

STAKEHOLDER PERSPECTIVES ON THE POTENTIAL FOR COMMUNITY-BASED  
ECOTOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND SUPPORT FOR THE K GALAGADI  
TRANSFRONTIER PARK IN BOTSWANA

By

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To the memory of my beloved parents: Morwadi and Botha Moatshe, and to my husband, Mokgweetsi for his constant love and support during my academic journey.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BTDP	Botswana Tourism Development Programme
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resources Management
CBO	Community Based Organization
CHA	Controlled Hunting Area
CKGR	Central Kgalagadi Game Reserve
CSIR	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
CSO	Central Statistic Office
DDP	District Development Plan
DEA	Department of Environmental Affairs
DOT	Department of Tourism
DWNP	Department of Wildlife and National Parks
GNP	Gemsbok National Park
GOSA	Government of South Australia
IUCN	World Conservation Union
LACOM	Local Advisory Committee
KDC	Kgalagadi District Council
KGNP	Kalahari Gemsbok National Park
KKDT	Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust
KTP	Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park
MNRC	Mantswe Natural Resources Consultants
MFDP	Ministry of Finance and Development Planning
MLG	Ministry of Local Government
MLP	Ministry of Lands and Planning
MWET	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism

NCSA	National Conservation Strategy Agency
NDP	National Development Plan
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
NKXT	Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Trust
RADP	Remote Area Development Programme
TBNRM	Transboundary Natural Resources Management
TLT	Thusanyo Lefatsheng Trust
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization
WMA	Wildlife Management Area
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council

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Ecotourism is renowned for its potential to provide benefits to local communities while sustaining the natural and cultural resources upon which it depends. Transfrontier protected area resource conservation has gained momentum as a vehicle for achieving a wide range of goals, including but not limited to improved co-management and benefits to adjacent local communities. Research shows that achieving the goals of stakeholder support for community-based ecotourism and the conservation of Transboundary Parks requires an understanding of stakeholders' perceptions and attitudes. The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that influence stakeholders' support for community-based ecotourism development and for conservation of KTP (Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park) as a Transfrontier area. Stakeholder theory was used as a foundation for this mixed methods study. Two stakeholder groups, residents and the public sector were identified. Over 700 surveys were administered to local communities adjacent to KTP, while 13 face-to-face in-depth interviews were conducted among representatives from the public sector stakeholder group. Results revealed factors that were likely to influence residents' support for CBE (Community-Based Ecotourism) development as well as predictors of support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Stakeholder groups generally held

positive perceptions about ecotourism and expressed strong support for community-based ecotourism development in the Kalahari region. Stakeholders also demonstrated pro-conservation behavior and strong support for KTP as a Transboundary area. However, interviews with the local public sector officials uncovered differences in understanding of the issues surrounding KTP.

Thus, the theoretical contribution of this study involves the integration of ideas and opinions from two different stakeholder groups in the specific case of transboundary developments. The findings demonstrated the value of stakeholder theory in soliciting perceptions from two different interested groups in a politically sensitive case.

Improved collaboration, communication, transparency and accountability with regards to KTP as a shared resource are highly recommended. Capacity building and formal training among residents and local leaders is needed in order to increase their understanding of management of shared resources, and to enable them to initiate and run CBE ventures.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Community-based ecotourism (CBE<sup>1</sup>) has been largely promoted in rural areas as a tool for conservation and economic enhancement in the developing world (Avila Foucat, 2002; Cater, 1997; Khan, 1997; Kiss, 2004; Parker & Khare, 2005; Spenceley, 2008; Stronza, 2007; Timothy, 1999; Woodward, 1997). CBE implies that a community is “caring for its natural resources in order to gain income through tourism, and is using that income to better the lives of its people; it involves conservation, business enterprises, and community development” (Sproule & Subandi, 1998, p. 215). This concept also refers to small scale tourism enterprises which are community owned and managed with minimal negative impacts and maximum economic benefits for local people and their natural and cultural environments. CBE enterprises which operate in the natural environment are widely regarded as key drivers for job growth, wealth creation, and economic empowerment, particularly in impoverished rural areas in most developing nations. The activities occur mostly in and around national parks and other protected areas (Boyd & Timothy, 2001). They also provide positive experiences to visitors (Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Avila Foucat, 2002; Campbell, 1999; Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Garrod, 2003; Murphy, 1981; Weaver, 2001).

