 2001 National Poverty Reduction Action Plan programmes which have been formulated with the target of reducing poverty (National Planning Commission 2002; Republic of Namibia, 2004; 2011; 2015; 2016).

The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (2008) also formulated the National Policy on Tourism with the aim of providing a framework for the organisation of tourism resources. The reason for introducing the tourism policy was to realise long-term national targets which are highlighted in the Vision 2030 such as sustained economic growth, employment creation, reduced inequalities and poverty reduction. The Tourism Policy (2008) targets to reduce poverty, support CBT and increase investments in communal areas, but it does not offer recommendations as to how tourism can alleviate poverty (MET, 2008) (Ministry of Environment and Tourism). NDP 3 also focuses on poverty reduction and empowering vulnerable groups whilst NDP 4 targets to increase income equality (NPC, 2012). Other policies which targeted poverty reduction included the Nature Conservation Amendment

Act 1996 (Republic of Namibia, 2004). The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) formulated policies such as the National Sustainable Tourism Growth and Development Strategy and the National Tourism Investment Profile and Promotion Strategy (NTIPPS) (2016-2026) to ensure that tourism growth in Namibia will be socially, economically and environmentally beneficial.

The dialogue on poverty reduction led to the formulation of Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT). PPT has been advocated as a means of alleviating poverty in developing countries (Sharpley, 2009:337; Winters *et al.*, 2013:117; Zapata *et al.*, 2011:725). Ashley *et al.* (2001) define PPT as tourism that generates net benefits to the poor, and it should be economically, socially, environmentally or culturally beneficial. As an approach PPT created a lot of attention among researchers, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and international organisations such as UNWTO. A paper on poverty alleviation and tourism was presented at the World Summit on sustainable development held in Johannesburg in 2002 (WTO, 2002). Sustainable Tourism Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP) was then initiated with an emphasis on alleviating poverty through the development and creation of jobs for people living on less than a dollar a day (WTO, 2002). In addition, the development of a framework by Mitchell and Ashley (2010) offers three pathways on which the benefits of tourism can be reassigned to the poor.

- Direct effects – by direct employment such as the formation of business enterprises (SMEs) like curio shops, craft markets by community members and cultural tourism.
- Secondary effects – via linkages for example including tourism businesses purchasing food and beverages supplies from local communities.
- Dynamic effects – through structural changes which are indirectly attributed to tourism development such as improvement in infrastructure like development of roads.

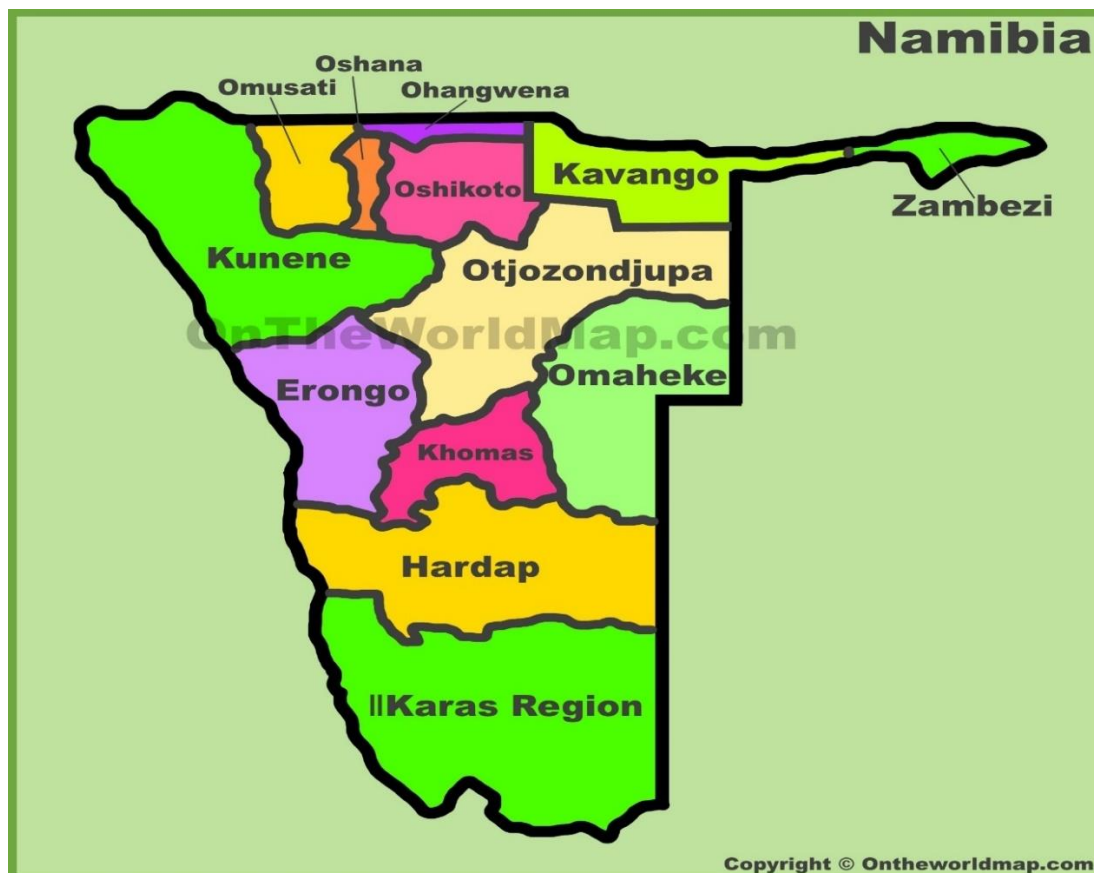
Based on the literature above, tourism development has been viewed in terms of its contribution to economic growth. Thus, most developing countries have declared tourism as an important economic sector. Tourism has the potential to alleviate poverty, hence, developing countries utilised tourism as an avenue for rural revitalisation. Tourism is also envisaged to provide economic benefits to communities through the provision of employment and training of the poor. Due to the increase in tourist numbers, environmental changes to the natural resources have been a cause for concern to nations. Tourism stakeholders have incorporated environmental issues in their tourism development plans to ensure that the tourism products are sustainable, and communities are benefitting. For the communities to benefit from rural tourism development the analysis of socio-cultural impacts has become of paramount importance. Rural tourism has been developed to ensure that the benefits of tourism can be reassigned to the poor. Governments have emphasised on increasing tourism

numbers to influence economic growth. The local community would then benefit from the tourism increase through multiplier effects.

This strategy is viewed as “pro-poor” as it is aimed at reducing poverty and providing benefits to the poor. Thus, this research examined the effects of rural tourism development in Kunene and Zambezi region. It utilised a PPT approach to determine whether tourism in Namibia is “pro-poor”. The research goes beyond analysing the effects of tourism, it explored the causes of poverty and reviewed the PPT approach using grounded theory. This approach is vital to this research as it forms a basis for devising a conceptual framework for the northern region of Namibia. The conceptual framework was developed after the review of literature in Chapter 3 to hypothetically show the interconnectedness between rural tourism development and poverty alleviation.

1.3 STUDY AREAS

This study focuses on the two northern regions of Namibia, namely Kunene region and the Zambezi region. These regions are illustrated on Map 1 below.



Map 1.1: Map of Namibia showing study regions (Kunene and Zambezi)

Source: www.ontheworld.com

Kunene region has a population of approximately 87 000 people and 74% live in rural areas (Population and Housing Census, 2011). It is divided into six constituencies which are Epupa, Kamanjab, Khorixas, Opuwa, Outjo and Sesfontein. Kunene region is one of Namibia's main international tourist destinations with world-renowned resources such as Etosha National Park, the Himba culture, Epupa Falls, the desert-adapted elephant and the rhino (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007:443). Nomadic pastoralism is the main economic activity (Kaelo *et al.*, 2020). There are 71 registered tourism establishments in the Kunene region which include lodges, hotels and campsites (NTB, 2017). In addition to these establishments there are also 38 registered conservancies (NACSO, 2017).

Zambezi region was previously known as the Caprivi region, and has a population of approximately 91 000 people (Zambezi Population and Housing Census, 2014). It is the wettest region in Namibia with plenty of wild animals, making it the richest region in Namibia in terms of natural diversity, yet the unemployment rate is at 28%, making it one of the highest in Namibia (Musisanyani, 2014). The residents rely on farming with farming cash crops such as maize and fishing as the main economic activities. The region comprises of six constituencies which are Kongola, Linyanti, Sibinda, Katima Mulilo urban, Katima Mulilo rural, and Kabbe. It is the only region that shares its borders with four countries (Zambia, Zimbabwe, Angola and Botswana) and is well known for its four national parks, namely Bwabwata, Nkasa Rupara, Mudumu and Mahango. There are fifteen registered conservancies in the region (NACSO, 2017) and 21 tourism establishments (NTB, 2017), including hotels, lodges and camps.

Based on the above, these two regions have world-renowned tourism resources such as Etosha national park, yet the two regions have been classified as the poorest regions in the country. Epupa, which is in the Kunene region, is the poorest constituency in the country and was ranked the most deprived materially and educationally (Republic of Namibia, 2015). Poverty in Namibia has been decreasing from 28,7% in 2010 to 17,4% in 2016 (World Bank, 2020), but the rural northern region of Namibia's poverty remained considerably high with more than a third of the population in the regions classified as poor (Republic of Namibia, 2015). As one of the poorest regions in the country the Zambezi region had a poverty increase of 7,2% whilst the decline of poverty in Kunene was quite minute (2,1%) (Republic of Namibia, 2015). The poverty rates are anticipated to increase to 18,9% in 2022 due to the negative impacts of COVID-19 (World Bank, 2020).

There are 86 registered conservancies in Namibia and these two regions have the highest number of conservancies in the country; 38 and 15 in Kunene and the Zambezi regions respectively (NACSO, 2017). This offers an opportunity for the tourism industry to contribute towards poverty reduction. Kunene region has the highest bed-occupancy rate of 46,7% (MET, 2017).

Unemployment in Namibia has been increasing from 27,9% in 2014 to 34% in 2016 (World Bank, 2020), however, the highest rates of unemployment are experienced in the northern rural region of Namibia with more than half of the population under poverty (Republic of Namibia, 2015). Zambezi's unemployment rate increased from 31% in 2014 to 48% in 2016. This is the second highest rate of unemployment in Namibia (Nakashole, 2018), whilst Kunene region has the highest unemployment rates with 52,2% (Namibia Labour Force Survey, 2016). Therefore, it can be said that these two regions have the highest unemployment rates in the country. Based on the above, it is apparent that the region has a wealth of tourism resources and these could be utilised as a vehicle for rural tourism development and poverty alleviation as indicated in the Vision 2030, NDP3 and Tourism Policy, 2008 (MET, 2008).

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Namibia remains one of the most unequal countries in the world; 19,7% of the population lived on less than US\$1,90 a day in 2015 whilst 42,9% lived below the US\$3,10 per day poverty line (World Bank, 2015). For such a small population of 2.4 million (NSA, 2018) it is evident that poverty is prevalent. Duddy (2011) highlights that 9,1% of the population in Namibia are classified as middle class, which is the second lowest in Southern Africa. More than one in four households live in poverty with the poorest 10% of households possessing just 1% of the country's total income while the wealthiest (10%) control more than half (UNDP, 2016). The poverty rates are high in rural areas where 53% of the population live (Republic of Namibia, 2015). All the poorest regions are in the northern parts of Namibia. Poverty in Namibia as a whole has been decreasing (from 28,7% in 2010 to 17,4% in 2016) (World Bank, 2020). However, poverty rates in the studied regions are above national poverty rate (26,9%) whilst the Zambezi region had the highest poverty increase of 7,2% (Republic of Namibia, 2016). In Namibia, there is limited, if any, research that has explored the effects of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation.

Various research studies have focused on the impact of tourism development on economic growth (Ahmad *et al.*, 2019; Bilen *et al.*, 2017; Croes & Vanegas, 2008:94; Ekanayake & Long, 2012:51; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2013:169; Saayman *et al.*, 2012:463). There is, however, limited research that indicates that increasing tourism has an effect on economic growth or alleviate poverty. Some

researchers highlight that developing infrastructure has an effect on poverty (Muganda *et al.*, 2010:629 Musavengane *et al.*, 2020; Ohlan, 2017; Snyman, 2012a:77). Varied tourism studies have focused on the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation (Anderson, 2014:208; Mutana *et al.*, 2013:154; Manwa & Manwa, 2014:5698; Mbaiwa, 2005:158). Although rural tourism development has been promoted by many developing countries to encourage economic growth, there is a dearth of research that focuses on rural tourism development. This research therefore focuses on rural tourism development. Rural tourism is complex and difficult to define (Lane, 1994:8; Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997; Ashley & Maxwell, 2001:396; Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007; Nagaraju & Chandrashekara, 2014:42). The definition of poverty has also been debated by various researchers (Alcock, 2006; Croes, 2014:211; McCulloch *et al.*, 2001; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015:451; Holden, 2013; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010) which intensifies the problem. Mitchell and Ashley (2010) state that it is important to firstly understand who the poor are before analysing the effects of tourism on the poor and poverty alleviation. Pleumarom (2012) states that it is imperative for any tourism research to consider the measures of poverty and establish the causes of poverty as a precondition in any tourism research.

According to Truong *et al.* (2014:2) the majority of PPT research has been conducted in Africa (59,8%) and 40% of the research papers published were from South Africa. However, there is limited research that explores the views/voices for the poor people directly (Holden *et al.*, 2011:317; Pleumarom, 2012; Schiller, 2008; Stronza, 2008:101). In Namibia, various research has been conducted on poverty alleviation, however, most of the research focused on policy making (Janis, 2011; Kavita & Saarinen, 2016:79). Other researchers (Muchapondwa & Stage, 2013:85; Snyman, 2012a:77; Lapeyre, 2010:758; Nicanor, 2001; Novelli & Hellwig, 2011:207) exclude the views of the local people and have not explored the causes of poverty specifically in two different regions as studied in this research. The poor should be encouraged to participate in decision making and they must be empowered (Lapeyre, 2011:188; Mbaiwa, 2011:1051; Zapata *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, including the voices of the local people would assist determining whether rural tourism development alleviates poverty.

According to Zhao and Ritchie (2007:119) a few research studies have linked tourism and poverty alleviation. Winters *et al.* (2013:177) expounds that the link between tourism and poverty exists, but the conditions under which this connection is robust is not quite clear. Janis (2011) studied Namibian tourism policies as well as local tourism enterprises' policy knowledge and states that, to reduce poverty in Namibia, the government should pay attention to who benefits from tourism growth and how. The researcher suggested that there is a need for more research on the relationship between tourism and poverty alleviation. According to Saayman *et al.* (2012:462) future research to explore

poverty alleviation at a provincial level is necessary so as to analyse which province benefits the most from tourism, specifically in South Africa. In Namibia, previous studies include a case study on private sector-local community partnership (Snyman 2012b:128). There is, however, little research that analyses two regions in order to compare which region benefits more from tourism and how. In Namibia there is limited research, if any, that endeavours to develop a conceptual framework that links rural tourism development, causes of poverty and poverty alleviation based on the views of the research participants. Based on the above analysis, the research question that ought to be addressed is: *Does rural tourism development alleviate poverty in the northern region of Namibia?*

1.5 GOAL AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.5.1 Goal of the study

The main aim of this study is to analyse the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the northern region of Namibia.

1.5.2 Objectives of the study

The research focuses on two rural regions, namely the Kunene and Zambezi regions. Therefore, it intends the following:

1. To analyse the tourism development and the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism development through an in-depth literature review.
2. To explore the poverty concept, causes of poverty and the impact of tourism on poverty through the review of literature.
3. To identify the benefits of rural tourism development and establish whether rural tourism development in Namibia alleviates poverty in the Northern region of Namibia.
4. To develop a conceptual framework based on the empirical findings derived from the primary research.
5. To draw conclusions and use the developed framework to provide recommendations on the strategies that alleviate poverty in the northern region of Namibia.

1.6 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

To provide a justification for undertaking this research, the study reviewed literature on rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. In the literature review it became apparent that there are areas of research that were not explored. Conducting this research could fill the gaps identified in the preceding research studies. After an in-depth search it was evident that there is no research of this nature previously conducted in Namibia, particularly in the northern region, that used grounded theory

and phenomenology to devise a framework that could be used to reduce effects of poverty through tourism. The devised framework specifically developed for this region and its communities can be used to approach poverty differently and ensure that the rural communities benefit from tourism development.

There is no research in Namibia that has explored the causes of poverty and link it with poverty alleviation. This research fills that gap by developing a framework that is adaptable, instead of a “one size fit all” model. The framework will be adjustable to ensure that the barriers that hinder poverty alleviation are removed before implementing poverty alleviation strategies. It will be the first model that prompts policy makers, NGOs and governments in developing countries or regions where poverty is considerably high to take a holistic view throughout the stages of the framework. It will encourage stakeholder participation throughout the process. This framework is in line with SDG1, Namibia’s tourism policy (2008) and Vision 2030, which aim to reduce poverty.

The research on rural tourism development (Ashley, 2000; Janis, 2014:189; Kavita & Saarinen, 2016:79) and poverty alleviation (Eita & Jordaan, 2007; Himavindu & Barnes, 2003) in Namibia excludes the views and perceptions of local communities. The main goal of this research is to analyse whether rural tourism development influences poverty alleviation in the northern region of Namibia. Previous research on poverty alleviation in Namibia excluded the local communities’ views on the phenomena. Therefore, this research will include the views of the local communities. This is beneficial to Namibia’s policy makers and other stakeholders to understand poverty from the local communities’ perspective. This will also aid in developing strategies that provide benefits to the communities and reduce the effects of poverty.

Poverty in the northern region of Namibia has been decreasing at a rate lower than the national rate. Additionally, in other parts of the northern region poverty rates have been increasing. Based on an extensive search there is no research that has explored the interconnectedness of the causes of poverty persistence in those regions and rural tourism development. This link will help to focus the benefits of tourism to poverty alleviation. Furthermore, it will help to streamline the process of channelling resources gained from tourism to poverty alleviation efforts.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The section provides an outline of the research methods utilised in this research. It will start by presenting the literature study and is followed by the different stages adopted in the research study. The methods used in the phases of the empirical research will be presented.

1.7.1 Literature study

According to Veal (2006:115), in order “to select the most suitable and effective methodology, the method should complement the research question, or the researcher must study previous research in the topic area to replicate, improve or use as a contrasting method”. To select an effective methodology for this research, a study of previous research articles directed at the research topic has been reviewed to find the most appropriate method to use. The literature study consulted primary and secondary sources such as existing literature, government reports, official documents, book chapters, journals, newspapers and news. The research also consulted academic databases like Google Scholar, Hospitality and Tourism Complete, ProQuest, Science Direct and CAB Abstracts. Although literature was reviewed for the purposes of understanding the methodologies, literature was not extensively studied before conducting the actual research (Charmaz, 2006). This was to avoid being overwhelmed by the literature and bias.

The following keywords were relevant to this study and literature review:

Rural tourism development, poverty alleviation, pro-poor, livelihood model, community-based tourism (CBT), Namibia, community.

1.7.2 Empirical survey

This section presents the adopted methodology to meet the research aim and objectives. A detailed analysis of the research methodologies employed in the empirical study are presented in Chapter 4. This research study utilised qualitative research methods. Figure 1.1 illustrates the empirical research process.

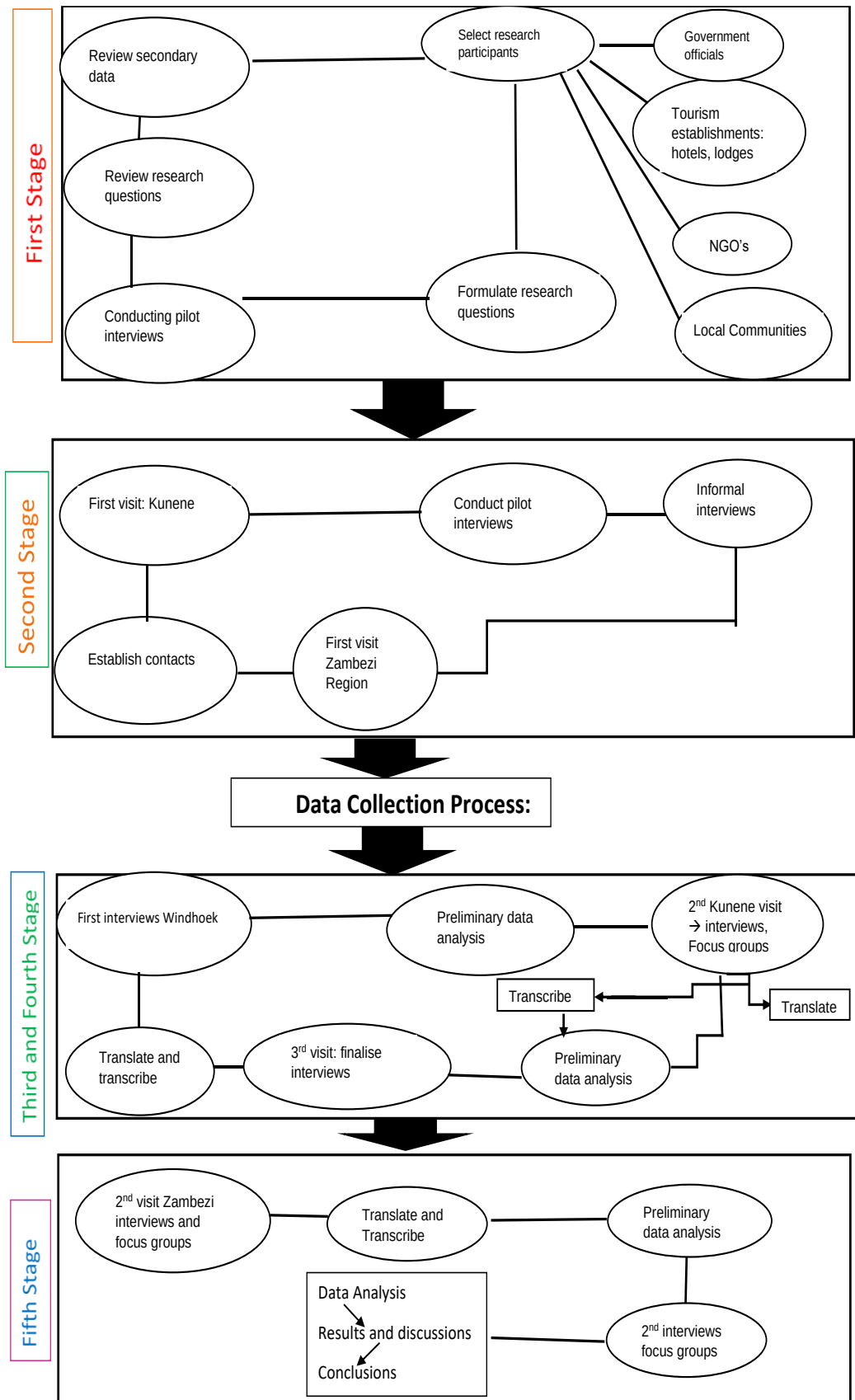


Figure 1.1 Research design

1.7.3 Qualitative research

According to Silverman (2005), qualitative research allows large amounts of information to be collected from a relatively small sample whilst Ritchie and Lewis (2003) state that quantitative techniques require a high response rate to gain reliable and meaningful results. Qualitative research allows for a more thorough discussion (Muijis, 2004) whilst quantitative research yields a higher percentage of responses (Veal, 2006). This research adopted a qualitative research method as the most appropriate way to collect the data required for this research, because it allows in-depth discussions to take place, unlike quantitative methods which rely on numerical data for its interpretation. Using qualitative techniques allows exploration of meaning through words and text by gathering large quantities of relatively detailed information about a few cases (Finn *et al.*, 2000). Critical to this research is that both research techniques adopted grounded theory and descriptive phenomenology approaches. Although the researcher considered the attributes of the participants in the selection of qualitative research method, the decision to adopt qualitative methodology was primarily based on the search for in-depth case-study related information.

1.7.3.1 Data-collection method

This research study employed in-depth interviews and focus group interviews for data collection. Three different semi-structured research guides were designed: one for the government officials and non-governmental organisations, one for the local community engagements and one for the other tourism stakeholders (private businesses such as lodges, community-based tourism initiatives, craft centres). Interviews allow for participants to be present throughout the research process. This process assisted the researcher with the prospects of gaining trust with the interviewees and help in probing into areas of interest (Davies & Hughes, 2007; Holliday, 2007; Patton, 2002). The interview guides were semi-structured, as they gave direction to the interview and ensured understanding because the interviewer was using themes and patterns to ask questions (Ibert, 2001). Semi-structured interviewing format was adopted for this research instrument because it provided far more in-depth data than questionnaires alone (Hoyer & McInnis, 2008). The approach also enabled certain responses to be questioned in greater depth, particularly bringing out and resolving apparent contradictions (Veal, 2006).

Focus groups were utilised to explore the knowledge and experiences of the people related to tourism and poverty alleviation with the aim of understanding and examining their participation on the subject area. The main advantage of using focus groups as a research method is that they do not discriminate against people who cannot read or write, and they can encourage participation from those who are reluctant to be interviewed on their own (Kitzinger, 1995). This was very relevant to the case studies

chosen. Translators were employed throughout the data-collection process. The focus groups were conducted with a maximum of eight community members. The researcher was the moderator for all the focus group interviews. The respondents were divided into small groups of six to eight community members.

The data-collection process was conducted in three phases which are highlighted in Figure 1.2. The phases can be summarised as follows:

- **Phase 1: Pre-collection development phase. (Jan 2012-Jan 2018)**
 - Stage 1: Review of secondary data, research questionnaire design, pilot interviews (Windhoek).
- **Phase 2: Pre-collection visitation phase. (March 2018-June 2018)**
 - Stage 2: Study regions, pilot interviews Kunene and Zambezi, informal interviews Zambezi.
- **Phase 3: Primary data collection. (July 2018-February 2019)**
 - Stage 3: In-depth interviews – government officials and NGO representatives (Windhoek).
 - Stage 4: In-depth interviews – NGO representatives, tourism establishments, focus groups (Kunene). Informal interviews. 2nd interviews (Kunene).
 - Stage 5: In-depth interviews – NGO representatives, government officials, focus group (Zambezi), 2nd interviews until saturation.

RESEARCH TIMEFRAME

	Jan 17	Feb 17	Mar 17	Apr 17	May 17	Jun 17	Jul 17	Aug 17	Sep 17	Oct 17	Nov 17	Dec 17	Jan 18	Feb 18	Mar 18	Apr 18	May 18	Jun 18	Jul 18	Aug 18	Sept 18	Oct 18	Nov 18	Dec 18
Stage 1																								
Proposal write up																								
Literature review																								
Questionnaire design 1																								
Pilot study – Windhoek																								
Questionnaire design 2																								
Recruit translators																								
Stage 2																								
Pilot study – both regions																								
Questionnaire redesign																								
Informal interviews																								
Stage 3																								
Interviews Windhoek																								
Write up																								
Stage 4 – KUNENE																								
2nd visit interviews																								
Data analysis																								
Stage 5 – Zambezi																								
Interviews																								
	Jan 19	Feb 19	Mar 19	Apr 19	May 19	Jun 19	Jul 19	Aug 19	Sep 19	Oct 19	Nov 19	Dec 19	Jan 20	Feb 20	Mar 20	Apr 20	May 20	Jun 20	Jul 20	Aug 20	Sept 20	Oct 20	Nov 20	Dec 20
Stage 5 – Zambezi																								
Thesis write up																								
Interviews																								
Data analysis																								
Manuscript preparation																								

Figure 1.2: Research timeframe

The primary data collected at each stage were purely qualitative data. This data were compared with secondary data already gathered and any new information that was acquired was updated throughout the process. Data were also transcribed, analysed and updated throughout the data collection process because the research study utilised both grounded theory (basic hermeneutics) and descriptive phenomenological methodology.

1.7.3.2 Research participants and sampling methods

According to Neale (2009), it is important to select a sample that truly represents the selected population. This sample should consist of participants who are willing and available to participate. To obtain this sample, either probability or non-probability sampling can be used. Unlike non-probability sampling, probability sampling provides an equal chance of selection for all the prospective participants within a population under study (May, 2011). Examples of probability sampling include simple random, systematic, stratified as well as cluster sampling (Finn et al., 2000; Saunders et al., 2003). In non-probability sampling respondents are selected according to their convenience and availability (Cresswell, 2003). Examples of non-probability sampling include purposive, quota, self-selection, snowball and convenience approaches (Brotherton, 2008). In this research a non-probability sampling approach was adopted to conduct interviews. According to Patton (2002) non-probability sampling involves selecting participants with particular attributes.

Respondents

The interviews comprised of four different groups including government officials, non-governmental organisations (NGOs), tourism establishments and the local communities. The government officials and NGO representatives were based in both Windhoek and the study areas. The other respondents (tourism establishments and local community) were based in Kunene and the Zambezi region.

1.7.3.3 Sample size

Kunene region has a population of approximately 87 000 people (Population and Housing Census, 2011). This region is divided into six constituencies which are Epupa, Kamanjab, Khorixas, Opuwa, Outjo and Sesfontein. Five of these six constituencies were selected, and six focus group interviews were conducted in the five constituencies. There are 71 registered tourism establishments in Kunene region which include lodges, hotels and campsites (NTB, 2017). Eight in-depth interviews were conducted with the managers and owners of the tourism establishments. In addition to these tourism establishments there are also 38 registered conservancies (NACSO, 2017). Four in-depth interviews were conducted with the conservancy managers. In this research study CBTs enterprises were

categorised as tourism establishments, hence, a total of twelve in-depth interviews were conducted. Two NGO representatives were interviewed in Kunene region.

Zambezi region was previously known as Caprivi region with a population of approximately 91 000 people (Zambezi Population and Housing Census, 2014). The region comprises of six constituencies which are Kongola, Linyanti, Sibinda, Katima Mulilo urban, Katima Mulilo rural and Kabbe. Five of these six constituencies were selected, and five focus group interviews were conducted in the five constituencies. There are fifteen registered conservancies in the region (NACSO, 2017). Three in-depth interviews were conducted with conservancy managers. The region has 21 tourism establishments including hotels, lodges and camps (NTB, 2017). Eight tourism establishments were interviewed. Two government officials and three NGO representatives were also interviewed in the Zambezi region. The research study included government officials and NGO representatives in Windhoek. Three government officials and three NGO representatives were interviewed in Windhoek.

1.7.3.4 Sampling method

The research utilised a purposive non-probability sampling to conduct semi-structured interviews. Purposive non-probability sampling includes selecting participants based on particular features or attributes they possess (Patton, 2002; Brotherton, 2008). The research participants included government organisations and NGO representatives in Windhoek. These were purposefully selected based on industry knowledge they acquired (purposive sampling). The government participants selected were directly involved in designing the rural tourism development policies and strategies, whilst the NGOs directly worked with rural communities in the study regions and the tourism establishments. This allowed the researcher to use her judgement in selecting participants and it also provided the ideal information so as to adequately address the research question and achieve the set objectives (Saunders *et al.*, 2007). Non-probability sampling can include various techniques such as purposive, snowball, self-selection and convenience (Brotherton, 2008). Some of the NGOs in the Kunene region and Zambezi region were suggested by the NGO representatives in Windhoek. The NGO representatives in Windhoek provided the interviewer with the contacts of NGO representatives in the study regions and three NGO representatives in the Zambezi region provided the interviewer with two contacts of government officials in the same region. Thus, snowball sampling was also utilised. Tourism establishments such as hotels, lodges and craft centres were selected according to their availability (convenience sampling). The focus groups were purposefully selected; the interviewer targeted rural communities with more tourism activity and high poverty rates. Indunas and translators recruited focus group members. Therefore, contacts were made during the first visit to Kunene region and the Zambezi region. This research method was ideal for this study because both

regions (Kunene and Zambezi) cover a large area and human settlements are scattered. However, two communities in Zambezi region were selected according to their availability.

1.7.3.5 Pilot study

A pilot interview can be defined as a mini version or small-scale trial of the study carried out before the main investigation (Robson, 2002). It is intended to assess the adequacy of the research design and instruments to be used for data collection. The pilot study was carried out by interviewing one NGO who is responsible for training managers and sourcing finances for conservancies and one government official who is responsible for informing and updating the local communities on the use of natural resources in Kunene region. The decision to use this sample for piloting is justified by the fact that these subjects had adequate knowledge of the industry and the subject area. These pilot interviews were conducted in Windhoek. Participants used in the pilot study should not be used in the main research (Reid, 1993). As a result, these participants were excluded from taking part in the main study. Pilot interviews were also conducted during the first visit in Kunene and the Zambezi region. One pilot interview in each region was conducted with a maximum of five focus group members and with one tourism establishment in both regions. Therefore, these participants were excluded from the main research. The pilot study provided the researcher with an opportunity to refine her interviewing skills prior to carrying out primary research

1.7.3.6 Qualitative data analysis

Content analysis was used to identify common themes. Gomm (2004) states that content analysis is also called thematic analysis whilst Punch (2005) defines it as narrative analysis. The discussions were scrutinised using content analysis in order to make replicable and compelling conclusions from texts to the contexts of their use (Krippendorff, 2004). However, instead of focusing on key words, the research study identified comparable statements that were linked to the research question. This research adopted grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), thus open coding was employed. The analysis of data started by recording all the interviews. All the recorded interviews were transcribed; however, some interviews were first translated into English, and then transcribed. Some interviewees did not want to be recorded; therefore, the interviews were written down. When analysing the recordings of the interviews, the researcher focused on contexts from the discussions so as to achieve a further insight into the thoughts and ideas of the respondents. Charmaz (2006) highlights that in grounded theory the researcher should be responsible for coding. This process helped in engaging with the material and this was a continuous process throughout the research. The data was put into various categories and new information that emerged were incorporated into the categories. The patterns that emerged were categorised into:

1. Rural tourism development in Namibia.
2. Causes of poverty in rural areas.
3. Impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation.

Any new information/statements that emerged were questioned and coded. These were placed under these categories. Nvivo (a qualitative data analysis software) was also used to structure and organise the data. Coding was employed throughout the data collection and analysis.

1.8 DEFINING THE CONCEPTS

The following concepts are used throughout the study and therefore need clarification:

1.8.1 Pro-poor tourism (PPT)

According to Ashley and Carney (1999) PPT is defined as “tourism that generates net benefits to the poor”. PPT was established in the 1990s and it is viewed as an overall approach which focuses on opening up opportunities for the poor people, hence, developing countries have utilised this approach as a tool for poverty alleviation (Sharpley, 2009). The approach has attracted many researchers and policy makers to ensure that the poor people are included in the tourism sector. Jamieson *et al.* (2004:3) indicate that PPT focuses on the strategies that are aimed at reducing poverty and provide benefits to the poor, therefore it looks beyond the “trickle down concept”. Ultimately, the poor people must obtain the benefits even if richer people benefit more than the poor people (Ashley *et al.*, 2000).

1.8.2 Impacts of tourism

Mason (2008) stated that tourism takes place in the environment which consists of natural and human features. The impacts of tourism are multi-faceted but is conventionally subdivided into economic, social and environmental impacts. These can be either positive or negative. Critical to remember that much tourism planning occurs in relation to impacts of tourism and it should therefore form part of the planning and development process. In the case of this study impacts and effects are used interchangeably.

1.8.3 Sustainable development

Brundtland, (1987 cited in Herremans, 2006:2) defines sustainable development as “*development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs*” (Brundtland, 1987 cited Herremans, 2006:2). It has become an increasingly discussed topic in the media and press, causing awareness of the current environmental situations (Shah, 2007). Tourists have also indicated an increased environmental awareness and a preference

for organisations that offer environmentally-friendly products (Manaktola & Jauhari, 2007; Mendleson & Polonsky, 1995). To respond to this, the tourism organisations have implemented environmental strategies that address environmental impacts. However, Luck and Kirstges (2003) emphasise that sustainability includes social development, economic growth and environmental protection without compromising the future generations. Thus, sustainable tourism aims to reduce the negative effects and capitalise on the positive effects.

1.8.4 Stakeholder analysis

It is a process of recognising the key stakeholders of an organisation or a project; the stakeholders are the people who have an interest in the organisation or the project (Lazzi *et al.*, 2020). Their interests should be critically evaluated and how they impact on the organisation. Other authors highlight that it is vital to get things right with customers, suppliers and the local community in order to gain financial health (Fuller & Stopford, 1999; Saito & Ruhanen, 2017). It is therefore essential to carefully consider the key stakeholders' level of interest in any initiative because they have the direct influence on the outcome of the planned strategies. For instance, any agreements on new strategies will affect the local community if it impacts on the culture and beliefs of that community (Ndlovu, 2010; Bridge, 2013). It is therefore crucial to ensure that all the key stakeholders (internal and external) are well informed on any new developments.

1.8.5 Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

It is a people-centred approach which prioritises people's assets, their capability to endure shocks and the policies and institutions that replicate community primacies (Ashley & Carney, 1999). It should incorporate the ability to evade and recuperate from shocks and stresses and ultimately be able to improve its capabilities and assets without deflating the natural resource base (DFID, 2000). Thus, SLA should go beyond defining poverty eradication by critically analysing both the positive and negative effects of any type of tourism development on the livelihoods of the poor people (Jamieson, *et al.*, 2004). Morse and McNamara (2013) state that SLA is an example of the "multi capital" where sustainability is dependent on the availability of capital (natural, human, social, physical and financial) and an investigation of the susceptibility milieu (stresses, shocks, trends) in which these capitals (or assets) occur.

1.9 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 1 provides an introduction of the study. It delineates the core issues surrounding the rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. It states the rationale of the study and provides the problem statement. The background of study is further explored in Chapter 2 and 3 as well as the research questions, hypothesis, and aims and objectives of the study addressed through the

research study. The aim of this chapter was to shed light on the study areas and the research methodologies adopted in this research study. These were further explored in Chapter 4.

Chapter 2 explores the literature review on tourism development with reference to rural tourism development. The concept of rural tourism is discussed, and various types of rural tourism are explored. The current tourism policies of Namibia are interrogated in this chapter and the theory surrounding the impacts of tourism are examined.

Chapter 3 discusses the poverty concept, explores the causes of poverty in Namibia and critically analyses the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation in the studied regions. Frameworks such as PPT, SLA and ST-EP are analysed in depth.

Chapter 4 presents the research design and methodology of the study. It provides the description of the rationale for selecting the research methodology and it explains the data collection and sampling methods. Critical to this chapter is the understanding of grounded theory which is not used that often in research and brings about a different approach to the generation of new knowledge. The ethical considerations are also offered in the chapter.

Chapter 5 provides a comprehensive account of the empirical research and presentation of findings. The empirical results reflect the research methodology (phenomenological). The results provided in this chapter are based on the views, perceptions and opinions of the research participants. The results presented were also based on the themes that emerged from the data-collection process. The theory that emerged from the data was used to develop the conceptual framework (grounded theory).

Chapter 6 presents a discussion of the empirical results. The data is presented according to the order of the research questions. It starts by analysing the concept of rural tourism and how this concept is viewed from different participant perspectives. It then presents the results on the impacts of rural tourism development in Namibia and the benefits of tourism development were also analysed in this chapter. Given the use of two case studies, a comparative analysis of the two regions is also presented in this chapter.

Chapter 7 offers the summary of the main research findings and recapitulates objectives of the research and link them to the research findings. The chapter highlights the conclusions and recommendations of the research hypothesis and endeavours to answer the research questions.

Thus, the limitations of the research, areas of further research and contributions of the study are summarised in this chapter. A conceptual framework is developed and presented in this chapter as well.

CHAPTER 2:

THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND RURAL TOURISM

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to firstly provide a detailed analysis of tourism development from a global and Namibian perspective. The chapter starts by providing a definition of tourism and then present an overview of tourism development highlighting its contribution to the global economy and developing countries. Namibia as a developing country devised various strategies to enhance tourism and develop rural areas, therefore these strategies are analysed. The concept of rural tourism and various forms of rural tourism is explored to determine the position of rural tourism development in Namibia. The positive and negative impacts of tourism development are also scrutinised to establish the effects that may hinder the development of tourism, particularly rural tourism.

2.2 DEFINITION OF TOURISM

There are various definitions of tourism, the definitions have changed over the years. UNWTO (2015) defines tourism as *“a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business/professional purposes.”* The research adopts this definition because it encompasses a broader view of tourism which includes socio-economic, environmental and cultural elements.

Tourism has been debated as to whether it is a field of study or a discipline (Darbellay & Stock, 2012). Therefore, it is interconnected with various disciplines. These disciplines develop their own assessments, opinions and theories of what tourism should be comprised of (Keyser, 2002:28). This makes tourism a complex discipline that can be adopted by an interdisciplinary approach and multidisciplinary approach; however, it is important to understand the principles of the disciplines to enhance creativity (Repko, 2012). Figure 2.1 demonstrates the evolution of tourism and the relationships between the disciplines and their clusters. This research acknowledges both; the interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary approaches hence will be cognisant of these study fields. As a phenomena tourism can be studied from different viewpoints; these include economic, social, cultural, geographical and psychological phenomena (Keyser 2002:28). Tourism has the potential to provide economic, socio-cultural and environmental benefits to destinations (Xu *et al.*, 2008), For the

purpose of this research study an in-depth analysis of the economic, socio-cultural and environmental elements are executed to have a broader view of their impact on tourism.

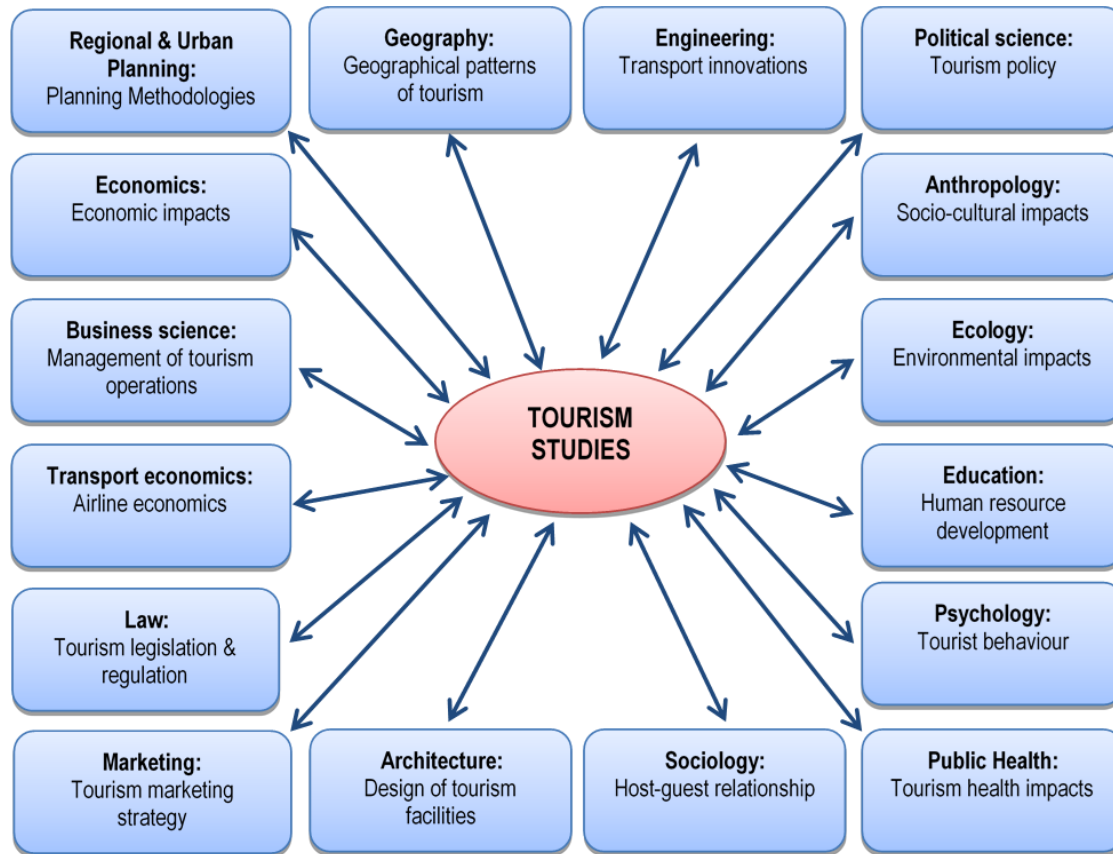


Figure 2.1: A multi-disciplinary perspective of tourism

Source: Fletcher *et al.* (2013)

2.3 AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Tourism development should be well planned and executed in order to create attractive tourism destinations. In his seminal work, Butler (1980) indicates that destinations develop over time. There are a number of processes and stages of growth applicable and no two destinations are the same. Tourism planning and development is very site specific (Gunn, 1988) but also requires policy and the integration of stakeholders to make it work. Sofield (2003) highlights the important role that the community should play in tourism development by being involved in decision making for development. On the other hand, Simpson (2008) states that the government can influence the positive and negative socio-economic effects of tourism.

Honey *et al.*, (2010) state that tourism development offers destinations with opportunities for employment creation and improvement of community services. However, tourism development regulated by the community will economically benefit the community and influence poverty alleviation (Tosun, 2006; Wondirad & Ewnetu, 2019). Bailey and Richardson (2010) also state that tourism development is recognised as an essential device for boosting economic growth and reducing poverty.

Sharpley (2000) stated that the concept of development has changed over the years and it is closely aligned with economic growth. Development refers to a continuous increase of income per person to empower the community to distribute its yield quicker than the population growth. Among other factors, Todaro and Smith (2011:14-18) state that enhancing the quality of life of the community by improving infrastructure is an indication of economic development. It should comprise of “the reduction of poverty and greater equity to progress in education, health and nutrition and of the protection of the environment” (World Bank, 1991:4). Tourism development is viewed as a process of physical change, thus Dieke (2005) identified three stages for tourism development as a process where:

- The tourists ascertain a new area of interest.
- The news of the findings spreads.
- And the host society respond to this new economic activity by building facilities and offering services.

Liu (1994:4) indicated that tourism development is a dynamic process which involves matching tourism resources to the demands and preferences of authentic or potential tourists. Therefore, tourism development can be viewed as the expansion and preservation of the tourism industry in any geographical area. It includes devising approaches, policies and plans that influence the increase and development of tourism at a destination. The tourism industry is important for the growth and development of many destinations. Due to the potential of tourism, it is envisioned as a vehicle for improving national or regional markets. The following section will provide an analysis of the contribution of tourism to the global economy and developing countries.

2.3.1 Contribution of tourism to the global economy

Many destinations utilise tourism as a strategic approach for socio-economic improvement through job creation and export revenue earnings (WTO, 2010). The changing demographics and the decrease in long-haul travel costs have evidently influenced the growth of international tourism (Muhanna, 2007:42). International tourism receipts have significantly increased between 1970 and

2009, from US\$17,9 billion to US\$852 billion respectively (WTO, 2010). In 2012, international tourist receipts totalled US\$1,075 billion (UNWTO, 2013). In 2019, the industry was reported as a leading and robust economic sector in the world, generating US\$1,7 trillion in export earnings (UNWTO, 2019b:1).

Similarly, from 1950 to 2015 international tourist arrivals progressively increased from 25 million to an aggregate of 1,186 billion (Glaesser *et al.*, 2017). In 2019, the internal tourist arrivals increased to 1,5 billion (UNWTO, 2019). The international tourist arrivals in 2012 were the most resilient, experiencing one per cent growth of 4,7. However, before that tourism growth substantially fluctuated, for example in 2003 the global tourism figures decreased by 0,6% whilst in 2004 the industry experienced the largest percentage growth in twenty years (10,4%) (Consultancy, 2016). In 2020, the international tourist arrivals declined by 22% due to the COVID-19 pandemic (see Figure 2.1) (UNWTO, 2020:1). Based on the previous global uncertainties such as the economic downturn, the tourism industry proved to be resilient and it is expected to increase at a faster pace after the pandemic (Kumar, 2020).

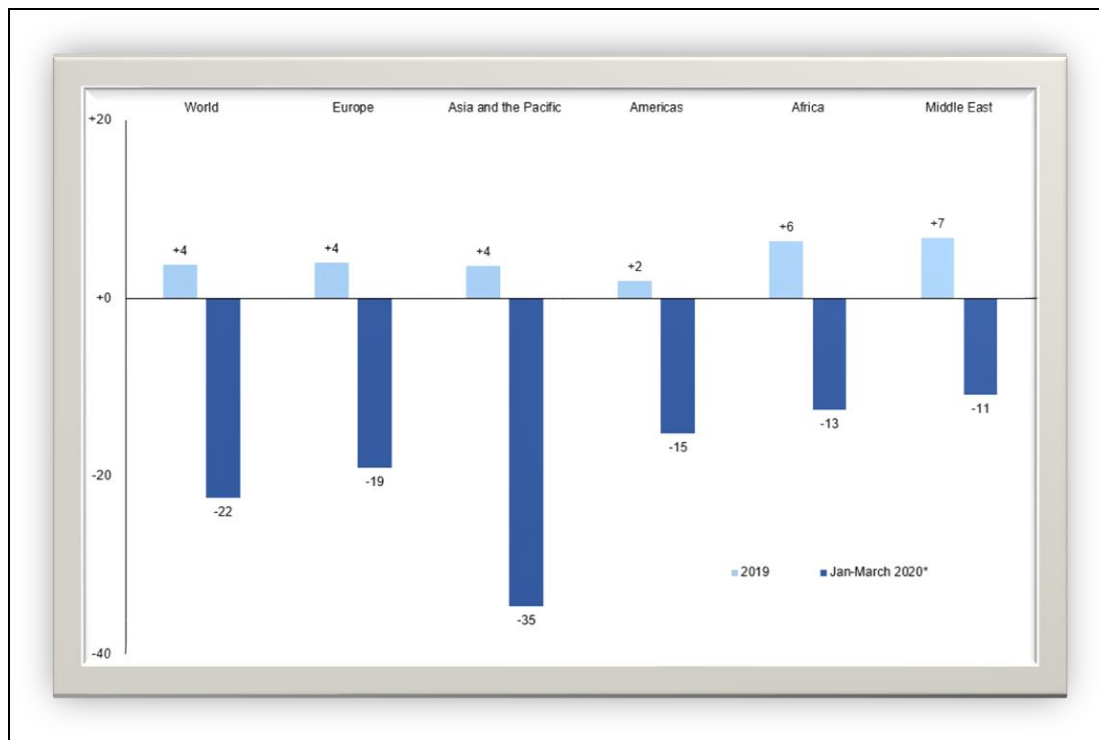


Figure 2.2: International tourist numbers before and during the COVID-19 pandemic
Source: UNWTO (2020)

The tourism industry's direct contribution to international GDP increased by 3,3% (US\$1,770 billion) in 2010 and it is anticipated to increase by 4,2% yearly (US\$2,860 billion) in 2021 (Ekanayake & Long, 2012). WTTC (2017) reported that GDP in 2016 increased by 3,1% (US\$2,306 billion) and it is anticipated to rise by 4,0% annually from 2017-2027. In 2020, the tourism industry contributed 10,3% GDP in total (WTTC, 2020). Given the arrival of public health emergencies such as the COVID-19 pandemic, it is yet to be established whether these projections still hold.

In 2015, tourism directly generated over 107 million jobs, it also supported (directly and indirectly) an aggregate of 284 million jobs worldwide and in 2027 the employment numbers are projected to rise up to 380 million (WTTC, 2017). Furthermore, in 2016 the industry provided 109 million jobs (2 million more jobs, 1,8% increase) in the world hence 1 in 10 jobs are related to tourism (WTTC, 2017). The tourism industry provided a total of 330 million jobs in the first quarter of 2020, however, 100 to 120 million jobs (direct) are anticipated to be at risk making the current pandemic the worst crisis since 1950 (UNWTO, 2020). The figures above clearly indicate that tourism has the potential to grow, however, the recent pandemic may negatively impact on the industry, particularly economies such as developing countries that rely on tourism for their growth and development. It also shows the vulnerability of the industry to risks which is an even bigger challenge for developing countries. The following section review tourism development in developing countries to establish the potential of tourism in these countries.