CBE is popular within the communities, principally due to the high degree of local involvement in planning and decision-making (Cusack & Dixon, 2006; Khan, 1997; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Timothy, 1999). Since CBE is locally driven, there is a strong tendency to protect the natural and cultural environments, while generating economic benefits for local people (Brennan & Allen, 2001; Honey, 1999; Khan, 1997; Garrod, 2003; Puppim de Oleveira, 2002). The income from CBE activities provides a strong incentive for

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<sup>1</sup> Is the propest of linking conservation and local livelihoods, preserving biodiversity whilst simultaneously reducing rural poverty, and of achieving both objectives on a sustainable (self-financing) basis (Kiss, 2004,p. 232)

conservation by making traditional resource management more sustainable (Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Bauer, 2003; Campbell, 1999; Cater, 193; 1997; Ross & Wall, 1999; Puppim de Oliveira, 2002). CBE projects have the potential to generate local income and to create employment opportunities for rural people (Ashley & Garland, 1994; Ashley & Jones, 2001; Avila Foucat, 2002; Fennell, 2001: 2003; Kibicho, 2003; Lepp, 2004; Puppim de Oleveira, 2002) as well as to protect the environment (Honey, 1999; Weaver, 2001). CBE development is considered as a new option for rural development in developing countries, most notably in Africa and Latin America (Ashley & Roe, 2002; Avila Foucat, 2002, Parker & Khare, 2005; Relly, 2008; Rozemeijer, 2000; 2008; Spenceley, 2008), yet there are few examples of financially sustainable CBE in Africa (Mbaiwa, 2008; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Thakadu, Mangadi, Bernard et al., 2006).

To be beneficial at the community level, CBE development strategy must ensure active local involvement in all ecotourism operations (Cater, 1997; Garrod, 2003; Hitchcock, 1991; Kiss, 2004; Murphy, 1985; Stronza, 2007; Timothy, 1999). Based on the CBE concept, local communities operate most tourism activities, such as eco-tours, guiding, craft sales, food service, accommodations, and interpretation of village history and culture (Burns & Barrie, 2005). In many instances, CBE has proved to have more advantages than conventional tourism, including improved resource conservation by villagers, fair distribution of tourism revenue, economic development of rural areas, and diversification of the region and nation (Avila Foucat, 2002; Kiss, 2004; Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin, 2000; Shackleton, Campbell, Wollenberg et al., 2002; Sharpley & Telfer, 2002).

CBE has also attracted the attention of many international conservation organizations and private foundations because it connects conservation to local livelihoods (Brennan & Allen, 2001; Kiss, 2004; Shackleton et al., 2002), preserves natural and cultural resources (Millar, 2006;

McKercher & Du Cros, 2002; Peter, 2003; Weaver, 2001), and attempts to alleviate rural poverty (Ashley, 2000; Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Blackden & Wodon, 2006; Cock & Fueller, 2000; Shackleton et al., 2002). Thus, to be a truly beneficial strategy, CBE must be dedicated to improving the quality of life of people, while also protecting the natural and cultural environment (Fennel, 1999; 2003; Parker & Khare, 2005; Tosun, 2006).

Many scholars have analyzed the economic, socio-cultural and environmental effects of community-based ecotourism, particularly in the developing world (Ashley & Roe, 2002; Hitchcock, 1997; Khan, 1997; Lai & Nepal, 2006; Lepp, 2004; 2007; Nyaupane, Morais & Dowler, 2006; Opperman & Chon, 1997; Wunder, 2000). Others have focused on ecotourism impacts, including resident attitudes, and examined socio-economic, environmental, and political effects on the host communities and the local environment (Akama, 1996; Cater, 1997; 1997; Honey, 1999; Holden, 2008; Kiss, 2004; Keitumetse, 2008; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; 2006; Weaver, 2001).

Overall, research in the developing world has largely focused on protected areas (Alexander, 2000; Allendorf, 2007; Allendorf, Smith, & Anderson, 2007; Archabald & Naughton-Trevis, 2001; Baral & Heinen, 2007; Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Durrant & Durrant, 2008; Gadd, 2005; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Infield & Namara, 2001; Jim & Xu, 2002; Lai & Nepal, 2006; Lepp, 2004; Meskell, 2005; Mordi, 1987; Naughton-Trevis, 1997; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Parker & Khare, 2005; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Sekhar, 2003; Spiteri & Nepal, 2008; Weladji, Moe & Vedeld, 2003). Some of the highlights in findings indicate that local communities adjacent to Park boundaries have negative attitudes towards wild animals and/or towards the protected area, due to lack of access to resources (Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Gadd, 2005; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Lepp, 2004; Meskell, 2005; Parry & Campbell, 1992).

However, some resident communities have positive attitudes about tourism and conservation, due to economic benefits derived from these activities (Lepp, 2004; 2008; Sekhar, 2003, Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Generally, there is a paucity of research with respect to CBE and its potential importance as a sustainable livelihood option for rural communities in the developing world (Himberg, 2006; Himoonde, 2007; Keitumetse, 2008; Nelson, 2004; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Woodward, 1997).

In the developing world, rural communities are experiencing hardships and have had difficulty surviving with minimal resources, due to pressures of failing agricultural production and population growth (Phuthego & Chanda, 2004; Emerton, 2001; GOB, 2000; Hulme & Murphree, 2001; Spenceley, 2008; Totolo, 1998). In response, these rural communities have resorted to new ventures for their livelihood, such as community-based tourism or CBE (Ashley & Lahiff, 2001; Barnes, 2008; Kepe et al., 2001; Nelson, 2004; Massyn & Swan, 2002; Relly, 2008; Simpson, 2008). CBE has been identified as an important strategy for regional development which leads to improvements in provincial or rural economic growth, employment and enhanced opportunities for indigenous people, improved infrastructure and connections, and understanding between rural and urban areas (Ashley & Roe, 2003; Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Brenna & Allen, 2001; Dei, 2000; Fennell, 2001; Khan, 1997).

However, ecotourism is not a panacea for all socio-economic challenges faced by local communities, but should be seen as “a tool for development and not as an end in itself” (Tao & Wall, 2008, p.1). In addition, it is important for local communities to evaluate their own resources in order to identify the need to adopt tourism development within their livelihood system (Akama, 1996; Mbaiwa, 2008; Moswete et al., 2009a; Tao & Wall, 2008). Collectively, CBE plays an important role for local communities in the developing world, including Botswana,

as there are multiple opportunities for economic development and conservation of cultural and natural resources.

### **Background and Study Context**

In the context of Botswana, CBE and/or community-based tourism initiatives have been recognized as a major strategy<sup>2</sup> generating additional income and employment, especially for rural communities (BTDP, 2000; GOB, 2005; NDP 8; Sebele, 2009). Rural communities have been encouraged to adopt this strategy as a new tool for sustainable community development to alleviate poverty and improve living standards (GOB, 1997). Traditional livelihood strategies persist in most rural communities, and vary between livestock farming, crop farming, collection and utilization of veldt resources, and government welfare programs (Arntzen, 2003; Botswana Review, 2005; GOB, 2001; Phuthego & Chanda, 2004). Community-based and cultural heritage tourism ventures have been advocated and encouraged by the government as possible avenues for diversification, especially in rural areas (BTDP, 2000; GOB, 2001; Keitumetse, 2008; Mbaiwa, 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b; Richards, 2007; Robinson, 2001; Rozemeijer, 2000). Although this strategy has been recommended for sustainable rural development, challenges include striking a balance between the natural and cultural environment (BTDP, 2003; Mbaiwa, 2005; Mbaiwa et al., 2007; Shackley, 1998), and integrating conservation and tourism development projects (Kiss, 1990; 2004; Mbaiwa, 2008; Moswete et al., 2009a; Toteng, Mbaiwa & Moswete, 2006). In addition, lack of understanding of the relationship between conservation and ecotourism development by the local people is a recurring theme (Moswete et al., 2009b; Parker & Khare, 2005; Sibanda & Omwega, 1996; Walpole, 2001).