2.3.2 Tourism development in developing countries

Developing countries have benefited from an expanding tourist base as far back as mid-20th century. The development of tourism, particularly international tourism, has been recognised as a priority by governments in the Southern Africa region, including the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007:445). Since the 1950s, the share for the numbers of international tourist arrivals for developing countries has substantially improved from 3% in 1950 to 45% in 2001 (Muhanna, 2007:42). In 2013, developing countries' share of international tourist arrivals increased from 31% in 1990 to 47% in 2011 (Muchapondwa & Stage, 2013:85). Although there was a global increase of 52 million (4,6%) international tourists from 2014 to 2015, Africa's tourist arrivals decreased by 3% in the same year resulting in the continent experiencing the lowest figures (UNWTO, 2015). The tourist figures for Africa also declined to a total of two million. In 2018 Africa received 1,407 million international tourist arrivals earning tourism receipts of US\$1,480 billion (UNCTAD, 2020). These figures clearly indicate that the tourism industry is vulnerable due to uncertainties such as the global recession and pandemics. Therefore, it is imperative to implement various strategies that encourage tourism growth.

Tourism has progressively become an important sector for governments and regions searching for socio-economic development (Kavita & Saarinen, 2016:79). Tourism considerably contributes to the economies of developing countries; particularly with regards to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (Bennett *et al.*, 1999). Africa as a developing nation rely on tourism for the growth of its economy. In 2018, tourism contributed \$US42,1 billion (1,6%) to GDP whilst in 2019 it contributed 3,4% to Africa's GDP and is expected to increase to 4,1% in 2021 (African Development Bank, 2020:15).

Least developed economies and transition economies are progressively concentrating on tourism as a pathway for development (Andrades & Dimanche, 2017). Most of the least developed countries (LDCs) recognise tourism as a significant sector which has the capability for considerable economic growth (UNWTO, 2016). There are 47 countries classified as LDCs of which 33 are in Africa (United Nations, 2020). In 2015, 49 LDCs received 29 million international tourist arrivals which was a 300% increase from ten years ago (UNWTO, 2016). Tourism's GDP of LDCs contributes 9,5%, 42 out of the 47 LDCs regard tourism as an important sector of the economy (UNCTAD, 2020). These figures confirm that the contribution of tourism in LDCs has been steadily increasing. However, this trend may not continue due to the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on travel and tourism.

The tourism industry provides the local community with an opportunity for employment and most developing countries have promoted the industry as a strategic economic development tool to aid in poverty alleviation in host communities (Carbone, 2005). Between 2011-2015, 21 million jobs were supported by tourism in Africa (UNCTAD, 2017), whilst in 2019, a total of 24,6 million jobs were supported by the travel and tourism industry (WTTC, 2019). The decline of the global tourism industry has a negative effect on the people that rely on tourism, which will ultimately have an impact on poverty and poverty alleviation efforts.

2.3.3 Tourism and infrastructure development

The growth of international tourism in developing countries is attributed to the development of infrastructure such as transport, the development of new source markets and the tourists' improved disposable income (Scheyvens, 2011). However, according to WTTC (2019) the sub-Saharan Africa has the least developed infrastructure in the world; therefore, tourist numbers grow at a slower pace. This indicates that infrastructure development influences tourism numbers. UNWTO (2016) elaborates that infrastructure development comprises of the provision of basic sanitation facilities, good road networks, reliable public transportation, education, and healthcare (UNWTO, 2016). Thus, it is imperative for destinations to invest in updating existing infrastructure as this improves

accessibility which in turn attracts more tourism businesses. These will help alleviate poverty as more income can be realised from the tourism and related activities. Morgan and Pritchard (2006) highlight the importance of infrastructure development in alleviating poverty albeit in developed countries such as New Zealand. This sentiment was also later supported by Seetanah *et al.* (2009) who concluded that improved infrastructure results in reduced levels of poverty thereby confirming the existence of a positive correlation between developed infrastructures and its impact on poverty alleviation.

Nguyen and Nguyen (2013) studied the contribution of tourism to economic growth at a provincial level and found that tourism influenced economic growth in Thua Thien Hue province. Their research study also highlighted the importance of improving government policies for the economic growth to have more impact at a provincial level. Furthermore, they added that infrastructure such as transport network should be developed. Mandić *et al.* (2018) explored the relationship between tourism infrastructure, tourism development and recreational facilities in Croatia and conclude that the development of infrastructure and recreational facilities is determined by laws and regulations of the government. They further clarify that there is a considerable connection between the stage of the tourism development and the number of arrivals, overnights and state of the infrastructure, tourism infrastructure and recreational facilities. These conclusions agree with Seetanah *et al.* (2009) who studied the impact of infrastructure development on poverty alleviation. Based on the literature in this section, it is quite evident that tourism in developing and least developed countries has the potential to contribute to economic growth and infrastructure development. It is therefore important to establish whether the growth of tourism and infrastructure development influences poverty alleviation, particularly in rural areas. The strategies implemented by Namibia to develop rural tourism will be explored in the next section.

2.4 UNDERSTANDING TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NAMIBIA

The purpose of this section is to explore various strategies implemented by Namibia to develop tourism. To do so a background of the country is provided, and various policies and strategies implemented by Namibia are examined.

2.4.1 Geography of Namibia

Namibia covers a surface area of 824 292 km² and it is situated in the south-west of Africa (Marks, 2020). The Republic of Namibia is divided into thirteen regions which are further sectioned into constituencies (121) and each region is managed by a council and a governor (NSA, 2018). It is one of the least densely populated countries in the world (2 people per km²) and a population estimate of 2,59 million. The Namib desert, as it is normally called, is bordered by Botswana (east), Zimbabwe

2.4.2 History of Namibia

The Republic of Namibia gained its independence in 1990 after a long struggle from colonialism and despotic apartheid (MET, 2007). The interest of Namibia came before the 19th century, well before the Germans officially colonised the country in 1884, which included the Portuguese and English. However, their interests were limited to their own activities in Namibia. Subsequently, the colonisation of the country influenced the formation of racial discrimination as early as 1905 and created colonialist class divisions of the Namibian people where black people worked as manual labourers in farms and other industries (Melber, 2000:37).

The Namibian people also lost their ancestral land to the Europeans and by 1893 eight concession companies had acquired the whole territory occupied by pastoralist communities (Werner, 2002). This resulted in the 1904 war, which caused the massacring of about 75% of the Herero and 50% of the Namas by the Germany colonial forces (Tilman, 1993). Subsequently, South Africa took over from Germany after the 1919 Treaty of Versailles and South Africa began to enact various laws until Namibia gained its independence in 1990 (Gascoigne, 2001). These laws included the South-West Africa Affairs Amendment Act of 1949, which allowed Namibia to be represented in the parliament of the Union of South Africa like one of its provinces (fifth province) similarly the policy of apartheid was enacted in 1948 to reinforce the prevailing racial discriminatory legislation of Southern Africa (Wallace & Kinahan, 2011). However, the main objective of South Africa's rule over Namibia was to exploit the mineral resources. This also led to a lot of opposition from black Namibians thus the South-West African People's Organisation (SWAPO) was formed in 1960 who launched a war against South Africa in 1966 until 1988 (Dieks, 2002).

The Republic of Namibia became independent from South Africa in 1990. Although the new government inherited good infrastructure, mineral wealth and game reserves, it was confronted with a high level of an illiterate society and poverty (Mwakikagile, 2015). The country is still recognised by its high levels of socio-economic inequalities, particularly along racial lines, class and gender (Jauch, 2012). However, its economic progress after independence is comparable with other Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries. In the Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Report and Index (2019), Namibia ranked 81st of 139 countries worldwide. However, it ranked fourth in southern Africa. The competitiveness is measured against main categories, namely:

- Enabling environment
- Travel and tourism enabling conditions
- Infrastructure
- Natural and cultural resources

Namibia is also recognised as one of the safest countries in Africa (AfrAsia Bank, 2018) and in the sub-Saharan Namibia was ranked second as the most improved in terms of tourist service infrastructure. There is a combination of the good infrastructure and safety and this poses opportunities for tourism development in the country.

2.4.3 Tourism development in Namibia

Soon after the independence of Namibia in 1990, the new government acknowledged tourism as a significant industry; it ranked fourth after mining, agriculture and fisheries. Today the tourism sector in Namibia is one of the highest income earners in the country, ranking third after mining and agriculture (MET, 2016). Numerous redistributive policies aimed at bridging the gap between the rich and the poor were formulated in an attempt to reduce poverty. The tourism industry in Namibia began in the 1960s, however, it was restricted to guest farms and private landowners only, who were permitted to exploit wildlife, register as game farmers and breed varied wildlife species that tourists could then pay to view or hunt (Samuelsson & Stage, 2007). In addition, wildlife in communal lands belonged to the government, clearly indicating that the local community could not benefit from tourism and therefore were not motivated to look after wildlife (Damm, 2008).

Tourist arrivals in Namibia in 1988 was estimated to be nearly 10 000, with the majority (70%) of these visitors originating from South Africa and 30% from Germany (Fourie, 1990). However, the tourist numbers declined in 1989 and 1990 due to the independence process. These figures are unreliable because tourism statistics before independence were based on assumptions. MET (1995) highlighted that the record keeping of tourists travelling to and from Namibia was conducted at South Africa's international borders only and therefore the actual figures are not available. During the same period, the tourism industry was optimistic due to a number of development projects that were implemented, for example the domestic airline of Namibia began to operate and this improved tourist access to Namibia; regional markets for tourism were opened and new hotels were built whilst the old ones were upgraded.

In 1992 the white paper projected that 28 000 tourists visited Namibia, creating 20 000 jobs (direct and indirect) and the tourism activities generated \$N500 million to the economy (Republic of Namibia, 1994). Five years after the independence of Namibia tourism records were still limited and not regularly published. In 1993, South Africa was still the major source market (61,8%) followed by Germany (10,6%), other European countries and regional countries like Angola, Botswana and Zambia accounting for 7,5% and less than 5% respectively (MET, 1995). The major source markets remained the same in 2001. This has now since changed, the major regional tourist source market

for Namibia is Zambia (61,6%), whilst Germany continues to be the main overseas source market with 8,2% (MET, 2017).

The sector clearly indicated an upward growth, yet the Ministry of Environment and Tourism could not provide adequate proof that the industry was viable, and this led to the industry receiving a low budget which influenced a delay in decision making (MET, 2001). The number of tourists had a substantial improvement in the ten years (1993-2003) from 254 978 to 695 000 and new source markets emerged from western Europe (MET, 2004). Conversely, the war in Angola had an adverse impact on the tourism figures, particularly the north Eastern areas where several tourism enterprises closed, such that international visitors to Poppo Game park fell by approximately 10 000 (MET, 2004). In 2004, the tourism industry in Namibia contributed N\$5,242 billion (WTTC, 2006), whereas in 2006 the sector directly contributed 3,7% of GDP and 4,7% to total employment (Eita & Jordaan, 2007). As a developing country, Namibia aims to increase tourist arrivals to 8% by 2020 (Republic of Namibia, 2016). The tourism sector directly contributed N\$3 billion (3%) GDP to the Namibian economy, and it also generated about 24 000 jobs in 2015 which is expected to rise to 186 000 jobs in 2025 (WTTC, 2015).

Over the years the sector has experienced an upward growth, however, the industry was impacted by the global financial crisis in 2011, experiencing a decline in the number of Namibia's tourist source markets by 10% and tourists from Europe declined by 11,2% (Namibia Tourism Board, 2013). MET (2015) indicates that the deterioration of the Angolan tourist market could have contributed to the financial crisis experienced in Namibia. During that same period, the sector also experienced a shift in demand from high-end products to low-end products, short stays and reduced spending (Namibia Tourism Board, 2013). To sustain optimistic tourism development and competitiveness of the destination in the world tourism market, it is vital to implement marketing strategies aimed at promoting the country as a quality and value-for-money destination.

The tourism industry in Namibia is also regarded as the largest foreign exchange earner, where in 2013 foreign tourist arrivals constituted the largest number (1 374 602), which increased by 74 163 from 2012 tourist arrivals (TSR, 2013). In 2014, international tourist arrivals totalled 1 477 593 which increased by 3% in 2015 (WTTO, 2015). By 2020, the foreign tourist arrivals are anticipated to increase to 1 724 000 (NTB, 2015), whilst international tourist arrivals are projected to provide an aggregate of 1 947 000 by 2025 (WTTO, 2015). The foreign exchange earnings are primarily received from African countries with Angola dominating, followed by South Africa and Zambia (MET, 2016). The African market constitutes up to over one half of foreign arrivals to the country and Germany

remains at the top for the European market (MET, 2016). In Table 2.1 below, WTTC forecasted tourism growth and contribution for Namibia, displaying the possible impact on the economy.

Table 2.1: Forecasts for tourism growth in Namibia

NAMIBIA	2017 USDmn ¹	2017 % of total	2018 Growth ²	USDmn ¹	2028 % of total	Growth ³
Direct contribution to GDP	369.3	2.9	8.0	756.7	3.7	6.6
Total contribution to GDP	1,778.2	13.8	5.5	3,181.9	15.6	5.4
Direct contribution to employment ⁴	23	3.2	6.5	35	3.6	3.6
Total contribution to employment ⁴	98	14.0	4.9	137	14.3	2.9
Visitor exports	326.8	6.2	10.6	645.4	6.3	6.0
Domestic spending	1,148.8	8.9	5.9	1,981.4	9.7	5.0
Leisure spending	1,206.5	2.3	7.2	2,181.0	3.1	5.4
Business spending	269.1	0.5	5.8	445.7	0.6	4.6
Capital investment	331.0	12.0	3.4	584.7	13.0	5.5

Source: WTTC (2017)

In 2017, the tourism industry of Namibia directly contributed nearly N\$5 million (2,9%) to GDP and this figure is anticipated to double (N\$10,1 million) by 2028 (WTTC, 2017). In terms of employment the industry directly generated 23 000 jobs and by 2028 it is forecasted to increase to 35 000 jobs. This is a growth rate of 3,6% per year within the next ten years (WTTC, 2017), whilst in 2019, the industry contributed N\$28,610 million (2,2%) to GDP and 114 600 jobs (direct and indirect) as indicated in Figure 2.2 (WTTC, 2019).

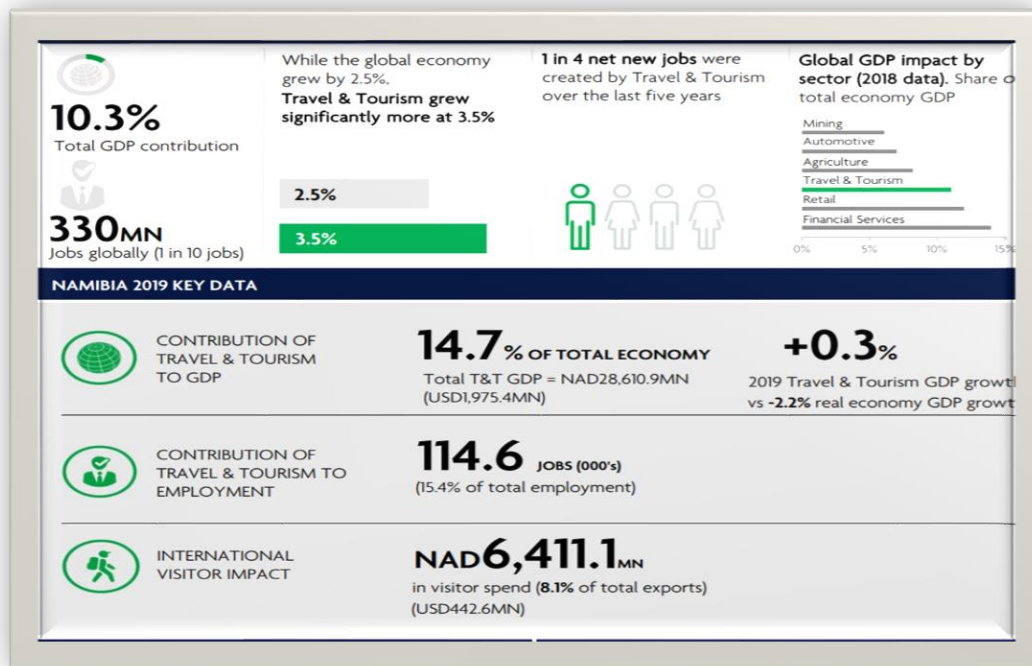


Figure 2.3: Key data on Namibia tourism

Source: WTTC (2020:1)

Based on the above figures tourism in Namibia has been growing in terms of economic growth. Tourism in Namibia clearly indicates that it offers opportunities for employment. It is not clear whether this growth will have an impact on poverty alleviation. Infrastructure such as an airport promoted an increase in the number of tourist arrivals. This also offers opportunities for the rural areas to benefit from this development. The quality tourism products and activities available at a destination also influence tourism increase.

2.4.4 Tourism products and activities in Namibia

The most important component for development of rural tourism are the tourist activities, thus tourism in Namibia is customarily established on wildlife and wilderness experiences and dry topography, cultural groups and rural communities (Lapeyre, 2011). Protected areas and nature-based tourism is the most essential tourist attraction in Namibia of which 70% of the total tourism spending is accredited to these two areas (Turpie *et al.*, 2004:3). Namibia has abundant wildlife with a significant number of game parks and wildlife resorts operating in the country. The Namibian national parks are utilised as a way of protecting nature and serve as tourist destinations. It emphasises the importance of local community involvement in the development and conservation of the parks to fully enjoy the benefits of the game parks (Janis, 2014:189).

The country offers world-renowned resources such as the Etosha National Park which is a popular international tourist destination and rich with varied wildlife species. The endangered black rhino and leopard, kori bustard (the heaviest flying bird) and elephants are popular at this park (NTB, 2020). Other popular national parks include the Dorob National Park and Coastal Namib-Naukluft park including Namib desert and Sossusvlei sand dunes and the Fish River Canyon situated in the south (MET, 2018). There are other established national parks in the Zambezi region, namely Bwabwata, Nkasa Rupara, Mudumu and Mahango. A huge amount of the tourism revenue emanates from entrance fees to national parks and tourism concessions provided for the private sector on state-owned land (Janis, 2014:189).

Namibia has a rich culture such as the Himba culture in the Kunene region. There are cultural and historical attractions also instituted in coastal towns like Swakopmund and in the capital city of Windhoek, adventure activities and an opportunity to explore Germany architecture and monuments showing the effect of colonialism which are presented in those areas (Moseley *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, Namibia is well known as a fishing and hunting destination. The hunting tourism involves guided visits for tourists who hunt trophy-quality game animals and then keep the trophies (Barnes & Novelli, 2007:). Exclusive (mainly plain game species) and public hunting areas, which mainly involve high-value species, are offered in Namibia. Due to increasing anti-hunting ethics, especially from the developed world, trophy hunting is currently under growing threat. This sector holds 14% of the total tourism sector (Himavindu & Barnes, 2003). The country also offers fishing facilities in rivers and seas. This might pose threats to the sustainability of the sector. However, it is quite evident based on the figures above that the country has attractive tourism products which have influenced an upward growth in tourism numbers. The tourism attractions offer an opportunity for rural development.

2.4.5 Namibia's tourism policies and strategies

Namibia initially invested in the tourism industry with the aim of increasing the country's share in the world tourism product. The original vision of the authorities of Namibia was to change the country from an exporter of primary products and natural resources to a service economy. After independence, the Namibian government acknowledged that tourism was a priority sector (Jenkins, 2000:114). The White Paper on Tourism (1994) also highlighted the need to revitalise the sector to create jobs and alleviate poverty. Although policy development and implementation in Namibia is often criticised for being slow, it however developed various legislations and policies such as the National Development Plans – 1, 2, 3, 4 – all with the aim of promoting economic growth, employment

and income creation and promoting rural development (National Planning Commission (NPC), 2002; Republic of Namibia, 1994; 1995a; 1995b; 2004; 2008).

The first National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (NBSAP1) (2001) was launched with the purpose of managing biological resources and the environment. Thus, its key objective was to offer “a national strategic framework for natural resource management activities involving biological resources and the natural environment, including trade and economic incentives” (NBSAP1, 2001). The second NBSAP (2013-2022) focused on utilising the strategy as a driver of poverty alleviation and economic growth. Namibia’s Vision 2030 (2004) predicted that by 2030 poverty will be reduced to a minimum level. Thus, its vision is to improve the quality of life of the people of Namibia and reduce poverty to a minimum. In this regard, strategies such as the National Development Plans, the 1998 Poverty Reduction Strategy and the 2001 National Poverty Reduction Action Plan programmes have been formulated with the target of reducing poverty (Namibia Planning Commission (NPC), 2002; Republic of Namibia, 2004; 2011, 2015; 2016).

The third National Development Plan’s (2008) underlying vision is to reduce poverty and empower vulnerable groups. To realise the NDP 3’s long term national goals, the tourism policy (2008) was formulated. Its aim is to provide a framework for the organisation of tourism resources to realise long-term national targets highlighted in the Vision 2030 such as sustained economic growth, employment creation, reduced inequalities and poverty reduction. It also provides comprehensive sections on environmental sustainability, human resource development, infrastructure and investment, planning and marketing. The policy addresses the issues of black empowerment, gender equality and partnerships with the private sector. The tourism policy of Namibia also recognises the significance of economic growth in its vision. The policy emphasised that it intends to provide a:

“Mature, sustainable and responsible tourism industry contributing significantly to the economic development of Namibia and the quality of life of all her people, primarily through job creation and economic growth” (MET, 2008).

In order to respond to the environmental issues, the Namibian policies and regulations on tourism incorporated the environmental aspects. The tourism policy (2008) highlights that tourism in Namibia should promote environmental and ecological sustainability, and for this to be achieved the policy should collaborate with the Environment Management Act (EMA) of 2007 (MET, 2008). This regulation emphasises the importance of promoting sustainable development whilst the tourism policy underscores that the environment should be protected, and the natural resources should be economically utilised for the benefit of the current and future generations whilst ultimately satisfying

the visitors profitably (MET, 2008:6). The sustainable development concept has influenced the development of alternative tourism such as green tourism and ecotourism, with the objective of reducing environmental impacts and providing benefits to the residents. Namibia's tourism industry is a leader in southern Africa when it comes to environmental sustainability (Blanke *et al.*, 2011 Tourtellot, 2021); it recognises the importance of using natural resources sustainably. Vision 2030 and initiatives such as eco-awards have been developed for tourism establishments.

The tourism policy is in line with the third National Development Plan which recognises tourism as a major contributor to the country's economic growth. The fourth National Development Plan also noted that economic growth should be utilised as a method to attain other goals like poverty alleviation, improved employment and industrialisation (Republic of Namibia, 2016). However, the economic growth of Namibia has not been constant due to the factors such as the global economic crisis. The economic growth of Namibia has been variable, it averaged 3,6% which was below the target of 5% (Republic of Namibia, 2012/13 to 2016/2017). This influenced a negative impact on employment in 2008 where unemployment increased to 51,2% against the NDP 3's unemployment target of 33,3% (Republic of Namibia, 2012/13 to 2016/2017).

The government of Namibia plays a crucial role in drafting these policies and aims to generate an authorising environment for both the tourism industry and foreign investors, whilst NDP 4 targets to increase income equality (NPC, 2012). The contribution of tourism to foreign exchange earnings is highlighted in the tourism investment strategy of Namibia. It is emphasised as valuable to the economy of Namibia.

Namibia's fifth Development Plan's focus is on structural transformation and modernisation; at the same time it must adhere to the four integrated pillars of sustainable development (Republic of Namibia, 2017). These include economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance. Therefore, the plan's goals include reduction of poverty, creating a skilled workforce and ensuring that the current and future generation sustainably appreciate the benefits of Namibia's natural resources.

Tourism is essentially an effective tool utilised to preserve natural resources and local culture (Carbone, 2005). Other tourism policies such as the communal area conservancy legislation (1996) presented rural Namibians with new opportunities and gave communities a chance to use the natural resources. To conserve their wildlife resources, the communal area residents are offered incentives. The communities were presented with an opportunity to manage and sustainably use their wildlife

through live game sales, meat harvesting and trophy hunting (Damm, 2008). Also, the Nature Conservation Amendment Act (1996) allowed the community members to set up conservancies, with the purpose of supporting the government's aim of protecting natural resources and sustainably managing them. It is a community-based initiative and therefore plays an essential role in laying a strong base in the development of community tourism.

The National Tourism Growth and Development Strategy (NTGDS) was developed in 2016. Its aim was to increase the number of tourist arrivals to generate more jobs for Namibians. The strategy focuses on economic transformation and social empowerment which will be achieved by providing tangible and financial support to small- and medium-sized businesses, Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) businesses and their associates and increasing opportunities for rural tourism initiatives (MET, 2016). The National Tourism Investment Profile and Promotion Strategy (NTIPPS) (2016-2026) was also developed to provide a support framework that increases business opportunities for rural enterprises. It also aims to create a favourable environment for investors and to reduce transaction costs to allow the private sector to invest in the tourism industry (MET, 2016). Table 2.2 below shows the government of Namibia's efforts to promote development.

Table 2.2: Government documents on tourism development (Namibia)

Document	Year	Main objectives
White Paper on Tourism	1994	Revitalise tourism sector to create jobs and alleviate poverty. Reduction of inequalities in income.
Namibia Tourism Development Plan	1995	Promote economic growth, reduce unemployment and create income sources. Protect wildlife.
Policy on the Promotion of Community-Based Tourism (CBT)	1995	Use of CBT in providing socio-economic development and correct previous unequal distribution of tourism ownership.
Tourism Act, Consolidated draft	1996	Ensure tourism benefits all sectors of the population. Acknowledgement of conservancies as players in tourism. Community members to run conservancies and have concessionary rights over tourism activities.
Nature Conservation Amendment Act	1996	Conservancies obtain wildlife and tourism rights to protect and manage natural resources.
First National Development	1996	Tourism projected to boost economic growth, reduce

Plan (NDP 1) 1995/6 - 1999/2000		unemployment and promote rural development.
Second National Development Plan (NDP 2) 2001/2 - 2005/2006	2002	Tourism projected to boost economic growth, reduce unemployment and promote rural development. Target set to establish 25 communal conservancies by 2005; target for tourism growth of 6% between 1999 and 2006.
Namibia Vision 2030	2004	Role of tourism in economic development, poverty alleviation and employment creation anticipated to increase.
A national tourism policy for Namibia. First draft	2005	Policy that clarifies the role of tourism in addressing objectives for NDP 2.
Third National Development Plan (NDP 3) 2007/8 - 2011/12	2008	Tourism projected to boost economic growth, reduce unemployment and promote rural development.
A National Tourism Policy for Namibia.	2008	The aim is to provide a framework for the mobilisation of tourism resources to realise long-term national goals of NDP 3.
Fourth National Development Plan (NDP 4) 2012/13 -2016/2017	2012	To create a conducive environment that helps to improve education and the health-delivery system. Tourism was identified as one of the four strategic areas.
The National Tourism Investment Profile and Promotion Strategy (NTIPPS) (2016-2026)	2016	To provide a support framework that increases business opportunities for rural enterprises. It also aims to create a favourable environment for investors in the industry.
Fifth National Development Plan (NDP5) 2017/2018- 2021/2022	2017	Reduction of poverty, creating a skilled workforce and ensuring that the current and future generation sustainably appreciate the benefits of Namibia's natural resources.

Adapted from: Nyakunu and Rogerson (2014)

Based on the above, it is apparent that the Republic of Namibia designed various policies and strategies. In 1994, the government of Namibia indicated in their White Paper that poverty alleviation was one of its priorities and the Vision 2030 (2004) echoed the same sentiments. Whilst the current NDP 5 aims to reduce poverty, it has been criticised for failing to provide a monitoring and evaluation plan (Aghajanian *et al.*, 2020). The strategies have also been criticised for failing to tackle the issues

of poverty and inequalities. Nyakunu and Rogerson (2014) state that policy development in Namibia revealed a discrepancy between the aims of increasing the participation of Namibians, especially from under-privileged groups and improving tourism competitiveness through welcoming foreign investors into the Namibian tourism industry. Thirty years after the country's independence, it clearly shows that poverty in Namibia is an ongoing issue. Rural development has also been on the government's agenda since 1996 and rural tourism development has been utilised as vehicle for economic growth and poverty alleviation. It is therefore essential to explore the rural tourism concept as this provides a promising solution for poverty alleviation, which is the focus of this research study.

2.5 THE CONCEPT OF RURAL TOURISM

The interest of utilising tourism as a tool for regional economic development has grown dramatically over the past decades (Kim *et al.*, 2013). Therefore, rural tourism has been viewed as one of the most viable development strategies for rural communities (Marzuki *et al.*, 2010). In general, governments view tourism as an avenue for rural revitalisation (Whelan, 1991:9). Lane (1994) proposed that rural tourism can only be defined at a local level and differs from nation to nation; it can also be identified by its location, characteristics and economy. However, it must consist of transport, marketing and information systems which are situated outside the cities (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997; Gherasim & Gherasim, 2017).

Holland *et al.* (2003) insist that rural areas are heterogeneous and can only be defined by seeing them. They also quoted Ashley and Maxwell's (2001) notion who listed the following collective topographies of rural areas:

- They are places where its occupants inhabit in the insignificant areas of the land and the infrastructure is usually deprived.
- They are largely subjugated by fields and pastures, water and desert; the residents also spend most of their time working on farms.
- The land is relatively cheap and plentiful.
- They are linked with long distances and with the geographical environments that proliferate political transaction costs.

Although varied features of what constitute a rural area have been critically analysed it is complex to provide a concise definition of rural tourism. Gopal *et al.* (2008) argued that it is difficult to find features which are common to all the countries. Rural areas have been viewed as places which are lowly populated (Situmorang *et al.*, 2019). This is of much prevalence in developing countries such as

Namibia which experienced a 27% increase in urban population for the last fifty years (Population and Housing Census, 2011). Darău *et al.* (2010) concurs with Gopal *et al.* (2008) and add that rural tourism has different meanings, for example in Slovenia rural tourism is also farm tourism where tourists live with the farmers and experience their daily farm routine, whilst in Greece rural tourism means accommodation in traditionally furnished rooms. Therefore, rural tourism can be viewed as a product to be utilised for promoting a destination (Amir *et al.*, 2015:116-122).

In developing countries, rural tourism has been pursued largely for the betterment of livelihoods of rural people. Nagaraju and Chandrashekara (2014) define rural tourism as any type of tourism that presents the rural life, art, culture and heritage at rural locations with the purpose of supporting the local community economically and socially. Rural tourism comprises of various activities such as agritourism, cultural and heritage tourism and ecotourism (Lane cited in Jamal & Dredge, 2015:190). Viljoen and Tlabela (2007) agree that rural tourism is complex and add that rural tourism is implemented for varied reasons. It incorporates more forms of rural tourism such as ethnic, culinary and creative tourism, making it even more difficult to reach a consensus in defining rural tourism. Blapp and Mitas (2018) indicate that rural tourism provides space for people in search of quiet, natural beauty, and uniqueness.

2.5.1 Forms of rural tourism

Rural tourism also comprises of various types of tourism; examples include, cultural heritage tourism, adventure tourism, ecotourism, and farm tourism (Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007; Petroman & Cornelia, 2010). Oppermann (1996) conceptualises that rural tourism consists of farm tourism, non-farm tourism and communities only. Frochot (2005:335) argues that rural tourism should not be restricted to farm tourism but should include all the characteristics of tourism where its physical, social and historical dimensions should permit it to improve. The rural tourism products can be outlined as goods and services offered to visitors in rural areas which can include cultural, heritage and agri-tourism (Cabrini, 2005 cited in Mutana, 2013:147). Thus, the participation of the local community is also of utmost importance in rural tourism. The community involvement plays an essential role in supporting rural tourism development (Nicholas *et al.*, 2009). The extent of community involvement in rural tourism for Namibia will be incorporated into this research. The forms of rural tourism will be analysed with regards to relevant literature and the Namibian tourism industry.

2.5.1.1 Agri-tourism

Agri-tourism started trending in the early twentieth century, and since then numerous definitions of agri-tourism have been offered (Wicks & Merrett, 2003). Kiper (2011:171) explains agri-tourism as any farm-based business open to the public for the purpose of leisure, education and promoting the

products of the farm in order to generate additional income. It is also called farm tourism, thus the farming business should be the main source of income (Karabati *et al.*, 2009). Agri-tourism also comprises of other activities and attractions such as festivals, museums and other cultural events (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997).

The agri-tourism concept has also created a lot of misunderstandings by different academics in terms of describing the activities it should comprise of. Questions such as where the activities should be held and the validity of the farm or the involvement of the tourist create misunderstandings (Arroyo *et al.*, 2013, Bwana *et al.*, 2015). It should consist of products which are directly linked with the agricultural environment, agricultural products and agricultural stays (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997). The tourists should experience the farmers' lifestyle by spending a night in the farmers' houses and actively get involved in the everyday farm duties to enjoy a genuine tourist experience (Darău *et al.*, 2010). Hence, the farmers must accept that their lives will be open to the public. This type of tourism may include a day visit to the farm for educational purposes such as dairy farms where the tourists may participate in a wide range of activities (Irshad, 2010; Petroman *et al.*, 2016:83),

The farmers may also provide an exclusive tour of the farm to allow the tourists to experience the whole processing procedure. Agri-tourism is normally considered an economic alternation for farmers who are facing decreasing profits and thus seeking a second economic footing (Oppermann, 1994). Nonetheless, Darău *et al.* (2010) conclude that agri-tourism is vital for economic development of the complete rural site. Shackley (1993) highlights that guest farm tourism in Namibia is extensive and allow guests to drive along tracks using their own vehicles or the farm's vehicles. Others offer guided tours, and some may encourage the tourists to relax at the farm so that they can enjoy the scenery, game and the local food. Several freehold farmers in Namibia rely on non-farming revenues such as tourism, trophy hunting and game meat sales and the tourism income often complement or exceed those from farming (Mendelsohn, 2006). Agri-tourism therefore offers rural communities with employment opportunities due to the increased revenue, however, it is important to ensure that the local community realise the benefits. Some practices of agri-tourism are evident in Namibia, but this is not true in all cases.

2.5.1.2 Ecotourism

Ecotourism and sustainable tourism are interrelated, and it is sometimes regarded as rural tourism (Honey, 1999). It can also be termed green tourism or nature-based tourism which is basically a form of special interest. Like rural tourism, a definition for ecotourism has been debated. Therefore, this lack of a consensus and a conceptual framework for ecotourism has resulted in stakeholders

redefining the notion to suit their own requirements (Cater, 1993). Originally, Ceballos-Lascurain (1988) defined ecotourism as tourism that involves:

“travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated areas solely for the purpose of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery, as well as any existing cultural manifestations found in these areas” (Boo, 1990).

Fennell (2007) states that ecotourism should comprise of fundamentals such as reducing impacts, increasing awareness and the inclusion of the local community in decision making. Other researchers have however argued that ecotourism should benefit poor local communities and conserve the natural environment (Shackley, 1993). It should also provide tourists with a positive educative experience (Sharpley & Sharpley, 1997) and ultimately it should be economically viable (Wall, 1997:483). Yaman and Mohd (2004) conclude that the main players of ecotourism are usually external organisations, therefore the benefits to the community itself are insignificant.

The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) (1990) defines ecotourism as *“responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people”*. TIES (2015) added the aspect of interpretation and education. Blamey (cited in Weaver & Lawton, 2007) highlights that ecotourism should consist of the following key characteristics:

- The destination attractions should be typically nature-based.
- The visitors' attractions should be focused on learning or education about the local community, culture and natural environment.
- The experiences should adhere to the principles and practices typically centred around economic, ecological, socio-cultural sustainability.

Despite the lack of a conclusive definition, it is apparent that ecotourism present developing countries with the opportunity to rural community development. It is however essential for the tourism to be developed and managed in a sustainable way for it to reflect a positive impact on the living conditions of the local people (Mensah & Amuquandoh, 2010). Turpie *et al.* (2010) state that most tourists visit Namibia to explore the nature-based tourism activities, (nature and landscape touring and game viewing). The tourism sector relies on this market and 70% of overall tourism expenditure is accredited to nature-based tourism. A research study by Chiutsi *et al.* (2011) conclude that ecotourism to southern Africa has been acknowledged as a promising strategy for supporting sustainable development. Therefore, ecotourism can be utilised as approach that can promote rural development, particularly in the northern region of Namibia where poverty rates are high. It can also

motivate the local communities to participate in tourism interventions that encourage preservation of natural resources.

2.5.1.3 Cultural heritage tourism

Defining cultural heritage has been outlined in various ways and several academics have distinctly adopted definitions of both culture and heritage tourism to analyse the notion (Ivanovic, 2011; Mckercher *et al.* 2005; Timothy, 2011). Heritage has a strong link with the theory of inheritance; therefore, heritage is outlined as that which has been inherited or benefits passed on from earlier generations, it comprises group heritage and heritage which may not have a physical form (Howard, 2003:6). It also has a distinct relationship with legacy (Prentice,1993:5). Heritage is quite an extensive notion which includes tangible assets (natural and cultural environments, landscapes) and intangible assets, such as past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge and living experiences (ICOMOS, 1999). Poria *et al.* (2003:235) concur and postulate that heritage tourism is “a subcategory of tourism, in which the main motivation for visiting a site is based on the place’s heritage features according to the tourists’ views of their own heritage”.

Like heritage, culture is more complex since it is diverse, and its characteristics make it problematic to relate to tourism (Van Zyl, 2005:4). It can be viewed as a tourism product which is consumed by people (Tomlinson, 1991). Likewise, cultures in different regions are indistinguishable when it comes to tourism development (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013). Culture can be defined in three ways; firstly, it is about history and heritage, secondly, creative expressions such as work of art and ultimately about people’s way of living, their customs and their habits (Smith, 2009:1). Consequently, Timothy (2011:4) suggests that cultural heritage implicates people visiting heritage destinations as well as participating in cultural displays.

Graham and Howard (2008) also point out that heritage tourism offers destination visitors the chance to feel, experience and understand the unique customs of a particular community’s heritage and at the same time enjoying and exploring the history of those people or country. Thus, culture and heritage can also be interchangeably utilised. Cultural heritage tourism is much more generally described than it is defined, resulting in much more theoretical debate (Ivanovic, 2011:80). For the purpose of this research the term “cultural and heritage tourism” will be utilised interchangeably; the cultural heritage concepts will not be analysed as the research only aims to analyse the impacts of rural tourism development. It will therefore use cultural heritage as a basis to analyse its potential and how it contributes to tourism development and poverty alleviation.

Based on cultural motivation and consumption, cultural tourism is the most popular form of tourism in the world (Ivanovic & Saayman, 2013; Richards, 2018; UNWTO, 2018b), and one of the largest and fastest-growing global tourism markets which is destinations are utilising to develop their competitiveness (Richardts, 2009). The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) also acknowledged that cultural heritage tourism is increasing in popularity and highlighted that 40% of international arrivals is accrued to this sector (Ramnani, 2012:3). Cultural heritage tourism offers the host community with numerous direct and indirect benefits. The benefits have been summarised below:

- It assists the community to preserve the cultural heritage and enable peace and harmony amid societies (Naidu-Silverman, 2015).
- It brings foreign currency into the country and increase income for the local people (Huh & Vogt, 2008).
- It improves the quality of life related with the development of heritage sites.
- It provides an enhanced source of community pride and encourages revival of traditions (Hashimoto, 2002; Godfrey & Clarke, 2000:26; Inkson & Minnaert, 2012).

Despite the opportunity cultural heritage tourism offers, it still faces numerous challenges such as the lack of local ownership, local labour issues associated with many African countries and availability of cheap imports (Spenceley, 2010). Local culture has a link with community-based tourism, particularly with regards to attraction and tourism impact. Henceforth local culture should be valued, and communities should look for ways to improve local culture and heritage (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). In Namibia, cultural heritage tourism is still regarded as underdeveloped (Moseley *et al.*, 2007) and the founder president (Sam Nujoma) pointed out that cultural tourism should be promoted in rural areas through displaying of the communities' values, festivals and rituals (Shigwedha, 2017).

Rural tourism has the potential to alleviate poverty and has thus created a lot of interest from different researchers and organisations. The fact that many poor people (75%) live in rural areas (Castañeda *et al.*, 2018) makes it imperative to utilise rural tourism as a vehicle for rural regeneration. Jaafar *et al.* (2015) highlight that tourism in the rural areas has been overlooked by rural economists. Kavita and Saarinen (2016:79) indicate that governments and regions are acknowledging the importance of tourism in rural areas due to its contribution to socio-economic development and employment creation. Although it is apparent that rural tourism offers significant benefits to local communities, rural tourism has not yet attained much attention in comparison to other types of tourism. Tourism is often viewed as an industry that present positive effects to a destination, particularly economic benefits. It is, however, not immune to negative effects. This makes it imperative to explore literature on the impacts of rural tourism development in the subsequent section.

2.6 IMPACTS OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The tourism industry is rapidly growing, and it has been developing faster than the global economy (Perrottet & Benli, 2016). It is vital for the tourism development strategies to be in line with the culture, social and economic interests of the government and people of the host country or community, and at the same time ensuring that the visitors are satisfied (Faghri, 2007). The residents' view of tourism development is essential in assessing the destination's current situation (Hall, 2008). To gain the residents' support, it is vital to have a clear understanding of their attitude towards tourism development and how tourism impacts on their quality of life. If the community have a better quality of life, they will most likely support further tourism development. Similarly, tourism is a diverse sector and therefore the impacts emanating from it often affect the areas outside those that are generally linked with tourism. These include transport and communication, infrastructure, immigration and customs, cultural services, education, public security and accommodation providers and their suppliers (Muhanna, 2007:42).

Many academics analysed tourism impacts¹ on the destination in terms of economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts (Deery *et al.*, 2012) with each tourism impact highlighting positive and negative effects. However, positive economic impacts are more easily identifiable than any other effects. Weaver and Lawton (2006) state that tourism impacts should be divided into three types: economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts. Instead of analysing the tourism impacts only from an economic perspective, it is essential for destinations to critically review all aspects of tourism impacts. Therefore, the positive and negative impacts¹ of tourism are discussed to provide a broad understanding of the effects of tourism.

2.6.1 The economic impacts of rural tourism development

The impact on the economy is greater when tourists spend more in the local community. However, Weaver and Lawton (2006) emphasise that the overall number of tourists visiting the region, their length of stay, how much they spend in the region and the circulation of expenditure throughout the economy must be analysed when deciding the economic impact of tourism. Muhanna (2007:42) states that tourism development is customarily pursued for its significant impact on employment, economic growth (in GDP) and foreign exchange earnings. Cooper *et al.* (2008:129) also state that

¹ In this study, impacts refer to the effects brought about by tourism policies, tourism-related infrastructure and tourism behaviour (Mason, 2008).

“foreign exchange earnings, income and employment generation are the major motivations for including tourism as part of a development strategy”.

Tourism is envisaged to provide economic benefits to a community through the development of employment and training of the poor (Scheyvens, 2011). The fact that the tourism sector is a high labour-intensive industry, it is inclined to generate a high percentage of employment especially to the poor (UNCTAD, 2013:12). The local community will however indirectly benefit from tourism if employees spend their wages locally (Spenceley *et al.*, 2009). MET (2008:4) highlights that tourism in Namibia is anticipated to have a wide multiplier effect, provide jobs and income outside the areas directly benefitting from tourism. Youell (1998) defines the multiplier effect as an economic concept which indicates that the money spend by visitors to an area has been re-spent in the local economy. Cooper *et al.* (2008:129) indicate that the multiplier effect is when industrial sectors of an economy are interdependent, for example sales from one organisation require purchases from other organisations within the local economy. The tourism industry is also linked with economic sectors such as agriculture, accommodation, restaurants and transport (Torres & Momsen, 2011). Therefore, the tourism industry should increase demand for these sectors, and this will influence employment and circulation of currency at a local level.

Enhancing economic linkages influence a demand for local products and creation and development of employment and new opportunities for local businesses (Richardson, 2010). Hence, any changes in the way tourists spend at local economy will influence a change in the economy’s level of production, foreign exchange flows, income and employment (Blake *et al.*, 2008; Spenceley & Meyer, 2012). This is the strategy employed by the tourism industry in Namibia, where the rural areas should benefit from tourism through multiplier effect.

The local community can significantly benefit from employment in the tourism industry. This can be achieved through community-based initiatives such as the Administrative Management Decision (ADMAD) in Zambia (Musavengane & Simatele, 2016) and the Communal Area Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) in Zimbabwe (Mutana *et al.*, 2013:155). Similarly, the National Development Plans in Namibia have promoted community-based tourism as a tool to be utilised in poverty alleviation. The National Community-Based Natural Resource Management programme (CBNRM) is a conservation and a rural development initiative where the local community are given the opportunity to manage the communal natural resources (NTB, 2020). It ultimately provides the community with income through employment of the residents. Hence, this initiative’s main objective is to ensure that members of the local communities have control over tourism activities so that they obtain a significant share of the benefits. However, these benefits may

not be accepted by the local community due to the differences in the residents' attitudes towards tourism development.

Other positive economic impacts include the improvement of living standards of the residents through the provision of new infrastructure such as road networks, airports and other amenities which benefit both the tourists and the local community (Mitchell, 2012). The improvement of infrastructure, education and health care systems to make way for tourism will indirectly have a significant impact on the livelihoods of the local community (Chen & Chiou-Wei, 2009; Croes & Venegas, 2008:94; Sofield *et al.*, 2004; UNWTO, 2002). Therefore, this research study explores whether the development of infrastructure has an influence on tourism and poverty alleviation.

Although the tourism industry offers economic benefits, it is characterised as being highly seasonal, hence this has an influence on unemployment and capacity utilisation of the tourist infrastructure. Variations in weather patterns and holiday seasons from the tourists' countries may offer job opportunities for the local community, however, during off-peak periods the employees are faced with a lack of employment and a lack or low income. Griffin and DeLacey (2002) suggest that organisations should have clearly defined policies that address issues of seasonality, for instance offering discounted rates during off-peak periods, scheduling events during off-peak periods and ensuring that seasonal employees are offered work with the same employers each season.

In the case of Namibian tourism, January is the quietest month, whilst the highest number of tourist arrivals are recorded in December from the African tourists (10,6%) and 9,6 % in August from the European source market (MET, 2015). Thus, tourism in Namibia encounters a decline in the overseas and African markets for six to seven months per annum. To ensure that the tourism industry in Namibia receives increased revenue and creates permanent jobs, Nhongo (2018) recommends that the sector should promote domestic tourism. Moseley *et al.* (2007) add that the cost of travel for domestic tourists, accommodation prices and discrimination from the service providers have impacted domestic tourism. Janis (2011) highlights that the issue of political bureaucracy impacts on the potential of domestic tourism in Namibia.

In line with seasonality, it is therefore essential for the success of an economy not to over-depend on a single economic sector. The way tourists spend their income at a tourist destination is unpredictable, therefore relying on tourism alone is risky as it can lead to major economic crises. Many developing countries utilise tourism as the principal sector of economic development. This is a case in point with the tourism industry of Namibia; it heavily relies on the European market (Germany

and United Kingdom). Another aspect that may impact on the tourism of Namibia is the over-dependence on foreign aid; the community-based tourism relies on donor funding. Anderson (2015) researched on the leakages in the tourism systems in Zanzibar and found that tourism development in Zanzibar has influenced an economy that is dependent on global capital and non-local labour at the cost of the empowerment of the local people.

Honey *et al.* (2010) also emphasise that tourism contributes less to the local community due to leakages. The concept of leakages has been thoroughly explored by different researchers providing varied definitions (Janis, 2011; Mbaiwa, 2005:158; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Scheyvens, 2011; Wall & Mathieson, 2006:). Leakages transpire when a significant amount of the tourist spending outflows to foreign countries; this is mainly because the industry imports goods and services and develop infrastructure to meet international standards (Pearce & Butler, 1999). Hence, leakages can be viewed from a different angle (import and export leakages). Export leakages in tourism occur when profits revert back to foreign investors (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2006). Basically, only a few individuals benefit from the tourist spending because a high amount of the spending leaks back to major corporations in developed countries (Saayman, 2007 in Saayman *et al.*, 2012:463). Anderson (2015) also identifies three types of leakages which are also evident in the Namibian tourism industry:

- Internal leakages: the tourists pay at the destination; however, part of the payment will be utilised to purchase products to be used at the tourist destination.
- External leakages: intermediaries are involved in the packaging of the product, resulting in the discrepancies between amounts paid for at the tourist destination and received in host countries.
- Invisible leakages: can be difficult to assess; these can arise from the financial sector, for instance tax evasion and from the non-sustainability of environmental, cultural and historic aspects, for example damage of resources like forests leading to the devaluation of a destination's value as an attraction and to the deterioration of the quality of life for local people.

UNCTAD (2010) indicates that 50-60% of the tourism revenue does not leave the host country and poor people from the destination country insignificantly benefit from the tourism expenditure. Pleumarom (2012) argues that developing countries do not have reliable data on leakages. Leakages are of major concern in Namibia, although it is common in southern Africa (Janis, 2014:189). Due to colonialism, the tourism industry in Namibia is dominated by Germans and South Africans; they own most of the hotel chains, guest farms, tour operators and travel agencies (Lapeyre, 2009:653). If tourists in Namibia (European and African) use foreign airlines and the multinational hotel chains, the

economic benefits of tourism will be considerably reduced. Mbaiwa's research (2005:158) concludes that Botswana does not benefit much from tourism revenue because most of the revenue leaks out to the foreign investors.

The industry also buys most of the tourism products from South Africa (Janis, 2011). Chirenje *et al.* (2013:9) studied the impact of tourism leakages on local economies in Zimbabwe and conclude that leakages are acceptable if the revenue to the local economy is higher than the loss from all types of leakages. They also emphasise that the leakages can be minimised through the establishment of strong and sustainable linkages. Reinforcing inter-sectoral linkages has proved to be difficult in developing countries (UNCTAD, 2010). In general, governments of developing countries which have substantial tourism potential should emphasise on maximising multiplier effects and reducing leakages (Scheyvens, 2011:153). Although it is quite apparent that tourism provides local communities with employment opportunities, it has been criticised for influencing a high cost of living in regions where there are high numbers of tourists in comparison to other regions. Rural tourism development may influence the well-being of the communities. Therefore, the socio-cultural impacts of rural tourism ought to be considered.

2.6.2 Socio-cultural impacts of rural tourism development

Cooper *et al.* (2008:129) state that socio-cultural impacts have a combined effect because it is difficult to differentiate sociological and cultural effects. Social impacts are the alterations in the norms and values of society that are more seeming in the short-term, whilst cultural impacts can be viewed as longer-term modifications in rituals and community structures (Keyser, 2002). Due to the local community's varied perspectives, the social and cultural impacts can be viewed as positive, whilst others can be regarded as negative.

The conservation of cultural heritage can be achieved through the preservation and restoration of heritage sites to keep the visitors satisfied. The infrastructure will also be upgraded for the benefit of both tourists and the local community. By assisting in the maintenance of a clean and attractive environment, tourism has the potential to encourage a sense of community pride in residents (Youell, 1998). Furthermore, in Namibia (Kunene region) the government acknowledged the importance of tourism before independence and awarded tourism concessions to tour operators (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007:445). Due to this, tourism in the Kunene region has not only increased, but the infrastructure has been upgraded to a high standard which attract local, regional and international tourists. This has also improved the quality of life of the local community. The preservation and

maintenance of cultural traditions can promote a profound sense of ownership concerning the tourism product (Simpson, 2008).

Tourism also has the potential to encourage the local community and the tourists to socialise with each other through the local community showcasing their culture via traditional music and dance. Hence, the tourists can learn the local people's customs and traditions, thereby, breaking down cultural barriers. The local community can also communicate with the tourists by educating the tourists on how to make some of the traditional items (Mason, 2008). The appreciation of the local cultures and traditions by tourists brings a sense of pride to indigenous people in their culture, thus protecting cultural identity of even smaller cultural groups in a society (Inskeep, 1991). This type of tourism has particularly been highly promoted in the northern region of Namibia, showcasing the Ovahimba culture (Niskala, 2015). This provides both the tourists and the local community with an opportunity to communicate with different languages and cultural groups (Honey *et al.*, 2010; Simpson, 2008). The communication skills of the local community and tourists are improved by using official languages (Mason, 2008).

It is fundamentally important for tourism to be effectively planned, developed and managed for it to present the local community with positive impacts (Frent, 2016). Otherwise, the growth of tourism has been envisaged to cause an adverse impact on the local community's way of living (Kabote, 2015). It may bring negative alterations on their beliefs and values (Hall & Lew, 2009:154). The influx of tourists to popular destinations can cause an immense amount of pressure on the community's amenities; the overcrowding can cause the local residents to refrain from supporting tourism activities in their area. The rights of the residents may be denied by making way for tourism, for example they may be refused access to local beaches to facilitate tourism, thus causing frustrations to the local community (Inskeep, 1991). This is a case in point at one of the most popular destinations in Namibia (Swakopmund) where the local residents experience disruptions from tourists through noises from quad bikes, overcrowding at the beaches and lack of parking spaces (Hartman, 2015).

Tourists have the potential to influence the behaviour of the host population. According to Telfer and Sharpley (2008) the local residents may try to vie with the behaviours and consumption habits of the tourists who visits them. However, the tourists do not necessarily have to be in contact with the local people for the demonstration effect to occur, the members of the community influenced by the tourists' behaviours will probably influence other community members through their altered attitudes (Cooper *et al.*, 1998). The way tourists dress may also impact on the way the local people dress, especially young people. However, Mathieson and Wall (1982) state that the way tourists usually behave when they are on holiday is different from the way they would normally behave when they

are not on vacation, therefore the local people will have fallacies about the tourists. The tourists, especially from developed countries, will usually portray an affluent lifestyle when they are on vacation and the local people would aspire to have such a way of living; failure to meet such standards will lead to frustrations from the local people (Burns & Holden, 1995). This can also have an influence on migration, where people would migrate from rural areas to urban areas aspiring to attain the modern way of living, leading to changes in the internal structure of host community (Hall & Lew, 2009). Nevertheless, the demonstration effect can bring positive effects to the host community if they are inspired to get better education and improve their standards of living.

The increase in tourism has been associated with an increase in criminal activities at a destination. Tourism has influenced a demand in prostitution in southern Africa and other key tourist destinations in the world (Mbaiwa & Darkoh, 2009:211). Destinations such as Cuba and Thailand are some of the destinations which are popularly known for attracting prostitutes and sex tourism, hence, this has influenced the spread of sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). The increase of HIV/AIDS and poverty in Namibia has influenced an increase on the number of children begging for food in the streets and prostitution (Anon, 2005). In Botswana (Okavango Delta) prostitution increased due to the increase in the number of tourists in the area (Mbaiwa, 2005:158); this seems to be the same scenario in the coastal areas of Namibia where the prostitutes target foreigners (Hartman, 2008). Although there is insufficient evidence available, sex tourism in Namibia has been on the increase with Windhoek being labelled as the popular location, followed by Swakopmund and Walvis Bay (coastal areas) (Smit, 2016). Prostitution in Namibia is illegal and attempts to legalise it have been futile. Crime has also been on the rise in Namibia, particularly at the tourists' attraction areas (Nakale, 2017).

Culture has been condensed to a mere product for resale because most of the cultural presentations are acted (Ivanovic *et al.*, 2009). Cooper *et al.* (2008:129) highlight that a demand for tourism products that offer cultural authenticity is on the rise. Although destinations are equipped with this knowledge, they still choose to provide staged authenticity or to modify the products to suit the tourists' demands (George, 2008). The aim of the destination is to try and persuade the tourists that their cultural performances are authentic whilst making certain that the tourists do not see behind the stage curtains (Cooper *et al.*, 2008:129). This may present the host community with challenges in trying to sustain the veracity of their culture. Robinson (1999) defines commodification as a method of imaging and changing local people's ways of life and traditions into saleable products. This can lead to the exploitation of crafts and ceremonies to appeal to tourists. Hence, if the host community's focus is on the monetary value of the activities. There is danger of disregarding the importance of the

products over time (Mason, 2008). Crafts and tourism artefacts are made in different parts of the country and they are popular in touristic areas.

In Namibia, socio-economic challenges have forced many artists to migrate to cities like Windhoek to commercialise their skills and selling handmade art products. Some of the artists make and sell the crafts whilst they are dressed in their traditional attire; this gives them a platform for cultural exchange and interaction with tourists as well as an opportunity to preserve their culture (Xinhua, 2018). Janis (2012:305) highlights the notion of commodifying natural resources for tourism purposes, where images of tourist products and sceneries are judiciously designed to suit the customer needs. Hence, instead of the tourists enjoying the physical surrounding societies and landscapes, they would often experience pictures and products that are cautiously custom made for them. Frent (2016) also highlights negative socio-cultural impacts such as high rentals and imbalances on the number of holiday-home owners, tourists and the local residents which may cause conflicts. The development of tourism will have both positive and negative impacts on the destination; therefore, it is essential to ensure that the positive socio-cultural impacts are encouraged, and the negatives impacts are reduced. To promote sustainable tourism, it is imperative to consider the environmental impacts as they have the potential to influence the success or failure of tourism development.

2.6.3 Environmental impacts of rural tourism development

It is quite apparent that tourism has extensive economic benefits, yet its development presents a destination with environmental issues. The more tourists travel, the more they are likely to cause environmental changes to the natural resources, of which some are negative. The tourists are also becoming increasingly aware about their environmental surroundings and the methods which are being used to prevent further damage. Tourism heavily relies on the natural environment such as the nice weather, the quality of the ecosystem and clean air and water (Gossling, 2002).

Due to the dry weather conditions of Namibia, water is very scarce, and the poorest families still rely on wood fuel. It is therefore imperative for the tourism industry to consider its environmental impacts. Although the negative tourism impacts have been over-emphasised, it presents a destination with positive impacts such as the ones highlighted below by Mason (2003:55):

- stimulating measures that protects the environment, wildlife and landscape.
- assists in the promotion of the establishment of national parks and wildlife resources.
- promotes the preservation of buildings, for example world heritage sites.

- generating income through entrance charges for the maintenance of heritage sites, historic buildings and wildlife habitats.

Kosic *et al.* (2017) conducted a research in Serbia on the inhabitants' attitudes towards the social, economic and environmental impacts and found that environmental impacts are barely viewed as negative. Rather, tourism activities are regarded as a way to encourage the preservation of natural resources, landscapes and the environment. Since gaining its independence in 1990, Namibia has been promoting conservancies. In 1998 only four conservancies were registered, and in 2002, 29 conservancies had been registered (MET, 2002). MET (2004) recorded that rural community members directly received N\$26,1 million in financial benefits from conservancies. Currently, more than seventy conservancies have been registered with the purpose of establishing practical structures and systems of distributing benefits to rural communities and to increase the number of varied wildlife (NTB, 2020). In this regard, tourism in Namibia has been utilised as a tool that stimulates environmental conservation and improvement.

The Tourism Policy (2008) highlights the significance of environmental sustainability via environmental regulation and wildlife conservation. The policy was developed around the sustainable development notion highlighting three principles:

- economic growth through foreign exchange,
- increasing local participation and equity, and
- nature conservation and environmental sustainability.

The Tourism Policy (2008) and the Environmental Management Act of Namibia emphasise that the development of tourism plans should be based on the carrying capacity of the area. This is when a maximum number of people can use a site without causing any adverse impacts on the resources, plummeting visitor satisfaction or exerting negative effects on the society, economy or culture of the area (McIntyre, 1993). The policy was criticised for failing to take into consideration the development of tourism and for not providing regulations for the private enterprises to take environmental considerations into account (Janis, 2011). Furthermore, the policy makers have been criticised for being over-ambitious and setting unrealistic targets resulting in some of the objectives not being achieved, and some high-ranking decision makers do not fully appreciate the value of biodiversity (Campbell *et al.*, 2010). Loss of biodiversity has a negative effect on the environment for example freshwater species in Namibia have decreased due to over-fishing, inadequate fishing methods and poor catchment area management (Dahlberg & Wingquist, 2008).

Tourism can cause a great damage to the environment through pollution and littering (Frauman & Banks, 2011). There are different types of pollution which can destroy natural habitats and destroy natural resources. These include water, air, noise and solid pollution. Littering is a major concern in the cities of Namibia, as it impacts on the quality of life of the residents and health of the ecosystem. Abandoned mines have also been a critical issue, where debris has been left lying around and mining structures not demolished after closure (Nashuuta, 2018). Although the issue of air pollution in Namibia has been considered of a lesser impact, some tourist attractions have been analysed for exceeding their carrying capacity.

A high number of vehicles and tourists have been congesting the roads, causing a deterioration of the roads and tourist attraction sites, Examples include Sossusvlei, dolphin watching sites and fishing tourism sites in Walvis Bay and the Caprivi Strip (Republic of Namibia, 2012). However, Lea (1998) states that measuring the impact of tourism on the environment is complex as some of the impacts can be attributed to other tourist characteristics such as their socio-economic factors.

It is therefore important for the tourism industry to effectively and frequently manage the number of tourists in an area as well as the characteristics of the destination to reduce the negative environmental impacts. This section explored varied impacts of tourism and highlighted the importance of maximising the positive effects and ensuring that the negative impacts are reduced. Rural areas are likely to be more prone to these effects. This section also indicated that tourism development provides employment opportunities, promotes infrastructure development, particularly in rural areas, to enhance the quality of rural life.

2.7 CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this chapter was to establish the development of the global tourism industry and determine the position of the tourism sector in Africa and Namibia. To clearly analyse the sector's contribution towards tourism development, this chapter started by scrutinising the development of global tourism and its contribution to the economies of developing countries, especially towards employment opportunities and Gross Domestic Product. Hence, from this section it is quite evident that the tourism industry presents development prospects and has the potential to revitalise communities and alleviate poverty.

This chapter gave a brief review of the history and geography of the country. Namibia is epitomised by its dry weather; therefore, this has an influence on the type of tourism offered by the destination.

Tourism in Namibia is focused on the dry geography, wildlife and wilderness experiences. The historical background of the country plays a significant role in the development of the tourism industry. Positively, after independence the country inherited sound infrastructure, mineral wealth and game reserves. Nevertheless, the gap between the rich white minority and the poor black majority is wide and is considered to be one of the most unequal countries in the world. It is also documented as a safe country and this offers the destination opportunities for tourism development.

As soon as the country gained its independence, the government embarked on a mission to reduce poverty in Namibia. Policies and strategies to create employment and reduce poverty were formulated. The policy formulation was criticised for being slow and issues of bureaucracy had an impact on its growth. Policies and strategies such as National Development Plans, Communal Area Conservancy Legislation (1996) and The National Tourism Growth and Development Strategy provided the local community with employment opportunities and allowed the government to formulate strategies targeted at increasing tourism numbers, poverty alleviation and increasing opportunities in rural areas.

Prior to analysing the concept of rural tourism in Namibia, it is vital to analyse the impacts of tourism (positive and negative). These were analysed from an economic, socio-cultural and environmental perspective. It is quite evident that the development of tourism in Namibia positively contributes to the economy through foreign exchange earnings and employment. Conversely, seasonality and leakages have a significant negative impact on the economy of the country. Namibia has robust environmental programmes which include the National Tourism Policy (2008) which recognises the importance of protecting the environment and the National Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan aimed at reducing poverty through wildlife conservation.

Rural tourism development in Namibia has been utilised as strategic tool for poverty alleviation. Thus, different forms of rural tourism development strategies in Namibia were analysed with the purpose of exploring their impact on poverty alleviation. Agri-tourism, ecotourism and nature-based tourism are closely linked, and the enterprises will be incorporated into this research. Cultural heritage tourism is still underdeveloped. The subsequent chapter aims to present an in-depth analysis of the poverty and tourism nexus. Thus, it provides a review of the pertinent literature on poverty alleviation in developed and developing countries. It also explores the contribution of tourism on poverty alleviation. Ultimately, an analysis of the various models employed by different researchers in establishing the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation is provided.

Chapter 3 discusses the poverty concept, explores the causes of poverty in Namibia and critically analyses the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation in the studied regions. Frameworks such as PPT, SLA and ST-EP are analysed in depth.

CHAPTER 3:

DETERMINING THE IMPACT OF TOURISM ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has the potential to significantly alleviate poverty in rural areas and most developing countries rely on tourism for the growth of its economy (Manzoor *et al.*, 2019:3785; Croes & Vanegas, 2008:94; Spenceley & Meyer, 2012:297). Although tourism ranks first for many developing countries, poverty still remains a pivotal issue that needs to be seriously addressed. 75% of poor people in developing countries live in rural areas (Castañeda *et al.*, 2018). Poverty alleviation in Namibia has been a topical issue since the independence of the country in 1990 and it still remains a critical issue, particularly in the northern regions of the country (Republic of Namibia, 2016) which is the focus of this study.

Although poverty is a global issue and has attracted a lot of attention by varied academics, partial attention has been provided to the causes of poverty and the approaches on how to determine it (Pleumarom, 2012). Thus, the purpose of this chapter is to analyse the scope of poverty, it will start by conceptualising poverty and reviewing varied research surrounding the notion. It also intends to analyse the causes of poverty and identify the relationship between poverty and tourism. Ultimately, strategies such as CBT and PPT will be thoroughly explored to clearly understand the benefits offered by the approaches and the impact of tourism on alleviating poverty. To have a clear understanding of the poverty concept, the next section discusses the different views of what poverty and inequality is, it will also discourse how poverty has been determined.

3.2 CONCEPTUALISING POVERTY AND INEQUALITY

Poverty is defined differently by different countries, hence providing reliable comparisons amongst countries can prove to be impossible (Mutana *et al.*, 2013:155). Mitchell and Ashley (2010) advocate that it is important to understand who the poor are first before analysing the effects of tourism on the poor and poverty alleviation. It is therefore crucial that the poverty concept and definition is notionally robust and apt to the society which it is being applied. Originally, poverty was defined as just a lack of basic needs; it included hunger, lack of shelter and lack of medical facilities (Croes, 2014). According to the World Bank (2001:1) poverty is best described as “a situation where an individual

lacks command over commodities that are deemed essential to realise a reasonable standard of living”.

It is a state of being poor, insufficiency and non-existence of resources hence it comprises of low incomes, low levels of wealth, poor environments and vulnerability (McCulloch *et al.*, 2001:38). Alcock (2006) identifies two types of poverty; “absolute poverty” is when the person’s basic needs (such as food, shelter and clothes) are not covered, and “relative poverty” which is closely related to inequality, where the individual is regarded as poor when they are in an undoubtedly disadvantaged situation (financially or socially) in comparison to other people in the same community. Therefore, poverty is a prescriptive concept that shows an undesirable state of affairs where individuals become deprived, excluded and disregarded.

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) (2004) also states that poverty includes poor health, lack of access to water and sanitation, lack of participation in education and insecurity. Thus, poverty is a mixture of illiteracy, poor health, unemployment, lack of basic infrastructure and empowerment (Croes, 2014:211). In this regard, it is plausible to view poverty as a multifaceted phenomenon since it consists of numerous characteristics that affect poor people (Holden, 2013; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). The dimensions of poverty comprise of diverse characteristics of human capabilities such as the ones highlighted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) (2001:42) below:

- Economic – income, livelihoods, decent work
- Human – health, education
- Political – empowerment, rights, voice
- Socio-cultural – status, dignity
- Protective – insecurity, risk, vulnerability

The political, economic and socio-cultural impacts need to be thoroughly analysed as they may disadvantage the poor. A case in point is when some policies intended to alleviate poverty can benefit the wealthy; this can cause the gap between the poor and the rich to be widened further (Sawhill, 2003). Christie (2002) notes that policymakers are more concerned with the growth of the tourism sector than the extent in which the tourism growth contributes to poverty alleviation. The understanding is that if the entire region gets richer, the benefits provided by the economic growth will ultimately “trickle down” to the poor through employment or public network. However, basic development of the economy cannot bring social justice and practical growth without the poverty alleviation and employment-generating opportunities for the underprivileged and marginalised segments of the society. WTO (2004) indicates that poverty should not be restricted to income only,

but it should also be concerned with finding ways of improving quality of life. The World Summit for Social Development in Copenhagen (1995) offers that access to social services is of paramount importance for any society.

Poverty is also defined in monetary terms by means of national poverty lines; however, the definitions can vary according to geographical locations (World Vision, 2020). This notion was implemented by the World Bank (1985) to provide a context that is globally recognised, particularly for developing countries. Mutana *et al.* (2013:155) argue that defining poverty using poverty lines is debatable as there are cases of extreme poverty in some parts of developing countries. Other researchers, however, argued that alleviation of poverty is reduced if impediments such as income inequality are not eliminated (Harrison, 2008; Schilcher, 2007). Therefore, income inequalities are as crucial as poverty.

Giampiccoli *et al.* (2015:451) highlight that poverty is closely linked to inequality and currently the distribution of income between households is becoming more unequal in comparison to decades ago. Alike poverty, the definition of inequality has been debated and their differences are not clear. Inequality is defined as the unfair distribution of income across a country which is globally measured by the Gini coefficient that varies from 0 (absolute inequality) to 1 (high degree of inequality) and by the income shares percentile of households (Todaro & Smith, 2011:208). Current research on the relationship between growth, inequality and poverty has revealed that poverty and inequality have different characteristics of the income distribution, but inequality can also affect growth through poverty (Marrero & Serven, 2018).

Poverty in Namibia is linked to inequality as the wealthiest (white minority) who constitute 10% of the population, own more than half of the economy (UNDP, 2016). As highlighted in the introduction, Vision 2030 noted that poverty should be reduced to the minimum, income distribution should be more reasonable, and inequality is at the minimum (Republic of Namibia, 2004). Despite the fact that Namibia is classified as an upper-middle income country, the Republic of Namibia (2015) notes that extreme poverty along with inequalities in income distribution, general standards of living and quality of life are still of major concern. In Namibia, 9,1% of the population are classified as middle class which is the second lowest in the southern region (Duddy, 2011). However, Namibia's Gini coefficient has improved from a high 0,70 in 1993/1994 to a significant 0,597 in 2009/2010 (Republic of Namibia, 2016). Harmse (2014) alerts that the levels of inequalities should range between 0,25 and 0,4 since high levels of inequalities reduce the effect of economic growth.

Namibia is one of the most unequal countries in the world with 19,7% of the population living on less than US\$1,90 per day in 2015 whilst 42,9% live below the US\$3,10 per day poverty line (World Bank, 2015). In 2016, the poverty rates in Namibia reduced to 17,4%, however, this number has increased to 18,9% in 2020 due to COVID-19 (World bank, 2020a). It however, remained one of the most unequal countries (World bank (b), 2020b).

3.2.1 Measures of poverty

To evaluate poverty, most countries outline their own poverty lines, they generally base the amount on the per capita cost of some nominal consumption basket of food and other necessities (Perkins *et al.*, 2006). The World Bank (2011:1) utilises three poverty measures. Firstly, the incidence of poverty assesses the number of people living below the poverty line through income or consumption and the depth of poverty (poverty gap) intends to measure individual household distance from the stated poverty line. The poverty severity (squared poverty gap) measures the distance from the poverty line and the levels of inequality amid the poor by giving those further away from the poverty line more weight.

The international poverty line considerably varies. The poverty line currently set by the World Bank is at US\$1,90 which replaced the previous US\$1,25 line based on the 2005 prices (Ferreira *et al.*, 2015). It is vital to note that poverty can be construed differently by developed and developing countries, for example the US\$1,90 per day implies the extreme poverty line for the world's poorest countries. Other poverty lines for developing countries typically indicates to some extent a higher standard of living, whilst higher poverty lines are more suitable for developed countries. Globally, the total number of people living in extreme poverty is still high with 10,7% (2013) surviving on less than US\$1,90 a day and extreme poverty has positively reduced from affecting 1,9 billion people in 1990 to 760 million in 2013 (Weller, 2017). Sub-Saharan Africa constitutes half of the extreme poor where 389 million people still live below the poverty line of US\$1,90 per day (World Bank, 2017:1).

Chambers (1995) indicates that the measures of poverty implemented by the World Bank lack impartiality as they are more focused on urban environments than the authenticities of the poor people in rural areas. Yet, Mutana *et al.* (2013:155) mention that poverty is more evident in rural areas, particularly in developing countries. In Namibia, poverty is mainly a rural problem; about 57% of the population live in rural areas (Population and Housing Census, 2011) and three quarters of the country's poor live in rural areas (World Bank, 2015). A large number of vulnerable people such as the elderly live in rural areas and they often have limited access to health care facilities, hence, the social exclusion notion has developed in rural areas as a considerable issue (Sisson, 2001).

Nonetheless, developing tourism in rural areas and deprived communities generally entails issues of inclusion and exclusion, inequalities and conflicts amongst social groups (Paniagua & Moyano, 2007).

In Namibia, Schmidt (2009) utilises the Cost of Basic Needs (CBN) methodology to evaluate the poverty lines by estimating the cost of a bundle of essential food and non-food goods. The CBN approach initially establishes the poverty line by calculating the cost of a food basket allowing households to meet a minimum dietary necessity and then an allowance for the consumption of basic non-food items is added. Although the CBN methodology is widely used in the SADC region and developing countries, Schmidt (2009) criticised it for the lack of price data in rural areas of Namibia making it difficult to provide a fully comprehensive snapshot of deprivation. The research paper also suggested that monetary measurement of poverty should be combined with other dimensions such as the access to public services.

Other institutions measured poverty, providing different statistics. The Labour Resource and Research Institute (2006) and Central Bureau of Statistics (2008) documented that:

- Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES) 2003/04 utilised the Food-Ratio Method and concluded that 28% of the Namibian population are impacted by poverty.
- University of Port Elizabeth measured the level of poverty utilising the Household Subsistence Level (Potgieter, 1997) by recognising the basket of food and other necessities equating to the 2004 method. With this method, it would mean 82% of Namibians were living in poverty.
- The Crude international poverty line utilised the World Bank US\$1 poverty line as a base measurement and concluded that 62% of the Namibians lived below the poverty line.
- Review of Poverty and Inequality in Namibia (2008) which used a Cost of Basic Needs approach also concluded that 28% of Namibians live in poverty.

Chambers (2007) advocates the use of a participatory approach where the views and experiences of the poor people are central to the notion. This concept was implemented in many developing countries by the World Bank from the 1990s, where they utilised the Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPA) to provide a guidance in Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (Janis, 2011). This will also allow the researcher to have a general understanding of poverty as narrated by the poor people themselves. It also seeks to understand poverty from a political and institutional perspective, therefore it includes stakeholders such as those involved in decision making from all government levels, the private sector and the local community (Narayan, 2000).

As a multidimensional phenomenon, poverty can be linked with inequality, human development and basic needs. Consequently, a Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI) was established to provide an in-depth analysis of the level of deprivation experienced by the poor people and to counterpart traditional income-based poverty measures by apprehending the extreme deficiencies faced by individuals with regards to education, health and living standards (OPHI, 2018:1). These three dimensions comprise of ten aspects which are evenly measured, and these are distributed as follows:

Health

- Nutrition
- Child mortality

Education

- Years to schooling
- Access and distance to educational facilities, qualifications.

Living standards

- Access and distance to clean water, sanitation facilities, electricity, assets owned by households, types of fuel used and housing.

The MPI also emphasises the fact that poverty should not be measured based on income only. The index is calculated by combining the total of the deprived by the intensity of deprivation (UNDP, 2010:26). This helps to incorporate more than one dimension of poverty; thus, it demonstrates cross-dimensional poverty levels. Figure 3.1 further highlights the poverty dimensions and its indicators.

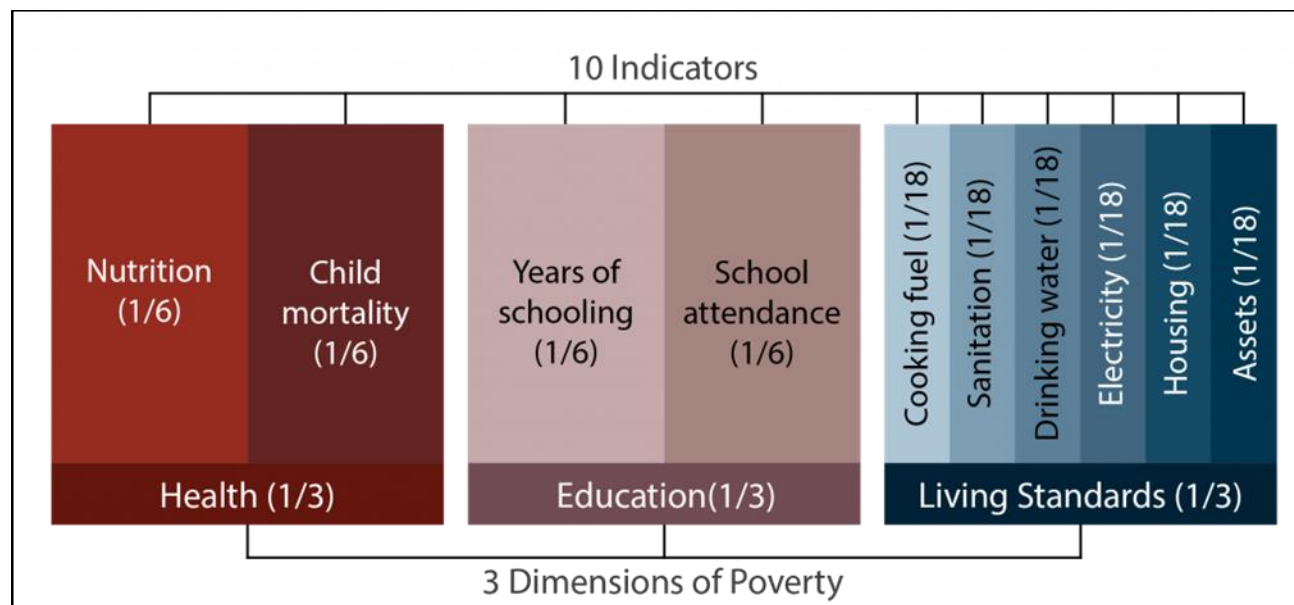


Figure 3.1: Indicators of poverty dimensions

Source: Oxford Poverty and Human development Initiative OPHI (2018:1)

It is evident, based on the analysis of the poverty concept, that the notion has been extensively explored, yet the methods of measuring it remain contentious. This creates challenges in alleviating poverty as some people might not consider themselves poor, even if they are (by definition). The view of the Namibian people in the selected case studies was important to lay the foundation for the development of the framework. Added to this it is essential to review literature on the causes of poverty which will be analysed from a global and Namibian perspective.

3.2.2 The determinants of poverty

Research on the causes of poverty and the initiatives on resolving it have not been fully addressed. Since poverty is an international issue, it is crucial to scrutinise its determinants as it may inspire governments and nations to formulate policies and strategies that encourage poverty reduction. The causes of poverty vary from country to country (Suntikul *et al.*, 2009). Whilst analysing different types of poverty, Feuerstein (1997:5-6) and OECD (2001) highlight the causes of poverty as indicated in the table below:

Table 3.1: Causes of poverty

Type of poverty	Cause of poverty
Inherited poverty	Passed on to children by parents (generational poverty) Environmental degradation.
Instant poverty	Uncontrollable circumstances e.g. drought.
Temporary poverty	Unexpected hazards such as war but lasts a shorter time when the war ceases.
New poverty	When there is high inflation rates and unemployment, the savings of workers/pensioners will be exhausted.
Hidden poverty	Lack of other basic needs which may be hidden e.g. deprivation Deep rooted Corruption
Endemic	Affects small businesses through low yield and meagre resource base resulting in low income.
Overcrowding	People living in a severely overcrowded area of high density Rapid population growth.
Terminal	Life-time poverty
Ill-health	Diseases such as AIDS and Tuberculosis
Socio-political	Discrimination such as -Gender, ethnicity and race. Human rights violation.

Source: Adapted from: Feuerstein (1997:5-6); OECD (2001)

This table provides various types of poverty and possible causes. Some of the types of poverty occur as a result of more than one cause, for example overcrowding and hidden poverty. Overcrowding can be due to rapid population expansion or it can be a result of rural to urban migration. Bradshaw (2006) offers five theories of poverty and highlights the causes of poverty. These concepts highlight poverty as a result of:

- Individual deficiency
- Cultural belief systems that support sub-cultures of poverty
- Economic, political and social distortions or discrimination
- Geographical disparities
- Cumulative and recurring inter-dependencies.

The above causes of poverty are interrelated, for instance Silva and Athukorala (1996:65) identify four types of poverty in South Asia. The circumstances identified are:

- Neo-classical approach: through market-led development.
- Political economy approach: concentrating on the historical creation of poverty via conflict of interests.
- Cultural poverty approach: which blames the victim for being poor.
- Participatory approach: where the poor's dynamisms are embraced to reduce poverty.

From a Sub-Saharan Africa perspective, research by Obadan (1997) offers an extensive list of the causes of poverty. The list comprises of: environmental degradation, lack of employment opportunities and physical assets like land and capital, inaccessibility to credit facilities and markets for the poor people to sell their goods and services, low donation to human capital, lack of participation and lack of access to support for those in need. Based on the above, it is evident that the causes of poverty vary from continent to continent and region to region. The causes of poverty in South Africa are attributed to the apartheid regime which resulted in high levels of inequality, however, other main causes of poverty in South Africa such as unemployment, land ownership and educational attainment have worsened after independence (Ajuruchukwu & Sanelise, 2016). Whilst the main causes of poverty in Namibia are primarily rooted in the colonial history and topography of the country, other poverty problems that have been highlighted include:

Social exclusion: A study by Thobias (2007) concludes that the San community has been excluded in decision making and they are not represented in the regional and local institutions. Poverty has impacted on the same ethnic group because of cultural beliefs, their geographical location and their over-dependence on the government for the provision of basic needs. A study by NPC (2011) indicates that a huge number of people in Namibia (particularly in rural areas) do not have access to

basic facilities and amenities such as decent housing, clean water and sanitation for health and education. Therefore, most of the Namibian people remain poor and are not able to fully participate in the modern economy.

Environmental issues: Climatic conditions of the country (dry) and low soil fertility.

Gender discrimination: According to May (2000:35) the extent of poverty depends on the gender of the person. A study by Khatiwada and Silva (2015) concludes that families headed by women are more likely to be in poverty than those headed by men and the research also revealed that both genders preferred cattle as a sign of wealth. In developing countries, women are often unemployed due to their level of education which is lower than that of men (World Bank, 2012). Jauch *et al.* (2009) state that the level of income for female-headed households in Namibia is significantly lower than that of male-headed families. This, however, emanates from the pre-colonial practices and policies which discriminated against women's education (Janis, 2011; Jauch *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, after independence the government of Namibia introduced the "Education for all" concept which allowed children to go to school until the age of sixteen (Jauch, 2015). Research on the Review of Poverty and Inequality in Namibia also noted that a huge amount of the inequality that exists in Namibia is caused by the differences in educational levels and language groups (Republic of Namibia, 2008).

Unemployment: It is closely related to education and gender. A large number of the unemployed in Namibia reside in rural areas (northern region) and the majority are female. 32% of the female are recorded as poor in comparison to the 26% of men (NPC, 2014).

Diseases: HIV/AIDS impacts the Sub-Saharan region hence it is anticipated to remain the poorest region in the world (Kabuya, 2015). HIV/AIDS has caused a great impact in Namibia, according to the Indexmundi (2015) the country experienced a 22,27% increase in the number of people living with HIV/AIDS. The MET (2013) also documented that the disease has negatively impacted on the well-being and profitability of the country and the management of natural resources.

Moore (2012) and Sawhill (2003) state that poverty cannot be reduced unless poor people change their attitudes and governments design policies that offer support to the poor people. Freeman (1998) states that it is unfair to blame poor people for their poverty due to the fact that poor people lack resources and opportunities. Consequently, policies targeting the issue of poverty reduction ought to address the subject of capability deprivation rather than simply targeting the level of household income (Sen, 2001).

It is vital to note that poverty rates in Namibia vary from region to region and high rates of poverty are in the rural areas. Northern regions such as Kavango, Oshikoto, Zambezi, Kunene and Ohangwena are the poorest with more than one third of the population being classified as poor (Republic of Namibia, 2015). Jauch (2012) also highlights that poverty in Namibia is more prevalent in rural areas, for instance in 2006 the average household income for rural areas was at N\$6 139 whilst in urban areas it was N\$17 898 per year; almost three times the figure.

This clearly indicates the existence of regional inequalities and it is therefore plausible to conduct research using two different regions to determine discrepancies and finding ways to address it. Although poverty rates have slightly reduced in some rural areas, urban areas such as Khomas had an increase of 1,2% whilst in the northern region Zambezi had an increase of 7,2% (NPC, 2011). Considering that Namibia is a small country with a population estimate of 2,4 million, these figures indicate that poverty is still prevalent in the country (NSA, 2018). Although the Tourism Policy (2008) targets to reduce poverty in Namibia, it fails to critically provide recommendations on how tourism can alleviate poverty and inequalities in the country (MET, 2008). This research, therefore, aims to examine whether the tourism growth in Namibia has contributed to alleviation of poverty in the northern region and offers suggestions as to how it can alleviate poverty. The next section establishes the link between tourism and poverty alleviation.

3.3 TOURISM AND POVERTY ALLEVIATION NEXUS

It is essential to analytically establish the contribution of tourism to poverty reduction as well as highlighting their connection. Tourism is envisaged to be a powerful tool to alleviate poverty. Considering that the industry has been growing, one would assume that its impact would only be positive. The industry has become one of the fastest growing economic sectors in the world generating US\$1,5 trillion in export earnings (UNWTO, 2016). The same document notes that in at least forty-eight countries of the world's Least Developed Countries (LDC) tourism is regarded as the main or second source of export earnings, yet its impact on poverty alleviation is still questionable.

From an economic point of view, there is limited research evidence that indicates that tourism can actually alleviate poverty, neither is there research that measures the connections between tourism and poverty (Blake *et al.*, 2008). Nonetheless, Scheyvens (2007) emphasises that tourism and poverty alleviation are progressively being connected. Furthermore, Winters *et al.* (2013) highlight that the link between tourism and poverty exist, but the conditions under which this connection is robust is not quite clear. It is of fundamental importance for the method of measuring the poverty alleviation to be agreed on and Thomas (2014) indicates that this is a challenge because there is no

agreed methodology on the appropriate measurement of poverty alleviation. Zeng and Ryan (2012) also emphasise that there is a lack of academic research which solely concentrates on local poor households and assessing the tourism contribution to poverty alleviation.

According to Cooper *et al.* (2008:129) tourism is regarded as a device of economic development in emerging countries; this enables developing countries to benefit from developed countries through tourism. Mitchell and Ashley (2010: 108) define tourism as “the world’s largest voluntary transfer of resources from rich people to poor people”. However, economic growth might not be beneficial to the poor, but it may profit the rich, in as much as some countries may be supporting poor families, others may be providing disproportionate gains to the rich.

Therefore, it is essential to conduct an in-depth analysis of the channels through which tourism benefits are disseminated to poor households. Furthermore, for the poor to benefit from tourism it is vital for the local residents to be empowered and be involved in the decision-making process. Yet, others (Chok *et al.*, 2007; Harrison 2008; Scheyvens, 2007, 2011; Schilcher, 2007) argue that the barriers to poverty alleviation at an international and national level should be removed first for the potential of tourism on poverty alleviation to be realised. Luvanga and Shitundu (2003) mention that the tourism industry and poverty alleviation can be linked by recognising its merits in the development of local economies; they therefore highlight three fundamental points. Firstly, the fact that the tourists travel to the destination offers the local community including the poor an opportunity to show and sell their products, thereby reducing poverty. It is this direct link to consumers that is often emphasised in considering the poverty reduction potential of tourism because it gives the opportunity of connecting the poor directly to consumers. The tourism earnings can also be utilised to improve health and educational systems, and these will in turn lessen the impact of poverty.

Secondly, the characteristics of rural areas attract tourists and thus tourism offers them new employment prospects and providing them with income and enhanced social well-being. Snyman and Spenceley (2012) also emphasise that employment opportunities for the underprivileged is an essential element of PPT. Relying on employment on its own as a way of alleviating poverty, particularly in the tourism industry, is not a plausible strategy. This is because of most poor people are not educated and they are offered low income jobs which do not assist in reducing poverty.

Thirdly, one of tourism’s characteristics is that it is labour intensive, and it employs a large number of women. Therefore, it assists in reducing poverty to vulnerable groups. Atkinson (2008) and the World Tourism Organisation (2002) echoed the same sentiments and added that tourism boosts the locally

owned businesses through profits. However, Nelson (2011:363) concludes that this tends to enrich those who are already privileged more than reducing poverty. Similarly, another characteristic of the tourism industry is that it is highly seasonal, therefore during troughs the tourism workers will be unemployed, making it difficult to reduce the circle of poverty.

Practically, policy makers have to extend the tourism industry but neglected to thoroughly assess the extent to which the development of tourism contributes to poverty alleviation (Christie, 2002). Consequently, this happens through indirect benefits such as development of basic infrastructure, provision of clean water and improvement of communication networks (Richardson, 2010). The development of these services will influence accessibility and tourism development to and in rural areas and offer linkage opportunities with other economic sectors such as agriculture, fisheries and manufacturing. Strengthening the links between business sectors is viewed as a useful way of promoting the local economies (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010; Torres, 2003). In Figure 3.2 below Bolwell and Weinz (2008:23) highlight the economic sectors linked with the tourism industry.

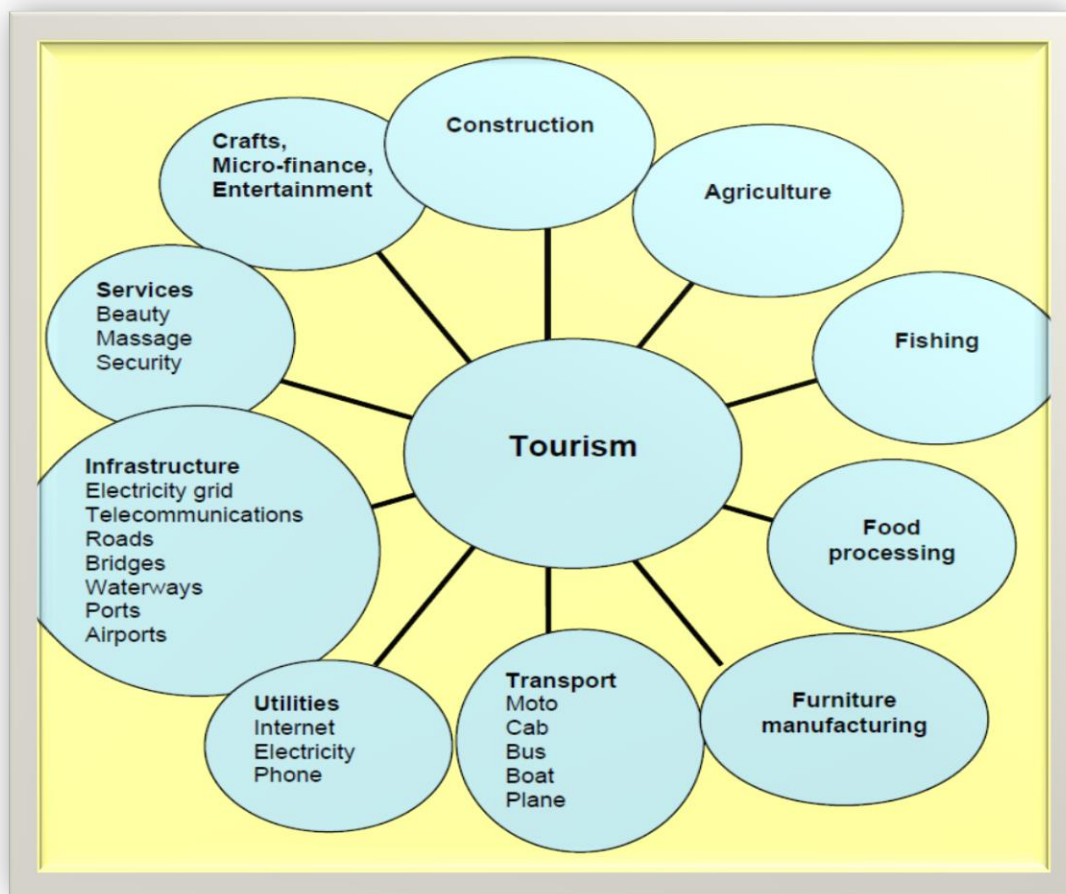


Figure 3.2: Economic sectors related to the tourism industry

Source: Bolwell and Weinz (2008:23)

These linkages provide the tourism sector with prospects of employing a large number of people. As for the developing countries, inter-sectoral linkages are often viewed as weak, therefore it is crucial for the national governments of the countries to ensure that they analyse their development initiatives and poverty alleviation strategies so as to strengthen linkages (Meyer, 2007; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). The birth of MDGs also influenced the hasty development of several anti-poverty tourism interventions (Saarinen & Rogerson, 2014; Manwa & Manwa, 2014:5698). Alike MDGs, Anti-Poverty Tourism (APT) as highlighted in Figure 3.3 below, utilises poverty alleviation as its main focal point in any tourism development.

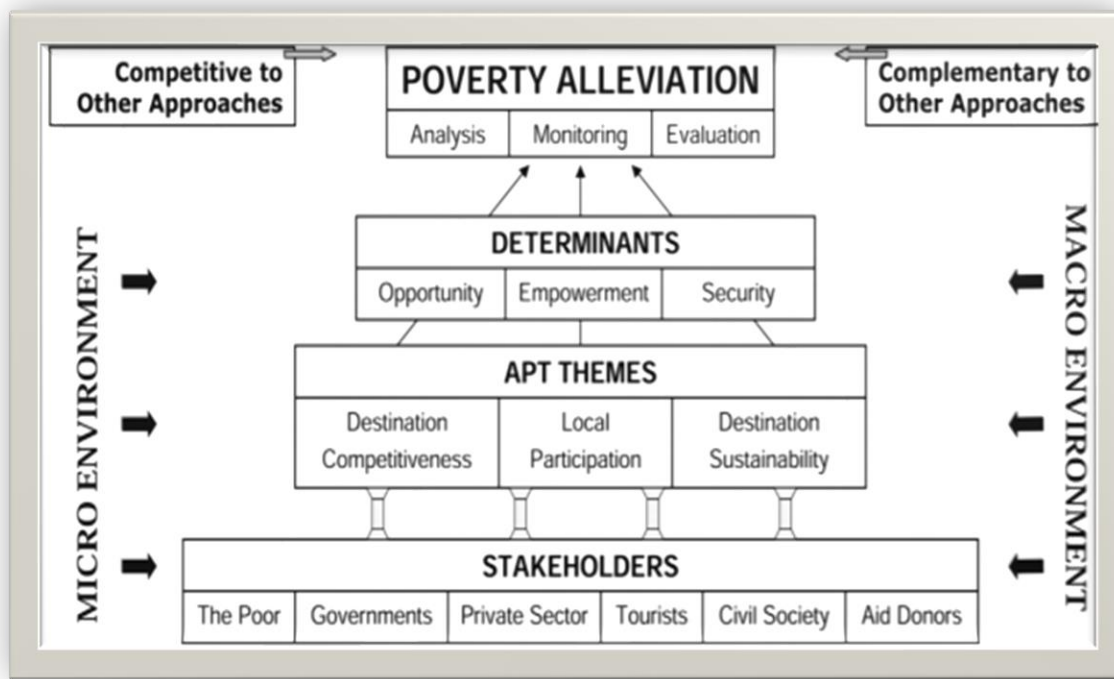


Figure 3.3: An integrated framework for anti-poverty reduction

Source: Zhao and Ritchie (2007)

Zhao and Ritchie (2007) also identify opportunity, empowerment and security as key determinants that should be studied for the APT approach to be successful and justified. The core objectives to be considered in APT are the competitiveness of the destination, participation of the local people and sustainability of the destination (Zhao & Ritchie, 2007). Phi *et al.* (2018) also argue that although the APT concept was developed to prompt change in the tourism sector that would influence the reduction of poverty, it is not quite clear how this change takes place. They add that APT interventions involved the participation of various stakeholders (The poor, governments, private sector, tourists, civil society, aid donors).

civil society, aid donors) who have different views and motivations on the issue of poverty, and this brings about conflicting interests and makes the APT notion complex.

It is quite clear from the tourism-poverty connection analysis that tourism has the potential to reduce poverty, however, its full potential has not yet been fully scrutinised and Winters *et al.* (2013) conclude that it is vital for researchers to work with all stakeholders and utilise the approach from the impact evaluation literature to recognise the effect of tourism projects on poverty. Poverty has been recognised as a global issue that needs to be tackled, thus the next section discusses the strategies implemented by the global tourism industry and the Namibian tourism industry in line with reducing poverty.

3.4 MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS (MDGS) IN RELATION TO POVERTY

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were launched by 189 members of the United Nations in the year 2000, focusing on the issue of poverty, the member states established eight fundamental goals with the sole purpose of halving the number of people living on less than one dollar a day by 2015 (United Nations, 2008). Accordingly, many developing countries including Namibia incorporated the MDGs strategies into their own strategies and policies. The MDGs as highlighted by UNWTO (2007:1) were expected to:

- Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger.
- Achieve universal primary education.
- Promote gender equality and empower women.
- Reduce child mortality.
- Improve maternal health.
- Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases.
- Ensure environmental sustainability.
- Develop a global partnership for development.

Since the implementation of MDGs the tourism industry stressed the importance of linking the industry to the MDGs. As far as the tourism sector is concerned MDGs are aligned with sustainable tourism and the concept of sustainable development has been emphasised by the United Nations. The concept of sustainable development and rural development was documented in Agenda 21 (1992) which emphasises the importance of developing poor areas by devising strategies that eradicate and reduce poverty, provide jobs and generate income. The noteworthy of sustainable development in line with MDGs was also highlighted at the World Summit on sustainable

development in South Africa (Johannesburg) in 2002 and at the Bali Declaration on Sustainable Tourism Development in 2005 which stressed the importance of sustainably promoting tourism (Saarinen *et al.*, 2011).

Sustainable tourism emphasises the importance of poverty alleviation which is in line with the MDG1. It is defined as “tourism that takes full responsibility of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts whilst addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNWTO, 2005:11). Therefore, from this definition, tourism can be linked to the MDG7 which ensures environmental sustainability. Similarly, as one of its characteristics, the tourism industry provides flexible labour markets and various work prospects, and this presents women and young people with an opportunity to work in the industry, thus contributing to MDG3 (Rogerson, 2012).

The Namibian government and other donor agencies embarked on a journey to reduce poverty by designing policies and strategies that are aligned with the MDGs, all focusing on the alleviation of poverty. In particular, the third National Development Plan targeted to increase economic growth through rural development where poverty and inequality are highest, whilst the fourth National Development Plan concentrated on the first MDG of reducing poverty and hunger, it envisaged to achieve this goal by focusing on the provision and creation of jobs, formation and distribution of wealth and continued economic growth (UNDP, 2013). The UNDP (2013) compiled a comprehensive report which highlights the successes and challenges of its own goals integrating the MDGs. The report states that the country managed to halve the number of poor people living in extreme poverty well before the MDGs’ target, yet it failed to achieve reasonable distribution of income or eradication of hunger.

The MDGs’ progress have been unequal, particularly in Africa, LDCs and land-locked developing countries. Other MDGs remained off target for instance in the maternal, new-born and child health areas (Lomazzi *et al.*, 2014). The Sub-Saharan was lagging behind with only eight out of the fifty-three countries managing to fully complete the birth registration data. Similarly, only nine out of the fifty-three countries managed to record death registration as indicated by the framework (UN, 2017).

However, Namibia managed to achieve most of the targeted MDGs except a few issues such as inequality and high levels of poverty in rural areas which still need to be addressed. Other policies and strategies that were developed and implemented in Namibia to respond to the MDGs include the Vision 2030, Rural Development Policy and the National Poverty Reduction Action Programme

(2001-2005). However, Novelli and Hellwig (2011:207) state that awareness of the MDGs amongst the tourism businesses in Namibia is low and Lapeyre (2009) also notes that the benefits of the MDGs depended on the personal relations on the ground.

The MDGs have been criticised for failing to fully address increasing environmental challenges such as climate change and other areas of poverty such as social exclusion and inequalities have been omitted by MDG1 (Fehling *et al.*, 2013). Despite the critics, the UN report claimed that MDGs were successful as they managed to reduce extreme poverty, the number of children who are not in school and the percentage of the population deprived of access to safe drinking water by half (UN, 2014). The MDGs assisted the member of states in identifying areas that needed improvement. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were therefore launched in 2015 by 193 UN member states building upon the successes of the MDGs and completing the goals which were not achieved (UN, 2017). It is evident that strategies and efforts aimed at achieving the MDGs by the Namibian government have been implemented. It is not clear whether these strategies cascaded to downstream to the grassroots level. The next section presents a discussion of the SDGs and establish their alignment with the strategies implemented by Namibia.

3.5 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT GOALS (SDGS)

The member states agreed on seventeen sustainable goals with 169 targets. The SDGs takes a broader approach where it targets the basis of poverty, climate change, education and food access inequalities (UN, 2017). It aims to achieve these goals by 2030, the goals have been indicated in Table 3.2. The tourism sector has embraced both the MDGs and SDGs, and as far as the SDGs are concerned the tourism industry can contribute through economic growth, social inclusion and environmental preservation (goals 8, 12 and 14). Thus, the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development was launched to support and promote the SDGs. It focuses on five key areas which are:

- Inclusive and sustainable economic growth.
- Social inclusiveness, employment and poverty reduction.
- Resource efficiency, environmental protection and climate change.
- Cultural values, diversity and heritage.
- Mutual understanding, peace and security (UNWTO, 2017).

UNDP, UNWTO and other agencies collaborated during the International Year of Sustainable Tourism for Development with the purpose of building knowledge, empowering and inspiring stakeholders to take necessary action to fast-track the change towards a more sustainable tourism

sector by aligning policies, business operators and investments with SDGs (UNDP and UNWTO, 2018).

As a country, Namibia is committed to the SDGs agenda and in 2018 among other 47 UN member states it presented its first SDGs Voluntary National Review (VNR) (UN, 2018). Namibia has also embraced the SDGs by incorporating them into the country's National Development Plans, particularly the NDP5 which is aligned with Vision 2030, the NDP5 focuses on four integrated pillars based on sustainable development ideologies which are: economic progression, social transformation, environmental sustainability and good governance. The Vision 2030 among other priorities is concerned with poverty alleviation (Republic of Namibia, 2018). UNDP and UNWTO (2018) note that tourism's role to the SDGs entails both political motivation and private sector commitment.

Although the success of the SDGs is yet to be realised, the framework has been criticised for being an overambitious model (169 targets) because it is too broad, whilst others highlighted that targets such as malnutrition and diseases such as malaria are incredibly optimistic and not cost effective (Aziz & Basir, 2018). Pogge and Sengupta (2016) critically reviewed the SDGs and emphasise that the goals overlook local milieu as they take a view of "one size fits all", hence, to achieve the goals there is need for the goals to strike a balance between respecting local setting and working at the global level to restructure organisations.