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<sup>2</sup> National Ecotourism Strategy of 2003

However, in Botswana, CBE and culture-based tourism initiatives are strongly connected to Community-Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM). Under the CBNRM program, rural or local communities are encouraged and required to form community-based organizations (CBOs), from which they can collectively collaborate to establish community owned tourism-related enterprises or projects (Ashley & Jones, 2005; GOB, 2000; 2007). The CBNRM program initiative was designed to alleviate poverty and advance conservation by strengthening rural economies and empowering communities to manage their resources for long term social, economic, and ecological benefits (GOB, 2007). Additional goals included the opportunity for local communities to benefit directly and equitably from natural resource management, to be granted the rights to utilize resources, and to determine the mode of use and distribution of benefits (Adam & Hutton, 2007; Armitage, 2005; Arntzen et al., 2003; GOB, 2005).

Since its adoption in Botswana, CBNRM, through the formation and use of Community-Based Organizations (CBO) has become an important tool for rural communities. For example, in the Okavango region of Botswana, tourism has become an important benchmark for some communities, especially in the Ngamiland district. Mbaiwa (2008) states, "... the case of Khwai, Mababe and Sankoyo suggests that tourism development through community-based natural resources management (CBNRM) is an effective tool to achieve conservation and improved livelihoods" (p.151).

Community owned and operated projects usually do contribute to infrastructural development and the provision of social services in the rural areas (Arntzen et al., 2003; Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Mbaiwa, 2003). However, some studies (Arntzen et al., 2003; Flyman, 2001; Moswete et al., 2009a; MLG, 1999) have highlighted a lack of meaningful participation and involvement of the local people in tourism occurring in their areas, higher monetary benefits

accrued to private safari operators (Mbaiwa, 2003; Maveneke, 2003; Swatuk, 2005; Taylor, 2007), and lack of community capacity to manage tourism-related projects or businesses (Bond, 2001; Cocks & Grundy, 2006; Maveneke, 2003; Taylor, 2007). Also, over the years, only a limited number of stakeholders have been involved in the planning, decision making and management processes for wildlife-related tourism and ecotourism that occurs in protected areas (Chengeta, Jamare, & Chishakwe, 2003; GOB, 2005; Mulale, 2005). The success of CBE initiatives are largely dependent on the full involvement and meaningful participation of all stakeholder groups, including community or village groups, local businesses, tour operators and visitors, many of whom have been ignored in the past (Campbell, 1999; Garrod, 2003; Shackley, 1998; Timothy, 1999).

In Botswana, tourism is largely wildlife and wilderness-based, and has generally been one of the largest generators of income and employment, especially in rural areas (Botswana Review, 2005; GOB, 2001; WTTC, 2007). Wildlife-based tourism is also considered as the most appealing form of land use in the country (Barnes, 2001a; Campbell, 1973; Child, 1970; Growe, 1995; NCSA, 2002; LANDflow solutions, 1999; 2005; Rozemeijer, 2009; Selby, 1991; Twyman, 2001). The tourism industry is still at an early stage of development, and given its enclave development, its overall potential for further growth throughout the country has yet to be maximized. Wildlife-based tourism is largely concentrated in the northwestern and eastern districts, where it has become the major source of income and employment for local indigenous communities. Given the rapid growth in tourism, as well as reliance on a single type of tourism resource, negative environmental and socio-economic impacts have surfaced (Barnes, 2001a; Mbaiwa, 2003, Moswete & Mavondo, 2003; Mpotokwane, 1991), including tourist overcrowding, especially at the Chobe waterfront and some areas of the Okavango Delta during

the high water season. Also, low flying safari aircraft in the Delta and Kasane village have caused local resentment of tourists (Bell, 1991; Mbaiwa, 2003; Mpotokwane, 1991). In addition, the tourism industry in and around the Okavango Delta is controlled by foreign companies with little meaningful local participation (Mbaiwa, 2003; Moswete et al., 2009a).