They also added that the goals are not binding as they fail to highlight the penalties for those who fail to abide by them. Gupta and Vegelin (2016:445) also critique the SDGs and state that the achievement of goals relies on the developed countries helping the developing countries (top down approach) and this is difficult as the developed countries need to be fully committed to the concept. Thus, questions such as who will implement them and who is responsible for ensuring that it in fact will get done need to be fully addressed. The knowledgeable community and NGOs are therefore required to monitor this obligation. They also emphasised that the current global systems need to be reformed as they favour richer participants, thus it is key for the framework to be more democratic and must indicate the terms on how the rich minority should transform their own conduct and change their own interests. It is important before conducting any research that is intended to analyse the impacts of tourism on poverty, to have a clear understanding of the different methods used to assess tourism's impact on poverty. The subsequent section analyses the various methods utilised to assess the impact tourism has on poverty alleviation.

Table 3.2: Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)
1. End poverty in all its forms everywhere.
2. End hunger, achieve food security and improved nutrition and promote sustainable agriculture.
3. Ensure healthy lives and promote well-being for all at all ages.
4. Ensure inclusive & equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.
5. Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls.
6. Ensure availability and sustainable management of water and sanitation for all.
7. Ensure access to affordable, reliable, sustainable and modern energy for all.
8. Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all.
9. Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation.
10. Reduce inequality within and among countries.
11. Make cities and human settlements inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable.
12. Ensure sustainable consumption and production patterns.
13. Take urgent action to combat climate change and its impacts.
14. Conserve and sustainably use the oceans, seas and marine resources for sustainable development.
15. Protect, restore and promote sustainable use of terrestrial ecosystems, sustainably manage forests, combat desertification, and halt and reverse land degradation and halt biodiversity loss.
16. Promote peaceful and inclusive societies for sustainable development, provide access to justice for all and build effective, accountable and inclusive institutions at all levels.
17. Strengthen the means of implementation and revitalize the global partnership for sustainable development.

Source: United Nations Report (2018)

3.6 IMPACT OF TOURISM ON POVERTY

Jamieson *et al.* (2004:2) state that the figures that indicate the impact of tourism on poverty are very limited. Thomas (2014) adds that academics seem to disagree on the appropriate measure of the impact of tourism on poverty. In fact, there is not much research focusing on local poor households; this makes it difficult for researchers to decide on the best methodology to use when conducting research on the impacts of tourism in alleviating poverty.

Methods such as the Applied General Equilibrium (AGE), Input-Output models, Computable General Equilibrium (CGE), Tourism Satellite Accounts (TSA) and Social Accounting Matrices (SAMs) have been utilised to assess the impact of tourism at a macro level. The scientific tools have been criticised for failing to measure tourism impacts at a micro level for instance the TSA has been viewed as a measure of the impacts of tourism at a macro level thus it is not appropriate, particularly for a community group such as poor people. In general, Gross National Product (GNP) and the amount of jobs generated have been used to determine the impact of tourism on poverty (Goodwin, 2006:3).

Tourism has been utilised as a device that will alleviate poverty; thus, it is imperative to analyse its impact at a micro level. Regularly tourism's general impact on the economy is assessed through an analysis of the effects of tourism spending through direct, indirect and induced effects utilising a multiplier effect method. The development of tourism is predominantly assessed by analysing the rising figures of international tourist arrivals, number of days the tourists spend at the destination and how much they spend (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004). Although this approach is regarded as the most suitable way of connecting tourism and poverty alleviation, it does not provide substantial data on the degree of the impact on the poor. The PPT approach's view is that increasing economic growth enhances the benefits to "trickle down" to the poor. Thus, Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) and the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) have been predominantly used to evaluate the impact of tourism on poverty.

3.6.1 Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

Tourism has the potential to improve the livelihood of the local community; it is therefore imperative to understand how tourism impacts on the livelihood of poor people. The sustainable livelihood concept was adopted to find a way of responding to the needs of the poor people, thus various definitions of the concept emerged. Originally, Chambers and Conway (1992:6) state that the livelihood notion should include capabilities, assets and activities that are essential for a means of living; it should be sustainable so that it is able to cope with and recover from stresses and shocks

such as a decline in tourism numbers. They also emphasised that a livelihood should contribute net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and international levels.

A Sustainable Livelihood Approach is people centred and is concerned with people's livelihoods. It therefore prioritises people's assets, their capability to endure shocks (the vulnerability context), and the policies and institutions that replicate community primacies. The livelihood framework recognises that the local community faces different impacts (positive and negative), because of the differences in family structures and wants, that are difficult to convert into monetary value for survival, hence it is vital to individually analyse them (See Figure 3.4).

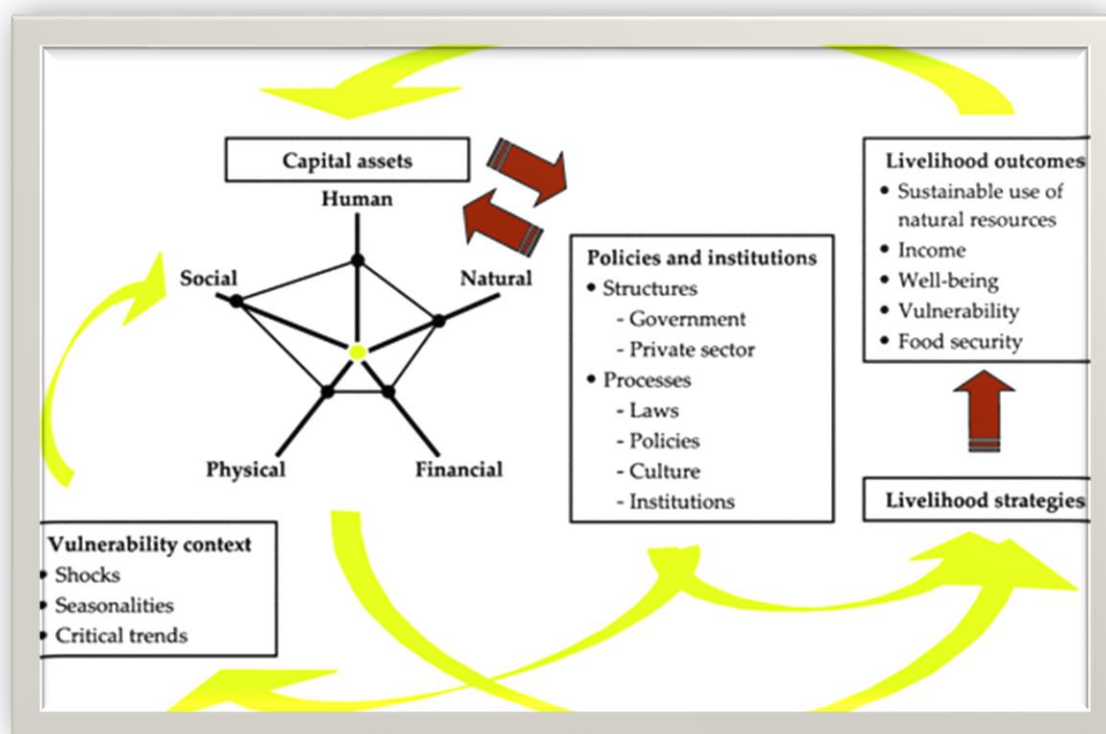


Figure 3.4: Sustainable Livelihood Framework

Source: Serrat (2017:22)

The UK Department for International Development (DFID) (2000) then modified the definition by taking a more realistic approach of excluding the prerequisite that sustainable livelihood must contribute to net benefits of other livelihoods. DFID (2000) stresses that any sustainable livelihood approach should incorporate the ability to evade, endure and recuperate from shocks and stresses and at the same time be able to improve its capabilities and assets without deflating the natural resource base. However, both definitions emphasise the importance of going beyond defining poverty eradication by critically analysing both the positive and the negative effects of any type of tourism

development on the livelihoods of the poor people (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004). Tourism livelihood system aims to achieve sustainable livelihood objectives and sustain tourism over an extended period of time (Shen, 2009:252).

The Institute for Environment and Development (IIED) (2000) offered that improved access to assets, enhanced income and food security, improved quality of life and reduced vulnerability are vital for the improvement of community livelihood. It is fundamental, however, to note that different homes have different access to livelihood assets (Serrat, 2017). “The Sustainable Livelihood Approach is an example of the ‘multiple capital’ where sustainability is dependent on the availability of capital (natural, human, social, physical and financial) and an investigation of the susceptibility milieu (trends, shocks and stresses) in which these capitals (or assets) occur (Morse & McNamara, 2013).

The five fundamental types of assets which are required for the livelihood of the community serve as building blocks of the framework. Ashley and Carney (1999) illustrates these capitals as:

- **Financial capital:** these are the financial resources that people utilise to realise their livelihood objective examples include savings, pension and access to cash. The consistent inflow of cash is an asset that is not readily available to most poor people.
- **Human capital:** examples include skills, ability to work, good health and knowledge of a specific group or persons. These should all allow individuals to follow different livelihood strategies and attain their livelihood objectives.
- **Natural/cultural capital:** they refer to the natural resources available and are useful for sustainable livelihood to be achieved. They include land, water and wildlife.
- **Physical capital:** these consists of the basic infrastructure and manufacturer goods required for sustainable livelihoods for instance equipment, machinery, access to affordable transport and communications.
- **Social capital:** comprises of the strength of groups, network, friends and how these enable each other to achieve their livelihood objectives.

The livelihood context highlights that the resources are inputs in a system where outcomes of community well-being, income, reduced vulnerability, food security and sustainable use of natural resources should be achieved. Although each of these assets are essential for the achievement of a sustainable livelihood, Morse and McNamara (2013) note that their importance revolve from household to household and over time. It is therefore imperative to acknowledge the value of livelihoods analysis to apprehend the non-financial and dynamic impacts as well as to organise assessments according to the primacies of the poor themselves (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010).

To critically review the difficulties encountered by the local community, Jamieson *et al.* (2004) advocates for a further examination of all the assets. They asserted that the local people's perceptions are fundamental in deciding the form of interventions needed to aid poor families to get involved in the tourism value chain and such involvement is the core of PPT (Holden, 2013). Shen, (2009) also adds the "institutional capital" notion which helps the local people to be part of the tourism value chain such as accommodation, and the issue of participation – particularly in policymaking – is also emphasised.

Ashley (2000) studied the impact of tourism on rural livelihood in Namibia and notes that for the tourism industry to capitalise on livelihood benefits, it is essential to have a clear understanding of the local people's needs. The study also highlights that the importance of locals' involvement in decision making, which could be achieved through:

- Entrusting tourism rights to community level and assisting communities with participatory planning.
- Making sure that government planning methods are participatory and responsive to local needs.
- Ensuring via government incentives, that planning by private entrepreneurs is responsive to local needs.

Serrat (2017) mentions that utilising the SLA requires a continuous analysis of the way the vulnerable people live their lives so that institutions can formulate policies and development activities which are centred on people, participatory and sustainable. Luvanga and Shitundu (2003) studied the role of tourism in poverty alleviation utilising the SLA and conclude that when tourism has strong linkages at national and local levels, it generates opportunities for the local people and alleviate poverty.

Mbaiwa (2008:163) also employed the SLA to investigate the livelihood of village people in Botswana prior to and after tourism development. The study concluded that the livelihood of the local people improved, nonetheless, external factors such as political issues in the neighbouring country of Zimbabwe and the September 11 atrocities affected the development of tourism in that area making the sustainability of global tourism for developing countries uncertain.

Furthermore, a study by Cotton (2015) investigated the impact of tourism and immigration on the sustainable livelihoods of the local people determined that each of the livelihoods are interlinked and investment in education will provide the local community with more opportunities for employment and also accessibility to loans are an essential financial asset to them. However, to successfully

implement the SLA it requires a significant role for local people in decision making, which can be done through delegating tourism rights to community level, offering government incentives or making certain that planning by private entrepreneurs is responsive to local needs (Ashley, 2000). Livelihood studies are essential when assessing the impacts of tourism before and after tourism development. Using a SLA framework would not reveal much about the impacts, which is the core of this research.

3.6.2 Sustainable Tourism-Elimination of Poverty (ST-EP) analysis

To improve poor people's likelihood of benefiting from tourism, varied methods such as the Sustainable Tourism-Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP) and Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) were initiated. The WTO and the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) developed the ST-EP initiative with the purpose of helping developing countries and Least Developed Countries (LDCs) to alleviate poverty via tourism. The ST-EP agenda was officiated in 2006, initially with the purpose of developing small projects by 2015.

The ST-EP initiative proposed to create a basis that would promote sustained capitals for research and it also purposed to provide a direct link between tourism and poverty alleviation, placing much emphasis on alleviating poverty through the development and creation of jobs for people living on less than one dollar a day (Ashley *et al.*, 2007). The Tourism and Poverty Alleviation: Recommendations for Action (2004:17-30) offers more detailed guiding principles for private tourism businesses to participate in pro-poor tourism activities (WTO, 2004). The report highlights seven ways in which the poor can directly benefit from tourism:

- **Provision of jobs to the poor people in tourism businesses.**

The tourism businesses (hotels, tour operators) should take specific measures to increase the level of employment to poor people. This would help the poor households and individuals to move out of poverty and gain confidence. The tourism enterprises can also benefit from this strategy through low staff turnover and increased standard of service because the local community would feel more valued and would want to be associated with a business that values them and this enhances the way they treat the business customers. However, the local business would need to ensure that challenges such as race and gender discrimination, religious and cultural differences and unfair wages are thoroughly analysed and addressed.

- **The poor people supplying goods and services to tourism organisations or giving the poor people jobs.**

To ensure that the poor people are involved in the supply process and make best use of the amount of visitor spending that is retained in the local community, the tourism sector needs to analyse and regulate the source of goods and services they use at all stages of the supply chain (Spenceley *et al.*, 2009). Thus, the tourism businesses can source only locally produced products to reduce leakages and promote linkages. This is essentially beneficial to the poor people because it offers them an opportunity to sell their products and enhance their skills. It also benefits the tourism enterprises through the availability of fresh food for visitors and this influences the cost of supplying the products to be relatively low. The local businesses also have an opportunity to showcase unique and local activities. Nonetheless, it is essential for the local businesses to ensure that the supplier meet the regulated standards such as health and safety standards.

- **The poor people directly selling goods and services to visitors through, for instance, the informal sector e.g. handcraft.**

This section involves the poor people directly selling products such as fruit, handicrafts and services such as transport and guiding. It is normally regarded as the informal sector. This would help the community and the small businesses such as curio shops and it also empowers the poor people (Richardson, 2010). Selling tourism goods and services directly to the tourists offers the community an opportunity to engage with tourists, hence the chance of the tourists reaching the poor are higher. The poor people may be faced with challenges such as charging lower prices for their products and this may cause conflicts to emerge amid themselves and/or with the formal sector.

- **The poor people running and starting tourism businesses like small, micro, and medium-sized enterprises (SMMEs) or CBEs (formal economy).**

As a community or as individuals, the poor people may start and manage formal tourism businesses. Unlike informal businesses, poor people starting formal business would offer them opportunities to develop for the future. The merits of starting local businesses to combat poverty include having long-term investments and it encourages businesses to be started within the communities, hence it gives the local people (including the poor) power and control over their own initiatives. The availability of finances may be a challenge to start initiatives and individuals may lack the appropriate skills for businesses to grow. Other challenges include poor infrastructure, income unevenly distributed and women lacking inadequate support in accessing credit.

- **The poor people benefitting from tourism proceeds, tax and levy.**

Income earned by the government (local and national) can be utilised in poverty alleviation endeavours. Tourism income can be attained via taxes (business and development) such as airport taxes, bed taxes and visa fees. The tourism businesses can pay levies directly to the community. Benefits can be gained by the poor without them being involved in the tourism industry through the government using the income to assist them. However, the taxes should be regulated in such a way that they do not prevent the tourists visiting the destination. Thus, governments would need to continually review their taxation laws and they should consult with the local stakeholders when developing new taxation structures.

- **Tourists visiting the poor people's communities and giving back to the community voluntarily. Tourism enterprises and tourists supporting the community.**

This is when the tourism businesses and tourists support the poor communities through cash and in kind, this can be achieved through initiatives such as sponsoring local schools, funding HIV/AIDS projects and providing clean water for the community. This would assist the tourists to understand the poverty concept and help the community to identify those that need more assistance. It is therefore important for local residents to be fully committed to the programmes by ensuring that issues such as fair pay and working conditions are first recognised. They need to work with the NGOs to form beneficiary systems and encourage the operators to work together on the systems in local areas.

- **The poor people directly benefitting from tourism infrastructure or from receiving support from other sectors.**

Development of new infrastructure (roads, sanitation and communications) in rural areas can bring net benefits to the poor people. The development of tourism uses a lot of resources to the detriment of the local community; it should instead offer them an opportunity to gain access to them. The local community should be engaged in tourism planning at the early phases of the planning.

The ST-EP initiative was regarded as an effective device to provide feasible contribution to the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which also aspires to promote sustainable tourism (economic, social and environmental). The approach also influences different stakeholders (governments, NGOs, public society) to work together and implement strategies and policies aimed at eliminating poverty (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012). Conversely, Scheyvens (2007) contends that the ST-EP strategies mainly focus on local participation and fails to unravel structural restraints at a national and international level. The approaches utilising by ST-EP will be analysed in this research

as it aims to establish the benefits of rural tourism development. Therefore, the strategies utilised by the two regions to alleviate poverty will be explored to establish their effect on poverty alleviation.

3.6.3 Community-Based Tourism (CBT)

Several definitions and concepts of CBT have also been offered, making it difficult to conceptualise (Ndlovu & Rogerson, 2003). Community-based tourism (CBT) was developed in the 1970s in response to the negative impacts of the international mass tourism development model (Cater, 1993). It was established with the purpose of supporting rural development in both developed and developing countries (George *et al.*, 2007) although it is much prevalent in developing countries (Page *et al.*, 2001). CBT development is also available in poor and rich countries and it is mainly introduced in countries where inequality is high, and trust and civic participation are low (Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015; Lancee & Van de Werfhorst, 2011:9). It was established for the purpose of educating the local people so that they will be able to equip themselves and involve them in decision making (Catley, 1999).

It is essential for CBT to be owned and managed by the community (George *et al.*, 2007). Due to its profound principles, CBT has gained support from varied international organisations such as the World Tourism Organisation (2002) which also provides various aims such as community empowerment and ownership, social and economic development, conservation of natural and cultural resources, and a high-quality visitor experience. Scheyvens (2002) also advocates that CBT should economically, psychologically, socially and politically empower the host community.

It is vital that the government, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and any other organisations collaborate with the local community to improve the social, cultural and economic conditions in communities. Thus, it should not be viewed as a profit-making initiative but aid as a way of breaking a dependency syndrome. Sin and Minca (2014:98) view CBT as the new way of providing a solution to bottom up tourism development. Nonetheless, Ellis and Sheridan (2014:1) argue that CBT does not present solutions to a bottom up approach, but positive results can be attained if applied effectively.

Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2013) also emphasise that CBT should be viewed as a way of promoting community development which incorporates empowerment, self-reliance, social justice, sustainability and freedom. It is quite clear that academics and different organisations agree that somehow CBT should empower its participants, however, arguments among researchers remain as to whether CBT can empower the local community (Sin & Minca, 2014:98). Thus, this research will critically analyse the involvement of the local communities in CBT initiatives.

Scheyvens (2002) emphasises that the success of CBT initiatives is rarely achieved without the engagement of external sources such as NGOs, international conservation organisations or tour operators. Therefore, Guzman *et al.* (2011) offer that the structure of CBT should be divided into four classifications:

- Small tourist offices (may work as tour guides).
- Institutions which collaborate with the local tourism industry such as local public administrations, NGOs and universities.
- Direct service companies which can be divided into two sets: accommodation, food and beverage, and shops selling local products.
- Transport and financial businesses.

CBT provides an opportunity to alleviate poverty (Yang & Hung, 2014:884) since leakages are reduced at a local level (Lapeyre, 2010). Research on community-based enterprises (CBEs) by Manyara and Jones (2007) concludes that CBEs controlled by white investors or foreigners did not make a significant impact on poverty reduction at an individual household level. They also found that the CBE model heavily depends on donor funding. This notion concurs with Goodwin *et al.* (2009). Consequently, research by Malatji and Mtapuri (2012), observed and concluded that CBEs provide an opportunity for poverty alleviation initiatives, however, for them to be of benefit to the local community, it is vital for them to be restructured and reconstituted. Giampiccoli and Kalis (2012) conclude that external sources should provide resources such as education and infrastructure to the local community and it is vital for CBT not to be controlled by external sources in its development. They also suggested that CBT is not a panacea and should not be viewed as the only solution, but it should be incorporated in the context of strategies to promote rural development.

The businesses that are regarded as CBT in Namibia are:

- lodges, conservancies and the private sector partnerships
- trophy hunting
- crafts
- small businesses like campsites (MET, 2002).

Community-based tourism in Namibia is utilised as a tool to alleviate poverty and its emphasis has been placed on community benefits, involvement and empowerment. Thus, the Namibian CBT policy aims to ensure that the local community is involved in the tourism planning and that they have significant authority in the decision-making procedures as far as the utilisation of natural and cultural resources is concerned (Kavita & Saarinen, 2016:79). Keane *et al.* (2009) also highlight that CBT in

Namibia is particularly supported by the government because of the benefits it presents to the local community, economy, wildlife conservation and sustainable tourism.

Research by Novelli and Gebhardt (2007:445) reveals that analysing CBTs in Namibia is quite complex due to the number of stakeholders involved in the decision making because their needs and opinions vary. They emphasise that the local community is mainly interested in the direct benefits of CBT whilst environmentalists are more concerned with the environmental impacts of tourism. Janis (2011) highlights that the CBT's needs (particularly in Namibia) are neglected.

CBT in Namibia is linked to CBNRM. The conservancy program is regarded as one of the best community conservation initiatives in existence, particularly on how it supports rural development (Tallies *et al.*, 2008). Conservancies in Namibia are supported by the government and non-governmental organisations (NGOs) such as the Namibia Community-Based Tourism Assistance Trust (NACOBTA) which aims to develop rural communities in Namibia and support community-based tourism businesses. The CBT in Namibia heavily relies on donors and this has presented the initiative with challenges. Although CBT in Namibia has been highlighted as a panacea to poverty alleviation and rural development through provision of jobs, it has been presented with challenges such as the lack of specialised skills, underdevelopment of CBTEs in rural areas and lack of interest from community members (Janis, 2014:189). According to Saayman and Giampiccoli (2015) CBT is within the limits of PPT because it promotes the pro-poor strategies in a community setting, therefore, it can be viewed as a form of PPT. The next section analyses the PPT approach and the effects of tourism on the poor and discusses the types of strategies implemented by the tourism industry to reduce poverty.

3.7 PRO-POOR TOURISM (PPT) AND THE EFFECTS OF TOURISM ON THE POOR

PPT was developed in the 90s and it is not a tourism product or a segment but an overall approach which aims to open up opportunities for the poor people accordingly. Developing countries have recognised PPT as an essential tool for poverty alleviation (Sharpley, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011). In most cases poor people are not included in the tourism sector and are faced with challenges of selling locally produced goods or services. This has ultimately influenced PPT to attract a lot of interest from academics, donor agencies, economists and policy makers. Economists and policy makers have utilised the term “pro-poor” largely to discern from economic developments and the types of economic development that positively impact on the lives of poor people and the ones that help them to eradicate poverty (Mahony & Van Zyl, 2002). Academics have advocated that the approach “unlocks opportunities”, influences changes in government policies and tourism practices that results to a

“tilting of the cake” and improved participation of the poor in tourism chains (Bennett *et al.*, 1999; Goodwin, 2008; Roe & Urquhart, 2001).

The approach concentrates on strategies that are aimed at reducing poverty and yield benefits for poor people thus moving past the “trickle down concept” (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004). However, Scheyvens (2007) critiqued the PPT approach for accentuating on local initiatives and failing to open up structural constraints at a national and international level. Ashley and Carney (1999) defines PPT as “tourism that generates net benefits for the poor” indicating that the benefits should be more than the costs. Thus, poor people should be offered augmented access to economic benefits of tourism and the approach should also address the negative social and environmental impacts related to tourism (Ashley & Carney, 1999). If tourism approaches emphasise solely on tourism growth and disregard the poor, it will fail to reduce poverty. Thus, its main aim should therefore be to place the poor and poverty at the centre. It is also important to note that PPT is not a solution but a contribution to rural development and alleviation of poverty. Bennett *et al.* (1999:15) highlight that tourism can be called pro-poor if it offers economic benefits via:

- Formation of full or part-time jobs or the growth of small, medium and micro-sized enterprises (SMMEs) opportunities.
- Investment in infrastructure inspired by tourism.
- Direct sales of goods and services to visitors by poor.
- Tax or levy on tourism income.

It is vital that the poor people obtain the net benefits even if richer people benefit more than the poor people (Ashley *et al.*, 2001; Blake *et al.*, 2008). Chok *et al.* (2007) critically analyse the ideologies of PPT and state that the approach should:

- Include poor people in decision making.
- Economically, socially and environmentally recognise the livelihood concerns of poor people.
- Offer a balanced approach, for instance economic sectors should support pro-poor enterprises.
- Analyse the distribution of benefits and costs.
- Draw on lessons from poverty analysis and small enterprise development.

Hence, it is an approach towards tourism development and management where linkages are developed amongst tourism organisations and the poor people to influence tourism benefits to the poor (Beeton, 2005:2001). Nonetheless, Muganda *et al.* (2010) researched the impact of tourism development in Tanzania and conclude that tourism development in the studied community did not

improve the quality of life of the local residents and instead of the local community's household incomes to increase, their incomes were reduced, thus the gap was broadened regarding the sharing of benefits and employment access.

3.7.1 The effects of tourism on the poor

Developing countries have promoted the tourism industry as one that promotes economic growth and aid in poverty alleviation whilst Bolwell and Weinz, (2008) argue that economic growth does not ultimately lead to the reduction of poverty. Mitchell and Ashley (2010) have advocated that tourism has the potential to offer benefits to the poor and offered three main pathways by which the benefits of tourism activity can be offered to the poor. These have been highlighted in their conceptual framework in Figure 3.5.

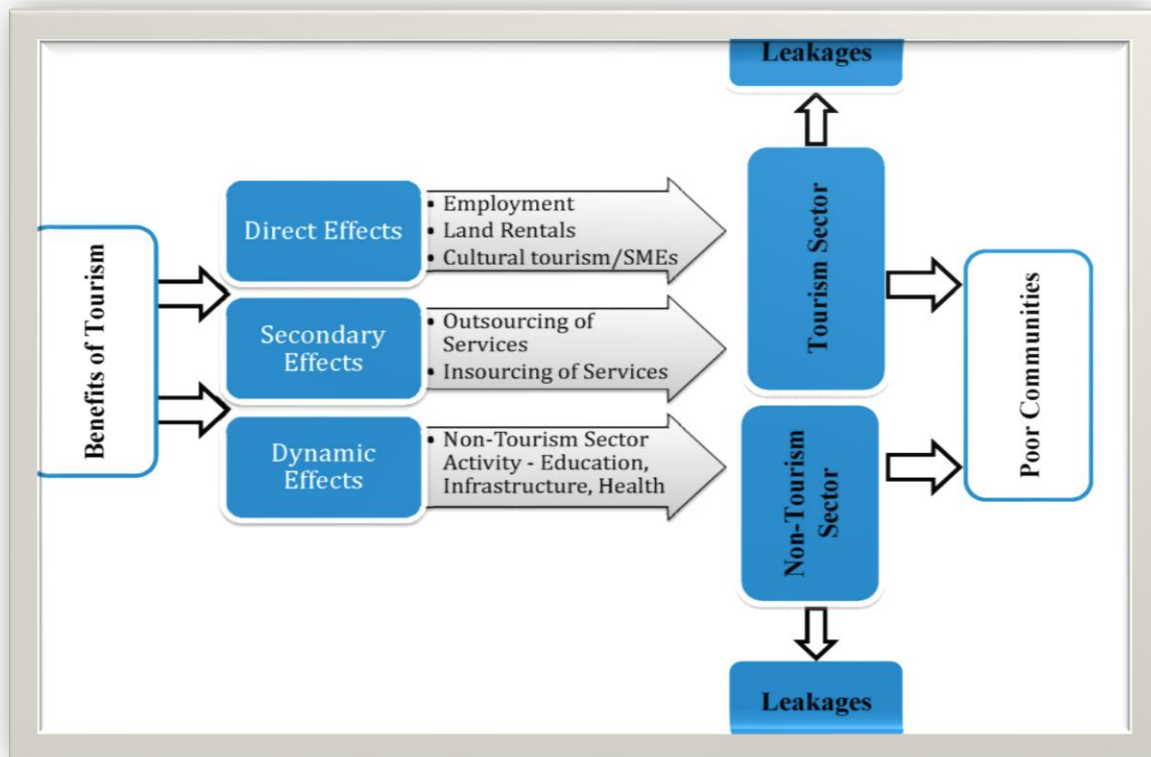


Figure 3.5: The impacts of tourism on poor communities

Source: Mitchell and Ashley (2010)

Manwa and Manwa (2014:5700) describe effects as pathways through which the poor can benefit from tourism. The pathways were further split into three (Manwa & Manwa 2014:5700), namely direct, indirect and dynamic effects of tourism. The direct effects transpire when the poor people are

employed in the tourism sector and these effects should have a positive financial impact. Mitchell and Ashley (2010:22) section them into labour income and non-labour income. The labour income includes wages from the formal sector employment and other types of earnings such as craft selling. Direct effects may also comprise of other income earned by people from poor families in tourism value chains such as hotels, transportation and restaurants (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010).

In South Africa, a study by Spenceley and Seif (2003) reveal that the local community significantly benefitted from direct employment within the tourism industry. Nonetheless, the characteristics of the tourism industry makes it difficult for the poor people to benefit from tourism; examples include seasonality influencing the employment of casual workers and low paid jobs due to lack of skills. Therefore, employment in the tourism industry on its own does not assist in poverty alleviation because of the unstable earnings (Huynh, 2011; Jolliffe & Farnsworth, 2003:312; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Furthermore, Janis (2011) argues that the low position of poor people makes it difficult for them to negotiate for higher wages, thus making them more vulnerable. Consistent with the findings of Ashley *et al.* (2018:1747) in Cambodia, farming is therefore the main activity for almost all rural households making up the main source of their livelihood.

The poor people can however benefit from tourism via non-labour income which comprises of the local community leasing communal land to tourism operators, starting corporate initiatives such as curio shops or craft markets and CBTs (Ashley & Roe, 2002; Hill *et al.*, 2006). Nonetheless, the involvement of the poor in tourism and reaping the tourism benefits are restricted by competition from multinational businesses, and sometimes they are involved in the development of strategies and not rewarded the tourism benefits (Schilcher, 2007; Ashley *et al.*, 2000). Thus, it is essential to implement a unified approach which measures the actual and perceived economic and socio-cultural impacts on poor people. Understanding how the poor people have benefitted from rural tourism development is at the core of this research. Direct effects also include the non-financial livelihoods changes, for instance access to local amenities such as beaches and better-quality infrastructure (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010:21).

Indirect effects are secondary effects that intends to cover indirect incomes from tourism activities (Manwa & Manwa, 2014:5700), and these can be achieved through induced benefits from tourism employees re-spending their incomes in the local economy and through supply chains in tourism. The tourist expenses should stimulate economic activities in destinations permitting the poor people to get salaries from hotel construction and supplying goods and services (for instance food and craft products). Likewise, if the tourism sector is strongly linked with agriculture, farmers will also gain.

Lastly, dynamic effects' main purpose is to evaluate the role of tourism in poverty alleviation on the macro economy, thus it comprises of the differences in the macro economy, for example tax to support services to local people and capacity building for tourism workers. The dynamic effects are less tangible than the direct and indirect effects and it is difficult to assess their impact on the poor. They also comprise of human resource development, for example in women which upsurges their financial position and assist in dealing with gender barriers (Ashley *et al.*, 2007). Spenceley *et al.* (2009:41) also added that tourism development and upgrading employees' skills are linked as it offers an opportunity for local people to acquire new languages and customer service skills and these skills acquired via tourism work are transferable to other sectors. Hence dynamic effects have an effect on tourism corporate growth, natural resources base and improvement of infrastructure (Mitchell & Ashley, 2010).

Although PPT is inadequately represented, it is an essential component of sustainable tourism, and is frequently called an "ethical cousin" of fair-trade tourism (FTT) because they both emphasise on the benefits of local people (Ravallion, 2004). However, FTT emphasises fair salaries and fair working environments in the destination. PPT approach has been utilised to assess the impacts of tourism on the poor, however, a lot of assessments have emphasised analysing the economic impacts indicating that economic growth provided a real measure for poverty alleviation. It is therefore essential to critically analyse the different types of pro-poor tourism strategies employed by different researchers.

3.7.2 Types of PPT strategies

The main objective of PPT strategies is to open up opportunities for poor people; this could be achieved through involvement in decision making and through economic benefit and other livelihood benefits (Ashley *et al.*, 2001; Sharpley, 2009; Zapata *et al.*, 2011). Scheyvens (2002) highlights the PPT strategies and sectioned them into:

- Local benefits-economic benefits.
- Livelihood benefits (physical, social and cultural developments).
- Less tangible benefits (e.g. participation).

Scheyvens (2011:115) expounds that the PPT strategies should concentrate on capacity building of the poor, empowering and offer support for labour rights and have more control over the tourism activities in their communities. Correspondingly, Ashley and Roe (2002:63) categorise the PPT strategies into three:

- **Increasing access of the poor to economic benefits:** it comprises of the development of local enterprises and job opportunities for poor people, offering them training to enhance their chances at any open opportunities and the income benefitting the whole community.
- **Dealing with any negative social and environmental effects which are linked to tourism:** these include impacts such as lost access to land, coastal areas and social interruption.
- **Focusing on policies, processes and partnerships:** this involves formulation of policy frameworks that eliminates barriers to poor participation; to encourage involvement of poor people in tourism planning approaches and to promote partnerships between the private sector and the poor people in developing new tourism products.

Similar to Ashley and Roe (2002), Ashley *et al.* (2001) and the World Tourism Organisation (2002, 2004) also analyse the strategies that improve economic benefits and highlighted it as:

- Improving employment opportunities and salaries through commitments to local jobs and training the local residents.
- Developing corporate opportunities for poor communities for instance local businesses that sell inputs or tourist products; these range from food products to crafts. Thus, the strategies may be in the form of support such as financial and marketing support.
- Growth of shared community revenue. For instance, equity dividends, equal distribution of income and donations which is generally ascertained in agreement with tourism operators or government institutions.

It is quite apparent that in general the PPT strategies are interrelated, in essence, they are generally viewed as strategies that increase economic benefits, address negative effects and encourage formation of policies. The poor people should be encouraged to contribute to the decision-making procedures so that their priorities are noted and considered. It is therefore important for all the participants (government, private and public sectors, local businesses and the local community) to understand the proposed approaches and follow them.

However, as indicated above, the approach encompasses a lot of stakeholders who all have different needs, hence it is essential for the strategies to be focused on poverty alleviation. The tourism stakeholders in Namibia comprises of: government boards (such as Namibia's tourism board), Federation of Namibian Tourism Associations (FeNaTA), NGOs (such as NACOBTA, IRNDC, WWF, CBNRM and NNF), private businesses (such as tour operators, hotels, restaurants and travel agencies), CBEs and the local community. The Tourism Policy (2008) noted the importance of including all the stakeholders in decision making with regards to tourism initiatives.

3.7.3 The challenges of pro-poor tourism

As highlighted by Ashley *et al.* (2001), Sharpley (2009) and Zapata *et al.* (2011), PPT aims to unlock opportunities for poor people, in particular for women, hence the approach is an important key component in solving the issue of leakages (Carbone, 2005). Thus, with this view PPT has been criticised for over-emphasising local initiatives. Similarly, the understanding of the poverty concept and its causes at a local level setting is limited, hence it is imperative to analyse the causes of poverty to have a clear understanding of how tourism can contribute to poverty alleviation. Debates from scholars have emerged on how to define a “poor person” and PPT fails to fully define the notion. It standardises the poor and underprivileged people in developing countries and therefore fails to consider societal differences and other factors such as economic conditions, political issues and the topographical locations.

The supporters of PPT have insisted that tourism is an essential tool for reducing poverty in comparison to other economic sectors and promotes sustainable economic growth (Ashley *et al.*, 2001; Ashley & Mitchell, 2008; Meyer, 2007; Rogerson, 2012). Focusing on economic growth has been criticised by opponents of PPT because the approach emphasises the importance of increasing economic growth so that the poor can benefit from this growth, thus it does not sufficiently address power structures of the destination (Mowforth & Munt, 2009; Scheyvens, 2007; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). The question remains whether most tourism businesses, especially the private organisations aiming to gain profits, will support and prioritise the view of tourism development and poverty alleviation. It is important to note that PPT should be about the needs of poor people and they should be allowed to choose their own development primacies, yet a lot of PPT research does not include the views/voices of the poor people (Holden *et al.*, 2011; Pleumarom 2012; Schilcher, 2007) which is one of the focus points of this research.

Instead of alleviating poverty the approach may benefit the rich more than the poor, encouraging the gap between the poor and the rich to widen (Hall, 2007). Thus, it does not thoroughly address issues of inequalities. This is a case in point with destination Namibia where poverty has reduced in some areas, yet the white minority (10%) still control more than half of the economy. The inequality gap is still considered one of the highest in the world (UNDP, 2016). Also, research by Wattanakuljarus and Coxhead (2008) conclude that tourism in Thailand influenced the high-income households to benefit more than the poor households and the inequality gap broadened whilst income distribution deteriorated.

PPT has been criticised for over-relying on donors, (Mowforth & Munt, 2003), the argument is that if destinations heavily rely on donor funding, it will weaken the sustainable livelihood, instead of reducing poverty, it will aggravate it. The approach advocates that poor people should participate in decision making and encourages a bottom up approach, but Chok *et al.* (2007) mention that the PPT approach is driven by large organisations and governments whose emphasis is on gaining political support for tourism as a policy priority. Thus, it would normally overlook the “extreme poor” in a society (Saarinen & Rogerson, 2014:26). Furthermore, most of the tourism bureaucrats do not have any knowledge and training in utilising tourism as a device for poverty alleviation (Jamieson & Nadkarni, 2009:118).

It is quite clear that PPT has been heavily criticised, yet a lot of researchers have utilised the approach to analyse the impacts of tourism on poverty alleviation and viewed the approach as significant at a local level. Other academics contended that the PPT discourse is not that analytical, consequently, the tourism sector has actively adopted pro-poor tourism to enhance its image (Butler *et al.*, 2013; Scheyvens, 2007). Thus, the purpose of this research is to analyse how the local community has benefitted from tourism development. It analyses two different regions and assess whether these benefits vary. Ultimately it intends to analyse whether tourism development has made any impact on poverty alleviation and develop a framework to improve this.

Adopting the PPT approach, the conceptual framework (Figure 3.6) has been developed based on the review of literature. Chapter 2 revealed that global tourism is growing and Namibia as a developing country has benefitted from this growth. The chapter also identified that Namibia formulated various tourism policies, intended to develop rural tourism and alleviate poverty. To develop rural tourism, emphasis has been placed on the economic approach, where the tourism developed is anticipated to benefit the local community through multiplier effects. Chapter 3 revealed that poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon, therefore measuring poverty using economic approaches only is debatable. Community-based tourism has also been utilised as a vehicle to alleviate poverty. Yet with all the strategies implemented by the tourism industry in Namibia, thirty years after the country’s independence in 1990, poverty in the northern region is still prevalent. The poverty rates have also been increasing in the Zambezi region.

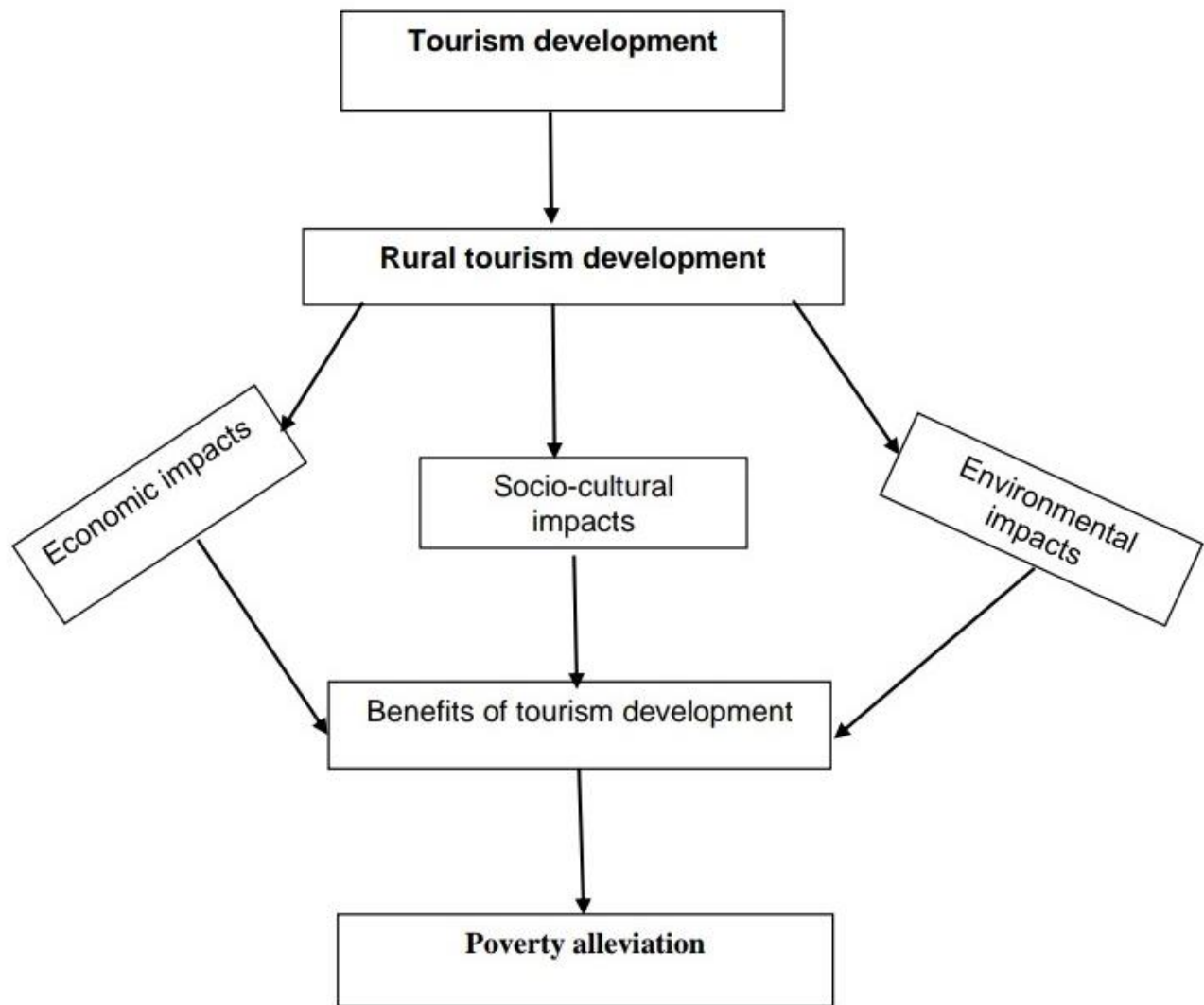


Figure 3.6: Conceptual framework

Source: Owner's own compilation

Based on the impacts of COVID-19 on the tourism industry, these poverty rates are anticipated to increase. The impacts of tourism on poverty have been well researched, however, there is limited research that analysed the causes of continuous poverty in the northern region and to establish the effects of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation.

3.8 PREVIOUS STUDIES ON THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The impact of tourism has been critically discussed and debated amongst scholars and various methods have been used to ascertain whether tourism development makes any impact on poverty alleviation. To analyse the role of tourism on poverty alleviation and its impact on the livelihood of the community the SLA was utilised in a number of studies including that of Ming Su *et al.* (2019:1591)

where they used SLA in their study on tea tourism. Laeis and Lemke (2016:1076) used the same approach and were able to confirm that it enables a proper analysis of the interaction of various stakeholders in tourism.

Earlier on, Luvanga and Shitundu (2003) studied the contribution of tourism in poverty alleviation using the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) and concluded that when tourism has strong linkages at national and local levels it generates opportunities for the local people and alleviate poverty. Lapeyre (2011) examined the community-based tourism businesses' contribution to poverty alleviation in Namibia using SLA and highlights that the tourism income received promoted linkages within the area. The research also concluded that promoting and supporting CBTEs in Namibia is difficult and costly due to the competitiveness of the industry. The lack of support from donors and non-governmental organisations impacts on the success of the community tourism projects. However, Mutana *et al.* (2013:155) highlight that for poverty alleviation to be achieved the poor need to be assisted so that they are able to run and manage tourism businesses and have linkages with tourism enterprises.

To successfully implement the SLA, it requires a significant role for local people in decision making, which can be done through delegating tourism rights to community level, offering government incentives or making certain that planning by private entrepreneurs is responsive to local needs (Ashley *et al.*, 2000). The tourism industry has also used the PPT approach to analyse the benefits offered by the tourism industry to the local community and poor people and to reduce the effects of poverty. Research by Nicanor (2001) examined the practical strategies on PPT (NACOBTA) in Namibia and concludes that the poor tend to benefit from tourism in the short term (in terms of income), but livelihood impacts are difficult to quantify since the poor, donors and NGOs do not pay much attention to them. The study offered that the impacts are best measured a long period after implementation (10+ years).

In Botswana, Manwa and Manwa (2014:5697) analysed the perceptions of stakeholders on the opportunities unlocked for the poor through the opening up of forest reserves; the research analysed the prospects tourism offered on poverty alleviation using the PPT approach. They concluded that opening up the forest reserves will provide benefits (short term and medium term), but to guarantee sustainability there is need for continuous enhancement of tourism strategies. Similarly, Truong *et al.* (2014) researched on tourism and poverty alleviation applying the PPT approach and concludes that the poor people's views must be valued so that the approach to alleviate poverty can be successful.

In agreement with Truong *et al.* (2014) Phommavong (2011) studied the impacts of global tourism development on poverty reduction in Lao PDR and highlights that, in order for PPT to benefit low income groups, it should be people centred, promote local participation and bottom-up initiatives. Halim (2014) employed the Pro-Poor Value Chain Analysis (VCA) to examine the impact of tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation and concludes that rapid economic growth in Malaysia influenced new forms of poverty and unskilled workers. Thus, this agrees with Gartner (2008)'s view that tourism's impact on poor people should not only consider economic benefits, but socio-cultural and environmental impacts as well.

Other researchers have utilised mathematical methods to study the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation, for instance Saayman *et al.* (2012) analysed the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation in South Africa employing the Applied General Equilibrium (AGE) model and concludes that the poor benefit very little in the short term from additional tourism inflows; these were the same conclusions reached by Nicanor (2001). Given these conclusions, it is not clear whether tourism can reduce poverty.

Muchapondwa and Stage (2013:85) studied the economic impacts of tourism in South Africa, Namibia and Botswana. The aim was to assess if poverty was subsiding in those countries. The research indicated that regardless of the emphasis on CBT in national tourism policies which aim to ensure that the rural community benefit from tourism, the poor appear to receive insignificant benefits from tourism. They employed Social Accounting Matrices (SAMs) and they stated that Namibia does not have adequate economic statistics on tourism that will allow easy assessment of tourism's actual economic impacts. This will also present challenges in analysing the impacts of tourism at a provincial level as the country does not currently compile SAMs or input-output tables. There is also no available data as to expenditure patterns of tourists for different regions.

Henceforth, Saayman *et al.* (2012) propose for future research to explore poverty alleviation at a provincial level so as to analyse the province which benefits the most from tourism. Correspondingly, Vogel (1997) states that the Namibian communities often benefit very little from tourism apart from a few jobs in reputable lodges. Anderson (2014) concludes that tourism positively contributes to poverty alleviation, but more research is needed on analysing the extent of this contribution from different tourism activities in economic terms.

This research study analyses the contribution of tourism stakeholders in the poverty alleviation initiatives and whether these interventions had any impact on alleviation of poverty on the local

communities. A PPT approach assisted in understanding the views of all stakeholders. It is apparent that poverty reduction has been Namibia's priority over the years and has created a lot of interest among researchers. Ashley *et al.* (2001) studied PPT strategies and concluded that PPT was an effective strategy when judged by the income it creates, however this research was conducted as part of six case studies, it therefore did not provide a comprehensive review of the links between the tourism sector and poverty alleviation.

Janis (2011) studied Namibian tourism policies and local tourism enterprises' policy knowledge and stated that to reduce poverty in Namibia, the government should pay attention on who benefits on tourism growth and how. The researcher suggested that there is need for more research on the relationship between tourism and poverty alleviation. Thus, this research study analyses two popular regions in the northern part of Namibia (Kunene and Zambezi) to establish whether the development of rural tourism has an impact on poverty alleviation.

3.9 CONCLUSION

This chapter identified that the poverty concept is complex, and scholars have offered various definitions of poverty. Originally, poverty was defined as just a lack of basic needs which included hunger, lack of shelter, and lack of medical facilities, but other researchers have analysed poverty from an economic perspective (McCulloch *et al.*, 2001; World Bank, 2001; Mutana *et al.*, 2013:155). Some researchers argued that using economic terms only to define poverty is not plausible and it should include characteristics such as social exclusion, lack of infrastructure, lack of education and insecurity (Croes, 2014:211; Holden, 2013; Mitchell & Ashley, 2010). Poverty is a multidimensional issue and varies from destination to destination. This research therefore defines poverty in both fiscal and non-fiscal terms as highlighted by OECD (2001).

To clearly understand the poverty context, the chapter provided an analysis of the causes of poverty from a global and Namibian perspective. The chapter identified that poverty varies from one geographical region to another; generally poverty can be: inherited, instant, temporary or new (Feuerstein, 1997:5). In Asia, poverty was caused by political issues and cultural background whilst in the Sub-Saharan Africa poverty was caused by issues such as lack of participation, low donation to human capital and lack of employment opportunities (Obadan, 1997). In Namibia, the causes of poverty are extensive as they include issues such as social exclusion, environmental issues, gender discrimination, unemployment and diseases such as HIV/AIDS (Jauch *et al.*, 2009; MET, 2013; NPC, 2014; Republic of Namibia, 2008; Thobias, 2007), the historical and political background of the country which influenced a background of a highly unequal society (Janis, 2011).

The subject of inequality has also been extremely debated and it is not a new subject for the Namibian government. 10% of the Namibian population (white minority) own half of the economy, thus the government of Namibia devised a number of strategies to reduce the gap between the rich and the poor (UNDP, 2016). Approaches to measure poverty have been employed. These include Namibia Household Income and Expenditure Survey (NHIES), Household Subsistence Level and Cost of Basic Needs (CBN).

This chapter also scrutinised the link between tourism and poverty, it notes that tourism development is a powerful device utilised by economies to alleviate poverty, but it lacks reliable evidence to prove that fact. This is due to the fact that there is no agreed methodology of measuring poverty. The chapter also revealed that the characteristics of the tourism industry assists in the alleviation of poverty for instance tourists travelling to the destination allows them to interact with the local community, thus offering them an opportunity to market and sell their tourism products and services. The development of the tourism industry will offer the poor people with employment opportunities and the industry employs a lot of women. Tourism development contributes to poverty alleviation through indirect benefits such as development of infrastructure, provision of clean water and improvement of communication networks (Richardson, 2010) and it also promotes linkages.