The protected areas in the northern part of the country are reaching maximum capacity, and alternative attractions are needed to reduce pressure on existing facilities (BTDP, 1998; Magole & Gojamang, 2005). With specific reference to tourism development, the BTDP (2003) has recommended diversifying wildlife-based tourism from northern Botswana to other areas, in order to ease the impact on the environment of the Okavango Delta (BTDP, 1999; 2001). Given the magnitude and economic importance of tourism in northern Botswana, the need for diversification of the industry's products (e.g., culture-based resources) and geographical regions is crucial to maintain viability and sustained growth. Therefore, the Kgalagadi region of southwestern Botswana offers potential opportunities, as well as challenges, for diversification, increase in local involvement, and economic development (Moswete, Thapa & Lacey, 2009).

**Southwest Kgalagadi Region:** The southwest Kgalagadi region (see Figure 1-1) is known for its unique, large and relatively pristine ecosystem, with large-scale migratory routes for wild ungulates and predatory mammalian carnivores (SANP & DWNP, 1997). The region has unique aesthetic beauty, with harsh semi-arid environment and rare natural features, such as salt pans, fossil river valleys, and undulating and crisscrossing sand dunes and ridges (Roodt, 2008). In addition, the Kgalagadi region is richly endowed with natural and cultural heritage resources (GOB, 2001; Chanda, Totolo, Akanyang et al., 2005; Roodt, 2008). Major tourism resources and attractions include unspoiled wilderness, varied and plentiful wildlife, and handicrafts of the San/Bushmen (Moswete, 2007; Moswete et al., 2009b; Roodt, 2008). Some current utilization

includes parks and reserves, such as the greater Central Kgalagadi Game Reserve (the largest reserve in Botswana), Kutse Game Reserve (KGR), and Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) (GOB, 2001).

The KTP is the first Transboundary protected area to be created in southern Africa (Mayoral-Phillips, 2002) and boasts two distinctive ecosystems: southwestern duneveld with unique semi-desert vegetation, and the northeastern Kalahari plains thornveld (SANP & DWNP, 1997). The park's unique ecosystem and its important, rare and endangered animal and plant species attract local, regional and international visitors (GOB, 2001; Roodt, 2008). Other tourist attractions within the greater Kalahari region include the Jwana Game Reserve, Ghanzi Trail Blazers (the San/Basarwa cultural village and open-air museum), the D'Kar Museum and cultural heritage site, as well as ostrich and game farms and safari lodges (GOB, 2001; Roodt, 2008).

In rural western Botswana, District Councils and other government departments constitute the most important formal sources of employment (Chanda & Magole, 2001). The economy is based on rearing cattle for meat production (District Development Plan 5, 2003-2007), as well as for other cultural and traditional activities such as weddings, dowries, traditional ceremonies and rituals. Approximately ninety percent of export livestock is sent to the Botswana Meat Commission (BMC). Rain-fed agriculture has been declining (MFDP, 2002), and rural agricultural activities tend to be dominated by elderly people, because the youth migrate to urban centers for employment in non-agricultural sectors (MFDP, 2002). Hunting, gathering, livestock farming, and skin tanning are all directly linked to the handicrafts market (Johnson, 1996; MLG, 2003), which collectively provides a livelihood to various local communities (Chanda & Magole, 2001; Johnson, 1996; Chanda et al., 2005).

Overall, livestock activities have led to over-exploitation of grazing which has caused detrimental effects on the veldt resource base and has also displaced wildlife populations (Moleele & Maina, 2004; ), especially in key livestock areas (Kgabung, 1999). However, wildlife uses have an economic advantage because commercial livestock farming and production are capital intensive and require access to external markets (Arntzen, 2003; Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Barnes, 1995).

Poverty has been identified as one of the major development problems that hinder rural growth (Ditlhong, 1997; Letamo & Totolo, 2003), as 71% of residents have been estimated to be living in poverty, while 59% are described as very poor (Ditlhong, 1997; Ministry of Local Government (MLG), 2003). The high proportion of people living below poverty level, particularly in the western districts of Ghanzi and Kgalagadi (Ditlhong, 1997; Chanda & Magole, 2001) is mainly due to unfavorable agricultural conditions, lack of economic opportunities, illiteracy and long distances from major urban centers (Phuthego & Chanda, 2004; Ditlhong, 1997; GOB, 2001). It has been recommended that labor-based public work schemes should be made a permanent feature of the region's rural areas to alleviate poverty (Ditlhong, 1997).

### **Statement of Problem**

The development of tourism can have numerous benefits in the Kgalagadi region, but it also presents challenges to local communities, resource managers, planners, developers and the environment. The communities of the Kgalagadi region are in need of economic advancement, as the poor and marginalized people in this region are hampered by a lack of formal training, inadequate education, weak institutions and poor leadership (Arntzen, 2003; Ditlhong, 1997; Phuthego & Chanda, 2004; Totolo & Chanda, 2001). The dependence on livestock farming and rangeland resources has also led to severe land degradation (MLG, 2005; Moleele & Maina, 2003; Perkins & Ringrose, 1996; Totolo, 1998), conflicts over natural resource use (Chanda et

al., 2002; Totolo & Toteng, 1998), and increased incidence of poverty in the Kgalagadi district (Arntzen, 2001; Ditlhong, 1997; KDC, 1997). According to Chanda & Totolo (2001) and Moleele & Maina (2003), rangelands have supported a diversity of wildlife and livelihood activities such as agro-pastoralism, hunting and gathering in Kgalagadi. Currently, livestock production in the Kgalagadi benefits only a small percentage of the population (Arntzen, 2001; LAND flow Solutions, 1999; MLG, 2005; Phuthego & Chanda, 2004; Totolo & Chanda, 2001), and other studies have found that rangelands are no longer the major source of livelihood for the greater part of the Kgalagadi inhabitants (Arntzen 2003; Chanda et al., 2002; Moleele & Maina, 2003; Moswete et al., 2009b). Generally, livelihoods are threatened by overgrazing of the range (Moleele & Maina, 2003; Perkins & Ringrose, 1996) and overexploitation of veldt resources, especially in areas that surround the villages and settlements (Atlhopheng & Totolo, 1998; Kgabung, 1999; Perkins & Ringrose, 1996; Totolo & Chanda, 2001; Velimpini & Perkins, 2008). Veldt product depletion, including grapple plant (*sengaparile*), has been reported in Kgalagadi villages including Tsabong, Kokotsha, Ngwatle, and Monong (KDC, 1997; Moleele & Maina, 2003; Totolo & Chanda, 2001; Velimpini & Perkins, 2008). Collectively, there exists a dire need for an alternative means of livelihood, in which communities could use rangeland in a sustainable manner to benefit themselves and the environment.

Nationwide, tourism contributes to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), employment and foreign exchange to an extent greater than traditional activities, such as agriculture (Botswana Review, 2005; BTDP, 1998; WTTC, 2007), except in the southwest region where available tourism resources are underutilized (CSIR, 2003; Chanda et al., 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b). However, protected areas in the southwest region, of the country have begun to attract increasing numbers of international and local tourists (BTDP, 1999; DOT, 2007; DWNP, 1998; WTTC,

2007). The number of visitors to Kgalagadi parks has increased considerably during the last decade. More than 7,000 tourists recorded for the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) in 2005 (DOT, 2006). In general, tourism development in the southwestern region is sluggish in comparison to the northern and eastern regions. Some known key challenges to tourism advancement in the area include low awareness of tourism (Moswete et al., 2009b), poor roads to wildlife attractions (Johnson, 1996; Roodt, 2008), inadequate marketing of the region (BTDP, 1998; Roodt, 2008), unreliable water supplies in the remote settlements (Chanda & Magole, 2001; Chanda et al., 2005), inadequate key infrastructure for tourism (Johnson, 1996; LANDflow solutions, 1999; 2005; MLG, 2005), high illiteracy rates especially among the indigenous groups (MLG, 2003; Chanda & Magole, 2001), high dependency on government support programs (Arntzen, 2003; Chanda et al., 2005), and remoteness of the region (BTDP, 1998). The tourism activities and businesses are concentrated in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (South African side), Tsabong Village (in Kgalagadi south), Kang Village and the Trans-Kalahari Highway (in Kgalagadi north). Lodges, guesthouses, game farms, developed campsites and campgrounds (See Table 3-18) are found in these aforementioned areas (Chanda et al., 2005).