From a global perspective the issue of poverty has been addressed through the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The tourism industry linked these MDGs through sustainable tourism, the environment and host communities (UNWTO, 2005:11). Furthermore, sustainable development emphasises the importance of poverty alleviation (MDG1) and the importance of *taking full responsibility of the current economic, social and environmental impacts*” (UNWTO, 2005:11). This definition is linked to MDG7. Likewise, the Namibian government and tourism industry linked the MDGs to their own strategies, for instance the NDP3 and NDP4 highlighted the importance of increasing economic growth for rural development where poverty and inequalities are predominant; this is in line with MDG1. MDGs were highly criticised but the United Nations reported that the MDGs were a success as extreme poverty was reduced as targeted. However, Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were launched to build upon the successes of the MDGs and completing the goals which were not achieved. The SDGs have been criticised for being too many, nonetheless, the successes of these goals are yet to be achieved.

To measure the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation, this chapter has identified that researchers apply different methods and approaches. These include the Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA)

which recognises that the impacts of tourism vary from household to household, hence it is important to individually analyse them. The PPT approach is defined as “tourism that results in increased net benefits for the poor” (Ashley & Roe, 2002:18). The chapter noted that the poor can benefit from tourism through direct, indirect and dynamic effects.

Researchers have either concentrated on a quantitative or qualitative approach, whilst others assessed the impacts of tourism from a macro or from a micro level (Ashley *et al.*, 2000; Ashley & Roe, 2002; Gartner, 2008; Halim, 2014; Holden *et al.*, 2011; Janis, 2011; Lapeyre, 2011; Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003; Manwa & Manwa, 2014; Muchapondwa & Stage, 2013:85; Mutana *et al.*, 2013:155; Nicanor, 2001; Phommavong, 2011; Schevyens, 2007; Saayman *et al.*, 2012; Truong *et al.*, 2014). After an analysis of the research conducted around the subject area, this study adopts a qualitative research and PPT approach will be employed as a guide to analyse the impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the northern region of Namibia. It aims to determine the contribution of stakeholders in alleviating poverty.

CHAPTER 4:

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this research is to determine the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. The preceding chapters (2 and 3) explored the appropriate literature surrounding the impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. The review of literature revealed that rural tourism development in Namibia is being used as a strategic tool for poverty alleviation. It also noted that the issues of inequalities and poverty alleviation have been on the agenda of the government of Namibia since gaining its independence in 1990. To reduce poverty in Namibia, the review of the literature showed that various NGOs and government agencies are involved in the planning of poverty alleviation initiatives and most rural communities rely on them for their development and livelihood. The success and impacts of all these efforts have not been analysed in depth, especially in the selected study regions.

This chapter will focus on the motivation for research methodology choices related to research design, research approach and the research plan that was followed for this study. Research has been defined by Mertens (2015) as one of many ways of knowing or understanding with the focus on “systematic” and “inquiry”. The approach followed should be clear and well-motivated which is the focus of this chapter. It highlights the selected approaches and methods used to steer and aid the research collection process. It starts by providing a rationale for selecting the applied research methodology and then present an outline of the research design applied in this research. It also highlights the sampling method, interview procedures, ethical issues and the researcher’s experiences prior and post data collection and analysis.

4.2 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND METHOD OF RESEARCH

Due to the nature of the topic and previous similar research a constructivist philosophical notion (Creswell, 2013) was adopted. This research study relies on the participants’ views of their own understanding of the subject under study. Charmaz (2006) also highlights that a social constructivist approach promotes innovation so that new understandings can be developed and update notional interpretations of the studied life. The literature review analysed different models and frameworks employed by researchers to assess the impact of tourism development on poverty alleviation. It revealed that researchers use either qualitative or quantitative methods on the poverty alleviation subject area. According to Tribe (2004) tourism is a multidisciplinary field hence various approaches

have been undertaken to study it.

To select the most suitable and effective methodology, the method should complement the research question, and previous research in the topic area should be studied to replicate, improve or use as a contrasting method (Veal, 2006). Thus, to select an effective methodology for this research, a review of previous research focusing on this field of research was completed to the topic. Based on this analysis (Chapter 2 & 3) a qualitative research approach was adopted, which entails an interaction between the researcher and the participants in a natural environment with the aim of gaining significant information through the interaction (Creswell, 2009; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008; Veal, 2006). Qualitative research allows researchers to identify issues from the participants' perceptions, it permits researchers to comprehend the meanings and explanations given by the participants with regards to behaviour or events (Hennink *et al.*, 2011:9).

The motivation for choosing a qualitative method is that it assists in unveiling any issues which might otherwise be hidden (Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Gillham, 2005). Therefore, acquiring first-hand information from the local communities were seen as more valuable rather than relying on statistical data provided by governments (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). The literature review also noted that relying on economic data can be misleading since most African countries have limited resources to offer up to date information (Jerven, 2013). Correspondingly, Veal (2006) mentions that a qualitative research method is the most suitable approach for the tourism industry, however, it has been criticised for taking longer to collect and analyse information (Robson, 2002).

Creswell (2013) and Bryman and Bell (2011) note five qualitative research approaches. These include grounded theory, case study, ethnographic, narrative and phenomenological approaches. Grounded theory focuses on development of theory which is based on specific data and information collected. Case study research is an in-depth study of one or more individuals or phenomena in its existing context (De Urioste-Stone *et al.*, 2018:407). A phenomenological design research the world through the eyes of those with direct lived experience and lastly ethnography focuses on the appreciation of human interaction through immersion, direct participation or observation (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Narrative studies explore the life of an individual(s) through their stories and historical content.

This research study firstly adopted grounded theory with the focus on the development of theory grounded from the data in the field (Charmaz, 2006; Matteucci & Gnoth, 2017:49). Grounded theory was originally developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The theory has been widely criticised by researchers such as Goulding (1998), who classified the theory as interpretive whilst Charmaz (2006) deemed the theory as taking a positivist approach. Glaser (1992) as one of the originators of the

grounded theory declared that the theory takes a pragmatic view. Thus, this research adopted Charmaz's (2006) grounded theory as it combines both Glaser and Strauss (1967)'s grounded theory in procedure. Grounded theory seeks to discover theory; thus, the research study allows theory to emerge from the primary data. Using grounded theory, the results of this research were utilised to develop theory and consequently draw research conclusions. This approach was key for this research as it promoted innovation so that the researcher can develop new understandings and update notional interpretations of the studied phenomena.

Literature was reviewed for the purposes of understanding the methodologies, but it was not extensively studied before conducting the primary research. This was to avoid being overwhelmed by the literature and bias. This was essential for the research as it sought to explore the causes of poverty persistence in the northern region of Namibia. According to Charmaz (2006) grounded theorists implement a few strategies to focus their data gathering and analysis. What the researchers do, how they do it, and why they do it emerges through interactions in the research setting, with their data, colleagues and themselves. The grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) offers an opportunity to address the how, what and why questions. This methodology fits in well with this research because this research seeks to identify the benefits of tourism development in the northern region of Namibia, how the development tourism has an effect on poverty alleviation and establish why poverty is particularly high in the northern region of Namibia.

Secondly, this research also adopted a phenomenological approach, with the purpose to have a clear understanding of the meaning of people's lived experiences as it aims to identify the phenomena through the perceptions of the players in a situation (Creswell, 2013). This renders into collecting rich information and experiences through inductive qualitative methods such as interviews and focus groups. This allowed information to be produced from the research participants' perspectives. Webb and Pollard (2006) describe hermeneutics as the interpretation of script by a viewer and can be utilised as an approach. Langdridge (2007) notes that descriptive and interpretive as the two types of phenomenology, and expounded that interpretive phenomenology is also referred to as hermeneutic phenomenology.

The phenomenological approach can be employed to a single case or to purposefully selected samples. To achieve the research objectives of this research study, the description of the phenomena of poverty from the participants' perceptions was provided and this was compared to the already existing body of knowledge. Therefore, using a phenomenological approach assisted to understand the concept of poverty from the respondents' point of view whilst a grounded theory was utilised to develop a theory from the primary data.

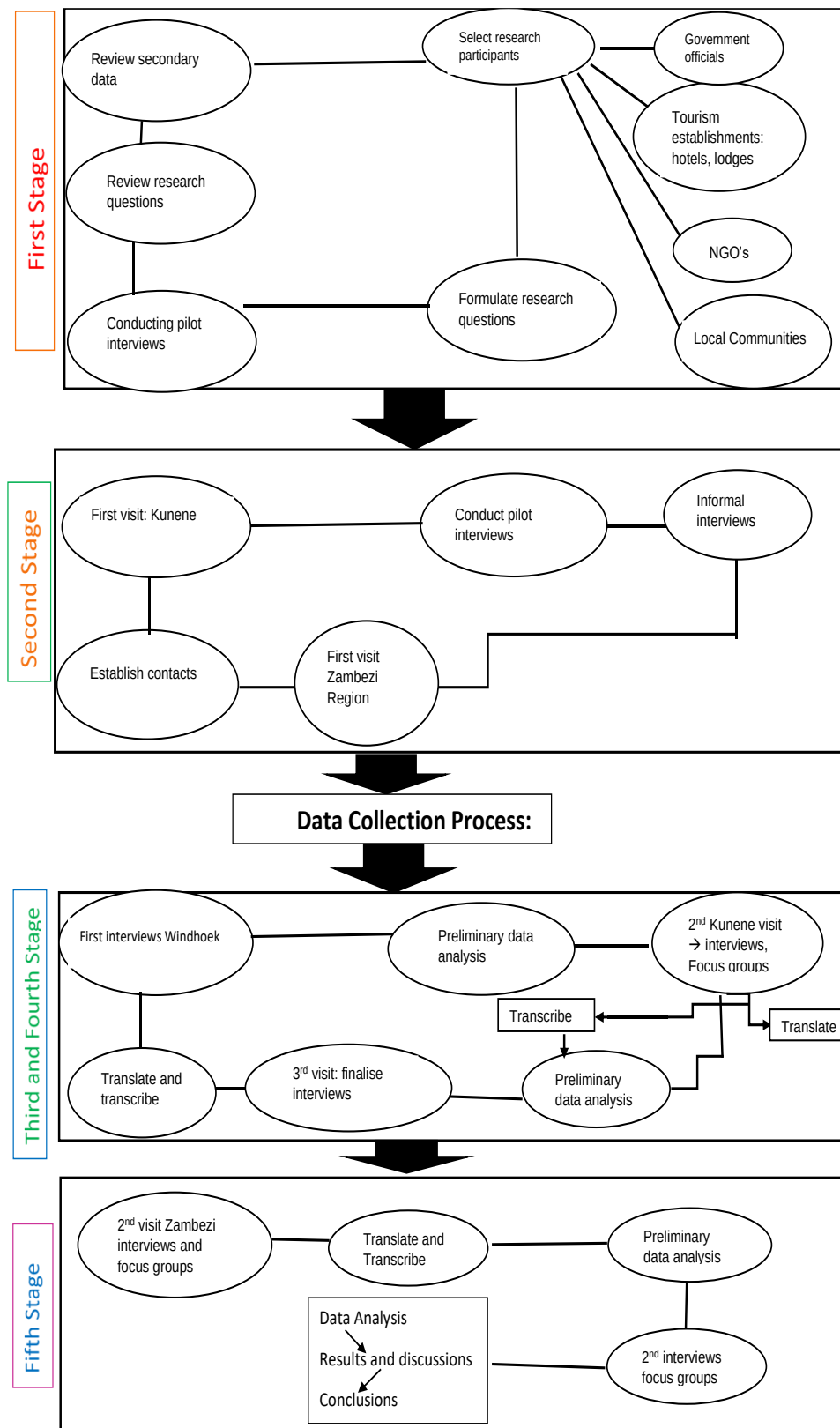


Figure 4.1: Research process

Source: Owner's compilation

The application of a basic hermeneutic method is validated in two theories (grounded and phenomenology). This approach permitted the researcher to devise a research process which was vigorous. According to Charmaz (2006) the researcher is viewed as a co-constructor of meaning and it is important for the researcher to avoid preconceived ideas from preceding knowledge.

This research sought to develop a framework guided by PPT approach. The theory that emerged from the primary data was used to modify a basic conceptual framework developed in Chapter 3. Hence the two approaches assisted to develop a framework that addresses the poverty phenomena based on the views and understanding of the participants. Figure 4.1 shows an outline of the research process.

4.2.1 Research study settings

This study focuses on the two northern regions of Namibia, namely Kunene region and the Zambezi region.

- **Poverty rates in Kunene and Zambezi**

These regions were selected because they had the highest numbers of poverty rates and most of the areas were predominantly rural (Republic of Namibia, 2015). The poverty rates are high in rural areas where 53% of the population live (Republic of Namibia, 2015). All the poorest regions are in the northern parts of Namibia. Poverty in Namibia as a whole has been decreasing (from 28,7% in 2010 to 17,4% in 2016) (World Bank, 2020). However, poverty rates in the studied regions are above national poverty rate (26,9%) (Republic of Namibia, 2016). Zambezi's unemployment rate increased from 31% in 2014 to 48% in 2016, this is the second highest rate of unemployment in Namibia (Nakashole, 2018). Whilst Kunene region has the highest unemployment rates with 52,2% (Namibia Statistics Agency, 2017). The poverty rates are anticipated to increase to 18,9% in 2022 due to the negative impacts of COVID-19 (World Bank, 2020a).

- **Population and structure of the communities**

The Kunene region has a population of approximately 87 000 people and 74% live in rural areas (Population and Housing census, 2011). The region is also divided into six constituencies namely, Epupa, Kamanjab, Khorixas, Opuwa, Outjo and Sesfontein. Epupa is the poorest constituency in the country, the most deprived materially and educationally (Republic of Namibia, 2016). These constituencies are immensely dispersed, and the roads are gravel. This posed issues of accessibility. The Zambezi region has a population of approximately 91 000 people. The region comprises of six constituencies which are Kongola, Linyanti, Sibinda, Katima Mulilo urban, Katima Mulilo rural, and Kabbe.

- **Tourism development**

Kunene region is one of Namibia's main international tourist destinations with world-renowned resources such as Etosha National Park, the Himba culture, Epupa Falls, the desert-adapted elephant and the rhino (Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007:445). Nomadic pastoralism is the main economic activity (Kaelo *et al.*, 2020).

The Zambezi region is the wettest region in Namibia with plenty of wild animals making it the richest region in Namibia in terms of natural diversity (Muisanyani, 2014). The residents rely on farming with farming cash crops such as maize and fishing as the main economic activities. It is apparent that these two regions have world-renowned tourism resources, yet the two regions have been classified as the poorest regions in the country (Republic of Namibia, 2016).

There are 86 registered conservancies in Namibia and these two regions have the highest number of conservancies in the country. There are 38 and 15 conservancies in Kunene and the Zambezi region respectively (NACSO, 2017). This offers an opportunity for the tourism industry to contribute towards poverty reduction and provide net benefits to the poor. Kunene region has the highest bed occupancy rate of 46,7% (MET, 2017). The Zambezi region also has established national parks in the Zambezi region such as Bwabwata, Nkasa Rupara, Mudumu and Mahango (NTB, 2020).

Based on the above, it is apparent that the region has a wealth of tourism resources and these could be utilised as a vehicle for rural tourism development and poverty alleviation as indicated in the Vision 2030, NDP3 and Tourism Policy, 2008 (MET, 2008). These figures confirm that focusing on Kunene and Zambezi region is plausible and can be of great value to these areas.

4.2.2 Data collection framework

As highlighted in Table 4.1 this research study utilised a qualitative research method to collect data through three phases.

Phase 1: Pre-collection development phase (Jan 2017 to Jan 2018)

The pre-collection phase consisted of three main activities, namely the literature review, the identification of the respondents and preparation of interview guides.

Reviewing the literature through secondary data collection was a continuous process. Various government documents were reviewed; these included government policies such as the Tourism

Policy (2008) and other related government documents such as Namibia's National Development Plans (1-5), Vision 2030, and tourism statistical reports. These documents were provided by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism Namibia and Namibia Tourism Board. Literature surrounding the research area was not extensively analysed because it was intended to use a grounded theory and phenomenological approach (allowing theory to emerge and avoiding preconceived ideas). Online databases such as EBSCO, Emerald, Science Direct and Sage were also consulted. Based on the information gained from these documents the research areas were selected. Keywords used in the literature review included rural tourism development, poverty alleviation, pro-poor and community-based tourism.

Secondly, the respondents were identified to participate in the research. The key informants included in this research study were coded to ensure anonymity. The first group of participants focus on relevant government organisations and individuals. According to the coding technique, "GW" stands for government organisations in Windhoek, thus, GW1 stands for the first government organisation in Windhoek. Whist "GK" and "GZ" stands for government organisations in Kunene and Zambezi respectively.

The second group, non-governmental organisations, were included coded as "NG". These included organisations that work directly with communities in Kunene and the Zambezi region and facilitate tourism projects in the two regions.

The third group, "TE" refers to all tourism establishments, "TEK" stands for Tourism Establishment in Kunene region and "TEZ" stands for Tourism Establishments in the Zambezi region. A focus was placed on lodges, hotels and campsites as well as conservancies.

The fourth group, "FGK" stands for focus groups in Kunene region and "FGZ" for focus groups in the Zambezi region. These included selected community members that live in the areas with high poverty rates and were willing to participate in the research.

After identification, letters inviting the participants to take part in the research were sent to the targeted respondents (Appendix 4). All the participants agreed to participate in the research except for one. The letters sent to the Zambezi and Kunene did not yield any response. However, these were followed up by telephone and all the participants agreed to participate in the research. The interview guides were prepared based on the government policies such as the Tourism Policy (2008) and other related government documents such as Namibia's National Development Plans (1-5),

Vision 2030, and tourism statistical reports. Previous research studies on the subject was also reviewed to identify a gap, however, these were not extensively explored. The interview guides were piloted on two participants (one government official and one NGO representative). According to their comments the interview guides were adapted (Appendix 1). The interview guides for the tourism establishments and focus groups with the communities were also designed in a similar way as the ones for NGO representatives and government officials. Translators were recruited; these were two students who were fluent at Vambo and Lozi languages.

4.2.2.1 Pilot study

A pilot interview can be defined as a miniature version of the study carried out prior to conducting the actual research (Robson, 2002). It is intended to assess how robust the research design is and how effective the data collection tools are. The pilot should be as representative of the study population as possible (Sapsford & Jupp, 1998). The pilot study was carried out by interviewing one NGO representative who is responsible for training managers and sourcing finances for conservancies and one government official who is responsible for informing and updating the local communities on the use of natural resources in Kunene region. Both these participants collaborate with NGOs in the study region. The decision to use this sample for piloting is justified by the fact that these subjects had adequate knowledge of the industry and the subject area. These pilot interviews were conducted in Windhoek. Participants used in the pilot study should not be used in the main research (Reid, 1993). As a result, these participants were excluded from taking part in the main study. Pilot interviews were also conducted during the first visit in Kunene and the Zambezi region. One pilot interview in each region was conducted with a maximum of five focus group members and with one tourism establishment in both regions. Therefore, these participants were excluded from the main research. The pilot study was helpful as it presented the researcher with the opportunity to further develop her skills in interviewing and to practise asking interview questions before carrying out the primary research.

Phase 2: Pre-collection visitation Phase (March 2018 to June 2018)

The initial visit to Kunene region was in March 2018 and to Zambezi region in April 2018. The purpose of this visit was mainly to establish contacts and identify the communities to be included in the research study. The communities were extremely dispersed with other areas impossible to reach due to transport limitations. Thus, contacts were made with chiefs and headmen to establish how the research would be conducted. One pilot interview in each region was conducted in the selected communities with a maximum of five focus group members and with one tourism establishment in both regions. Therefore, these participants and results were excluded from the primary data. Part of

this pre-collection visitation phase was to recruit and assess possible translators who could act as facilitators as well. Their main role was to recruit focus group members for the primary data collection phase and ensure that the interviewees were balanced in terms of gender, age groups and ethnic origin. The age group ranged from eighteen years and above. For communities with various ethnic groups, members from the different ethnicities were invited to ensure that they are represented. Translators were not required for interviewing tourism establishments, NGOs and government organisations. Based on the pilot interviews the interview guides for tourism establishments and local communities were further refined. The vocabulary was changed to improve clarity of the questions (Appendix 2 & 3). In total there were 21 informal interviews conducted in both regions; these were discussions conducted in a casual setting without following the structure of the research guides.

Phase 3: Primary data collection (July 2018 to February 2019)

Interviews with government organisations and individuals in Windhoek:

These interviews were carried out with three government officials and three NGO representatives and were conducted in Windhoek for a period of 1 month. The purpose of these interviews was to establish participants' understanding, views and opinions on the influence of tourism on poverty alleviation. This was paramount to explore their contribution to tourism development in Namibia and rural tourism development interventions. Thus, these interviews provided a basis for the research. It was also essential to keep an open mind. Primary data from these interviews were transcribed and coded.

Interviews with NGO representatives, tourism businesses and local communities in Kunene region:

Interviews in Kunene region started in August 2018. The interviews started with two NGO representatives, tourism establishments such as two hotels, two craft centres, six lodges and three conservancies. Four focus group interviews with the local communities were conducted at this stage. The informal interviews were also conducted, these were discussions which were either with tourism establishments or local communities. Unlike focus groups interviews, informal interviews do not follow a structure and interview guides are not used; this helped to remain open, have an in-depth understanding of the phenomena and uncover issues that might be hidden. Due to time constraints and accessibility issues, not all constituencies were interviewed. These interviews took two months. Due to the methodological approach adopted data was translated and coded continuously. Themes started to emerge; therefore, more interviews were conducted during the third visit for three weeks. Two more focus group interviews were conducted during the third visit. Interviews with NGO representatives and focus group interviews were conducted until saturation. This stage took three

months (August 2018 to mid-October 2018).

Interviews with NGO representatives, tourism businesses and local communities in Zambezi region:

Interviews in the Zambezi region started in November 2018. In-depth interviews were conducted with three NGOs and two government officials. Interviews with tourism establishments were conducted with managers/business owners of one hotel, three lodges, one campsite, two craft centres, and four conservancies. Three focus group interviews were conducted. At this stage, annual general meetings were attended, these were community AGMs comprising of four communities. Various government and NGO representatives attended the meetings. At these meetings arrangements were made to establish availability of two communities which were interviewed two weeks later. Attending annual general meetings helped to have a deep understanding of the issues affecting the development of tourism in the region. Informal interviews were conducted, and these interviews were valuable for the research. In all cases interviews were halted once knowledge saturation was achieved. Follow-up interviews were conducted. These were interviews which were conducted to confirm what would have emerged from the patterns or themes. At the end of each interview dates for the next interviews were made, to allow more information to be gathered. However, if the research stops providing new information then the research would have reached theoretical saturation. The primary data collected at each stage was purely qualitative data. This data were compared with secondary data already gathered and any new information acquired was updated throughout the process.

4.2.3 Selecting the research participants

4.2.3.1 Research participants and sampling method

According to Neale (2009), it is important to select a sample that truly represents the selected population. This sample should consist of participants who are willing and available to participate. To obtain this sample, either probability or non-probability sampling can be used. Unlike non-probability sampling, probability sampling provides an equal chance of selection for all the prospective participants within a population under study (May, 2011). Examples of probability sampling include simple random, systematic, stratified as well as cluster sampling (Finn et al., 2000; Saunders et al., 2003). In non-probability sampling respondents are selected according to their convenience and availability (Cresswell, 2003). Examples of non-probability sampling include purposive, quota, self-selection, snowball and convenience approaches (Brotherton, 2008). In this research a non-probability sampling approach was adopted to conduct interviews. According to Patton (2002) non-probability sampling involves selecting participants with particular attributes.

The research participants were selected based on the characteristics they possessed for four groups of stakeholders namely government officials, participants from NGO's, tourism businesses and community members from the selected regions. The participants selected had to be involved in rural tourism development initiatives and planning.

The government organisations and NGO representatives in Windhoek were purposefully selected based on industry knowledge they acquired (purposive sampling). The government participants selected were directly involved in designing the rural tourism development policies and strategies, whilst the NGOs directly worked with rural communities in the study regions and the tourism establishments. This allows the use of own judgement in selecting participants and it also provides the best possible information so as to answer the research question and meet the objectives of the study (Saunders *et al.*, 2007).

Some of the NGOs in the Kunene region and Zambezi region were suggested by the NGO representatives in Windhoek. The NGO representatives in Windhoek provided the interviewer with the contacts of the NGO representatives in the study regions and two NGO representatives in the Zambezi region provided the interviewer with two contacts of government officials in the same region. Therefore, snowball sampling was also utilised.

Tourism establishments such as hotels, lodges and craft centres were selected according to their availability (convenience sampling). The tourism establishments were approached in person and invited to take part in the interview. Information about the purpose of the interview was explained at this stage. Letters of invitation were also provided. The date and time of the interview was agreed upon. The focus groups were purposefully selected, the interviewer targeted rural communities with more tourism activity and high poverty rates. Therefore, contacts were made during the first visits to the Kunene region and the Zambezi region. This research method was ideal for this study because both regions (Kunene and Zambezi) cover a large area and human settlements are scattered.

4.2.3.2 Sample size

Haralambos (2012) defines a study population as an aggregate or totality of all the objects, subjects or members that conform to a set of specifications. A sample is a subset or the portion of the population under study whilst sample size refers to the number of respondents who were included in the research (Brotherton, 2008). According to Neale (2009), it is important to select a sample that truly represents the selected population. This sample should consist of participants who are willing

and available to participate. Veal (2006) explains that when considering a sample of small population, the sample size must be 5-10% representative of the population. However, Haralambos (2012) states that a sample size should be 33%. The issue of sampling has been extensively debated with authors recommending various sample sizes. However, in the case of qualitative research Creswell (2013) recommends 20-30 informants for the grounded theory. Ritchie *et al.* (2014) state that the number of interviews can reach up to 50 and this may impact on the quality of data collection and analysis. Data saturation is used to determine the optimum number of participants per group and was managed during the data-collection process.

Table 4.1 shows the number of participants who were included in the research study, study methods and sampling technique.

Therefore, the participants selected and interviewed include:

- Three government officials from the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (tourism planning); Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) and Namibia tourism board. They are responsible for: (a) Rural and urban tourism development and planning as well as designing policies; (b) Marketing tourism destinations (c). Offering and support guidance on governance and institutional issues.
- Three NGO representatives in Windhoek who directly work with NGO representatives in Kunene and Zambezi region in developing community-based tourism programmes, providing support of sources funding for the management of conservancies and assist in negotiating for joint ventures between the private sector and conservancies.
- Two NGO representatives in Kunene region, one which is responsible for facilitating tourism projects in the region and the other one which is responsible for tourism conservation.
- Two government officials in the Zambezi region who are responsible for regional tourism planning and development and training, and providing advice to communities on resource management.
- Three NGO representatives in the Zambezi region who collaborates in developing community-based programmes. These include training communities on managing and operating conservancies, conflict management and benefit sharing.
- Tourism establishments included managers and owners of hotels, lodges and craft centres. A total of twenty-one managers/owners for both regions were interviewed.

The local community for both regions, a total of eleven focus groups.

Table 4.1: List of study participants

Research participants	Research methods	Sampling method	Number of interviews	Follow up interviews
Government organisations	In-depth interviews	Purposive	5	3
NGO representatives	In-depth interviews	Purposive Snowball	8	-
Tourism establishments: Hotels	In-depths interviews	Purposive	3	1
Lodges and campsites	In-depths interviews	Convenience	10	3
Craft centres	In-depths interviews	Convenience Purposive	4	-
CBTs	In-depths interviews	Snowball Purposive Convenience	7	2
Local communities	Focus group discussions	Convenience Purposive	11	2
Informal interviews	Interviews	Convenience	21	-

Source: Author's own compilation

4.2.4 Primary data collection

For the purposes of this research interviews and focus groups were utilised to gather the primary data.

4.2.4.1 Interviews

Interviews are regarded as directed discussions as opposed to organised enquiries; it is not a partial device but an art of communication (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). They are defined by their level of flexibility and they include structured interviews, semi-structured and in-depth interviews which can be presented through face-to-face conversations or by means of telephone or internet applications (Saunders *et al.*, 2003). They can also be grouped into standardised, semi-standardised and non-standardised interviews (Berg, 2004). The questions in a structured interview are predetermined whilst the questions in semi-structured interviews do not adopt a certain order; they depend on the

direction of the interview (Jennings, 2005; McNeill & Chapman, 2005).

Semi-structured interviews were selected for the purposes of this study to guide the interviewer and ensure understanding and coherence by following a specific list of questions and topics during the interview (Ibert, 2001). To utilise semi-structured interviews as a data-collection method it is vital to begin by theorising that the tourism participants' perceptions are substantial, valuable and logical and that they will have a positive influence on the research and yield comprehensive information for analysis (Frechtling & Sharp, 1997). Therefore, semi-structured interviews were also selected because they allowed the research participants to speak and express themselves freely about their opinions in their own terms and pace.

This method allowed the participants to be present during the entire research process. This made it possible for the researcher to gain "trust" and "familiarity" with the interviewees; it also aided in exploring further into areas of interest and guiding the interview effectively (Patton, 2002; Davies & Hughes, 2007; Holliday, 2007). Exploratory interviews mainly focus on establishing the views of participants and gather their opinions on the topic of interest. (Oppenheim, 2001). The interviews were semi-structured but also explorative in nature, as the research sought to develop ideas rather than looking for statistics. This research sought to develop a conceptual framework (grounded theory) based on the view and experiences of the participants (phenomenological).

Government officials, NGO representatives and tourism establishments:

Three different research guides were prepared for this research. These were for the government and NGO representatives, tourism establishments and local communities. The interview guides for the government officials, NGOs (Appendix 1) and tourism establishments (2) started with easy questions to capture demographics such as their job role, responsibilities in tourism development and background of the organisation. The interview guides for both government officials and NGOs and tourism establishment consisted of six broad questions that address the research objectives. The purpose of starting with broad questions was to allow the research participants to share their own insights of the subject matter. Although the questions were structured differently, the questions were similar as they explored the same themes. The direction of the discussions was dictated by the points and issues raised during the interviews.

The interviews for the government organisations, NGO representatives and tourism establishments were conducted during the office hours (between 9-5, Monday to Friday) and at the participants' places of work. This permitted some respondents to be interviewed in greater depth, especially

highlighting and resolving visible contradictions than that of quantitative questionnaires which involves ticking boxes and one-word answers (Hoyer & McInnis, 2008; Veal, 2006).

The government officials and NGO representatives were contacted via emails a month before, conducting the interviews and inviting them to participate in the research study (Appendix 4). The invitations detailed the purpose of the interview and appointments were made before conducting the interview. The interviews were scheduled to last approximately thirty minutes but because some of the interviewees were passionate about the topic, in some cases it took longer to complete. Engaging in the long conversations was permitted to clearly understand their views towards the subject area. Contradictions were noted and themes emerged from the interviews.

It is important to note that interviews can be unreliable because it is difficult to standardise them, they are therefore prone to bias (Robson, 2002). To reduce bias, the interviews were conducted by the researcher. The researcher made sure the participants remained focused on the topic by reminding them of the main area of discussion. A recorder was utilised prior to starting the interviews and the participants were informed and they gave consent to use this equipment. The tape recorder was switched on before commencing the interview to ensure that the participants were content. In addition to using a tape recorder, notes were also taken.

Introductions were made at the beginning of every interview and the purpose of the research was explained. To establish rapport, the interview would then start with work-related questions such as asking the job role of the participant and/or how long they have been working/operating in the tourism industry. The interview guides were used at all the interviews but did not follow a particular order. The interviews were conducted in English.

4.2.4.2 Focus groups

This research explored the views of local people in Kunene and Zambezi region to explore the causes of poverty persisting in the region and to determine the effects of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation through focus groups. The main advantage of using focus groups as a research method is that it does not discriminate against people who cannot read or write, and it can encourage participation from those who are reluctant to be interviewed on their own (Kitzinger, 1995). Including the local community into this research helped in understanding their own views and unveil the causes of poverty in those areas.

Community members in Kunene and Zambezi regions:

The focus groups were conducted with a maximum of eight community members. The interview

guides developed for the focus groups were also semi-structured and held in the community of residence. The interview guide for the local communities was structured, slightly different from the ones used for government officials and NGO representatives, and tourism establishments (Appendix 3). However, they addressed the same objectives. The language was simplified to make it possible for translators to interpret without ambiguity. The research guide also covered six broad questions and the information on demographics (name, age, gender) were recorded at the end of the interview guide. To arrange for interviews in the local communities, indunas/headmen were approached in person and the purpose of the research was explained. The headman assisted in identifying translators (2 were selected) after which they were trained for the research process. The researcher acted as the moderator for all the focus groups interviews. Translators were employed throughout the data collection process. One translator was responsible for note taking and one to facilitate the interviews. This addressed reliability and transparency.

To facilitate the focus groups, the facilitators were informed on how to be impartial and how to operate the recorder and take notes. The translators were briefed on how to communicate with both the facilitator and the moderator. For example, the translator would translate after each question and allow time for note taking. This process was very time consuming, particularly where the interviews were not recorded. However, the facilitator (note taker) was provided with a pre-printed research guide, where the responses would be written under specific questions. The moderator's responsibility was to assure the group was focused and encourage communication by asking probing questions. Taking notes and recording was an effective strategy because it helped in capturing information that would have been lost in translation. It also helped the moderator to identify patterns or themes.

Organising community focus groups was a challenge and, in some instances, the researcher utilised community meetings to arrange for focus groups and collect data. The focus group interviews were recorded, and the participants were notified and asked for consent prior to switching on the tape recorder. Instead of using a tape recorder only, notes were captured. Due to the exploratory nature of this research probing questions were asked, to allow the respondents to expand on their responses. The interview guide included questions which required the same response and this was designed this way to validate the questions and to provide an opportunity for explaining ambiguity. Veal (2006) indicates that the skills of the interviewer are important at this stage, therefore factors such as non-verbal communication including the participants' voice were analysed. Questions were repeatedly asked to ensure that the research questions were addressed. The focus group interviews required good listening skills and patience.

Although semi-structured interview guides were used, the interviewees often deviated from the research questions and they were allowed to speak on the issues important to them. To maintain order, the interviewees were requested to give others an opportunity to air their views. The focus group interviews lasted between 1 to 2 hours. The communities were extremely dispersed, particularly in Kunene region, therefore one focus group per day was conducted. It is at the closure phase where the participants were provided an opportunity to ask questions before switching off the tape recorder. The identity of the focus group members was not included. Ultimately, all the interviews were closed by thanking the interviewees and proposed dates for the next interviews were made. This was for follow-up interviews, because of the research methodology adopted (grounded theory). The researcher would have to keep exploring more information until the research reaches theoretical saturation. The follow-up interviews were only conducted if any new information emerges, however, in Kunene region, only one focus group interview had a follow-up interview because there was no new information emerging from the interviews, whilst in Zambezi region three follow-up interviews were conducted. The follow-up interviews were to ask a few questions to confirm what would have emerged from the other interviews and data analysis.

4.2.5 Data analysis

This research study used content analysis to identify common themes. Gomm (2004) states that content analysis is also called thematic analysis whilst Punch (2013) defines it as narrative analysis. The discussions were analysed utilising content analysis to make reproducible conclusions from texts to the contexts of their use (Krippendorff, 2004). However, instead of focusing on key words, the research study identified comparable statements that were linked to the research questions. This research adopted a grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006), thus open coding was employed. The analysis of data started by recording all the interviews. All the recorded interviews were transcribed; however, some interviews were first translated into English, and then transcribed. Some interviewees did not want to be recorded; therefore, the interviews were written down.

The main demerits of using tape recording to transcribe is that non-verbal communication is not captured (Poland & Perderson, 1998). Non-verbal communication was however noted throughout the interviewing process. In addition to the recording the critical responses were written. The tape recordings were replayed to analyse and improve the quality of the transcripts produced (Silverman, 2005). To allow a “holistic” approach to data analysis, the transcripts were repeatedly read. Whilst analysing the recordings of the interviews, the researcher focused on themes emanating from these recordings.

Charmaz (2006) highlighted that in the grounded theory, the researcher is the co-constructor of meaning, which allows for personal coding. This assisted in higher level of engagement with the material which was a continuous process. The data were categorised and new information that emerged was incorporated into the categories. This was quite an interesting and challenging experience. Each event was compared, and the data were analysed in depth to understand meaning and avoid assumptions. Patterns started to emerge from these categories which were:

- Rural tourism development in Namibia.
- Concept and causes of poverty in rural areas.
- Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation.

Any new information/statements that emerged was placed under these categories. The coding was done by the researcher and Nvivo was used to structure and organise the data. The use of Nvivo was to complement personal coding which was the main coding method used. It offers the advantage of being an automated process, it therefore provided a way of assuring quality of the data coding process. Nvivo was also used to save time and compare any information that might have been missed or overlooked.

4.2.5.1 Trustworthiness and validity of the research

Given the qualitative nature of the research it was important to ensure that the research results can be trusted, and the research is valid. Veal (2006) states that reliability is the extent to which the research findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated later with a different sample of subjects. Validity on the other hand takes into consideration whether the research instrument measures what it is designed to measure (Patton, 2002). In this research, two methodological approaches were also used to ensure that the findings from this research meet the set objectives. This research intended to explore the poverty phenomena and establish whether the development of tourism has an influence of poverty alleviation. Using phenomenological approach and grounded theory helped in engaging longer with the participants and establish the influence of tourism on poverty alleviation. Including different sets of research participants such as government officials, NGO representatives, tourism establishments (private sector) and the local communities enhanced reliability of the data because it facilitated data and views from the research participants to be compared. To improve the reliability of the data, compiled data were read back to the participants to confirm that it was correctly captured.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) provide four options for evaluating trustworthiness of qualitative research, which include credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. Credibility is similar to

internal validity in quantitative research and it includes truth-value facet (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Credibility and dependability are interconnected, accurately identifying, and describing the respondents confirms stability of the data over time (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To ensure credibility and dependability, two techniques of qualitative research, namely interviews and focus groups were used. The overlapping methods helped to confirm the participants' responses.

The inclusion of a number of stakeholder groups ensured that the views of all participants were gathered for the development of the final framework. Government officials and NGO representatives were interviewed at their places of work and during their normal hours of work. The focus groups were interviewed in their natural environments, i.e. in their communities. This allowed the researcher to interact with the respondents as well as the environment they operate/live in.

A research diary was utilised throughout the research process and the memos were useful in identifying and establishing the relationship between the participants' data, theory and the researcher's interpretations. Therefore, the findings and conclusions of the research were based on the data provided by the research participants and interpretations of the researcher. The data collection approach also made it possible for the researcher to record the respondents' voices as well as observe their non-verbal responses. The coding used the non-verbal responses to confirm the verbal responses. The researcher interviewed the respondents in person thus ensuring they understand and consent to taking part in the research. This ensured that credibility was guaranteed because the set up allowed for a transparent and authentic data-collection process. It is pertinent to note that the researcher's presence could have influenced their response to questions, however, this was mitigated by moderation. The research study was repeated in different geographical areas. Furthermore, the extent of the area covered by the researcher makes it possible to generalise the findings to similar environments.

4.3 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical issues form an important part of research and should address the three ethical principles, namely respect for persons, beneficence and justice (Cassell, 2000). These principles are embedded in the Nuremberg code and the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki (Neuman, 2014). The principle of respect for persons ensures participants' autonomy is respected (Frechtling, 2017). Furthermore, the last two principles ensure researchers conduct their studies fairly in a manner that maximises the benefits for participants while minimising their risks. In this research, these principles were upheld to ensure participants and other people involved with the research were not compromised. To this end the researcher sought and was granted permission to conduct this research.

Relevant authorities were approached to acquire ethical clearance for the research, and it was also noted that the study did not involve issues such as animal testing or participation of vulnerable individuals (Brotherton, 2008). The researcher also applied for clearance from the university in terms of the university ethics guidelines on conducting research (North-West University, 2018). This was to ensure that the research protects vulnerable people among other things. The university approved the research under ethics clearance number NWU-00593-20-A3.

In conducting the research, employees and members of communities who were under eighteen years old were excluded from the research. Participant consent was also sought as part of the recruitment process. The participants were informed of the importance of carrying out the research and were given an opportunity to ask questions in order to elucidate any concerns. Once they were satisfied of the information provided, they were asked to consent by completing the consent form. This was the research process for all of the participants. However, for the communities it was important to consult with the local indunas and they consented. Appendix 5 shows the consent form which was given to the participants.

Before enrolling participants to the study, they were informed of the option to withdraw from the study at any stage of the research process. To ensure confidentiality, interviews with government officials and NGO representatives were conducted in quiet and secluded areas. Furthermore, information discussed during the interview was not disclosed to third parties. The locations used for interview were carefully selected to ensure participants could freely answer questions and offer their opinions. The members within the focus groups were informed of their right to pull out of the interview at any time. Furthermore, their anonymity was guaranteed as no names were recorded. In most cases the interviewees selected the appropriate place to conduct the interviews.

According to Scheyvens and Storey (2003:140) it is important to ensure a research process protects the interviewees' dignity and safety. Information gathered was anonymised and stored on a password-protected memory device. Thus, participant names were referred to as codes. This information will be accessed on a need to know basis with regards to the principles of the Data Protection Act (The Data Protection Act, 1998). The right of individuals to refuse to answer any question was reiterated to ensure participants were aware that they are not obliged to respond to all the questions.

In some cases, the participants would request the researcher to help them or take their issues to the

government, but the researcher maintained that these issues will be highlighted in the research. It was also noted that some communities were expected to be paid in exchange for information at the end of every interview, hence it was pertinent to clarify that the research was for educational purposes only. The interviews would conclude by thanking them and assure them that their contributions were going to be included in the research.

4.4 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to review applicable methods of sampling and data collection. It outlined details on research methods chosen for the study by rationalising the decision for using a qualitative method. The review of various research methods made it possible to explain why the identified methods were selected, thus justifying the adoption of two methodological approaches. The use of two approaches was to ensure data obtained were enriched as the methods complemented each other. This chapter highlights that a qualitative method was the most appropriate methodology for this research. It used one-to-one interviews and focus groups to collect data. This improved the credibility of the research and added value to the acquired results. The data collected utilising the identified methods were contributory to the development of a conceptual framework. The subsequent chapter provides the empirical results from this study.

Table 4.2: Research scheme

Objectives and chapters	Research questions	Identified themes/variables	Data collection methods and data analysis	Data collection sources
Examine the development of tourism in Namibia and in the rural areas Chapter (1, 2 & 5,6,7)	Is tourism developing/growing in the country? Is tourism developing in the selected regions? How has rural tourism developed in the country? How is the rural tourism concept viewed by all the participants?	1.Tourism development. 2. Rural tourism development. 3. Types of rural tourism in Namibia. 4. Tourism strategies and policies. 5.Rural tourism definition.	<u>Data collection methods</u> 1.Visiting areas of research. 2.Emails to industry experts. 3.Face to face interviews. 4.Informal interviews. <u>Data analysis</u> 1. Analysis of existing data. 2. Content analysis.	1.Documents from government offices. 2. Visits to NGO and government offices. 3. Secondary data from journals, local newspapers, and media such as local television news. 4. Primary research data.
Analyse the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism development. (Chapter 2 & 5,6,7)	What are the tourism products offered in the country and in the region? What are the positive and negative impacts of tourism in Namibia and in the selected regions? How has the local communities (Kunene and Zambezi) benefitted from tourism?	Tourism products in Namibia. Positive and negative impacts of tourism. Tourism policies and strategies. Linkages and leakages.	<u>Data collection method</u> Focus groups. Visits to areas of research. Face-to-face interviews. Informal group discussions. Annual general meetings. <u>Data analysis</u> Analysis of existing data. Content analysis.	Literature review. Secondary data-books, journals, and government websites. Primary research data.
Explore the causes of poverty. (Chapter 3 & 5, 6)	What are the causes of poverty in Namibia and different regions? What are the strategies/initiatives used to reduce the impact of tourism?	Conceptualising poverty. Determinants of poverty.	<u>Data-collection method</u> Focus group discussions. Face-to-face interviews. Office visits. Informal meetings. <u>Data analysis</u> Analysis of existing data. Content analysis.	Secondary data-literature review. Primary research data.

Investigate how stakeholders contribute to poverty. alleviation to poverty. alleviation strategies. (Chapter 3 & 5)	Who is responsible for rural tourism? How are stakeholders involved in the tourism alleviation initiatives?	Tourism and poverty nexus. Impacts of tourism on poverty. Sustainable Livelihood Approach. Sustainable Tourism-Elimination of Poverty (ST-EP). Effects of tourism on the poor. Types PPT strategies.	<u>Data-collection method</u> Office visits. Annual general meetings. Face-to-face interviews. Focus group discussions. <u>Data analysis</u> Previous research analysis. Content analysis.	Secondary data-literature review. Primary research data.
Identify the benefits of rural tourism development to the local community (Chapter 5,6)	What are the stakeholders' views on poverty? Does tourism reduce poverty in the study areas? Does rural tourism development have an impact on poverty alleviation? Who benefits from tourism development?	Involvement and empowerment of stakeholders on poverty alleviation strategies. <u>PPT model</u> Direct impacts Secondary effects Dynamic effects PPT strategies	<u>Data analysis</u> Content analysis. Previous research.	Primary research. Literature review.
To establish whether rural tourism development alleviates poverty (Chapter 7)	Does PPT model help in alleviating poverty? Has rural tourism development in the northern region of Namibia alleviated poverty? What should be done (strategies and initiatives) to reduce the impacts of rural tourism		<u>Data analysis</u> Content analysis. Discussion of findings with an analysis of previous research and provide recommendations.	Primary research data. Literature review.

	development on poverty alleviation?			
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CHAPTER 5:

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the key findings of the research. The key participants of this research were five government officials (Windhoek and Zambezi region), eight NGO representatives (Windhoek, Kunene and Zambezi) eleven focus group discussions (Kunene and Zambezi region) and twenty-one tourism establishments (hotels, lodges, tourist centres, craft centres and conservancies) in both regions (Kunene and Zambezi). The government officials, NGO representatives and tourism establishments were interviewed utilising a semi-structured research guide. The research interview guide started with three main themes and six questions. The research was using phenomenological and grounded theory, hence these questions further developed through the themes that emerged from the data collection and analysis. The focus group discussions were also utilised to gather information from the local communities. The same questions used to interview the government officials, NGO representatives and tourism establishments were used for the focus group discussions.

A voice recorder was used to gather data from this research and permission was sought through-out the data collection process. However, where the participants could not consent to be recorded, notes were taken. The data was transcribed and analysed throughout the data collection stage using a research diary, memos, and coding. The views of the research participants are explored in this chapter.

This chapter is therefore divided into three sections, it starts by presenting the findings from the government officials in Windhoek followed by the findings for the studied regions (Kunene & Zambezi). The results are reviewed under categories such as:

- Rural tourism development in Namibia.
- The concept of poverty and the causes of poverty.
- Impact of tourism development on poverty alleviation.

The research question addressed here is: *How does rural tourism development in Namibia impact on the local community and poverty alleviation?* Hence, it aims to establish whether rural tourism interventions in the northern region of Namibia have an impact on poverty alleviation.

It is imperative to note that the participants of this research study were coded to hide their identities and to ensure that the results are confidential (Punch, 2013). “GW” stands for government officials in Windhoek, therefore, GW1 stands for the first government official in Windhoek. Whilst “GK” and “GZ” stands for government officials in the Kunene and Zambezi regions respectively. “NG” refers to non-governmental organisation representatives, “TE” refers to all tourism establishments, thus TEK stands for tourism establishments in Kunene region and TEZ stands for tourism establishments in the Zambezi region. “FGK” stands for focus groups in Kunene region and “FGZ” for focus groups in the Zambezi region.

5.2 RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NAMIBIA

In this section attention is given to the results related to the development of tourism in Namibia. This was important in order to establish whether tourism in Namibia is developing as a whole and whether this development has an influence on rural tourism development. Furthermore, it was important to look at tourism development as it provided opportunity to explore its influence on poverty alleviation. As indicated in Chapter 1 selected interviews were conducted in Windhoek and even though they are not situated at the case study locations these departments and interviewees influence policy and the implementation thereof. The interviews and focus groups with the communities were done on-site. The results discussed in the following section are the opinions of all the interviewees on the different questions asked where applicable.

5.2.1 Tourism development in Namibia

By means of personal interviews, the views of government officials and NGO representatives (a total of six participants) in Windhoek were examined. It was important to obtain their views on the development of tourism in Namibia and if they consider tourism to have progressed. Added to that, it was critical to obtain their views regarding the concept of rural tourism in Namibia and its impact from a regional perspective.

Based on the discussions all the participants agreed that tourism in Namibia is developing, however, when asked how tourism in Namibia is developing, their responses varied. GW1 stated that the tourism numbers have been increasing for the past five years and emphasised that for the last 18 years he has been working for government, the number of tourists visiting the country has increased from about 300 000 a year up to about a million a year. This participant (GW1) highlighted that this has had a positive impact on the number of people who are employed by the industry. He also highlighted that the recession impacted on the industry, however, the number of tourists continued to increase. According to MET (2016) tourism in Namibia has significantly developed. In terms of

income earnings, it has been ranked as third after mining and agriculture. The sector is anticipated to generate approximately 186 000 jobs in 2025 and has directly contributed N\$3 billion (3%) GDP to the Namibian economy (WTTC, 2015).

On the same question GW2 mentioned that the growth of tourism is influenced by development of infrastructure such as roads and accommodation facilities. Similarly, NGW2 concurred with GW2 and highlighted there has been an increase in the number of large hotel accommodation in the capital city indicating that the industry has been growing. GW3 highlighted that the industry is growing because of the foreign currency it brings to the country and its contribution to the GDP. Similar to GW2 and NGW2, the participant added that the upgrading of Hosea Kutako airport influenced the increase in numbers of tourists visiting the country.

The participants in Windhoek (GW1, GW2, GW3, NGW1, NGW2, NGW3) indicated that many households rely on tourism for their livelihood. Most participants (GW1, GW3, NGW1, NGW2, NGW3) stated that the number of jobs created by the industry has been increasing. However, GW3, although he agreed with the other participants, indicated that the development of tourism has been very slow in the last five years because of housing issues. The participant also pointed that the issue of accessibility to some rural locations still needs to be addressed as it affected the increase of tourism in those areas. This view was however different from NGW3 who highlighted that the development of airports such as Walvis Bay has influenced access to other locations which were otherwise not accessible before. NGW1 stated that the number of foreign investors has increased in the country because of tourism being expanded and that this has been influenced by the way the government has designed the policies on tourism to encourage foreign investment.

The results of this section suggest that tourism in Namibia is experiencing an upward growth and the participants anticipate the industry to provide job opportunities for the community. There is an increase in the number of accommodation providers, renovation of infrastructure to support tourism, an increase in the number of people employed in the industry and the increase in the number of tourist arrivals.

5.2.2 Rural tourism concept: a Namibian perspective

The concept of rural tourism in Namibia has been promoted to encourage economic growth and it has been propounded as a complex notion. Thus, to establish rural tourism development in Namibia, the researcher solicited for the participants' views on what rural tourism is. This question was met

with a variety of responses. These responses were based on the views of government officials and NGO officials in Windhoek.

GW2 who is responsible for designing tourism policies and is also responsible for urban and rural tourism development, stated that rural tourism should be viewed as any tourism that occurs in rural areas although rural tourism in Namibia is centred around community-based tourism. The participant also highlighted the issue of culture and language as rural tourism where he stated that *“we cannot talk about rural tourism without emphasising on our culture”*. Hence, culture has a significant role to play in rural tourism as it reflects people’s lives. The participant indicated that in Namibia, where one comes from, is part of culture and this should be linked with rural tourism. This view is in line with Nagaraju and Chandrashekara’s (2014) view of rural tourism.

NGW2 works with government officials, other NGOs and conservancies by providing tourism training and advise on any tourism ventures. He had a different view of rural tourism. He highlighted that rural tourism in Namibia is not viewed as rural tourism but as community-based tourism. The participant added that it is tourism that should focus on improving the livelihoods of communities, *“in essence it should be the communities that are benefitting from the tourism”*.

Similarly, GW3 shared the same opinion and stated: *tourism is designed to benefit poor people in the rural areas*. The participant also added that rural tourism in Namibia is based on the activities that support local people and they range from craft selling to choir groups in conservancies. Hence from this understanding of rural tourism, in Namibia it can also be defined as tourism in rural areas which support the local community (Lane, 1994; Sharpley, 1996). It should also be aimed at economically and socially supporting the local communities (Sharpley, 1996).

5.2.3 Rural tourism concept: Kunene region

By means of personal interviews, the views of NGO representatives and tourism establishments in Kunene region were examined. The local communities were also asked the same question, to establish their understanding of what constitutes rural tourism in Namibia. NGK1 and NGK2 both indicated that rural tourism in Namibia is tourism that happens outside large cities such as Windhoek, however, NGK2 expounded that rural tourism in Namibia include a lot of aspects such as lodges, people selling crafts and tourists pictures. Thus, the participant indicated that anything can be called rural tourism as long it involves an interaction between the local people and tourists.

From the interviews with the tourism establishments in Kunene region it was clear that some only had a vague understanding of what rural tourism is. One participant (TEK6) from Opuwo stated that it is tourism outside big towns like Windhoek whereas another participant (TEK4) from Kamanjab indicated that it is tourism in small towns. Reference was also made to tourism related to culture and local lifestyle (TEK7, 8, 10). Table 5.1 highlights their responses of rural tourism.

Table 5.1: Tourism establishment response to the concept of rural tourism

Code	Constituent	Abbreviated response
TEK6	Opuwo	Tourism outside big towns like Windhoek.
TEK4	Kamanjab	Tourism in small towns.
TEK7, TEK10	Khorixas, Epupa	Tourism that shows our culture and beliefs.
TEK8	Khorixas	Tourism that showcases our local lifestyle.
TEK3	Outjo	All the businesses in small towns.
TEK1	Outjo	Tourism where there is less noise and quiet life.
TEK12	Outjo	Tourism which is run by local people.

Despite rural tourism in Namibia being extensively promoted, some of the local communities did not understand what constitutes rural tourism. FGK6 stated that *“we just see tourists pass through here in their buses and cars, but they don’t stop here”*. FGK1 however, defined rural tourism as tourism where people travel from all over the world to visit small villages. Interestingly, FGK3 highlighted that rural tourism is when people visit small villages and communities so that they can know and understand their culture and traditions. Whilst FGK5 mentioned that it is tourism that is supported by the government for the local community to benefit.

5.2.4 Rural tourism concept: Zambezi region

Based on personal interviews and focus group discussions the government official, NGO representatives and the local communities were examined on their understanding of the rural tourism concept. The government officials and NGO representatives in Zambezi region (GZ1, GZ2, NGZ1, NGZ2, NGZ3) stated that rural tourism in Namibia is not called rural tourism but community-based tourism. Any other tourism in the region is called tourism. The tourism establishments in the Zambezi region seemed to be well informed about rural tourism. TEZ2 highlighted that rural tourism should benefit the local people meaning that the establishments should be run by the local people, ultimately it should enhance their life. On the other hand, TEZ3 stressed that it is *“where the tourists are far*

away from all the noises of the city, away from everything so that they can enjoy nature". The other tourism establishments (TEZ1, TEZ4, TEZ5, TEZ7) indicated that rural tourism is tourism that promotes the development of rural areas. Others emphasised (TEZ6, TEZ11) that rural tourism is when tourists visit areas which are deprived. The local communities also echoed the same sentiments as the tourist establishments. However, FGZ4 mentioned that *"rural tourism includes activities like hunting and fishing; those things you cannot do in towns*. All the focus group participants agreed that those activities should be run by the local community.

It was quite clear that the results on the definition of rural tourism differed. The government and NGOs provided different definitions of rural tourism, however, they seemed to all agree that it should benefit the local community. The two regions' local communities provided varied definitions as well, with other communities (FGZ1, FGZ5) not understanding what rural tourism is, although they could give examples of rural tourism. This view agrees with Lane's (1994) statement that rural tourism differs from nation to nation and in this circumstance, it varied from region to region, constituent to constituent and from community to community. However, as a type of tourism, rural tourism in Namibia is viewed as community-based tourism (CBT) whilst other participants viewed rural tourism as any type of tourism that occurs outside the large cities. In summary there are similarities and difference between the different stakeholders with regard to the concept of rural tourism. This in essence will create challenges in the management thereof since different perspectives bring different expectations.

5.2.5 Rural tourism development in Namibia

This section aimed to establish whether rural tourism is developing in both Kunene and Zambezi region. To explain the development of rural tourism, GW1 compared the tourism industry with other industries such as mining and fisheries and stated that the tourism industry in the northern region can be viewed as doing well because the amount of people the industry employed by the industry and their skills. He added that:

"Well it has an opportunity to impact a lot of people. Although there are many factors involved but if you go to certain rural areas and certain communities, you will see a lot of people are depending on it whether its directly or indirectly."

This was also the NGK1's viewpoint. NGK2 affirmed that it is impossible to look at tourism development from one dimension; all the stakeholders need to work together and analyse the environment they are operating in. The participant also added that it is vital to analyse what people

have beyond employment and scrutinise factors such as infrastructure, security and whether the tourism policies are being regularly reviewed.

GW2 highlighted that they are constantly reviewing the tourism policies. This was to establish whether tourism in Namibia particularly in rural areas is developing. GW3 clearly pointed out that tourism in rural areas is not growing due to the fact the politicians have lost touch with the local communities. GZ1 and NGZ3 highlighted that rural tourism in Namibia has the potential to grow, they both stated that the politicians do not understand the rural tourism concept, and this makes it difficult to effectively promote the notion. NGW2 added that:

“I think what we only need to do is get the communities to offer the products themselves and becoming entrepreneurs themselves but it’s still a challenge, we still need to improve on that and offer programmes towards that.”

This was the common view throughout the interview process. NGZ2 highlighted that empowering the local people whilst trying to conserve the natural habitats has always been a challenge. However, for rural tourism to grow somehow the local community need to be engaged in conservation initiatives. He added that some communities do not understand the importance of conserving these habitats. Thus, the government, NGOs and the local communities should have the same mindset.

NGW2 however, mentioned that rural tourism in Namibia is developing because the number of CBTs in the country has increased. The participant also noted that the government needed to understand the concept of rural tourism and empowerment for tourism to yield better results. The growth of CBTs has been utilised as a measure of whether rural tourism is developing. Other government and NGO officials however stated that the development of rural tourism in Namibia is debatable, due to the differences in the understanding of the concept. One government official highlighted that this is a political issue and advised the researcher to go to the rural areas and analyse the way the people in the rural areas live and then decide on whether rural tourism is developing. However, it was quite evident from the responses that rural tourism in Namibia was an overtly debated subject. From the perspective of government organisations and NGOs in the capital city, Windhoek, more than 90% of the participants indicated that rural tourism development still has a long way to go and the stakeholders need to work together to promote rural tourism.

In the Kunene region, the respondents offered mixed views of the development of rural tourism. The NGOs in the region clearly stated that rural tourism in their region is developing because most communities rely on it for their livelihoods. NGK1 stated that most people in the region depend on

tourism for their livelihood and the tourism industry has the potential to grow if the community is trained on how to run tourism enterprises. NGK2 also noted that the industry has grown because the number of joint venture lodges has increased from 34 in 1998 to 42 in 2017 and the hunting concessions have brought in millions of Namibian dollars to the country and communities. In comparison to the views of the government organisations and NGOs in Windhoek, it was apparent that the NGOs had a better understanding of what was happening in their regions. They were able to identify how rural tourism was developing in their region.

However, in the interview with FGK1, the group seemed to have different views of the development of rural tourism in the region. They stated that the industry used to be viable but the influx of tour operators from Windhoek and South Africa had a negative impact on the development of tourism in the region as all the benefits are leaking out of the region. The area of leakages was not explored, as it was not the focus of this research. However, from the interviews conducted, it was gathered that most of the tourism enterprises relied on the international market for their success. The bookings were also controlled by third parties. One participant (TEK4) interviewed in Kunene region clearly pointed out that *“we are linked with an agent in Germany and the payments are done there,”* hence this has a major impact on the industry since the tourists will be on all-inclusive packages. This area was also not pursued because the researcher was strongly advised by one of the government officials that the area of leakages is a political issue.

The other (four) focus groups (FGK2, FGK3, FGK5, FGK6) could not tell whether rural tourism or tourism in general was developing, some indicated that during peak seasons they move to other regions or areas where tourism is high but as far as their communities or regions were concerned they could not identify the development. On the contrary, one focus group (FGK4) in Outjo, which is a tourist-destination town, stated that tourism in their community was growing because they have seen an increase in the number of new retail shops and other tourism enterprises such as craft centres.

NGZ1 agreed that tourism in the region is developing because in peak times all the hotels and tourist attraction centres would be fully booked. The participant emphasised that in the last twenty years the industry has been growing as evidenced by the number of rest camps and lodges opened in the region. NGZ2 added that the number of tourists visiting the Zambezi region is increasing every day and more tourism camp sites should be established to benefit from this influx. NGZ3 forecasted that the industry will continue to develop in the next 5-10 years, however, the participant added that there is still more that needs to be done, especially on the area of policy making. Tourism establishments

in Zambezi region agreed that rural tourism is growing in comparison to the last five years and others stated that tourism has influenced the development of other sectors such as retail shops. TEZ11 and TEZ10 had the same view that tourism is developing in their constituents and more people are beginning to understand the concept. They even highlighted that their profits have been increasing in the last five years. TEZ7 echoed the same sentiments and also indicated that the sector has been developing and had plans to explore other areas to offer tourism. FGZ2 stated that although rural tourism is developing, it does not have any effect on their livelihood. Most focus groups (FGZ1, FGZ3, FGZ4 and FGZ5) indicated that rural tourism is not developing, FGZ1 however, stated that there are a few developments in their community, but they emphasised that it does not have anything to do with tourism.

The results above clearly indicate that the tourism industry offers the country and communities an opportunity for growth. However, there is a high number of communities (82%) which did not view rural tourism as developing. The participants stated that the stakeholders should work together to reap the benefits of tourism. The issue of empowerment led to the question: Who is responsible for rural tourism development? All the government departments and NGOs that were interviewed acknowledged that they are responsible for rural tourism development. They also emphasised that all the stakeholders should be involved, including the private sector and the local communities. The local community and the private sector in both regions stated that it should be the government's responsibility to make sure that rural areas are developed in terms of education, health care and road networks. TEZ2 stated that the region needs to be marketed for it to develop and emphasised that the government does not market the region. Both the private sector and the local communities in Kunene stated that the local authority should be responsible for developing their region. This shows a discrepancy in terms of the respondents' perception on who should be responsible for rural tourism development in Namibia.

These responses indicate that there is an overlap and duplication of responsibilities. For example, one government official and one NGO representative (GW1 and NGW2) are both responsible for providing advice to local communities when negotiating for joint ventures with the private sector in the same region. Therefore, it is important to re-evaluate the organisational structure of rural tourism development in Namibia. Although all the government officials and NGO participants in Windhoek agreed that tourism in Namibia as a whole is developing, most participants (GW1, GW2, NGW1, NGW3) could not clearly indicate whether rural tourism in both Kunene and Zambezi region is developing. The varying viewpoints indicated a basic understanding of what was happening on the ground (Kunene and Zambezi regions). It is also evident, based on the views of all the participants

that rural tourism development in Namibia is a “top down” approach as all the tourism establishments and focus groups in both regions indicated that it is the government’s responsibility to develop their regions. Whilst they all expect the benefits to filter to them. Therefore, there is need to manage the expectations of all the stakeholders and establish an effective communication channel.

5.3 CONCEPTUALISING POVERTY IN NAMIBIA

The previous section highlighted that rural tourism has potential to develop in the research study regions. The section will begin by exploring scope of poverty and its causes in the northern region of Namibia. The PPT approach was utilised to establish whether tourism has an impact on alleviating poverty in Namibia.

The World Bank (2007) highlights that 75% of poor people live in rural areas and the World Bank (2015) updated that three quarters of Namibia’s poor live in rural areas. The interviews in Windhoek (GW1, GW2, GW3, NGW1, NGW2, NGW3) offered the researcher the direction to take when asking questions on poverty. It seemed like the issue of poverty was overtly discussed by the government officials and NGO representatives in Windhoek. Thus, the researcher explored the causes of poverty in Namibia and pondered on “*what one would consider a poor person*”? This question was then incorporated into all the interviews, to establish the definition of poverty in Namibian terms.

GW2 highlighted several issues regarding poverty and explained the issue of poverty using comparisons. The participant highlighted that “*poverty is when someone is not offered the same opportunities as the other*”. Examples given were of a child going to school without having any breakfast, walking for a long distance to access the school and going home and look for food to eat or even sleep without a hot meal. GW2 added that the child is expected to produce the same results as the one who is privileged and has everything including extra educational support. GW1 stated that it is difficult to define poverty but indicated that the poverty in Namibia is a subject for debate because of the measures used to assess poverty in the country. GZ1 and NGK1 echoed the same sentiments and added that “*poverty is when people are deprived and lack the basic needs*”. NGW3 stated that “*most of the young people in Windhoek are well educated and unemployed, so to me the lack of opportunities is very much linked to poverty*”. This view was felt throughout the Zambezi region communities.

In Kunene region, NGK2 stated that the issue of who is supposed to be called poor is constantly debated in the communities. The participant indicated that money should not be used as a measure for poverty because some people have a lot of cattle, yet they still want to be considered as poor.

GW3 stated that some cultures have hundreds of cattle, but they live like poor people for cultural reasons. NGW2 also supported the statement and asserted that those people should not be categorised as poor. One of the chiefs in Kunene region stated that the system is flawed such that some community members take advantage of it. He added that he does not believe in poverty because there is no one who does not have a chicken in his community. He further propounded that: *“how can you sleep hungry when you have your livestock”*? Hence, being poor in some communities is linked to the amount of livestock one has.

TEK1, TEK2, TEZ1 and TEK4 stated that the lack of education defines people’s lives in the region. Some communities did not have primary schools nearby, it was noticed that children had to go to boarding schools to get an education. In other communities, it was quite evident that the people were poor judging by the way the people lived and their location. To confirm the researcher’s assertions, FGK6 community indicated that the community was neglected by the government and everyone else. The community consisted of only six families. They stated they were all poor because:

- They do not have a school for their children.
- They do not have water; their borehole has not been working for a long time.
- They do not have toilets, they used bush toilets.
- No one in the community was receiving HARAMBEE (a government plan to reduce poverty and encourage inclusiveness).
- No-one listened to their concerns.

FGK1 stated that the people in Kunene region were poor because they are marginalised. FGK4 stated that *“poverty is when you are always at the bottom of the food chain”*. One community member added that *“people see us as drunkards, so we are always the last ones to hear of anything”*. The issue of poverty in FGK4 triggered a debate because other community members referred to poverty as:

- the lack of money (where one stated that he does not remember the last time he saw a N\$20 dollar note).
- lack of employment opportunities in the community.
- the way people dress and their type of houses.
- the lack of good health facilities and their location.
- the lack of recognition.

The community then agreed that poverty in their community should be measured in comparison to other people for instance if everyone has ten goats then a person with one goat is poor. FGK6 stated

that most of the people in the region are poor because they struggle to have a decent meal a day. They highlighted that in worst times they depend on the government's rations and those with large families struggling to survive on that. In Kunene region those near towns like Opuwo and Outjo had better opportunities in terms of employment in the tourism industry. On the contrary it was noted that communities outside the towns do have the same opportunities. In these communities, the severity of poverty is quite evident with the houses in need of restructuring. Some of the communities in Kunene were in the middle of nowhere, away from basic amenities. However, in some communities there were not many young people or children of school going age. In FGK6, the community consisted of different cultures and they stated that they constantly clashed because of their different cultural views. Others felt like there was favouritism amongst the different cultures. Some communities in Epupa highlighted that they were excluded from the rest of the country. Furthermore, a sense of poverty was evident just by examining their way of life.

The government officials and NGOs representatives (GZ2, NGZ1, NGZ2) in the Zambezi region offered that poverty in the region is associated with high levels of inequalities. The same view was also offered by most participants (TE2, TEZ3, TEZ5, TEZ8, TEZ10, TEZ11) within the private sector. TEZ3 stated that: *"I don't know if you have noticed but this region is different from the rest of the country"*. One of the community members in TEZ5 stated: *"It is what is it is, we are the poorest in the country, that's what we get from going against the government"*. Most of the communities felt that poverty in the region is associated with their voices not being heard. Unlike Kunene region, most of the communities in the Zambezi region had accessible good schools nearby with the exception of one (FGZ5) community which lived in one of the national parks. This community indicated that they lacked health facilities, education, income and empowerment. According to Croes (2014) these attributes define poverty. Members of this same community highlighted that: *"even if some people have goats, you still need money to pay for the upkeep of your children at these boarding houses; they say it's free but it's really not"*. This community (FGZ5) shared the same view as FGK6 confirming that the dimensions of poverty appear to be similar in different settings.

In one community (FGZ3), most of the community members were elderly who relied on their grandchildren to cook and fetch water for them. The community did not have any health-care facility nearby to provide for their medical needs. It seemed they had accepted that poverty was part of their life. The absence of health care facilities in a community whose populace are elderly makes them more vulnerable. According to Sisson (2001 cited in Chang 2011) and OECD (2001) such a vulnerable community is considered poor. TEZ1 indicated that the people in Zambezi region are not

supposed to be poor, the participant emphasised that they have all the benefits such as fertile land, rivers, and cattle. Thus, this participant viewed poverty in terms of material aspects.

TEZ5 argued that people in the local communities are not poor but underlined that *“it is more of an advantage to be labelled poor in this country because you get more benefits”*. Other (FGZ4) community members stated that when tourists visit them, they give them food and clothes, so it is good for them to look poor and this view was argued by other community members who stated that most people in the region are not poor. Thus, this agrees with Janis (2012) who highlights that most cultures and villages are utilising poverty as a tourist attraction. Hence, if the rural communities use the income from tourism to improve their livelihoods, they might lose their attractiveness and affect their culture.

In conclusion, it is quite evident based on the results that the poverty concept in Namibia has been debated by the government officials, non-governmental organisations and tourism establishments in Windhoek, Kunene and the Zambezi region. They all seemed to agree that poverty in Namibia is linked with high levels of inequalities in both regions. However, they could not agree on who should be regarded as poor. Therefore, this presents a challenge in terms of defining poverty in Namibian terms and ensuring that the “poor” are benefitting from tourism development. There is a discrepancy in perspectives because the local communities in both regions defined poverty as the lack of educational facilities, marginalised, lack of voice and the lack of cattle. Whilst most of the government officials and non-governmental officials in Windhoek and Kunene region (GW1, GW3, NG1, NG2, NG3, NGK1, NGK2) do not believe that the people in the Kunene region are poor. This was also the viewpoint of some tourism establishments (TEZ1, TEZ5, TEZ7, TEZ8). There is, therefore, a clear indication of a lack of definition of poverty. Also, there is lack of clarity on who should be regarded as poor. The lack of a common ground on poverty impedes efforts to address poverty through rural tourism development.

5.3.1 The causes of poverty in Kunene and Zambezi region

This section aims to analyse the causes of poverty in Namibia in the northern regions of Namibia based on the views of the different stakeholders. Globally, the causes of poverty varied from nation to nation, hence making it difficult to conceptualise poverty.

In the discussion about the causes of poverty in the case study regions GW2 provided a detailed explanation on the causes of poverty. The participant stated that the issue of poverty in Namibia is political and inequalities amongst different ethnic groups are the main causes of poverty. The

participant further explained that the policies need to be reviewed. Several issues were highlighted as the causes of poverty, some of which included:

- The system of measuring poverty is not designed to benefit the poor people.
- The policies are designed using the old system.

This meant that an overhaul of policy review was required. He further explained the issue of poverty illustrating how the whole system works. For instance, if one requires to buy a car in Namibia it takes a few hours for the loan to be approved whilst if one in the rural areas requires a loan or a mortgage against his land, he cannot get any loan. This is because of the old system (apartheid) still being used in the new government. This view was also offered by one government official who stated that: *“it’s better to change our policies as we tend to use the colonial system like our salary system”*. Thus, from this view the causes of poverty in Namibia is viewed as political and discriminatory. Most of the government officials and NGO representatives (GW1, GW2, GW3, NGW1, NGW2, NGW3) had the same concerns and it seemed like this issue was explicitly debated but not solved.

GW1 also highlighted numerous causes of poverty and stated that there are areas in the country which still do not have water and propounded that:

“how do you really expect that person to move out of poverty when they spend the whole time looking for water, travelling long distances just to get water. They can’t have everything, but they should have basic things like water and sanitation. They need to have a good foundation. So sometimes you find that whatever income they are getting, they are spending it on getting water and wood instead of other things.”

Thus, the above statement highlights the lack of basic needs as the cause of poverty. However, NGW1 stated the people’s attitude can be the cause of poverty in some cultures. He indicated that some cultures do not believe in hard work. This was the same opinion given by GW3 who signified that the benefit system has influenced some communities to remain poor. He stated that: *“They should get over the attitude of being given things.”* NGW3 also added that: *“even me, I am behind this chair and I need to work hard.”* Hence, from this point of view, poverty in Namibia can be viewed as caused by the lack of hard work. This opinion was raised throughout Kunene and Zambezi region. However, this cause of poverty was revealed by Silva and Athukorala (1996) as a type of poverty that blames the victim for being poor.

NGK1 stated that poverty in Kunene region was mainly caused by “laziness”. The participant emphasised that:

“right now, we have this programme of collecting mopane leaves and those people who are very poor are the ones not collecting the leaves. What would you call those people? Would you still refer to them as poor or lazy? They are not poor, they don’t want to work, they just want others to work and get the benefits.”

NGK2 blamed the local authority and the government for the causes of poverty. The participant stated that the region, particularly Opuwo, was marginalised and most of the job opportunities were offered to people from outside the region.

TEK12 viewed the causes of poverty as caused by the lack of education. The participant stated that some people do not want to go school and they do not tell their children to go to school, therefore, the children stay at home to look after livestock. In this case it is difficult if not impossible for the children to come out of poverty. It becomes generational poverty. This was the same opinion offered by TEK4 who stated that the government needs to do more with regards to educating people. They stated that the issue of alcoholism is the major cause of poverty in their constituency and they added that a lot of people in the community have too many children such that they are not able to look after them. In another community (FGK2) the lack of basic needs was highlighted including education and they stated cultural beliefs as the main cause of poverty. This view was also highlighted by TEK2. The participant stated that some cultures do not believe in money and work; they made decisions to live like poor people and they believe that they are rich in their culture.

One community located in a conservancy pointed out that the poverty in their community was caused by the colonial rule. This was because of the land issue, some stated that the land belonged to chiefs and they are the ones who have the right over land. They stated that the land policies do not favour the poor people. One community member stated that: *“we were just put in buses and were left here”*, and this was before independence and they regarded poverty as a cycle. This was evident because most of the people in the community were women and elderly. They did not have decent housing. TEK7 stated that drought is also a main cause of poverty in the region and this was agreed by the local craft artists in the same constituency. They stated that the material they use for their products is very difficult to find particularly if there is a drought. The same issue was highlighted by NGK1 who added that if there is a drought, the livestock of the community and wildlife would die. This has an impact not only to the local community but to the region because the lack of wildlife impact on the number of tourists visiting the region. TEK1, TEK4, TEK6 and TEK8 considered the government as

not doing its part. They highlighted that the government expects them to employ people whom they are not educating.

The other cause of poverty that was noted in Kunene region was the lack of financial support and capital. Although this fact was indicated by NGW1, it was quite evident during the research visit to the Kunene region. TEK11 was in an area which had a very good location for a caravan site, however, the caravans needed upgrading and there was no funding for it. The caravan site had to be closed down and such issues impact on the livelihood of the community. An additional two conservancies were visited, and one conservancy had nothing happening because they were still waiting for donors. The manager highlighted that they had camping equipment which was offered by another donor and were looking for a joint venture with a private owner. This conservancy offers an opportunity to the community because it is located between two regions which have rich natural habitats. Another conservancy seemed abandoned because of the lack [of] funding. This lack of capital and reliance on donors was observed as the main cause of poverty in that region.

In the Zambezi region, NGZ1 stated that poverty in the region was caused by the lack of institutions that can employ the youth. The participant further explained that even if the young people were educated the region did not have opportunities available for them. Whilst the NGZ2 however, emphasised the issue of education and specified that: *“there are areas where there are schools, the government introduced free education, but they just don’t like to be educated”*. GZ2 added that the rural areas need to be developed to attract (keep) young people. He added that the urban areas become overcrowded putting pressure on their resources because young people are migrating to cities to look for opportunities.

The issue of education was also emphasised by a chief in one of the conservancies who stated that the community needed more youth who are educated and recommended that a trust fund be opened by the conservancy for the prosperity of the community. TEZ6 highlighted the same issue and added that the community does not feel empowered. Some members stated: *“this is a government issue and education should start with them,”* and added that: *“how can you solve something when you don’t understand it yourself”*. However, NGZ3 stated that the government view empowerment as having the youths owning the lodges and argued that the youth should start by learning how to get people to the lodges before they own or even manage the lodges. GZ1 also stated that the issue of empowerment is debatable. Furthermore, NGZ1 stated that the communities are not yet ready to run the programmes themselves. This statement is in agreement with GW2 who stated that the communities do not have the skills yet, particularly the operations of CBTs and financial management.

TEZ2 stated that the region is neglected by the local authority and the government and this has led to the poverty in the region. The issue of laziness was pointed out by most of the private owners in the Zambezi region who emphasised that they do not employ certain ethnic groups because they will only stay for a month. Once they get their wages, they will not show up to work. One manager stated that the government should remove the benefit system because it encourages laziness. A manager from TEZ8 and TEZ3 stated that the region has good sites and very good areas for tourism, but they might not be known by potential operators. This is because the region is not marketed enough. Thus, the local operators have taken it upon themselves to market the region. Other tourism establishments (TEZ1, TEZ4, TEZ5, TEZ9) revealed that the economy of Namibia is not doing well, they added that inflation is affecting the smaller towns. They stated that most households in the Zambezi region cannot afford to have two meals a day. TEZ4 also stated that the Zambezi region does not have any manufacturing industry or any industry and this makes the region the poorest.

One focus group (FGK1) agreed that the jobs are not advertised locally, and the interviews are conducted in Windhoek thus they do not stand a chance. The issue of social exclusion was raised by FGK5 which consisted of mainly the Damara community. They highlighted the fact that in their own community they do not have a representative and their views are often disregarded. The causes of poverty highlighted by the local communities in Zambezi region were similar with those of Kunene region. However, Zambezi region communities had strong beliefs that the region was neglected for political reasons. One member (FGZ6) stated the issue of a civil war after independence as the major cause of poverty in the Zambezi. The other causes of poverty based on the local communities' views were highlighted in the previous section as defined poverty. These have summarised in Table 5.1. The results on the causes of poverty in Namibia were diverse. The viewpoints of the government officials in Windhoek, Kunene and Zambezi region varied, these are summarised in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 below indicates that lack of education/skills, blaming culture, cultural beliefs and lack of empowerment were major themes that were mentioned. Addressing these common causes of poverty will probably have a positive impact on poverty alleviation. Some unique causes peculiar to certain communities were identified. The unique causes were alcoholism, drought and lack of health facilities. These causes could be a result of the unique demography and geographical location of the communities. Addressing these would require a focused approach.

Table 5.2: Causes of poverty

Government officials and NGO representatives		
Policies are based on the old system	Poverty measurement tool is unclear	Discriminatory
Lack of empowerment	Lack of basic needs	Political
Lack of financial support and capital	Blaming the Government	Marginalised
Laziness	Lack of funding	Cultural beliefs
	Lack of skills (Education)	
Tourism establishments in both regions		
Lack of education	Alcoholism	Lack of empowerment
Lack of employment opportunities	Cultural beliefs	Laziness
Colonial rule	Drought	Lack of skills
Blaming the government	Corruption	
Local communities in both regions		
Colonialism	Lack of educational facilities (Education)	Marginalised
Social exclusion	Lack of employment opportunities	Lack of health facilities
Favouritism	Inequalities	Cultural beliefs
Lack of voice (Empowerment)	Lack of skills	Lack of recognition
Blaming the government	Corruption	

5.4 THE IMPACT OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION

This section analyses the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. A PPT approach was utilised to identify the benefits of tourism to the local community. The research questions that were addressed here are:

- What impact does rural tourism development have in poverty alleviation?
- To what extent does tourism development benefit the local community?

This section starts by establishing the impact of tourism in the Kunene and Zambezi regions. The impacts have been analysed from an economic, socio-cultural and environmental perspective. It establishes how the local community benefits from tourism development initiatives. The last part of the section explores the contribution of stakeholders in alleviating poverty in Namibia.

The tourism industry is anticipated to rapidly develop and in the next ten years (2030) the international market is expected to increase to 1,8 billion (Perrottet & Benli, 2016). Researchers have measured the impact of tourism utilising economic growth; however, the environmental and socio-cultural impacts are vital to measure the effects of tourism. Other researchers have also analysed the impacts of tourism according to income generation, natural and cultural environment and improvement of people's livelihood (Spenceley *et al.*, 2009). This research analysed the impacts of tourism; the economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts. The interviewees all agreed that the tourism industry is growing but the rural tourism concept received varied responses. The interviewees were all asked how tourism impacts on the economy since their perceptions in this regard are critical.

5.4.1 Impacts of tourism in Kunene region

This section analyses the impacts of tourism in Kunene region, to collect primary data six focus groups were conducted, twelve in-depth interviews were conducted with tourism establishments and two with NGOs in the region. Thus, the impacts analysed were from an economic, socio-cultural and environmental point of view. The views of the participants are individually considered.

5.4.1.1 Economic impacts

a. NGO representatives

NGK1 indicated that the tourism industry has an impact on the livelihoods of the local communities. The participants highlighted the economic impacts in terms of income, and these included:

- When tourists visit the region, they take photographs with the people. The local people are directly paid for this service.

- When the tourists visit the conservancies to see wildlife, they pay a fee directly to the conservancy. The tourists will sometimes have a tour guide when they go on game drives and the guides are paid.
- Most people's lives have changed because of tourism as it provides some form of income. As a result, they are able to feed their families.

NGK2 explained the programmes that have been put in place for communities to benefit from, these included the mopane leaves collection. The participant stated that:

"This programme provides the communities with an opportunity to collect mopane leaves which will be used to make products such as lotions and perfumes. These are then sold to the tourists. This has a direct impact because they are paid cash upon collection of the leaves."

b. Tourism establishments

TEK4 stated that tourism provides the industry with foreign currency because most of the tourists who visit the region are international visitors. The participant added that when the tourists visit their community, they buy in other shops as well. The influx of tourists in the region has influenced more shops and other business enterprises to be opened; these include grocery shops and fuel stations. It has also influenced other sectors such as the health care and government sectors like the police stations to improve. This has had an impact on the number of people employed in the community. This view is in agreement with Torres and Momsen (2011) who state that tourism generate employment opportunities in other linked sectors such as agriculture. TEK1 added that most of its products like eggs, fresh vegetables and meat are bought from local people and businesses. This provides linkages.

However, TEK3 mentioned that the inconsistency and unreliability of the local products is a major concern, thus most tourism businesses prefer to buy their products from South Africa. TEK6 also highlighted the unreliability of some local producers. The participant stated that:

"My business needs good quality fresh vegetables every day. In this area finding someone who can supply that is impossible, so I buy my vegetables from someone I trust that will not let me down."

This view was highlighted throughout the Kunene region. TEK7 and TEK8 stated that the constituent will not survive without the tourism sector; they emphasised that more than half of the people in the community work in the tourism industry.

TEK2 stated that the tourism industry has helped the community because some tourists donate some money to the local schools. In the same constituent, TEK7 emphasised that the industry provides the

country and region with employment and added that 99% of his employees are from the local community. Furthermore, some of the employees started as waiters and have been promoted to management positions. TEK9 also highlighted that most people who work in the conservancy were recruited from the local community. One manager claimed that:

“I have seen people’s lives changed; we have people who started as cleaners and moved to being tour guides. These are people who had nothing to do, now they can feed their families.”

TEK11 stated that they are waiting for a donor for their conservancy to start a camping site. Nonetheless, the community is optimistic because of where the conservancy is situated. The participant added that this opportunity would offer jobs to the local community and development of infrastructure such as churches for the local community. TEK10 also reiterated of the opportunities which tourism presents and added that the plans to improve the roads would mean more people will be able to access the camp sites.

c. The local community

FGK2 in the Kunene region mentioned that the tourism industry has a positive impact on their livelihood. The village has only women and children who totally rely on tourism for their livelihood. They are provided with food by their employer. The Himba village belongs to a private owner and the Himba people are given salaries to stay in the villages. The tourists pay a certain fee to see the Himba people’s way of living, perform dances and they also sell the artefacts.

It was also found in literature that some of the artists make and sell the crafts whilst they are dressed in their traditional attire. This gives them a platform for cultural exchange and interaction with tourists as well as an opportunity to preserve their culture (Xinhua, 2018). This way of living is, however, different from the Himba people in Opuwo, Kamanjab and Khorixas. The Himba people in Windhoek live in modern houses and they sell their products directly to the tourists. The government has provided them with a place to sell their products.

However, FGK1 argued that the money received from the tourists is not enough to live on. They stated that the industry is seasonal therefore there are times they do not get any tourists. They also added that sometimes the tourists give them food and old clothes. One of the group members highlighted that most of the tourism enterprises in the region have their own tour guides hence there are very few opportunities for them to get employment. However, the cultural centre has opportunities to sell their local products to the tourists and offer authentic tours of the Himba village and local

attractions. The cultural centre is being threatened with closure by the local authority, hence the livelihoods of the tour guides is uncertain.

According to FGK3, tourism has offered the community benefits such as housing. The group members stated that they were offered accommodation for free by the tourism establishments and they also get salaries. The group performs at the establishment and before they formed their group, they could not afford nice clothes and food. One community member mentioned that *“it is not much, but it is better than being at home.”* FGK4 stated that they earn a living through the tourism industry, they sell their products directly to the tourists and they also give some of their products to local craft centres to sell. The craft centres will then take a percentage of the sales. This has a direct benefit to the individuals and the local community.

FGK5 affirmed that a few people in their community work in the tourism industry, therefore, they do not see the benefits of tourism. They emphasised that the lodge in their community employs people from other regions. One group member stated that only one person in their community is employed at the lodge. FGK6 stated that no one in their community is employed in the tourism industry and most of the community members rely on government benefits. Some stated that the only thing they benefit from living in the conservancy is the meat which is distributed to community members.

The views of the impacts of tourism from local communities' perspective varied. Constituencies in Opuwo, Epupa and Kamanjab highlighted that they do not see the impact of tourism on their livelihoods. FGK1 also echoed the same sentiments and stated that most of the jobs are advertised in Windhoek and they do not get to hear about them. FGK3 stated that there is a lot of corruption in the region and most of the people who work in the region are from other regions, in particular, those with management positions. One of the government officials in Windhoek shared the same opinion that the community does not directly benefit from the conservancies except for a few people who are employed in the conservancies.

Responses obtained from NGOs in the Kunene region indicated that tourism provide positive economic impacts to the local communities. This sentiment resonated throughout the establishments that were interviewed. The most frequent positive impacts highlighted were linkages and employment. However, the issue of leakages came out and the main reason cited was lack of reliability from local suppliers. Therefore, there is need to reduce the leakages and enhance linkages.

5.4.1.2 Socio-cultural impacts

On the questions related to the socio-cultural impacts of tourism NGK2 mentioned that the local communities should have total control of the tourism activities to receive a fair amount of the benefits. This notion was disputed by GW1 who argued that the communities in rural areas do not have the skills to run the conservancies and there is still need for the government to offer programmes that will help the communities to run the tourism activities. Hence, most of the conservancies are run in conjunction with NGOs and joint ventures. 90% of the interviewees agreed that all the stakeholders should be involved in rural tourism development initiatives.

According to NGK1, some community members view their conservancies as their own, there is a sense of belonging and other community members have community centres where they go to socialise with other members. The community centres are viewed as places to socialise. NGK2 stated that conservancies are viewed as a national and community pride. She also added that tour guides enjoy showcasing their community such that money is not the driver of their work but a sense of pride and fulfilment. This feeling was felt when the researcher visited one of the Himba villages in Kunene region, the tour guide was a Himba himself who had so much pride in explaining the Himba culture and stated: *“Our culture is our heritage, so every family selects one child who will take up the culture and that child will not go to school but he/she will learn the Himba culture and values.”* He, however, was selected to go to school, hence, he does not have to wear the traditional clothes. NGK2 stated the communities need to be educated on the impacts of tourism as most of the people seem to think that tourism will take away their culture.

Almost all (TEK1, TEK2, TEK3, TEK4, TEK9, TEK10, TEK11) tourism establishments in Kunene region stated that the region is rich in local culture and it should be preserved as it can also encourage growth of tourism. TEK12 emphasised that some communities believe more in their culture and looking for jobs is not their priority. Their culture does not view formal employment as a way of life. Therefore, they take pride in their way of living. The other tourism establishments (TEK5, TEK6, TEK7, TEK8) indicated that Himba villages and Herero villages are one of the main attractions visited by tourists. This was quite evident with the increased number of Himba villages in the region. However, most of the Himba villages are owned by private owners.

The local community can communicate with tourists by educating the tourists on how to make some of the traditional items (Mason, 2008). The researcher had an opportunity to learn how the Himba people do their hair. Although the Himba people could not speak English, activities bring people from different cultures together, thereby breaking cultural barriers. The craft artists in Outjo demonstrated

how they make their crafts; this encourages the tourists to engage with them. This type of tourism is also practised throughout the Zambezi region, where the local people are visible on the side roads crafting and selling pottery. FGK1 emphasised that Namibia is rich in culture and culture determines everything people do. The participants added that the industry should learn and understand how to work within people's cultures, and they should be the ones telling the story. This view was also presented by FGK3.

Richards (2018) and Inskeep (1991) state that it is vital for tourists to appreciate local cultures and traditions as it brings a sense of pride to local people and this encourages protection of cultural identity of smaller cultural groups in a society. Cultural tourism in Namibia has the potential to positively impact on the economy of the country. In summary, socio-cultural impacts in Kunene region were positive and the participants indicated a sense of pride as they described the importance of culture. Although most cultural villages are owned by private owners, cultural tourism in the region has the potential to promote rural tourism development.

5.4.1.3 Environmental impacts

To respond to the government's environmental policies and regulations, the tourism enterprises have incorporated various initiatives in their establishments. These also include eco-awards where tourism establishments are affiliated to the award system and show that they are an eco-friendly organisation. The Etosha National Park has implemented a number of strategies to respond to environmental issues such as *"no plastic bags allowed in the park"*. Other tourist businesses have also banned plastic bags in their organisation to reduce their impact on the environment.



Photo 5.1: Signage in the Etosha National Park

Source: Gondwana collection (2018)

Other hotel groups in Namibia (TEK7, TEK10, TEK11) have adopted various initiatives to reduce negative environmental impacts such as littering. TEK8 indicated that they participated in the clean-up campaign which was advocated by the president and they collaborate with the local school. TEK6 mentioned that when tourists see them cleaning their town, it encourages them to keep it clean. However, the participant emphasised that most of the litter is not from the tourists and added that the community need to be educated on environmental issues.

Despite the environmental regulations being robust in Namibia most of the interviewees viewed the environmental impacts of tourism from a negative perspective. The experts in Windhoek, however, emphasised the fact that there are policies in place to reduce the environmental impacts. GW1 stated that *“we always assess the extent of the impact and design policies that targets those areas”*. Thus, in terms of policies the government of Namibia is always reviewing them.

The following establishments in Kunene, TEK5, TEK7, TEK8 and TEK9, highlighted the issue of drought as a major environmental impact. This is an important consideration given the fact that tourism industry relies heavily on the natural environment. Holden (2016:148) highlights the importance of the natural environment such as weather, water quality and the ecosystem in the tourism. In Namibia, such factors can have significant impact on the tourism industry as follows:

- Water shortages: means there are restrictions on its usage, for instance using swimming pools will not be allowed and using hose pipes for watering plants.
- Wildlife shortage: this particularly affects national parks and conservancies since hunting is the biggest income earner for conservancies.

The local communities (FGK5) also highlighted the above fact and added that sometimes they have to walk for miles to get water. This is because the communities are much dispersed. The communities in Kunene region rely on their livestock for their livelihood and dry weather tremendously affect them. One community had a borehole which was not working because the community members did not have the money to fix the pump. They stated that sometimes they go without water for months because they will need to raise the money for fixing the borehole. Another community member had a negative attitude towards tourists. He stated that: *“the sad thing with our situation is that we are near this road and one of the well-known lodges, but no one cares about us as long the tourists are happy.”*

The other impact which was emphasised by most communities (FGK3, FGK5, FGK6) in Kunene region was the issue of wildlife attacks, such as elephants and rhinos. The presence of wild animals

like elephants was quite evident because most of the trees around the village were destroyed. One of the communities (FGK6) emphasised that they were not allowed to have gardens, with one of the youths highlighting that he had studied agriculture in the neighbouring country, Zimbabwe, and had good plans on developing his community and yet this plan was denied by the chairman of the conservancy. Such environmental effects limit the communities on what they can do.

The issue of noise was emphasised by the owner of TEK1, who stated that although some tourists are aware of environmental issues, some tourists feel that they can do whatever they want because they are on holiday. TEK4 also emphasised the issue of noise and littering in the rooms. She stated that tourists are still not educated on environmental issues and suggested that the tourists should be made to pay a fine if they fail to abide by the environmental guidelines. This statement agrees with Miller *et al.* (2010:641) and Weaver (2011:9) who state that “most tourists have limited knowledge about the environmental impacts of tourism and tourists are reluctant to change their behaviour since they consider themselves entitled to enjoy their holidays without pondering on the environmental consequences”.

NGK1 and TEK7 stated that the roads in the region needed to be constantly upgraded because they are affecting the number of people visiting the area. This view became apparent when one of the lodges could not be reached during the research process. TEK5 emphasised that during the rainy season it is practically impossible to reach some of the areas such as Epupa. Some communities (FGK5, FGK6) feel the game drives are damaging the roads. Due to the lack of good roads, some areas appear neglected. Positively, plans to construct good roads and improve sanitation in the region are underway and the region has been awarded four hundred million Namibian dollars towards the development of the region (Lundup, 2019).

The results of this section suggest that environmental impacts in the region are mostly viewed from a negative perspective, however, the addressing of major negative impacts such as a lack of knowledge on environmental issues from the local communities could assist in reducing poverty. This could be achieved through effective planning and implementation of policies that encourage the local communities to preserve the natural resources that attract tourists to the region.

5.4.2 Impacts of tourism in Zambezi region

This section analyses the impacts of tourism on the Zambezi region by looking at the primary data. The primary data was collected from five focus groups, eleven in-depth interviews were conducted with tourism establishments, two government officials and three NGOs in the region. The economic,

socio-cultural and environmental impacts were discussed. The views of the participants are individually considered.

5.4.2.1 Economic impacts

a. Government and non-governmental organisations

In the question related to the economic impacts of tourism GZ1 stated that tourism in the region still has a long way to go. The participant indicated that the community members do not understand its potential therefore it is a challenge for them to appreciate its impact on the community. The participant further explained that activities such as fishing and hunting have improved in the past few years and this has had a positive impact on some communities. GZ2 viewed the economic impacts as something that needs to be increased. The participant stated that:

“As an organisation we are working together with communities to make sure that they understand how tourism can benefit them. At the moment I could say tourism is increasing, but the issue we are always facing is that of benefit sharing. Some community members want cash as benefit, and some want to improve the community by building their own schools. Some conservancies are doing well whilst some are not.”

NGZ1 stated that the impact of tourism is very minimal. The participant categorised hunting as a different sector of tourism and stated that the sector provides conservancies with most of its income. The participant highlighted that the income from tourism is not enough to sustain conservancies and added that conservancies need to diversify rather than relying on tourism. NGZ2 stated that the local community benefit from tourism but because of the number of members in conservancies, it is difficult for the community members to agree on one type of benefit. He highlighted that some conservancies have 4 000 members hence the process of benefit distribution can take a long time. Some might not view cash as a real benefit whilst others feel that capital benefits in the form of infrastructure like schools and clinics are the real benefits to the community. This same view was shared by GZ2. According to UNWTO (2002) the improvement of infrastructure, education and health care systems to make way for tourism will indirectly have a significant impact on the livelihoods of the local community. GZ2 also emphasised that tourism has contributed to reducing the level of unemployment in the region.

b. Tourism establishments

TEZ2 indicated that tourism has a positive impact on the economy of the country and the region because it has provided a significant number of job opportunities. The owner also analysed the impact of tourism from a different perspective and stated that the levies and taxes paid to use the

land for tourism contribute to the economy of the country. This same view was shared by TEZ3 and TEZ1 as well. These establishments stated that they only employ local people. TEZ11 highlighted the impact of tourism on the community as follows:

- The establishment employs people from the local community; the crafts are either bought directly from a local supplier, or the local community get a certain percentage of the sales (60%).
- The craft centre is part of a conservancy, therefore they pay a certain amount of the profits to the conservancy which will be then be used to improve the facilities of the conservancy or invested according to a benefit distribution plan. The figures to be paid to the conservancy are reviewed yearly or according to the initial agreement.

The manager emphasised that tourism has changed his life as he started from a low position. He explained that: *"there are a lot of opportunities for tourism in the region, but the people in this community are still behind. I know this because I have lived in Windhoek and I see the difference."*

TEZ5 also stated that they have a joint agreement with a conservancy, and they pay a certain amount to the conservancy. Despite employing the local community, they also participate in the development of the community. TEZ10 indicated that tourism in the constituency has been increasing and the establishment has seen their profits increasing. This means the establishment could buy more of the community products.

TEZ7 revealed that the community has benefitted from the conservancy through \$N500 000 that was used for rural electrification which came from the conservancy's profits, 15 bikes bought for tour guides and 1 boat. The conservancy has made a significant impact on the economy of the country; it receives income from different lodges with some paying monthly subscriptions and some paying their fees annually. TEZ6 stated that there are 44 community members who are employed by the lodges and plans to open new lodges and renovate the old ones which were destroyed by fire were on the way. Sijwa camp was one of the camps to be renovated and it is anticipated to employ 16 people. The camp is currently used by tour guards and it is not in a fit to accommodate tourists as there are no ablution facilities. It also does not have suitable amenities for camping.

Other CBT establishments such as TEZ8 and TEZ9 highlighted that the economic impacts of tourism include:

- Providing jobs for the youth.

- Infrastructure development-roads, schools, churches, grocery shops (owned by the conservancies). The other benefit is that the community members are given game meat. This benefit is provided to communities in conservancies throughout Zambezi and Kunene region.

a. The local community

The views of the local community in the Zambezi (FGZ1, FGZ2, FGZ3) differed from the other participants (government organisations, NGOs and tourism establishments) with most of the group members offering negative views towards tourism in the region. From a positive perspective FGZ4 stated that they rely more on tourism for their livelihood; the tourism activities of the community members ranged from selling pottery, craft making and choir groups. They concurred that tourism in the region has been improving with some members indicating that in the peak season they can earn enough to buy food, clothes and other basic necessities. However, FGZ1 mentioned that most of the employees are not from the local community. They stated that the employees at the establishments were not from their local community except a few members who work as security guards. The members of the same focus group went further to argue that they do not earn a living from tourism but through farming. In their opinion, tourism does not make any contribution to the community.

The same views from FGZ1 were echoed by FGZ3 who revealed that the whole system of employing people from the local community is a fraud. They stated that most of the youth in the community are educated but there are not enough jobs for them with some community members highlighting that the jobs depend on who you know. In FGZ2, a member of the focus group insisted that one has to be married to an induna's daughter to get employment and most of the people who work in the conservancies are foreigners. This was also mentioned by FGZ1 and emphasised that the foreigners are a source of cheap labour, therefore most tourism businesses prefer to employ them. This could be caused by the influx of foreigners from bordering countries such as Angola and Zambia. Some community members argued even small businesses prefer to buy the foreigners' products because they sell them at very low prices. This has a negative impact on linkages.

FGZ5 community is located inside a national park and the community members did not comprehend the relationship between poverty alleviation and tourism. They confirmed that the economic impacts of rural tourism have not been evident in their community. The community is situated 40 kilometres away from health facilities and the nearest high school is 20 kilometres away from the community. The lack of local schools and health-care facilities highlighted the current lack of development in this community. The Induna stated that most children in the community do not get to finish high school

because the conditions are unbearable. He highlighted that *“they all end up going to Windhoek or other big towns to seek better opportunities.”*

Based on the above results, it is quite evident that tourism in the Zambezi has the potential to develop. The government officials and the NGO representatives in the region indicated employment opportunities as the main impact of tourism development. However, the local communities indicated that the jobs in the region are provided to the foreigners. This highlights the issue of leakages, particularly if they do not spend their earnings in the region. The issue of benefit sharing was highlighted by NGO representatives. There were also divided opinions of what should be regarded as tourism. Others viewed hunting as tourism whilst others argued. Hunting was regarded as a sector on its own. This complicates the analysis of benefits of tourism. It is therefore important for the policy makers to indicate the tourism sectors.

5.4.2.2 Socio-cultural impacts

In the Zambezi region, the issue of culture is mainly emphasised by conservancies and tourism establishments. Unlike Kunene region, most constituencies did not understand the impact of tourism from a socio-cultural perspective. TEZ8 noted that the culture in the region has been diluted by immigration, and in many constituencies, there is a mix of cultures. However, TEZ3 mentioned that some ethnic groups have managed to conserve their culture. She stated: *“Although the region looks like it has been deserted, at least they have managed to preserve their culture, which to me is very important.”*

Tourism establishments in the Zambezi region (TEZ2, TEZ6) supports the local community by conducting village walks. This activity was implemented by TEZ2 and TEZ6 establishments which allowed villagers to conduct the village walks, making it possible for villagers to directly benefit from tourism. Other communities have chorale groups which are hired around Namibia. FGZ4 however, stated that the choir groups are not sustainable because group members migrate to other places for greener pastures. The participant explained that the money obtained from performing is not substantial to earn a living.

Although it is quite clear that rural tourism development presented some local communities with an opportunity to showcase their communities to tourists, some have viewed the establishment of CBTs as a government’s tactic for divide and rule. One community member stated: *“I wish the government had not started these conservancies because all they have done is to cause people to fight over this; we are always fighting with our own brothers because of these conservancies.”* This view was

highlighted in both regions, with the Kunene region communities indicating that people who are not originally from the region should not be employed in their regions even though they are Namibians. Although the region has a rich culture (Lozi), culture has not been fully utilised to attract tourist to the region. Promoting cultural tourism in the region could increase tourism to the region.

5.4.2.3 Environmental impacts

In the Zambezi region the local communities and the tourism establishments had mixed opinions. Some of the environmental impacts of tourism were quite evident from the state of Katima Mulilo city. Tourism can cause great damage to the environment through pollution and littering (Frauman & Banks, 2011). This seemed to be the case in this city because the roads were full of potholes and it looked like rubbish had not been collected for a long time. This was quite startling considering that the tourism industry highly depends on a clean environment. Giurea *et al.* (2018) alluded to the fact that the lack of waste management can cause enduring negative impacts. An interview with TEZ2 confirmed the lack of waste management and this negates the efforts taken to promote tourism in the region. The owner of the tourism establishment stated: *“Rubbish is not collected on scheduled times and in rural areas there is no rubbish collection, we do it ourselves. If you drive around this area, there is a lot of rubbish on the sides of the road; people just dump it everywhere.”*

The participant further emphasised that the state of the city does not give a good impression to people who visit the city, especially tourists. This was the same sentiment echoed by TEZ1 who stated that the city does not have toilets for the public and no one knows when the rubbish will be collected. The other issue which was highlighted by 90% of the interviewees was the issue of poaching, particularly fishing. TEZ11 indicated that most of the community members are not educated or refuse to learn when it comes to environmental issues. TEZ4 stated that most tourists visit Zambezi region for fishing and bird watching but the issue of poaching is threatening the region.

Most establishments highlighted that the ministry responsible for such issues does not care about these issues because they have been reported to the ministry without any solutions. TEZ3 stated that the community needed to be involved in the plans of conserving the fish. Due to the decline of fish, TEZ7 worked together with NGZ3 to establish fish reserves which would help in preserving other fish species. They also left other fishing areas for community use.

TEZ7 also highlighted the issues of illegal hunting and fishing by the local community. However, procedures were put in place to ensure that the community does not use areas that have been reserved for conservation. The community works with NGOs to conserve the fish. Fish monitors have

been employed, the idea is to conserve and restore fish stocks to its original status for the next generation. NGZ3 emphasised the importance of preserving all-natural habitats. TEZ5 stated that local communities in the Zambezi region need to be educated before implementing such ideas because most community members feel that the land belongs to them, hence they should not be restricted on fishing and hunting.

In addition, the issue of stray dogs emerged in almost all the interviews. The stray dogs chase wildlife away. One community which lives in the national park (FGZ5) stated that almost everyone in the community owns a dog because they alert them of any danger. The community members highlighted their fear of wild animals. They stated that their livestock gets attacked by wild dogs and they cannot grow any maize or vegetables because of wild animals such as elephants. The issue of noise pollution was highlighted in both the Zambezi and Kunene region. This impact was mainly influenced by availability of shebeens. There are shebeens in almost every other house in both regions. One informant stated that this ideology was brought by the west and most people do not have jobs and they view shebeens as their only source of entertainment. Whilst most tourism establishments felt that it was unfair for the tourists who visit the rural areas for peace and quiet to be kept awake by the noise of the local community. It was quite evident that the regions (Kunene and Zambezi) view the impacts of tourism from a negative perspective regardless of the government's efforts to reduce them. Both the local community and the establishments need to work together to reduce these effects.

The results found in this section are similar to the results found in Kunene region – the local community needs to be educated on environmental issues. If these issues are not addressed, they might discourage the tourists from visiting the region, hence impacting on poverty alleviation. Although the government officials were encouraging the local communities to preserve the natural habitat, the local leaders in the region seem to have a different mindset. Therefore, there is need for a more robust strategy to address these issues. There is need to ensure that the policies set at a national level are implemented.

5.4.3 PPT strategies implemented in Kunene and Zambezi

PPT is defined as “tourism that generates net benefits for the poor” and it should address the negative social and environmental impacts related to tourism (Ashley & Carney, 1999). Considering that PPT is not a solution to poverty but a contribution to rural tourism development and alleviation of poverty, this study conducted in-depth interviews with the tourism stakeholders intending to determine how the community benefits from tourism and establish whether these benefits have an impact on poverty alleviation.

Based on the above results, the benefits of tourism on the poor for both regions can be summarised as follows:

a. Direct effects

According to Mitchell and Ashley (2010) direct impacts transpire when the tourism has a positive financial effect on the people employed in the sector. According to the government officials (GW1, GW2, GZ1, GZ2) and NGO representatives (NGK1, NGK2, NGZ1, NGZ2, NGZ3) in Windhoek, Kunene and the Zambezi regions, the local communities benefit from rural tourism initiatives through employment. Tourism establishments in constituencies such as Kamanjab, Outjo, Opuwo and Khorixas (TEK1, TEK2, TEK3, TEK4, TEK5, TEK7, TEK8) stated that they totally rely on tourism. The tourism ventures in both regions are predominately owned by the private sector who employ a large number of people from the community. However, in Zambezi region, the local communities revealed that the tourism industry employs a lot of foreigners from Zambia. The same view was mentioned in Kunene region particularly with reference to management roles. However, most employees benefit from tourism through direct employment.

Some community members (FGK2, FGK3, FGK4) who work in the tourism industry in Kunene region highlighted that tourism enables them to support their families. In the same constituency, the tour guides stated that the industry does not pay enough to live on. They highlighted the issue of seasonality, low pay and leakages. Most of the tour operators were from different regions and different countries. Thus, the benefits of tourism in that region leaks out to other regions and countries.

The community members employed by the private sector often fill low-skilled vacancies such as cleaners, waiter/tresses and security guards. This is due to the lack of skills as highlighted. This view was highlighted by 72,7% of the focus groups (FGK1, FGK3, FGK5, FGZ1, FGZ2, FGZ3, FGZ5). CBTs in both regions offer opportunities for the local communities, it however employs very few members from the community. The local communities in both regions also directly benefit from tourism by selling crafts to the local craft shops. Other tourist establishments such as lodges also directly sell the crafts to their tourists. NGOs offer projects such as mopane leaf collection which benefit the poor people in the Kunene region. The CBTs earn direct income from hunting and fishing. The local people also earn money through conducting village walks and tours. Both regions can directly benefit from tourism and some constituencies have indirectly benefitted from tourism through linkages.

b. Indirect effects

Government organisations noted that the private sector which is owned by the white minority has strong links with each other and they prefer to buy local products from elsewhere rather than supporting local entrepreneurs. However, in Kamanjab and Katima Mulilo the private sector buys their fresh produce from the local community. The increase of tourism in constituencies such as Outjo, Opuwo and Katima Mulilo has influenced growth of other sectors such as retail, construction and other services such as electricity. Hence, most of the employees spend their income within the constituency. Employees who work at conservancies highlighted that it is expensive to go to other cities to buy groceries and clothes and they spend their income in their region. Some craft centres and campsites pay part of their profits to conservancies and these will be used for the development of the community. This includes building of schools, clinics and churches.

c. Dynamic effects

It is difficult to assess the dynamic effects of tourism on the poor because they are less tangible in comparison to the direct and indirect effects. Dynamic effects were mostly identified in some communities, especially in the Zambezi region. The CBTs distribute their benefits on an annual basis and TEZ7, which comprised of four communities, have used their profits to build and improve schools, electrification of the conservancy and boreholes. The conservancy emphasised that it aims to improve the livelihood of the community through infrastructure.

Most of the tourism establishments support the local schools in monetary terms and donations of material to improve the local schools. GZ2 highlighted that the impact of tourism on rural people should not be measured only in food and money but in terms of how it is changing their lives in terms of ownership. The issue of benefit distribution was debated in most communities (FGZ2, FGZ3, FG4) and they felt that they were not involved in the decision making of how the profits should be distributed. The issue of empowerment was also debated by the NGO representatives (NGZ2, NGZ3) and the government officials (GZ1), as some feel that the communities are not equipped to run the enterprises without the government or private sector involvement. The rural communities, however, stressed that the involvement of the private sector or joint ventures indicated that the land is still owned by the old rulers. One Induna stated that *"I own the land and I don't think I should be told what to do with my land. I have to make sure that my people have enough land before I give it away for anything else."* Some viewed cash as a real benefit whilst some preferred infrastructure development and capacity building. TEZ9 emphasised that the conservancy will not distribute any cash because there is a lot that is needed to be done in the community. Therefore, there is need to review the benefit distribution system for the local community to view tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation.

5.4.4 Contribution of stakeholders to poverty alleviation strategies

According to Scheyvens (2011:115) PPT strategies should concentrate on capacity building of the poor, empowering and offering support for labour rights and have more control over tourism activities in their communities. The purpose of this section is to establish the role of stakeholders in PPT strategies. Although the development of rural tourism faces many challenges, government organisations are involved in the development of rural tourism. GW1 and NGW2 stated that they have field agents who work with communities and joint ventures. The day-to-day job roles of the field agents is to offer support to the communities in terms of what they need to have for their projects to succeed. GW1 who collaborates with NGOs and other organisations such as environmental organisations and the farmer committees, provided the following statement:

“For initiatives to run, they must be recognised by law. We started the concessions from 1995 with only four; now we are talking about 86. So, we must support all of them, from the institutional law to environmental policies, even health and safety issues, making sure that they have the skills. So, we can’t just start the programmes and leave them there.”

The Community-Based Natural Resource Management department also trains community members on negotiation skills and financial management. The statement by GW1 agrees with NGW1 who added that his department offers advice on financial issues and train community members on how to apply for funding from banks and management issues such as wildlife management. They both emphasised that the communities cannot run the CBTEs alone because of mismanagement of funds. The CBTE support from the government and NGOs was evident throughout the Zambezi region. Also, tourism establishments in both Kunene and Zambezi regions are linked with the local communities in terms of cultural support. The tourism establishments hire cultural groups and local chorale groups to perform for guests and support local schools, by inviting the school’s cultural group to sing for guests. The proceeds are donated to the school. Most of the conservancies have cultural groups which are hired by lodges to present their culture through music and dance. Other hotels such as FGK1 have cultural villages directly linked to them.

In one of the annual general meetings attended by the researcher, government organisations provided the conservancy with 3 tents, 4 camping chairs, 3 bed rolls and 4 rain gauges. A non-governmental organisation, NGZ3 contributed 6 bicycles, 6 tents, 6 mattresses, sleeping bags, 6 camping chairs, water bottles, 2 binoculars and GPSs. In the same conservancy, two NGOs provide training to community members. NGZ1 also stated that they train communities on various areas to

include conflict resolution, benefit distribution and marketing their conservancies. NGZ3 conduct workshops where they train and provide awareness on environmental issues.

Fish monitors in Mayuni conservancy were offered training on conservation. Training for tour guides is also offered. Other community members were sent for training on bee hunting. Every year conservancies, government officials and NGOs have a field trip where they meet with conservancies from other countries like Zimbabwe to learn from each other and offer recommendations on how conservancies can improve. Most of the office employees in conservancies were trained in office administration and management.

Tourism establishments in both regions offer in-house training to achieve skills such as cookery. TEK4, TEK7 and TEK8 stated that they offer internships to students studying hospitality management and train their employees on customer service. The issue of customer service was also highlighted by TEK7 who emphasised that customer service is of essence such that they have built a hotel school at the premises which will be training employees/students on culinary techniques and customer service. This initiative will assist in reducing the unemployment rate in the community and educating them on hospitality and tourism management. One of the managers in Khorikas highlighted that she started working at her organisation as a waitress and has worked in all the hotel departments, therefore in terms of acquiring skills, the organisation has supported her.

TEZ5 stated that most of the employees are offered in-house training and further rationalised that training is vital as it will help the employees to be employable. The employees were trained on bar management, customer service, waiter's service, and front-office operations. One manager offered that: *"Why should I care about training anyone when the government itself doesn't care? Educate your people first."* Consequently, several challenges emerged:

- Some employees do not have basic education.
- High staff turnover – employees leave after training for greener pastures.
- Work ethic – not separating work from personal life, e.g. the use of cell phones whilst at work.

However, the local communities (FGK1, FGK4, FGK5) stated that the training programmes are not offered to everyone but to only a few who already work in the conservancies or in the private sector. Other community members mentioned that there are a number of youths that have attained vocational training certificates, but the opportunities are limited. These observations agree with NGZ1 who stated that there are fewer establishments compared to the number of jobless people. Hence,

the conservancies, particularly in Zambezi region, are pursuing tourism in an attempt to create employment. This offers challenges to other tourism organisations in the regions.

Some of the tourism establishments such as TEZ1 and TEZ5 stated that their organisations struggle to get customers in low seasons. The tourism establishments indicated that they work very hard to keep their customers, hence having several lodges and campsites within the same geographical location will present challenges to the viability of the constituency. Others (NGZ1, GZ2, GZ2 and TEZ4) argued that the camp sites have to offer quality services to be able to attract the type of customers who visit the region. NGZ2 emphasised that there are a lot of areas in the Zambezi region that have not yet been explored and in peak periods the hotels and lodges are usually fully booked. Thus, having several lodges is a plausible notion. However, the participant added that the region is not marketed enough and most of the conservancies do not have internet access. Therefore, this initiative might be a challenge to implement. Consequently, meeting the customer expectations will be difficult as most tourists expect a comfortable holiday experience when they visit the country.

Other community members (FGZ3, FGZ4) stated that the skills they are offered at their workplaces are transferable but not recognised elsewhere. They mentioned that they are not offered any certificates after the training. They also argued that tourism should be offered as a practical subject in high school and students should be educated on entrepreneurial skills rather having a mind-set of working for other people. The issue of empowerment has already been discussed, however, it can be concluded that the local communities in both regions highlighted that they are not involved in the decision making with regards to community development. One group of young people stated that: *“the committee mostly has old people, we are all graduates from UNAM and we have no jobs, when we ask for opportunities they say we are being troublesome. All of us here, we are planning to go to South Africa and look for jobs. We don’t know what they do in these conservancies, now they want to build a church, for who? When we don’t have a clinic in our communities.”*

The government departments and NGOs stated that the community still need to be trained on several issues such as conserving and managing wildlife. Other community members felt that their rights to land have been taken away by the government. This view was emphasised by both government officials (GW1, GW3, GZ1, GZ2) interviewed and NGOS (NGK1, NGK2, NGZ1, NGZ2, NGZ3) that there is a need to review the land policies as they are not benefitting the local communities. One participant stated that the land policy that is supposed to benefit the poor, is actually widening the gap between the rich and the poor. The introduction of joint ventures in Namibia provided

conservancies with an opportunity for growth. However, the NGOs are involved in negotiating the terms of the joint ventures because most of the employees do not have the skills.

The results on this section indicated that most communities feel that they are not involved in the decision making of the projects. This led to the question; who benefits more from these joint ventures and from tourism development? The local communities in both regions did not feel the benefits of tourism development. The other stakeholders, however, were of the opinion that rural tourism was benefitting the local communities. This disjoint in perceptions on benefits of rural tourism highlighted that the efforts of other stakeholders were misdirected. The issue of trust among the stakeholders and capacity building was more prominent in this section.

- The beneficiaries of tourism development

All the conservancies from both regions stated that although they benefit from joint ventures, the private partners benefit more. One manager from a conservancy stated that: *“All they want is to get their money back and a profit, they don’t care about anything else, and why should they?”*

NGK1 and NGZ2 echoed the same sentiments and stated that in some situations the conservancies will be in a desperate situation because of a lack of funding such that when the private partner shows any interest in their conservancy, they end up allowing the partner to have an upper hand over the operations of the conservancy. This was based on the view that they might not have the right skills. Interestingly, all the government organisations and NGOs acknowledged that the poor communities should benefit from tourism development. They stated that the policies need to be changed for the poor to receive real benefits. One government official reiterated that the poor do not benefit from tourism because they do not have the qualifications. The participant added that *“one conservancy in Kamanjab has 8 000 members and less than ten people work in the conservancy. How is that a benefit to the poor? There are people who live in extreme poverty in that conservancy.”*

GW2 stated that the opportunities are endless but ultimately the private sector benefit more. NGOs’ views varied, of the eight NGOs interviewed three agreed that the poor are benefitting from tourism development, but they emphasised that the private sector benefit more because of the agreements set at the beginning of joint ventures. NGK1 stated the benefits depend on several factors *“there are communities which are performing well, and others are really struggling because of conflicts.”* The participants further expounded that the conflicts between indunas, conservancies and joint ventures can take years to resolve. GK2 added that the benefits to the local communities are very little because of lack of funding or if they do not have good wildlife resources. The participant added that the issue

of drought has impacted on national parks and wildlife resources, therefore if the conservancies do not have the animals, the tourists might not be willing to visit the areas. GZ3 stated that the private sector and tourists are main beneficiaries of tourism development.

Other conservancies (3 out of 4) in Zambezi region stated that tourism development has benefitted the local communities because of the infrastructure they developed. One participant emphasised that: *“ten years ago we didn’t have a secondary school in this community, we didn’t have water or electricity, we make profit every year.”* Thus, they stated that everyone benefits, but some benefit more. They all stated that the local community should not view the benefits in monetary terms.

The tourism establishments such as hotels, lodges and campsites in both regions indicated that everyone benefit from the initiatives and tourism development. TEK3 emphasised that the government benefit more because of the amount of taxes and levies the tourism establishments pay. Most of the tourism establishments stated that if the tourism in rural areas is well marketed and developed, the number of tourists can increase. Consequently, they will be able to offer more jobs to the community.

The local communities’ views also varied from constituent to constituent. The communities in touristic areas indicated that they have benefitted from tourism. One community member stated that they benefitted from tourism development through the sale of crafts. The participants stated that the number of craft centres has increased thus they have been able to sell their products to the craft centres and directly to the tourists. The issue of linkages was also highlighted by the same focus group. They indicated that they struggle to sell their products because some craft centres have their own manufacturers of craft from Windhoek. One participant also highlighted that the increase of immigrants has caused some craft centres to buy products from immigrants instead of local. The migrants sell the crafts at cheap prices.

FGK2 stated that they rely on tourism for their livelihood and they have benefitted through cultural dances and employment from a private owner. They emphasised that they make more money from taking pictures with tourists. In communities where tourist activities are low, the community members indicated that they have not benefitted from tourism. Other community members (FGZ1) pointed out that they rely on farming and selling other products such as clothes to the local community.

5.4.5 Rural tourism and alleviation of poverty in the northern region of Namibia.

Prior sections have explored the development of tourism in Namibia and rural tourism development in Kunene and Zambezi regions. The participants revealed that tourism has developed in terms of

increase in tourism numbers and infrastructure. Yet, the participants indicated that poverty is prevalent in both regions. The impacts of tourism have also been investigated, both positive and negative impacts have been revealed. Therefore, the question that ought to be explored here is; *does the development of rural tourism alleviate poverty?* The response to this question is based on the views of five government officials, eight NGOs, twenty-four tourism establishments (includes conservancies) and eleven local communities.

Four out of the five government officials (GW1, GZ1, GZ2, GZ3) interviewed indicated that rural tourism in Namibia has the potential to alleviate poverty. However, GW2 indicated that for tourism to impact on the lives of poor households, there is need for the government officials to understand other impacts of tourism such as culture. GZ1 also emphasised the issue of culture and added that *“the problem we have is politicians just want to know how much money tourism brings, it’s figures, figures, figures ...”* In contrast, GW3 stated that tourism does not alleviate poverty, it instead widens the gap between the rich and the poor. The participant expanded that tourism has brought poverty into some communities because they do not have rights to their land, and it has brought more conflicts to communities.

NGK1, however, mentioned that tourism has improved some communities’ well-being and some people in the constituency (Opuwo) rely on tourism for food. The participant also mentioned that in some communities, tourism has not played part in poverty alleviation. NGK2 argued that the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation has not been recognised as evidenced by a lack of basic services and tourism resources. In Zambezi region, the NGOs indicated that tourism development can contribute to poverty alleviation. NGZ3 emphasised that farming is the main sector in the region, therefore tourism benefits are not as pronounced compared to those derived from farming. Whilst NGZ2 indicated the impacts of tourism vary from community to community, therefore, it is difficult [to] ascertain the role of tourism in poverty alleviation.

All tourism establishments indicated that tourism development can facilitate poverty alleviation but there is still more that the government can do for the community to benefit more from tourism. The responses provided here refer back to the benefits of tourism development. TEZ4 highlighted that tourism can alleviate poverty because it helps most of the participants’ workers with income. The participant highlighted that:

“Most of my workers are women. When they started working here, they had nothing. They could not buy clothes for their children but now they can afford to feed their families. They have now been

trained; we train them here ourselves. If they want to go and work somewhere, they can now do that, so yes tourism has changed their lives.”

In contrast, almost 90% of the local communities stated that tourism does not alleviate poverty. Those who stated that tourism alleviates poverty work in the industry and/or sell crafts and other tourism products. FGZ3 indicated that tourism can alleviate poverty but not on its own. The participants mentioned that tourism is beneficial but as a supplement to other activities like farming.

5.5 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to establish whether rural tourism in the northern of Namibia was developing and determine whether rural tourism development has an influence on poverty alleviation. This was achieved by analysing data obtained from interviews and focus groups. The interviews and focus groups were carried out in the Kunene and Zambezi regions. This chapter has explored the development of rural tourism in the northern region of Namibia (Kunene and Zambezi). It has also scrutinised the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in those regions. Tourism in Namibia has developed in terms of tourist numbers and infrastructure. The concept of rural tourism development and its impact has been deliberated by the government and NGOs in Namibia. Government officials and NGOs had knowledge on rural tourism, and it was quite clear that they have been adequately informed whilst the views of the private enterprises and the local community differed. Although the rural tourism concept has been implemented for the past thirty years the local communities in the northern region of Namibia lacked adequate knowledge of the notion and its benefits. This chapter also explored the issue of poverty in Namibia and its causes. The definitions and views of the participants differed. However, poverty in Namibia can be defined as the lack of basic needs influenced by a highly unequal society. Poverty in Namibia cannot be defined in monetary terms because the rural communities viewed cattle as a measure of wealth. The chapter also thoroughly explored the benefits of tourism and the views of the participants varied. The benefits of tourism development to the two regions varied from constituent to constituent, however, they included employment creation, infrastructure development and promoting linkages. Whether rural tourism development alleviates poverty is debatable as the participants' views varied again. The over-arching element of education came through strongly in these results which is an element to consider on different levels. Thus, the abovementioned results will be amalgamated and thoroughly discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6:

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH STUDY FINDINGS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to present an in-depth analysis and discussion of the research findings provided in Chapter 5. The discussions of the research findings in this chapter are linked to the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. The literature was reviewed for the purposes of understanding the methodologies, but it was not extensively studied before conducting the primary research. Thus, grounded theory (basic hermeneutics) and descriptive phenomenological approaches are utilised in this chapter. Grounded theory is used because the research sought to discover and develop theory based on the primary research findings (Charmaz, 2006; Matteucci & Gnoth, 2017:49), instead of testing a theory. Using grounded theory, the results of this research are utilised to develop theory and consequently draw research conclusions. Phenomenological approach is also utilised as it provides an opportunity to identify and understand the phenomena through the perceptions of the players in a situation (Creswell, 2013). This allowed information to be produced from the research participants' perspective.

Furthermore, these discussions reflect on the participants' responses by analysing the recurring themes and patterns. The discussions are based on the five research objectives highlighted in Chapter 1. It starts by further exploring the development of rural tourism in Namibia. It will then re-examine the causes of poverty, impacts of tourism and the PPT strategies. The chapter also re-evaluates relationship between rural tourism development, poverty alleviation, the causes of poverty and PPT strategies. Ultimately, the questions that ought to be addressed here are: *What impact does rural tourism development have on alleviating poverty? To what extent does rural tourism development benefit the local community?*

6.2 RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NAMIBIA

The purpose of this section is to discuss the themes related to rural tourism development that emanated from the empirical results. The research attempted to explore and understand rural tourism development from the research participants in different regions. The themes identified are discussed below.

6.2.1 Perceptions of rural tourism development

In terms of rural tourism development in Namibia, the views of the participants varied. This was mainly because there was a varied understanding of what should be viewed as rural tourism. The themes that developed from the analysis of rural tourism development revolves around a definition for rural tourism, legislation, infrastructure and growth.

6.2.1.1 A working definition for rural tourism

The three participant groups differed in the way they defined rural tourism. Without a clear understanding of the concept, it is difficult to understand the opportunities presented by rural tourism development. There were varied views on what constitutes rural tourism with government officials offering vague definition of rural tourism. This statement is in line with Rogerson (2002) who highlights the importance of local governments' appreciation of the role of tourism prior to utilising it as a tool for local economic development.

The views of local communities also varied from region to region, constituent to constituent and community to community. The participants of both regions indicated rural tourism as tourism that encourages people to visit small villages and communities so that they can know and understand their culture and should benefit the local people. The concept of rural tourism has been overtly debated with researchers indicating that rural tourism is complex, and it has different meanings and is implemented for different reasons (Darău *et al.*, 2010; Gopal *et al.*, 2008; Viljoen & Tlabela, 2007). It can therefore be defined at a local level and can also be identified by its location and characteristics (Lane, 1994). Thus, based on the views of the participants, it is plausible to view rural tourism in Namibia as any type of tourism that is conducted outside cities and towns (rural areas); it should benefit the local community. Instead of solely focusing on CBTs, other types of tourism should be considered to include tourism which presents the rural life, art, culture and heritage at rural locations with the sole aim of supporting the local community economically and socially (Nagaraju & Chandrashekara, 2014; Lane, 1994; Sharpley, 1996).

It is quite evident that the understanding of rural tourism depends on the region/constituency, position/job role of the participants and the type of tourism establishment. Given this variation, it is pertinent for stakeholders to reach a consensus on how tourism development is defined.

6.2.2 Implementation of legislation and tourism policies

A variety of policies on tourism (policy on promotion of CBT 1995, National tourism policy for Namibia 2008, NDP1, 2, 3, 4 and 5) are in place but the research confirmed that their implementation is not robust enough. Government respondents were aware of the policies but did not share a well-defined process on how these are implemented, instead they focused on the need to review policies.

Most NGOs echoed that more still needs to be done in terms of implementation. A case in point is the policy on promotion of rural development which has been part of the NDPs since 1996 (NDP1). To this date promotion of rural development is still on the agenda. Lack of policy implementation was also evident in the local communities. The local communities regarding poaching as an acceptable way of livelihood despite the presence of legislation on nature conservation (Nature Conservation Act 1996; Environment Management Act 2007). Most focus groups could not agree on the need to conserve natural resources with some citing that natural resources are of their cultural heritage. This highlights the lack of awareness on relevant legislation and more needs to be done to ensure effective policy implementation. Furthermore, the ineffective policy implementation has had a knock-on effect on the attitude of local communities towards the policies. Previous research (Janis 2012, Nyakunu & Rogerson, 2014; Aghajanian *et al.*, 2020) on tourism policies indicate the lack of implementation. This was also confirmed in this research; it is therefore imperative to explore further the reasons why implementation is not successful. Emphasis should therefore shift from policy review and be concentrated on effectively implementing current policies.

6.2.3 Infrastructure and economic growth

This research unearthed various viewpoints on whether tourism is contributing to infrastructure development and economic growth. Most government officials and NGOs highlighted an increase in infrastructure development and economic growth as a result of tourism. Local communities, however, did not concur with this viewpoint as they do not see the evidence of this in their vicinity. Lastly, the tourism establishments were divided on their views.

Most government officials and NGOs in Windhoek revealed that tourism in Namibia as a whole, is developing because the number of tourists visiting the country has been increasing. Thus, the increase in tourist numbers has had an influence on the inflow of foreign currency to the country. Other tourism establishments highlighted that the Northern region of Namibia will continue to receive international tourists because of the tourist products such as Etosha. The country is also regarded as one of the safest countries in Africa (AfrAsia Bank, 2018). The number of tourism organisations in the country have also increased having an influence on infrastructure improvement such as airports and trunk roads. The development of Hosea Kutako airport was given as an example of how tourism

has influenced the increase in the number of tourist arrivals. The participants of this research study also linked the development of tourism in Namibia with the number of people employed in the industry. They also compared the number of people employed in the tourism industry to other industries such as agriculture. Most participants' views on the development of tourism in Namibia agree with the literature review which indicated that tourism in Namibia is developing and is anticipated to grow. It showed an upward growth in terms of:

- Employment generation: expected to rise to 186 000 by 2025 (WTTC, 2015).
- International tourist numbers: anticipated to increase from 1.374,602 in 2013 to 1,947,000 by 2025 (WTTO, 2015)
- Gross Domestic Product: contributed 2.9% GDP (N\$5 million) and is anticipated to double by 2028 (WTTC, 2017).

The results of this research indicated that tourism development in Namibia has been viewed in terms of economic growth. Thus, more emphasis has been placed on economic growth. However, Scheyvens and Russell (2013) indicate that governments of developing countries which have substantial tourism potential should emphasise on maximising multiplier effects instead. Many destinations are utilising tourism as a strategic approach for socio-economic improvement through job creation, export revenue earnings and infrastructure development (WTO, 2010). Namibia has indicated the importance of tourism in rural areas because of its contribution to socio-economic development (Kavita & Saarinen, 2016).

Various researchers have studied the link between tourism development and economic growth. Ekanayake and Long (2012) studied the connection between tourism development and economic growth in developing countries and concluded that tourism income positively impacts on economic growth. Kyophilavong *et al.* (2018) stated that tourism development has the possibility to contribute to economic growth however, there is no evidence to indicate that an increase in tourism can impact on economic growth. Gartner and Cukier (2012) stated that tourism development leads to economic growth and the economic growth can alleviate poverty successfully. Kyophilavong *et al.* (2018) however, emphasised that governments should instead focus on economic policies to promote tourism because it is the basis of economic growth. Nguyen and Nguyen (2013)'s research also highlighted the importance of improving government policies for the economic growth to have more impact at a provincial level and expounded that infrastructure such as transport network should be developed. According to Whelan (1991) governments view tourism as an opportunity for rural revitalisation. Kim *et al.* (2013) highlighted that the interest of utilising tourism as a tool for regional economic development has grown dramatically over the past decades. Therefore, rural tourism has

been viewed as one of the most viable development strategies for rural communities (Marzuki *et al.* 2010). The current research indicates that rural tourism in Namibia has been used as a development strategy for rural communities, preservation of natural resources and local culture. This finding is in line with Carbone (2005) and Marzuki *et al.* (2010). The participants indicated the importance of culture preservation. Thus, this research supports Gunawijaya & Pratiwi's (2018) conclusion who stated that the development and construction of rural tourism should be centred on local culture.

However, other government officials indicated that tourism in both regions only developed in the first ten years of independence. They cited the lack of improved road networks as a reason for stalled development, particularly in Kunene region and other parts of the Zambezi region. The participants stated that the lack of well-constructed roads has negatively impacted on tourism. The view on rural tourism development from the government officials in Windhoek and those in the research study areas differed. The government officials in Windhoek had a pessimistic view towards the initiatives whilst the government officials outside Windhoek were quite optimistic. The varying opinions presents challenges in the development of rural tourism.

Most tourism establishments also stated that rural tourism has been developing and this was identified through the increase in the number of tourism establishments and other related industries such as retail increasing. The participants stated that the impact of tourism has been reflected through the increase of profits over the years. However, other private tourism establishments in Kunene region indicated that rural tourism development has not been fully explored because the government focuses mainly on developing Etosha and a few conservancies (CBTs) in the region. CBTs in Namibia mainly focuses on conservancies whilst other types of rural tourism are not fully incorporated into the government's strategies to develop rural tourism. Tourism in the rural areas (Kunene and Zambezi) is dominated by the private hotels, lodges, craft centres and other tourism related activities and yet in the implementation of the rural tourism strategies, the involvement of the stakeholders is quite limited. Hence, from the researcher's point of view, rural tourism in Namibia is a government initiative which is aimed at benefitting the local community particularly poor people in rural areas. However, the local people seem to lack adequate knowledge of the concept's benefits.

The local communities for both regions offered varied views. This research study found that the responses of the local community participants towards rural tourism was dependent on the view of the participants towards the government. This agrees with one of the government officials who stated that:

“You will find out that rural areas are deprived, in some areas, there is absolutely nothing happening there, the government is not funding these projects. The politicians have lost touch with their own people”.

Consequently, 82% of the local community participants indicated that rural tourism was not developing. This was based on the lack of involvement in any of the tourism initiatives and lack of viable tourism initiatives that support local people in the constituencies. Thus, this research found that the three groups (Government organisations and NGOs, tourism establishments and the local community) had conflicting views of the development of rural tourism. This suggests rural tourism in Namibia could be developing, however, the contrasting views could hinder its success. Providing benefits to the local communities is challenging if the views of organisations which support the rural tourism strategy are contradictory. The issues such as the lack of involvement in the development strategies have also impacted on the way the local community view the development of rural tourism. The local community cited that they are not benefitting from tourism, this indicates that if the community do not see the benefits of tourism then they will not view rural tourism as developing.

Based on the views of the research participants, this study validates that tourism in Namibia as a whole, is developing however, its development varies from region to region and constituent to constituent and community to community. This research also agrees with Andereck and Vogt (2000) who concluded that positive attitudes towards tourism are not automatically connected to more development of tourism products and the presence of negative views may not reduce residents' aspiration for development, which is exactly the case in the Northern Region.

6.3 THE CONCEPT OF POVERTY

To critically analyse the impacts of tourism in the two regions, this research revealed some themes which help to explore how rural tourism development impacts on poverty in the Northern region of Namibia based on the grounded theory approach. Further themes on poverty and causes of poverty emerged and these provided an in-depth understanding of the phenomena. Understanding the causes of poverty in different regions could improve the nature of interventions provided by the government, NGOs and tourism establishments. It also has an impact on how poverty alleviation methods are chosen, thus the themes identified contribute to the final conceptual framework. These themes are discussed below.

6.3.1 Working definition of poverty

The concept of poverty had different meanings in all three different settings making it difficult to define poverty. This was because the participants' view on poverty were diverse, this aspect was debated throughout the interviews. The government and NGOs for both regions did not view the people in their regions as poor, they also indicated that this issue is always questioned when it comes [to] benefit distribution. Thus, it is important for the government to provide a plausible definition of poverty that is understood by all stakeholders. Most government officials mentioned that "*some people who are viewed as poor should not be considered as poor*", highlighting the divergent nature of views. Furthermore, they all agreed that money should not be utilised as a measure for poverty.

The local communities understood poverty as a lived experience but were not very clear on the definition. Due to their level of education this group of participants lacked eloquence in providing a working definition of poverty confirming Croes' (2014) and Holden's (2013) sentiments that poverty also manifests itself as lack of education among other things. This research proved that poverty is a multidimensional issue which varies from destination to destination as evidenced by how it was defined by participants. OECD (2001) also places emphasis on using both fiscal and non-fiscal terms in defining poverty.

It is important to find common ground on the working definition of poverty. As it stands, the policy formulators and policy implementers view poverty using an external lens while the local communities who have lived experiences of poverty are using internal lens. Consequently, this disjoint in the viewpoints is making it difficult for efforts on poverty alleviation to take effect. This is compounded by the fact that the driving force behind the agenda of poverty alleviation does not see the importance of alleviating poverty the way local communities appreciate.

6.3.2 Barriers to poverty alleviation

This research found that the causes of poverty in Namibia varied from community to community. This presents challenges in implementing strategies and understanding of the phenomena. This research found that the causes of poverty in Namibia were also political, thus, the benefit system needs to be revisited. All these form barriers on how poverty can be alleviated thus there is need to address them.

This research confirmed that inequalities can be a significant barrier. It found that poverty in Kunene region was mainly caused by relative poverty which is associated with inequality. The participants viewed themselves as poor because they were in a disadvantaged situation (financially or socially) in comparison to other people in the same community (Alcock, 2006; Thobias, 2007). This was quite evident in communities composed of people from different tribes. It is therefore important to embrace

diversity in an inclusive way to foster community cohesion and promote one mindedness. This agrees with Paniagua and Moyano (2007) who concluded that developing tourism in rural areas and deprived communities entails issues of inclusion and exclusion, inequalities, and conflicts amongst social groups.

6.3.2.1 Marginalisation

Government officials, local communities and some tourism establishments recognised marginalisation as a barrier to poverty alleviation. In particular, the participants in the Zambezi region indicated that they were poor because they were marginalised. In this region it was indicated that civil war which emanated from the region has caused poverty to persist in the region. The issues of corruption, inequality and marginalisation are interconnected, and this explains the incidental finding on corruption which only emerged in the Zambezi region. The issue of corruption was cited throughout the Zambezi region, in contrast to the generally favourable Corruption Perception Index (CPI) that the country has. The following statements from participants illustrate how they felt about corruption:

“You see these people are all related, you complain about people in the community who are poaching to the Ministry, they won’t do anything because that is his brother”. “We cannot complain about the noises from the shebeens because that’s his brother”. “The indunas can choose whether they like you or not, if the induna doesn’t like you, you have no chance in the business. So, you have to make sure you get along with the indunas”.

There were huge disparities between communities and in some communities, tourism activities were quite minimal. The communities did not regard tourism as a sector that would assist in poverty alleviation. The communities were not aware of the government and NGOs’ involvement in community development. This highlights the importance of involving the poor in tourism interventions. Therefore, in that regard, this research agrees with Holden *et al.* (2011); Pleumarom (2012) and Schilcher (2007) who indicate that PPT strategies does not include the views/voices of the poor people.

6.3.2.2 Measure of poverty

Measure of poverty came out as a barrier to poverty alleviation due to socio-cultural differences that were noticeable in the two regions studied. Most people in Kunene region are nomads and they do not have permanent homes. Some do not believe in slaughtering their cows for monetary benefits thus making it difficult to use livestock to improve their livelihood. On the contrary, cattle are regarded as a sign of wealth and pride, but this asset cannot be liquidated. Conversely, the Himba communities

did not view themselves as poor, they indicated that their culture is more important than money. They indicated that the money they get from tourists and from the owner of the village is enough to cover for their basic needs.

The lack of a consensus on who should be regarded as poor and how to measure poverty impacts on the reduction of poverty.

Thus, based on these views, poverty in Namibia cannot be defined in monetary terms alone nor can be it measured in terms of available assets alone. A case in point is the Zambezi region where some people are pastoralists who rely on livestock, some family own hundreds of cattle and land. Hence, in such areas where farming was practised, the issues of poverty should be measured differently.

6.3.2.3 Blame culture

The government officials and NGOs in Windhoek and in both regions suggested that the issue of laziness had an influence on the persistence of poverty in the regions. This could be viewed as cultural poverty where one is blamed for being poor (Silva & Athukorala, 1996; Freeman, 1998; Moore, 2012). Cultural poverty is therefore difficult to address unless the blame has been removed. Freeman (1998) stated that it is unfair to blame poor people for their poverty due to the fact that poor people lack resources and opportunities.

The private sector blames the local community for causing disruptions that affect tourism in the Zambezi region whilst the local community blames the government for restricting them from activities such as fishing and hunting. This relationship creates a hostile environment for cooperation between the same stakeholders who are meant to work together towards one goal of alleviating poverty.

There was also a significant lack of trust amongst participants as they blamed each other for causing negative environmental impacts that consequently impact on the development of rural tourism. This lack of trust goes back to the colonial rule, the Indunas who own the land were refusing to release their land to make way for tourism, because they felt that their land was being taken by the white minority.

Interviewing government officials highlighted that the blame culture was also evident within the government departments. Some participants blamed other departments for ineffective policy implementation. This rampant culture of blame could be addressed if expectations for each other are effectively managed.

6.3.3 Provision of basic infrastructure

In some areas of Kunene region such as Outjo and Kamanjab where there were good roads, good sanitation and were accessible, the local community benefitted from employment. Other areas which were further from the main roads had limited employment and other opportunities. Also, in areas where there were viable tourism products such as those communities close to Etosha indicated that their source of income was from tourism. In the Kunene region, the main cause of poverty is lack of education or schools, this had an impact on the employment they would get. Developing basic infrastructure such as roads will influence accessibility to the rural areas thus contributing towards poverty alleviation. The people who were working in the tourism industry had basic high school qualification, thus those without good education could not get the opportunities to work in the tourism industry. Hence, rural tourism development in Kunene region has not been able to tackle the issues of poverty because of the low levels of education. However, IMF (2013:1) indicated that there is no evidence that shows that education can assist in the reduction of poverty.

There were similarities on the causes of poverty that were identified in both regions. These can be summarised as the lack of access to water and sanitation, lack of employment opportunities and lack of education and voice, (OECD, 2001; WTO, 2004) high levels of inequalities between communities and generational poverty (Feuerstein, 1997).

6.4 THE IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

This research found that tourism in rural areas offers poor people with opportunities, however, instead of focusing on the economic impacts of tourism only, this research also explored the socio-cultural impacts and environment impacts and identified the following themes:

6.4.1 Income generation

Income generation was highlighted as an important theme by all the stakeholders in both regions. The research however found that opportunities were depended on factors such as availability of tourism products/resources, size of the population within communities, educational levels, the support from NGOs and attitudes of the local communities on tourism initiatives. According to Spenceley *et al.* (2009) the impact of tourism on the poor can be viewed in terms of income generation, and the improvement of people's livelihood. Spenceley *et al.*'s (2009) notion was also confirmed in this research.

Another unique finding that came out of a particular community was the impact of rural tourism on livelihoods. Based on the questions on whether rural tourism supported local communities to

generate an income, the participants in Outjo highlighted that their livelihoods were positively impacted. This was attributed to the development of tourism in the region. However, this was mainly linked to the availability of infrastructure within that particular constituent.

For those in employment, income generation resonated throughout the regions as a positive impact. Some of the local community participants from both regions indicated that they have been employed in conservancies for a long time and have been able to buy basic products. They indicated that tourism has changed their lives. NGOs highlighted that some communities have been able to make huge profits through tourism initiatives. This agrees with Hwang *et al.* (2012) who indicated that community-based actions play a pivotal role for successful long-term tourism development. This research however, observed that those who benefitted more from tourism were those who worked in the tourism industry over a long period of time (5-10 years). This research also found that those with skills such as hand crafting benefitted from tourism sales but people who were selling crafts directly to the tourists benefitted more, they indicated that selling their crafts to craft centres gave them reduced profits as they were offered 60% of the sales. Therefore, in this case the private sector benefit more. The local people do not have the power to negotiate for better prices. This is in line with Janis's (2012) conclusion which stated that the poor do not have the power to negotiate for better wages.

In the Zambezi region, the research found that quite a lot of the communities did not solely depend on tourism as the main source of income or for their livelihood. This research therefore agrees with the above sentiment because the communities visited relied on more than one activity such as farming, fishing, buying, and selling clothes. Thus, most people in the communities did not view tourism as providing enough benefits to them. In comparison to Kunene region the economic impacts of tourism in the Zambezi region were minimal. Most tourism establishments including joint ventures employ foreigners particularly in management roles, thus negatively impacting on the local community as they might not spend their income within the local community. This is also linked to linkages because most tourism establishments did not buy their products from the local communities.

6.4.2 Linkages and Leakages

Richardson (2010) stated that enhancing economic linkages influence a demand for local products and creation of employment and new opportunities for local business. Some communities in Kunene were linked, but the linkages were mainly between the private sectors. This raises the issue of leakages, both regions are predominantly dominated by the private sector who are linked with South African and Germany tour operators. UNCTAD (2010) indicated that 50-60% of the tourism revenue

does not leave the host country and this has an impact on the destination country. However, Chirenje *et al.* (2013) concluded that leakages are acceptable if the revenue to the local economy is higher than the loss from all types of leakages. The issue of leakages in Namibia is debatable because this research found that without the private sector, tourism in Namibia will struggle because they employ more people than any other type of tourism and 90% of the tourism establishments are foreign owned. However, the impact tourism has on the community is determined by whether the positive impacts outweighs the negative effects.

Prior research found that rural tourism has minimal impact on the local communities (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004; Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman *et al.*, 2012). This research also found that the local community benefit from rural tourism but the benefits are miniature, this is based on the fact that most vacancies occupied by the local communities are low skilled jobs therefore they do not make a huge impact on their livelihood. This view, however, is based on what one considers as poverty. The government of Namibia indicated the importance of rural tourism development but there is an over-emphasis on the economic impacts of community-based tourism. Thus, this research agrees with Christie (2002) who noted that policymakers are more concerned with the growth of the tourism sector than the extent in which the tourism growth contributes to poverty alleviation.

6.4.3 Cultural tourism

In this research, cultural tourism was emphasised from how rural tourism was defined by some participants. The rural tourism destinations in Namibia are rich in culture (NTB, 2020) making it a feasible venture. Anderson (2014) concluded that cultural tourism does not need much investment capital and is a major tourist attraction. Cooper *et al.* (2008) also concluded that there is an increase in demand for tourism products that offer cultural authenticity. This research agrees with the above conclusions as it reached the same conclusion. Both regions have rich cultures such as the Himba and Lozi cultures, however, the impact of cultural tourism in Namibia is not fully explored.

The private sectors are utilising the opportunity, particularly in Kunene region by developing cultural villages where tourists could visit and interact with the community members. This aspect can be debatable because it can be viewed as borderline poverty tourism. However, cultural tourism helps tourists to understand other people's way of life, but Lundup (2013) states that cultural tourism can be commodified thus, changing people's ways of life into saleable products. It can also lead to exploitation of ceremonies so as to appeal to tourists. However, the participants in the cultural villages indicated that living in the villages, showing, and performing to tourists does not alter their way of living but offers them an opportunity to share their culture and meet other people. The findings confirm

that local communities were proud to showcase their culture and were content with the benefits thereof.

6.4.4 Attitude towards the impacts of rural tourism development

Similar to working definitions of poverty and rural tourism, the responses captured by the researcher identified the differences in attitude toward rural tourism development. This lack of harmony on the attitude of participant groups towards rural tourism development can be an impediment to the realisation of benefits of tourism development and subsequently poverty alleviation. Moore (2012) and Sawhill (2003) state that poverty cannot be reduced unless poor people change their attitudes and governments design policies that offer support to the poor people.

Kosic *et al.* (2017) who studied the residents' attitudes towards social, economic and environmental impacts and the benefits of rural tourism activities in Serbia concluded that environmental impacts are hardly viewed as negative. Contrary to Kosic *et al.*'s (2017) conclusion, this research study argues that the environmental impacts are viewed as negative if people are not informed of the benefits. The community's attitude towards tourism interventions also has an effect on the way they view environmental issues. In Zambezi region, the private sector blames the local community for causing disruptions that affect tourism whilst the local community blames the government for restricting them from activities such as fishing and hunting. These disagreements are as a result of differing attitudes. Furthermore, responses from all the participants were dependent on their attitudes towards rural tourism interventions. This highlights the importance of ensuring that all the stakeholders are involved in rural tourism development. The causes of poverty indicated above such as marginalisation can influence the way people cooperate and support tourism interventions.

6.5 IMPACTS OF RURAL TOURISM DEVELOPMENT ON POVERTY ALLEVIATION

The impacts of rural tourism development are important, and this research concluded that there was a general consensus on their importance in poverty alleviation. There were however differences in opinion as to how well does rural tourism development impact on poverty alleviation. In this research, the following themes: stakeholder involvement, capacity building and empowerment emanated as main areas that can be attended to in ensuring optimum benefits are derived from rural tourism development. These and other themes identified above form the basis for the conceptual framework.

6.5.1 Stakeholder involvement

The research design included participants from different stakeholders to make it possible to explore this theme. Winters *et al.* (2013) noted that tourism-poverty relationship in general, has not been fully explored, thus researchers need to include all the stakeholders to evaluate the impact of tourism strategies on poverty. This research included varied stakeholders (Government, NGOs, tourism establishment and the local community) to assess the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation. The research utilised PPT-approach to analyse the benefits of rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. PPT concentrates on strategies that are aimed at reducing poverty and yield benefits for poor people thus moving past the “trickle-down effect” (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004:3). This strategy is utilised by the government of Namibia to reduce poverty by increasing rural tourism investments. The government of Namibia also focused on CBTs to reduce poverty, however, this strategy highlighted in the Tourism Policy (2008) fails to address how tourism can alleviate poverty.

This research found that the government and NGOs are the main contributors of rural tourism development in Namibia. The involvement of other stakeholders was observed to be limited and this was confirmed by all stakeholders that were interviewed. This finding was also similar across the two regions. The government participants indicated that they are responsible for policy making, however, they all stated that the current policies needed to be reviewed.

One government participant stated that:

“There are so many things involved with a lot of players. So, our role is just to advise because so many communities do not know how to go about it; they do not have the skills, so we have to advise them on what to do. We don’t work alone in this work, we work with a range of partners. There are a lot of players involved with different expertise so it’s a more collaborative effort between stakeholders so we may not know certain things in a certain area, so we call people for other people’s opinion, who have the expertise to advise.”

Other participants indicated that the private sector does not contribute to poverty alleviation initiatives because they are more concerned with profits. This view was evident in Kunene region where most of the tourism establishments indicated that they pay taxes and tourism levy, therefore they do not see the need to go beyond that. This was also supported by some government officials and conservancy managers who stated that there is no reason for the private sector to contribute towards poverty alleviation strategies. Although the sector, particularly lodges, employ a lot of people from the local community, the government officials seem to view the tourism strategies as a government initiative to reduce poverty. Thus, this research found that if the other stakeholders are not satisfied with strategies for poverty alleviation, their support is limited. This was quite evident in both regions as the tourism enterprises mentioned that the government should use the levies, they pay to develop

the rural areas, particularly educating people and other facilities such as sanitation. One tourism participant indicated that:

“We have been working very hard as all the tourism businesses to make sure that our region is developing, we pay our taxes and the government is not doing anything. We have our own magazine now to market our region, what is NTB doing. They are even slapping it on our faces, by building a huge council office. If you ask me, I wouldn’t build such a huge thing when there are no toilets in town, have you seen the town, it’s embarrassing. It discourages tourists from coming back to the region.”

Stakeholder involvement was evident with most stakeholders acknowledging the need to be actively participating. Effort on this theme need to focus on defining roles of engagement among stakeholders as this help to clarify responsibilities. This helps to streamline and help to minimise overlap and duplication of responsibilities.

6.5.2 Capacity building

Across both regions, capacity building came out strongly as a vehicle to poverty alleviation. The participants felt strongly that attending to efforts on capacity building would considerably increase the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. On probing whether they felt capacitated, the views were however not consistent with the passion shown on its importance.

Relying on tourism employment alone as a way of alleviating poverty is not sustainable because those that are not educated or without any skills will occupy low paid jobs which do not significantly help in reducing poverty. The industry is also highly seasonal, making it difficult to create a consistent income flow from tourism. These findings are supported by Huynh, (2011), Jolliffe and Farnsworth, (2003) and Mowforth and Munt, (2003) and observations. Capacity building therefore need to be focused on tourism as well as other non-tourism related income generation activities. The northern regions have been developing rural tourism through joint ventures, thus, there is need for the communities to have good negotiation skills, and financial management skills to run the enterprises. Thus, for tourism to impact on poverty alleviation the communities should be equipped with the right skills, to empower them to be able to run the tourism ventures.

Based on the tourism establishments’ views their contribution is limited to paying taxes and tourism levies. Snyman (2012) concludes that the private sector has a role to play regarding education, transferable skills and training. This viewpoint, however, has not been very evident in the findings of this research. Besides employment, a few tourism establishments have provided training to their

employees and ensuring that they possess skills that assist them in getting employment. Tourism development and upgrading employees' skills are linked as it offers an opportunity for local people to acquire new skills making them more employable and better candidates for promotion. According to Spenceley *et al.* (2009) the new skills such as technical skills can also be transferrable to other sectors. The other focus groups, however, argued that the skills they get will not help them to get jobs elsewhere.

The government participants and NGOs insisted that the communities are not well skilled to run the conservancies citing lack of skills and lack of commitment which has led to some conservancies closing. This sentiment agrees with NACOBTA's (2002) research which indicated that the region's tourism potential has been affected by mismanagement of funds and poor planning. One NGO stated that:

"The problem is of quality and service providing for example sometimes you help them set up something and when you come back you will find the place falling apart. So, you have to continuously support them. So, to solve some of these problems what we do especially if it's a good area with a lot of tourism; we link them with the private sector, but the problem is many people haven't grasped the concept of tourism. Sometimes it will be a leaking tap and because of lack of expertise to fix it will be a problem. Tourists want good quality and when they go there, they want to take a shower and there is no water. Even the private sector they might go there to help but there will be no one there. It becomes difficult to help".

6.5.3 Empowerment

Scheyvens (2011) states that PPT strategies should concentrate on capacity building of the poor, empowering and offering support for labour rights. The PPT strategies should enable the poor to have more control over tourism activities in their communities (Scheyvens, 2011). The NGOs participants indicated that they work closely with conservancies to give them guidance on how to negotiate with the private sector and they also provide training on how to run the conservancies. The participants stated that conservancies have been given rights over tourism and hunting rights, therefore if one intends to develop tourism in a conservancy, they have to go through the conservancy for permission. However, if there are no conservancies, they should go through traditional authorities for them to get rights over that piece of land. Thus, the role of the NGOs is to make sure that the process goes smoothly, and the community is protected. The participants indicated that they also work with joint ventures to ensure that they do not breach their agreement between the conservancies.

The local community does not fully support the strategies because they are not empowered to make any decisions. This research contrasts with Lapeyre's (2011) research which indicate that tourism empowered the local community to contribute to decision making and improved their skills. This research found that the empowerment of the local communities varied from community to community. In some communities with various tribes, the involvement of the local community was based on the tribe one belongs to. Thus, other participants indicated that the interventions are not worth pursuing as they have caused conflicts amongst the locals.

The participants indicated that they are not empowered to make decisions, hence the tourism development strategies do not reduce poverty in their community as a few individuals are benefitting. One participant highlighted that:

“But some stakeholders think empowerment means having the youths owning the lodges themselves. But to us how should they own or manage the lodges when they don't know how to get people to the lodges. So, there are still fights on how we should empower people.”

There were three elements related to empowerment that emerged from this theme which help to explore how empowering local communities could improve impact of rural tourism development in poverty alleviation. These are education & training, funding and benefit sharing.

6.5.4. Education and training

The government of Namibia introduced the “Education for all” concept which allowed children to go to school until the age of sixteen (Jauch, 2015). Despite the introduction of this initiative, a lot of communities still do not have educational facilities. On the contrary, those who were working in the conservancies and other lodges had good educational qualifications. The lack of educated people within the communities meant that tourism establishments had no choice but to employ people from outside the regions. Local communities in both regions indicated that the people who are benefitting from rural tourism development are those from outside their regions. They also indicated the lack of opportunities due to lack of educational facilities and skills; this makes a case for increasing capacity building efforts.

This research found that very limited training opportunities were made available to a few individuals in the local communities by various NGOs. The uptake for training opportunities was poor because the targeted audience had no formal education with some unable to write.

6.5.5. Funding

The NGOs are responsible for supporting the communities in sourcing funds for the conservancies, however, according to this research, the NGOs have been facing challenges over the years. One participant stated:

“Even the development bank does not even understand tourism. Even if you have a nice enterprise in the rural areas you cannot get collateral; you cannot borrow against it. Maybe if the business has a good reputation, but it’s very difficult. We tried with one lodge and although we succeeded, it took us years to achieve that. Even small businesses – there is no way they can get a loan. Due to the land one cannot borrow money because the land does not belong to them. You cannot borrow against your piece of land. Maybe there is need to change the policies.

Thus, this research found that the development of rural tourism in Kunene and Zambezi region relies heavily on donor funding. This finding is consistent with Mowforth and Munt’s (2003) conclusions who argued that relying on donor funding does not reduce poverty; it instead aggravates it. The participants indicated that the economic crisis has impacted on the growth of the conservancies with some areas waiting for years to get funding. Most participants stated that the policies favour joint ventures and this has been presenting development challenges.

6.5.6. Benefit sharing

The focus group members indicated that they are not involved in any of the tourism strategies whilst some stated that they just attend the meeting for food and socialising, otherwise their voices are not heard. They stated that decisions are already made by the committee members. Conversely, the NGOs stated that when it comes to benefit distribution, the community members are involved in the process. However, they indicated that it has always been a challenge because of the size of the member groups. One participant stated some conservancies have 4 000 members, hence taking everyone’s opinion is impossible because they never agree on the benefits. In some communities, they had 8 000 members belonging to one conservancy. This agrees with Novelli and Gebhardt (2007) who indicate that analysing CBTs in Namibia is quite complex due to the number of stakeholders involved in the decision-making process.

This research found that conservancies can be successful if they have the support of government and NGOs, however, they neglect to include the views of the local communities. This has caused some conflicts to emerge particularly regarding the issue of benefit sharing. The local communities in both regions indicated that the development of their community is controlled by the government. Thus, this has negatively impacted on their attitude towards the interventions. For the PPT-approach to benefit low-income groups it should be people centred, promote local participation and adopt a

bottom-up approach (Phommavong, 2011; Truong *et al.*, 2014). This research found that interventions to alleviate poverty in rural areas adopt a top bottom approach as it is driven by the government and NGOs, the participation of community members varies from community to community. However, adopting bottom-up approach would require the communities to be well educated and equipped with the right skills.

The issue of benefit sharing was argued throughout. Thus, this research found that the government interventions such as benefit sharing lacks clarity. Chok *et al.* (2007) stated that PPT should include an analysis of the distribution of benefits and costs. Whilst other researchers indicated that the poor should obtain the net benefits even if richer people benefit more than the poor people (Ashley *et al.* 2001; Blake *et al.* 2008). The government, NGOs and local communities indicated that the private sector benefit more from tourism growth. Other local community members stated that they have benefitted but the private sector benefitted more. The tourism establishments have contrasting views as they felt the development of rural tourism is the government's responsibility.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter critically analysed the research findings and amalgamated them with the literature from chapter one to three. The literature review revealed that Namibia has developed various policies to reduce poverty in the country. More emphasis has been placed on economic growth with the anticipation that the local communities benefit from the tourism increase through multiplier effects. This chapter provided a discussion of the empirical results and findings.

Firstly, there is a lack of agreement on what constitutes rural tourism. All the stakeholders included in this research provided different views of what constitutes rural tourism. However, they all agreed that it should benefit the local community. The participants indicated that the government does not fully understand the concept; this presents challenges in its development. These discrepancies offer challenges on assessing the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation in Namibia. Therefore, this research found that there is need for the stakeholders to be informed of what is rural tourism in Namibian terms and clearly define the types of enterprises which are regarded as CBTs. The use of workshops is of essence, to ensure that all the stakeholders understand the concept. Ndlovu and Rogerson (2003) state that CBTs in Namibia include lodges, conservancies, private sector partnerships, trophy hunting, crafts and small businesses such as campsites, however, this research found that lodges, private craft centres and other camp sites were not included in rural tourism interventions.

Secondly, in areas where there was a considerable tourism product, the participants indicated that tourism had benefitted them. The benefits were, however, limited to employment and capability to buy basic things such as food and clothes. Thus, this research found that although the benefits are little, rural tourism development has the potential to alleviate poverty. However, the impact of tourism development on poverty alleviation varied, depending on the size of the constituent and the tourism initiatives available. In Kunene region, some conservancies had 8 000 members and a few people were employed in the conservancy; benefits were limited to the few people who worked in the conservancy. The conservancy did not have schools, health-care facilities and good housing structure. Thus, the percentage of people benefitting is not large enough to conclude that tourism development has an impact on poverty alleviation, the impact is insignificant. This was the issue in many conservancies, the impact is limited to a few who work in the conservancies. Utilising PPT approach, this research also found that the benefits of tourism were higher where there were low levels of poverty, good tourism products and activities.

This research agrees with Janis (2012) who states that tourism is not likely to address the prevailing circumstances behind poverty in the rural areas such as low educational levels. This is another factor that is influencing poverty to continue in the northern region of Namibia. Therefore, for rural tourism to alleviate poverty, the government and other stakeholders need to focus on understanding who should be regarded as “poor” first before analysing the effects of tourism on the poor and poverty alleviation. This same sentiment was echoed by Mitchell and Ashley, (2010). This research found that the lack of a clear definition encouraged other groups who otherwise should not be categorised as poor to benefit from the government benefit system. The government and other stakeholders should therefore identify the causes of poverty in each region/constituency before implementing strategies to alleviate poverty. This research found that causes of poverty varied, thus there is need to vary rural development strategies. However, these causes of poverty should be addressed first before exploring the benefits to the poor.

The development of rural tourism in Namibia is viewed as pro-poor where more emphasis has been placed on the economic benefits of tourism to the poor. However, the impact of tourism to the poor in the studied regions has also been affected by limited involvement in the intervention from other stakeholders such as private tourism establishment and other local communities. However, the motivation for the private sector to go beyond their legal obligations such as paying levies was not clear. Hall (2007) and Scheyvens (2009) highlight the need to motivate stakeholders such as the private sector so that they see the need to contribute to the immediate environment. The private tourism establishments indicated that the government needs to address issues such as education for

them to participate in poverty alleviation initiatives. This research found that there is lack of effective communication amongst the stakeholders, lack of trust and the lack of interest in rural tourism development. This has negatively impacted on rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. For rural tourism development to positively impact on poverty alleviation, the above issues should be addressed.

Based on the above empirical research findings, this chapter has identified various themes. The research started with three themes, but during the research process more themes and patterns emerged. The themes were used to develop a conceptual framework has been developed that highlights how rural tourism development can effectively impact on poverty alleviation. The framework is presented in Chapter 7. Thus, the subsequent chapter provides conclusions and recommendations of the research study.

CHAPTER 7:

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the conclusions and recommendations derived by the empirical results. The chapter starts by providing a review of the research study aim and the objectives of the overall study. The methodological approach utilised, and an analysis of the data is presented in this chapter. It also expounds on the literature and practical contributions of rural tourism development and poverty alleviation in the research realm. A discussion of the research conclusions and recommendations based on the findings from the primary research is provided. Ultimately, the limitations and areas for further research are highlighted.

7.2. REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main goal of this research study was to analyse the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the northern region of Namibia. It focused on Kunene and Zambezi regions. To achieve this, five research objectives were designed, and these were addressed in different chapters of this research. The research objectives and the chapters in which they were addressed are summarised as follows:

6. **Objective 1:** To analyse the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism development through an in-depth literature review .

This objective was achieved in Chapter 2 by providing a detailed analysis of tourism development from a global and Namibian perspective. The rural tourism concept, forms of rural tourism, economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism were also analysed through an in-depth review of literature.

7. **Objective 2:** To explore the poverty concept, the causes of poverty and the impacts of tourism on poverty through the review of literature.

This objective was achieved through an exploration of the poverty concept, the causes of poverty, evaluation of various approaches for evaluating the impacts of tourism on poverty. This was addressed in Chapter 3.

8. **Objective 3:** To identify the benefits of rural tourism development and establish whether rural tourism development in Namibia alleviates poverty in the northern region of Namibia.

This objective was achieved through the presentation of empirical results in Chapter 5. PPT approach presented in Chapter 3 was utilised as a guide to identify the benefits and strategies utilised to alleviate poverty in the Kunene and Zambezi regions.

9. **Objective 4:** To develop a framework based on the empirical findings derived from the primary research.

This objective was achieved in Chapter 6 where the primary research findings were identified after themes have emerged. These themes were then utilised to develop a framework which is presented in Chapter 7.

10. **Objective 5:** To draw conclusions and use the developed framework to provide recommendations on the strategies that alleviate poverty in the northern region of Namibia.

This objective is presented in this chapter (7) to provide conclusions and recommendations of the study.

7.3 SUMMARY OF THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH AND DATA ANALYSIS

The methodological approach and data analysis were presented in Chapter 1 and Chapter 4. Chapter 1 provided a background of the study, the problem statement, motivation of the study and a synopsis of the research process. The methodological approaches presented in Chapter 1 were further explored in Chapter 4. This research adopted two methodological approaches (phenomenological approach and grounded theory). These approaches are types of qualitative research methods. The data were collected through the use of in-depth interviews and focus group discussions. Phenomenological approach was utilised to capture data based on the views and experiences of research participants. The research aim of the research is to determine whether rural tourism development impacts on poverty alleviation, hence the two approaches would assist in developing a theory based on the primary research findings. Grounded theory was essential as it enabled a framework to be developed. The framework will be used to provide recommendations on how poverty could be alleviated in Namibia. To develop the framework, it started with three key themes and six broad questions. These were further developed during the data analysis. The data were collected and analysed until theoretical saturation. The themes that emerged were utilised to develop the framework that attempts to offer solutions that focus on poverty alleviation.

7.4. CONCLUSIONS WITH REGARD TO THE OBJECTIVES

The following conclusions are made in line with the objectives of the study:

7.4.1. Conclusions with regard to the analysis of tourism development and the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of rural tourism development based on the in-depth literature review

The following are the main conclusions with regards to Objective 1 (cf. 1.5.2):

- Decision making is an important role in tourism development; therefore communities should be involved (cf. 2.1).
- Tourism can be studied for different viewpoints, which include economic, social, cultural, geographical and psychological (cf. 2.2).
- Tourism development is a dynamic process which involves matching tourism resources to the demands and preferences of potential tourists (cf. 2.3).
- Tourism has the potential to grow, however, it can be negatively impacted by uncertainties such as economic downturns and pandemics (cf.2.3.1).
- Destinations should invest in updating existing infrastructure as this improves accessibility which in turn attracts more tourism businesses (cf.2.3.3).
- A combination of good infrastructure and safety presents opportunities for tourism development (cf.2.4.2).
- The quality of tourism products and activities available at a destination influences the increase in tourism (cf.2.4.3).
- After implementing tourism policies, it is vital to monitor and evaluate the policies to ensure that they have achieved their objectives (cf.2.4.4).
- Rural tourism comprises of various activities such as agritourism, cultural and heritage and ecotourism and it has been pursued largely for the betterment of livelihoods of rural people. It also consists of more forms of tourism such as ethnic, culinary and creative tourism, and this makes it difficult to define rural tourism (cf.2.5).
- Ecotourism present developing countries with the opportunity to rural community development, however, it is imperative for the tourism to be developed and managed in a sustainable way for it to reflect a positive impact on the living conditions of the local people. It can be utilised as an approach that promote rural development and also motivate the local communities to participate in tourism interventions that encourage preservation of natural resources (cf.2.5.1.2).

- Local culture has a link with community-based tourism, particularly with regards to attraction and tourism impact, therefore it should be valued, and communities should look for ways to improve local culture and heritage (cf.2.5.1.3).
- To gain the residents' support, it is vital to have a clear understanding of their attitude towards tourism development and how tourism impacts on their quality of life. If the community have a better quality of life, they will most likely support further tourism development (cf.2.6).
- Enhancing economic linkages influence a demand for local products, creation and development of employment, and new opportunities for local businesses. However, reinforcing linkages is difficult, particularly in developing countries, therefore an emphasis should be placed on maximising multiplier effects and reducing leakages (cf.2.6.1).
- The development of rural tourism will have both positive and negative impacts on the destination; therefore, it is fundamentally important for tourism to be effectively planned, developed and managed for it to present the local community with positive impacts (cf.2.5.2).
- Tourists are becoming increasingly aware about their environmental surroundings and the methods used to present damage to the environment. Therefore, it is important to effectively manage the number of tourists frequenting an area to reduce negative environmental impacts (cf.2.5.3).

7.4.2. Conclusions with regard to the poverty concept, causes of poverty and impacts of tourism on poverty through the review of literature.

The following are the main conclusions with regards to Objective 2 (cf. 1.5.2):

- Poverty can be defined differently by different countries, therefore providing reliable comparisons can prove to be impossible. It is, however, crucial that the poverty concept and definition is notionally robust and apt to the society which it is being applied (cf.3.2).
- Poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon and can be linked with inequality, human development and basic needs. The causes of poverty also vary, therefore, it should not be measured based on income only; other such as health, education and living standards should be considered (cf.3.2.1).
- Poverty cannot be reduced unless poor people change their attitudes and government design policies that offer support to the poor people. The policies targeting the issue of poverty reduction ought to address the subject of capability deprivation, rather than simply targeting the level of household income (cf.3.2.2).

- Tourism is regarded as a device of economic development in emerging countries, this enables developing countries to benefit from the developed countries through tourism. However, economic growth might not be beneficial to the poor, but it may profit the rich, in as much as some countries may be supporting poor families; others may be providing disproportionate gains to the rich (cf.3.3).
- PPT approach is based on the view that increasing economic growth enhances the benefits to “trickle down” to the poor. PPT and Sustainable Livelihood Approach (SLA) have utilised to evaluate the impact of tourism on poverty (cf.3.6).
- SLA is people centred and is concerned with people’s livelihoods. However, to successfully implement the approach, it requires a significant role for local people in decision making which can be done through delegating tourism rights to community level, offering government incentives or making certain that planning by the private sector is responsive to local needs (cf.3.6.1).
- CBT can be viewed as a form of PPT and it is regarded as a complex approach due to the number of stakeholders involved in decision making whose needs and views may vary. However, CBTs should be viewed as a way of encouraging community development which incorporates empowerment, self-reliance, social justice, sustainability and freedom (cf.3.6.3).
- The poor should be offered augmented access to economic benefits of tourism and PPT should address the negative social and environmental impacts related to tourism. However, if tourism approaches emphasise solely on tourism growth and disregard the poor, it will fail to reduce poverty. The aim should therefore be to place the poor and poverty at the centre; PPT should not be regarded as a solution, but as a contribution to rural development and alleviation of poverty (cf.3.7).
- Tourism development and upgrading employees’ skills are linked as it offers an opportunity for local people to acquire new transferable skills. However, the characteristics of the tourism industry makes it difficult for the poor to benefit from tourism; examples include seasonality influencing the employment of casual workers (cf.3.7.1).
- PPT strategies are interrelated and are viewed as strategies that increase economic benefits, address negative effects and encourage formation of policies. The poor should be encouraged to contribute to the decision-making procedures so that their priorities are considered (cf.3.7.2).

7.4.3. Conclusions with regard to the benefits of rural tourism development and establish whether rural tourism development in Namibia alleviates poverty (empirical chapter)

The following are the main conclusions with regards to Objective 3 (cf. 1.5.2):

- Tourism in Namibia as a whole is growing, and it has developed in terms of infrastructure such as airports. This development has contributed to the increase in tourist numbers, increase in foreign currency and GDP. Therefore, the research concludes that tourism development has an influence on economic growth.
- This research concludes that Namibia emphasises more on economic growth with the anticipation that the local communities' benefit from the tourism increase through multiplier effects.
- There are contradictions on the understanding of the rural tourism concept, however, most participants indicated that it should benefit the local community.
- Rural tourism in Namibia is mainly focused on conservancies and limited effort is provided for other types of rural tourism such as cultural tourism.
- The research concludes that rural tourism in Namibia has developed in some parts of the studied rural areas whilst some parts were very deprived. Infrastructure such as roads, water and electric systems have developed in other constituencies, whilst others remain underprivileged despite the viable tourism products.
- The differences in rural tourism development in the selected regions varied from constituency to constituency and within communities. This caused the local community respondents from less-developed communities to have a negative attitude towards the development of rural tourism in Namibia.
- Some communities have benefitted from the development of tourism; however, this development is limited to employment in hotels, lodges, craft centres and campsites.
- The proportion of the community members working or involved in the operations of the conservancies is very low. In most cases, less than 5% of the community members are working in the conservancies. While the lives of those working in the conservancies has improved, the impact on poverty alleviation is minimal.
- This research concludes that rural tourism in Namibia has the potential to grow if issues such as low linkages and high levels of leakages are addressed. Although conservancies have been developed as a poverty alleviation tool, tourism in Kunene and the Zambezi regions is dominated by the private sector.
- The issues of trust have negatively impacted some communities as the private sector prefers to buy their products from each other; this affected entrepreneurship.

- Most of the craft centres are also owned by private individuals and the local community in Kunene region benefits from selling their crafts to the private sector and obtain 60% of the full price.
- The research concludes that more impact is made if the local community sell their products directly to the tourists.
- Communities in Zambezi benefit from tourism development through employment, however, most employees, particularly in management positions are occupied by foreigners and those from outside their regions.
- Most of the tourism establishments buy their products from outside their region.
- The main tourist markets of the two regions are South Africa and Germany, thus most of the revenue does not reach Namibia.
- The joint venture strategy has encouraged other conservancies to benefit from this development. It has increased tourism development in those constituencies.
- Tourism in the two regions is highly seasonal; this could be influenced by over-relying on the international market. In the Zambezi region, the local communities do not rely on tourism alone.
- The local communities in both regions lack awareness on sustainable development.
- Environmental impacts are viewed negatively in both regions.
- There is lack of communication between stakeholders, causing disputes that have affected tourism development in some constituencies. This is also influenced by lack of trust as some community leaders refuse to release land to private organisations for tourism development.
- The research study revealed that the stakeholders define poverty differently. Thus, this research concludes that poverty in Namibia varies from region to region, constituent to constituent and from community to community, thus defining poverty is quite challenging.
- This research concludes that providing the same rural tourism development strategies to different geographical locations does not work, because some communities are extremely deprived.
- The research revealed that participants have contradicting views as to who should be considered as poor; this has influenced other community members (who should not be viewed as poor) to benefit from rural tourism initiatives.
- Poverty should not be viewed in monetary terms as it has influenced other communities to rely on the benefit system.
- This research study concludes that the definition of poverty in Namibian terms should be reviewed.

- This research concludes that the development of rural tourism in Namibia has been impacted by not addressing economic, social and political issues as the root causes of poverty.
- Tourism makes meaningful impact on poverty alleviation where there is lack of schools, health facilities and poor roads.
- This research also concludes that some SDGs (SDG4 and SDG6) have not yet been achieved. These issues have an effect on the development of tourism because the communities are not given an opportunity to develop themselves due to the lack of schools.
- There are disparities in the availability of schools in some communities. Some communities did not have primary schools nearby whilst other communities have properly developed educational institutions.
- This research concludes that the private sector benefits more from tourism development.
- Alleviation of poverty in Namibia adopts a PPT strategy as emphasis has been placed on the net benefits.
- This research concludes that the local communities in both regions are not empowered and not included in the decision-making process, except for a few individuals.
- The approach utilised by the stakeholders in Namibia who are involved in rural tourism development cannot be viewed as pro-poor as it does not include the local communities in decision making.
- Rural tourism development in Namibia has the potential to alleviate poverty, however, all the stakeholders must be involved in the initiative and the causes of poverty must also be addressed first before focusing on who should benefit from tourism.
- There is clear a link between tourism and poverty alleviation when local communities sell their crafts directly to the tourists and in conservancies where the proportion of people working in the tourism industry is high.
- This research study concludes that the communities need to understand the benefits of rural tourism development and the distribution of tourism benefits.
- Local communities did not find rural tourism beneficial because of the disputes of how the benefits should be distributed.

7.5. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

This research study made considerable contributions to literature and practical contributions that could be used to assess the impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation and assist future rural tourism studies. Thus, this section provides a discussion of the research study contributions; it begins by discussing the literature contributions, followed by practical contribution discussions.

7.5.1. Literature contribution

- This study is different because it analysed rural tourism development based on the perceptions of four different stakeholders. The views of government, non-governmental and tourism establishments were captured through in-depth interviews and the community's perceptions were captured through focus group discussions. This approach allowed the stakeholders to do an introspection of their role and involvement in the development of tourism. The study identified a discrepancy in opinions of the various stakeholders, indicating their level of involvement and commitment to the rural tourism development approach.
- This study adopted two methodological approaches – phenomenological approach and grounded theory – to explore the opinions and experiences of various stakeholders. The uniqueness of this research study is the development of a framework based on the opinions and experiences of various stakeholders involved in rural tourism development interventions.
- The framework development in the research links rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. It attempts to offer solutions that focus on poverty alleviation.
- The research adopted a PPT approach as a guide to explore the contribution of rural tourism development to poverty alleviation and identified variances in views and attitudes towards the poverty alleviation approaches implemented. Utilising PPT approach, this research identified that the approach is useful in communities where tourism is well developed, positive impacts outweigh the negative impacts and poverty is not severe.
- It is one of the first attempts to develop a framework that focuses on the “how” and “what” the stakeholders should be doing to reduce poverty. This was made possible by carefully listening to different stakeholders, in particular the local communities and analysing their responses in light of the other stakeholders.
- This research study adds to the body of knowledge a definition of rural tourism based on the understanding of the research participants. This forms a base in developing approaches that are valued by various stakeholders.
- This research provided an in-depth exploration of the causes of poverty from two different regions and unearthed unique as well as common causes of poverty. This finding highlighted the importance of considering differences in settings when considering the causes of poverty.
- It identified the difficulty in performing a comparative analysis of the benefits of tourism in different regions because the severity of poverty varies from community to community within the same region.

7.5.2. Practical contribution

- From a practical point of view the research developed a conceptual framework that amalgamates rural tourism development, causes of poverty and poverty alleviation. Instead of developing countries such as Namibia emphasising on economic growth to alleviate poverty, there is need for an adaptable approach in addressing causes of poverty and requires the involvement of all stakeholders in decision making. The research study has presented a framework that will influence governments to review their policies and strategies on poverty alleviation. It allows communication throughout the whole process of rural tourism development and encourages active participation of all tourism stakeholders.
- The research developed a flexible framework that can be adjusted at each stage, furthermore, regions can adjust the framework to suit the needs of their regions. The developed framework moves away from the “*one size fit all*” approach. It also gives autonomy to regions to develop their own rural tourism strategies and market their own regions. Thus, this framework is one of the first attempts in Namibia to produce a framework that amalgamates rural tourism development, the causes of poverty and poverty alleviation.
- The overlap of responsibilities identified in this research can be used in reviewing the organisational structures of the stakeholders involved in rural tourism development and poverty alleviation. Furthermore, these findings can be used by NGOs and government organisations to devise methods of addressing issues of trust, attitudes and understanding of the rural tourism concept.
- Janis (2011) studied Namibian Tourism Policies and local tourism enterprises’ policy knowledge and stated that to reduce poverty in Namibia, the government should pay attention on who benefits on tourism growth and how. The researcher suggested that there is need for more research on the relationship between tourism and poverty alleviation. Thus, this research study analysed two popular regions with the highest poverty rates in the northern part of Namibia (Kunene and Zambezi) to establish whether the development of rural tourism has an impact on poverty alleviation. This research therefore fills that knowledge gap which was identified by Janis (2011). It explored tourism and poverty alleviation in different regions and concluded that it is difficult to compare the extent of the impacts in the two regions studied.

7.6. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

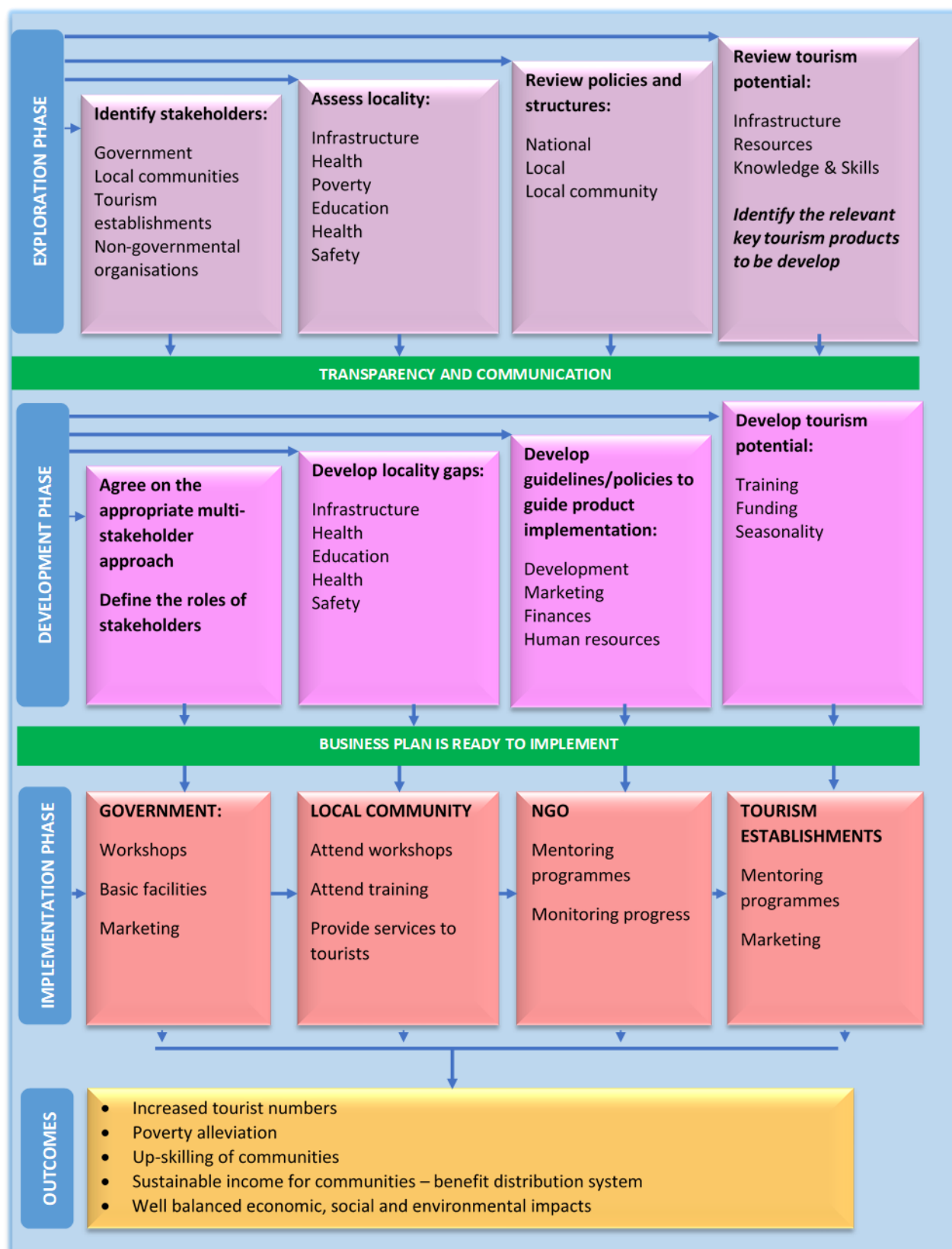


Figure: 7.1 Conceptual framework
Source: Owner's compilation

7.6.1. The development of the conceptual framework

The conceptual framework was developed utilising grounded theory and phenomenological approach. To design research questions, literature was reviewed for the purposes of understanding the methodologies, but it was not extensively studied before conducting the primary research. This was to avoid being overwhelmed by the literature and bias. Utilising phenomenological approach was essential for the research as it sought to explore the causes of poverty persistence in the Northern region of Namibia. Hence, data was gathered using the perceptions of the players in the situation. The views and experiences of government officials, NGO representatives, tourism establishments and local communities were used to analyse whether rural tourism development in Northern region of Namibia has an effect of poverty alleviation. Therefore, phenomenological approach and grounded theory (Charmaz, 2006) offered an opportunity to address the why, what, and how questions.

The research started with three themes and six broad questions. The views and experiences of the research participants was then utilised to development a theory (grounded). The data collection process was a continuous process until the research reached theoretical saturation. From the three themes, data was coded, and more recurring themes and patterns started to emerge. These themes and patterns were then used to develop a framework. This framework is unique because it is developed from the views of those who experienced the phenomena. This framework does not emphasise on what should be done, but it takes a pragmatic view on alleviation of poverty by focusing on the “how”. This is vital particularly for developing countries such as Namibia where poverty has been a topical issue for the last thirty years. Hence, the research findings led to the development of a framework that is flexible.

7.6.2. Implementation of the conceptual framework

The framework was developed in four phases: exploration phase, development phase, implementation phase and monitoring phase. These phases can be implemented sequentially and flexibly in efforts to alleviating poverty as discussed below:

Exploratory phase:

Step 1: Identifying stakeholders

- The research acknowledged the presence of different entities involved with rural tourism. These need to be identified and confirmed at the exploration phase as the current position is reviewed. The identification of stakeholders should be guided by the need to present viable groupings which can drive the poverty alleviation agenda through rural tourism development.

- The stakeholders to include government, NGOs, local communities and tourism establishments. These organisations should ensure mutual respect and understanding is embedded in their relationship with each other.

Step 2: Assess locality

- The current operating environments should be assessed with special focus on the available infrastructure such as road networks, educational facilities and healthcare facilities.
- Exploring the concept of poverty must focus on establishing poverty rates in different locations. It is recommended that the definition of poverty be established with the local community's agreement.
- Education provisions is an imperative which is dictated by the NDPs and should therefore be emphasised from the onset. It is recommended to explore literacy levels in different communities.
- In assessing the local environments, it is recommended to affirm the safety of the local areas for the tourist and the operators.

Step 3: Review policies and structures

- Policies are in place to support development of rural tourism, but these are not fully implemented (c.f. 2.4.5). It is recommended to review these policies in an effort to identify and understand how the rural tourism environment can be equipped to implement them.
- It is recommended to group policies into national, local and local community then link these, so they align to each other. In this endeavour, the focus should be to ensure barriers to policy implementation are identified.

Step 4: Review tourism potential.

- It is imperative to establish rural tourism potential to enable development of a concerted effort in appraising the resources needed.
- The research identified rural tourism potential through conservancies among other establishments (c.f. 5.2.4; c.f. 5.4.1). It is therefore recommended that available infrastructure, financial & human resources and knowledge & skills are appraised in preparation for the development phase.
- The demand potential of key tourism products such as cultural products, wildlife and natural resources should be reviewed. It is recommended to establish the availability of such rural tourism products and tests their potential through the use of visitor surveys and other market research approaches.

The exploitation phase should be based on transparency aided by the establishment of well-defined communication channels. Once transparency is embedded throughout the framework, the stakeholders will work together and minimise blame culture.

Development phase:

The development phase should be adaptable given the socio-economic and geographic variability of the rural tourism locations. The steps below outline how the framework can be developed, ready to be operationalised.

Step 1: Stakeholder roles

- It is recommended that stakeholders establish a good working relationship by defining roles for each one of them. Clearly defined roles for stakeholders avoids duplication and ensures resources are shared.
- Once roles are established it is important to agree on how stakeholders work as a multidisciplinary team and this can only be possible when trust and clearly defined communication channels are established.

Step 2: Develop locality gaps

- The shortcomings identified during the exploration phase must be addressed by developing plans to put in place suitable infrastructure for education and health.
- Kunene region is one of the most deprived regions in Namibia (c.f.1.3) and the ministry of tourism as a government arm, should take a leading role to introduce the education for all initiative as highlighted in the NDPs.

Step 3: Develop procedure to guide implementation

- It is recommended that all stakeholders, including the local communities must develop a plan to implement policies and legislation on rural tourism development.
- The MET and tourism establishments must develop marketing strategies which if implemented will see the growth of rural tourism development.

Step 4: Develop tourism potential

- Tourism establishments must develop apprenticeship programmes and government must support these programmes in the same way it supports higher education institutions.
- It is recommended that NGOs develop mentoring programmes for aspiring entrepreneurs in the local communities.

- The government must provide backing and act as guarantor for rural tourism development funding from the financial institutions. The funding can be in the form of loans for capital expenditure.

During the development phase, stakeholders must work to produce proposals and plans that are ready to be executed during the implementation phase. To reiterate the importance of building trust and minimise blame, the stakeholders must maintain transparency in their dealing with each other.

Implementation phase:

The implementation phase realises the importance of a team approach which recognizes regional and socio-economic differences within the rural tourism operating environments. There are four stages of implementation which correspond to the number of stakeholders namely, government, NGO, local communities and tourism establishments. The implementation has been covered in greater detail under the recommendations section. The recommended actions to be implemented in each stage can be executed simultaneously or asynchronously with the common aim to implement the plans drawn at the previous phase. The stages are as follows:

Stage 1: Government

- Build educational, health and sanitary facilities for local communities.
- Market rural tourism destinations through the MET, NTB and other out-facing platforms such as Namibian embassies abroad.
- Organise workshops to provide a platform for stakeholders to interact and reflect on progress of implemented plans/projects.

Step 2: Local community

- Attend organised workshops and training to gain skills relevant in the rural tourism industry.
- Successfully complete formal education as provided by the government through the ministry of education.
- Provide quality tourism products which include art & culture products, tour guiding, and activities offered through conservancies.

Step 3: Non-Government Organisations

- Mentor local community members involved in running rural tourism establishments
- Implement tourism policies and assist other stakeholder to implement tourism policies.

Step 4: Tourism Establishments

- Recruit and train apprentices.
- Market rural tourism destinations, art and culture to visitors of existing tourism establishments.

Outcomes:

The outcomes such as increased tourist numbers, reduced poverty levels, knowledgeable & literate communities, reduced negative impacts of tourism as well as an empowered local community can be measured at this stage. The assessment must be measurable and objective.

7.7. RECOMMENDATIONS

This study analysed the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation and noted that tourism in Namibia offers various opportunities to the community, local businesses and the economy of the country as a whole. However, for this growth to have a positive impact, all the stakeholders must understand the tourism concept. This research therefore offers recommendations to the three main stakeholders in rural tourism development. The following recommendations are discussed below:

7.7.1. Local community

Specific recommendations pertaining to the local communities aim at increasing literacy levels, empowering communities and improving their quality of life.

- Education provision for the local community must be reviewed and educational facilities provided. It is pertinent to increase literacy levels for the local communities so they can fully comprehend tourism and be active players in its development
- Basic infrastructure for sanitation and water facilities must be provided for local communities.
- Expectations of the local communities must be managed, and they should be empowered to fully participate in local rural tourism initiatives. This could be done through:
 - Mentoring community members to equip them to run rural tourism ventures.
 - Implementing a transparent benefit distribution system.
 - Incentivising and enabling NGO to provide workshops the local communities to develop soft skills.
- Involve local communities in decision making process in order to build trust among stakeholders. This can be done by:
 - Incorporating their suggestions during policy review processes.

- Sharing the agenda and inviting local community input ahead of any government decisions/discussions on rural tourism strategies.
- CBTs must be competitive enough to attract more tourists by improving the quality of service and facilities they offer. This could be done by offering them financial assistance, training in entrepreneurship and business mentoring.
- Tourism stakeholders should promote cultural tourism that operates within local communities. This should be done by:
 - Aggressively marketing home based tourism.
 - Provide internet and telephone services in the areas where rural tourism activities take place. Currently there are no internet services in most CBTs.

7.7.2. The government

The specific recommendations for the government as a stakeholder are as follows:

- The government must provide adequate educational facilities, healthcare facilities and sanitation. To improve the poor's livelihood, there is need for good sanitation like water and toilets.
- Create a favourable business environment for rural tourism development. The environment should be beneficial for all stakeholders, the environment as well as tourists. This should be achieved by:
 - Subsidising tourism investment
 - Offering government backed guarantees for financing rural tourism initiatives.
 - Developing rural tourism support structures within existing ministry of environment and tourism infrastructures.
- Reduce inequalities between regions and ethnicities as well as within communities. This can be done by:
 - Formulating and implementing policies that encourage equal treatment of all communities.
 - Provide same facilities in all geographical locations.
 - Awareness campaigns to remove stereotypical behaviours and negative attitudes towards other groups.
- The Namibia Tourism Board together with the Ministry of Environment and Tourism should market the Zambezi region to increase the number of people visiting the region. This can be achieved by promoting rural tourism at the Namibia Tourism Expo.
- Provide a solid working definition of poverty. Establishing this definition can be achieved by conducting consultations which involve the local communities, NGOs and other stakeholders.

- Provide guidance on a benefit sharing system that is fair and focuses on poverty alleviation.

7.7.3. Tourism establishments

The specific recommendations for the tourism establishments on rural tourism development and poverty alleviation are:

- The private sector should increase efforts to attract domestic and regional markets. This can be done by offering varied rates particularly during quiet periods.
- Employ more local people to reduce the impact of poverty on local communities.
- Buy from local suppliers to empower and capacitate the local community.
- Provide paid apprenticeship training to the local communities to increase local skills base.
- The private sector should facilitate contact between local communities and tourists to help local communities establish and grow cultural tourism. This can be done by:
 - Including visits to home-based tourist establishments on the itineraries of their visitors.
 - Providing accommodation for the local communities to display and sell their products directly to tourist.
- The private sector, local communities, government and non-governmental organisations must work together to promote rural tourism development. This can be achieved by:
 - Creating well defined communication channels.
 - Establishing a rural tourism forum whose structure focuses on inclusion and mutual respect.

7.7.4. Non-Governmental Organisations

The specific recommendations for the NGOs on rural tourism development and poverty alleviation are:

- Provide mentoring programmes for both the local communities and tourism establishments. These programmes should equip the targeted individuals with necessary skills to actively undertake rural tourism ventures.
- Specific NGOs such as WWF and NNF must implement policies on environmental conservation and run awareness programmes for the local communities.
- The NGOs must monitor progress made on implementing identified projects and programmes.

7.8. LIMITATIONS

This section provides the limitations identified in the primary research process of this study. These limitations could be taken into consideration by future researchers studying a similar research topic.

It is important to note that the presented limitations should not nullify the results of this research study, but they should be considered as a foundation for improvement in future studies.

The limitations include:

Firstly, the issue of language was one of the main limitations observed on the first visit to the study areas particularly in Kunene region. Namibia also has varied local languages and in other areas people with different languages live in the same community. Most people could not speak English. This influenced the choice of methodology. Also, the researcher was from a different country knowledge from local languages was minimal and some community members only spoke Afrikaans which she could not communicate in. This meant that using English as a universal language was plausible. The issue of language impacted on the time it took to undertake the interviews. In some cases, the focus group discussions would last for hours because all the questions had to be thoroughly interpreted. The interpreters were engaged throughout the discussions. However, to some extent this provided the research with the possibility of some of the interview information to be lost in translation.

Secondly, in relation to communication, as a foreign student it was not easy for other community members to believe that the research was for research purposes only. Some would initially not say anything during the interviews and then ask the researcher/s whether they were government officials. The issue of trust was resolved by re-assuring the community members. Some would discuss their issues for the researcher to take to the government, however, the purpose of the research was highlighted at the beginning of every interview, that its purpose was to find out the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. Some of the participants clearly announced that they would not say much because of the issue of trust, therefore the data provided will be limited in that regard. It was also difficult to collect tangible evidence from those communities so as to fully understand the involvement of tourism in poverty alleviation.

Thirdly, the other limitation was issue of accessibility. The communities especially in Kunene region are far apart from each other with others completely impossible to reach with a normal car. Other roads were clearly marked “4 by 4 only” and most roads in Kunene are gravel. The limited budget could not allow the researcher to explore some of the most remote areas. This had an impact of the people and communities to be included in the research, thus some communities were included in the research due to their availability. Although the ages and gender of the participants were carefully selected but in some communities such as the Himba communities where men do not stay with women and children, only women were interviewed. It would have been valuable to understand their

views on poverty alleviation. Also, most of the Himba people do not speak English or Afrikaans.

7.9. AREAS OF FURTHER RESEARCH

The current study has covered varied topics regarding the impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation. Hence, it has discovered that a lot of areas have not yet been explored by researchers. The areas that the researchers could explore include:

- Research on the impact of rural tourism in Africa, south of the Sahara, that transcends political boundaries so that the real impact of rural tourism excluding inherent biases such as geographical location, political influence and climate can be studied.
- Analysing the political impacts of tourism on community development. This will be an interesting area to explore because this research observed how other communities were not well developed due to the lack of government involvement. Because this area was not the main focus of this research, it was not further explored. The research could also analyse the involvement of the government in supporting the communities in tourism initiatives. It will be of more interest to compare the operational structures of successful CBTs with those which are struggling.
- The issue of leakages could also be explored; this aspect was not included as it appeared to be a very sensitive issue from the onset. However, analysing this issue would assist the government in designing tourism policies that will benefit the economy of the country and the local communities. It is quite evident that most of the tourism enterprises are owned by the private sector owners mainly from Germany and South Africa. The research could analyse this aspect from a marketing perspective because of the enterprises' headquarters are situated outside Namibia. The research could also link leakages and linkages by examining this from a community or constituency level. The multiplier effects could also be explored.
- This research noted that poverty has been increasing in the urban areas, indicating a shift in poverty areas in Namibia. It will be of benefit for researchers to analyse the causes of poverty increase in urban areas and also scrutinise whether tourism has any impact on poverty alleviation in urban areas. The research could also compare urban and rural area impacts. Mixed methods can be utilised, the employees who work in the industry can be included in the research, to analyse whether tourism can impact on poverty alleviation.
- An area that would need further research is that of cultural tourism. This is to analyse whether this concept would bring more benefits to the community and also compare with areas or countries that have pursued this concept. This can be done as a case study, using a

quantitative method. Currently, there is limited research on how cultural tourism in Namibia can be utilised to benefit the local communities and yet the country has a very rich culture.

- Besides analysing why poverty in Namibia is persisting, despite having a lot of effort being put on alleviating it, further research is required in analysing the concept of “poverty as a tourist attraction”. Analysing this concept would reveal whether poverty in Namibia is intentional for the purposes of increasing tourism, or local people’s perception. The opinions of the local residents on this notion can be included in this research through interviews and the tour operators or marketing agencies such as NTB can be included in the research for a comparative analysis.

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APPENDIX 1: Interview guide for Government officials and NGO representatives

Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia

Name of organisation: _____

Designation of interviewee: _____

1. What is the purpose of your organisation?
2. In your opinion, do you think tourism in Namibia has developed? If yes, then how? If not, then why not?
3. Do you think tourism in your region is developing? If yes, then in what way? If not, then why is that?
4. In your opinion, what is rural tourism?
5. In terms of rural tourism development, does your organisation contribute rural tourism development? If yes, then how? if not, then why not?
6. Do you think rural tourism development can assist in economic growth of Namibia? If yes, then how? If not, then why not
7. Do you think rural tourism development in Namibia benefits the local community? If yes, then in what way? If not, then why not?
8. The issue of poverty alleviation in Namibia has been debated over the years, what do you think are the causes of poverty in this country?
9. How does your organisation contribute to poverty alleviation?
10. In your opinion, do you think rural tourism development has an impact on poverty alleviation? If yes then in what way? if not, then what do you think needs to be done?

APPENDIX 2: Interview guide for Tourism Establishments

Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia

Name of the Organisation: _____

Job position: _____

Number of employees: _____

Constituent:

Introduction

This section seeks to establish rapport and the experience of the participants; thus, the researcher will interview stakeholders (owners of the establishments or managers) who have been working in the same organisation for five or more years and have vast knowledge of rural tourism development.

1. What is your job role or position in this organisation?
2. As a business, how long have you been operating?
3. Where do you see business going in the next 5 years?
4. What products do you offer?

Development of rural tourism in Namibia

This section aims to understand tourism development in Namibia and the involvement of the tourism stakeholders in rural tourism development.

5. Rural tourism in Namibia is not a new concept, what do you consider as rural tourism?
6. In your opinion do you think rural tourism in Namibia has developed? if yes, then how? If not, then why not?
7. Do you think tourism in your region is developing? If yes, then how? If not, then why not?
8. Who is responsible for rural tourism development in Namibia and your region?

Impact of tourism development in Namibia

This section the researcher aims to establish the positive and negative impacts of tourism development (the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts)

9. Do you think rural tourism development can assist with economic growth of Namibia?
10. How does your business contribute to the economy of Namibia?
 - To establish linkages or leakages
 - Employment creation

- Foreign currency
 - Paying taxes, levies
1. Besides economic reasons, in your view what would say are the positive and negative impacts of tourism on the community?

- **Socio-cultural issues**

(renewal of cultural pride or conservation of cultural heritage, promoting social interaction, commodification, demonstration effects)

- **Environmental issues**

(impact of tourism policies, damage to the environment, sanitation)

- Improvement of skills

Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation

12. Do you think the development of rural tourism in Namibia benefits the local community? If yes, then how does it benefit your local community? If not, what are the reasons?
 13. In your opinion who do you think benefits more from rural tourism development?
 14. To support rural tourism development in your region, are there any strategies/ initiatives or training opportunities that you offered to the local community so that they benefit from tourism?
 15. The issue of poverty in Namibia has been debated over the years, what are your views about poverty?
 16. What do you think are the causes of poverty in this your region?
- Strategies employed in alleviating poverty
17. In your opinion, do you think rural tourism development has an impact on poverty? If so, In what way? If not, what do you think should be done?
 18. In your view, what do you think should be done in your region in terms tourism development, strategies/initiatives or training so that the local community benefit and alleviate poverty?

APPENDIX 3: Interview guide for Focus Groups

Development of rural tourism in Namibia

1. In your view what do you think rural tourism is?
2. Do you think tourism in your region has developed? If yes how?
3. In your opinion, what are the impacts of tourism development in your region?

Benefits of rural tourism development in the community

4. In your opinion would you say rural tourism development in your region has benefitted your community? If so, then how? If not, then why would you say that?
5. What were the strategies employed by the tourism industry that made an impact to your community?
6. Who would you say benefits more from the development of rural tourism? How are they benefitting?

Impact of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation

7. What are your views on poverty and poverty alleviation in your region?
8. Would you consider yourselves as poor? If yes, why?
9. Would you say poverty in your region has reduced? If yes, then how? If not, what are the reasons?
10. In your view, what would you say are the causes of poverty in your region?
11. In your opinion would you say rural tourism development helps in reducing poverty? If yes, then how? If not, then why not.
12. Are there any other developments or strategies that should be implemented so that the local community benefit more from tourism development.

Name of Focus Group:

Name (s) of Participant: _____ Gender _____ Age _____
_____ Gender _____ Age _____
_____ Gender _____ Age _____

APPENDIX 4: Invitation to participants



5 Granaatstraat,
Eros, Windhoek
P.O. Box 91489
Klein Windhoek
Phone number: 0817759476
Email address: faithfulgonzo@yahoo.co.uk
Supervisor email address: Melville.saayman@nwu.ac.za

RE: Research on the impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) student at North-West University in South Africa studying Tourism Management. As part of my studies, I am required to write-up a thesis. The purpose of this study is to analyse the impacts of rural tourism development on poverty alleviation in the Kunene and Zambezi region. This research will not only be beneficial to the tourism industry in Namibia but also to your organisation as the findings of this research will be provided to you should you wish. I would require interviewing you and a few of your employees (if possible) who have industry knowledge. Thus, this letter is enquiring if you will be able to participate in my research.

For the purpose of data analysis, it would be helpful to record and transcribe the interviews. Recordings and transcripts will be stored securely and confidentiality of information as well as anonymity of participants will be observed. All interview material, except the analysis of findings will be destroyed after the study has been completed. The interview will last approximately thirty minutes depending on the level of detail given.

The study will be conducted in line with the University Research Ethics guidelines, a copy of which can be accessed under the following link:

http://www.nwu.ac.za/sites/www.nwu.ac.za/files/files/i-governance-management/policy/9P-9.1.5_Policy%20of%20research%20ethics_eng1.pdf

Thank you very much for considering this request and should you agree to participate, for your time to participate in this study.

Kind regards
Faithfull Gonzo
Student number: 29315018

APPENDIX 5: Interview consent form



Thank you for agreeing to participate in this research study. The objective of this research study is to analyse the impact of tourism on poverty alleviation in the Northern region of Namibia. This consent form will therefore provide you with the information about your rights as a project participant. Please take time to read the information provided in the consent form.

1. The data will be held securely and confidentially in accordance with the Data Protection Act, 1998 and information only relevant to the study will be acquired. Permission will be sought first before any public access/use.
2. For the purpose of data analysis, the interview will be recorded using a Dictaphone and all interview material, except for analysis of findings will be destroyed after the study has been completed.
3. If you feel that you would like to withdraw your participation during the interview, you are permitted to do so and the information collected will be destroyed.
4. The information obtained will not be attributed to any individual and will be reported anonymously.
5. A copy of the transcript will be sent to you. You have the right to correct errors in the transcript and to remove any data prior to its inclusion in the dissertation.

I can confirm that I have read and understood the information in the Consent Form.

Participant signature (*names will not be used for reporting purposes*)

Interviewer signature

Date