The newly created KTP offers an opportunity to further capitalize and develop tourism initiatives in and around the Park. Thus, the present study was undertaken to assess the potential for community-based ecotourism development in order to improve the traditional livelihood of the local people and to assess residents' support for the newly created Transfrontier Park (KTP). It is essential that primary stakeholders and the associated issues of development be identified by involvement of all affected groups to address the complex matters of development within their community. The recent emphasis on tourism development requires that multiple stakeholder involvement should be increased, especially among those most affected, such as the local

residents, public authorities, private businesses, visitors and tourists (Aas, Ladkin & Fletcher, 2005; Brandt & Mohammed, 2006; Byrd, 2007; Byrd et al., 2008; Himoonde, 2007; Nicholas, 2007; Nicholas, Thapa, & Ko, 2009; Nicholas, Thapa & Pennington-Gray, 2009; Sikaraya, Teye & Sonmez, 2002; Scheyvens, 1999; Simmons, 1994; Tosun & Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 2006). Hence, the public sector's (local and national representatives) perspectives were also integrated in this study. The importance of all stakeholder participation is essential because the different groups may have ideas that could influence policy changes or developmental decisions for their areas of abode and beyond. Based on the utility of stakeholder groups, this study is premised on stakeholder theory.

### **Theoretical Foundation**

Stakeholder theory originated from the discipline of business sciences and was popularized by Freeman in the 1980s. The theory was introduced and utilized mainly in business management to improve production effectiveness and to ensure quality management, but the concepts have been widely used in other disciplines as well (Clarkson, 1995; De Lopez, 2001; 2005; Donaldson & Preston, 1995; Grimble & Wellard, 1997; Mitchell, Agle, & Wood, 1998; Polonsky, 1995; Toteng, 2004). Freeman (1984) noted that stakeholders are “any groups or individuals who can affect, or are affected by, the achievement of an organization's mission” (p.25). Grimble and Wellard (1997) identified stakeholder as “any group of people, organized or unorganized, who share a common interest or stake in a particular issue or system” (p.175). Furthermore, Chevalier (2001) noted that stakeholders “are groups, constituencies, social actors or institutions of any size or aggregation that act at various levels (domestic, local, regional, national, international, private and public) and have a significant and specific stake in a given set of resources, and can affect or be affected by resource management problems or interventions” (Chevalier, 2001 cited in Mulale, 2005, p.13). Stakeholder theory is largely used as a technique

to identify and assess the importance of key players/actors, people, groups and institutions that may influence the success of an idea or a venture (Byrd et al., 2008; Mitchell et al., 1997). Generally, it is used to explain, guide and assess the structure and operation of institutions and organizations. The theory is built on the premise that an initiative or project can be successful if the various groups and individuals who have a stake in it can contribute to its accomplishment (Clarkson, 1995). Farrington (1996) found that stakeholder analysis has been developed “in response to the challenge of multiple interests and objectives, such as the search for efficient, equitable and environmentally sustainable development strategies” (Farrington, 1996, p.9).

Stakeholders “differ by the size of the stake they have in the firm” (Hill & Jones, 1992, p.133), and groups can be reliably identified as stakeholders based on their possession of power, legitimacy and/or urgency (Banerjee, 2000; Freeman & Miles, 1997; Frooman, 1999; Mitchell et al., 1997). Banerjee (2000) refers to one’s ability to carry out his/her own will despite resistance of others (i.e. the stakeholder’s power to influence) (Freeman & Miles, 1997). Legitimacy refers to the stakeholder’s relationship with the firm and/or his/her right to exercise power. Legitimacy is required to provide authority, such as in the right of a government to rule and make policy (Toteng, 2004). This view concurs with Freeman & Miles’ (1997) argument that all stakeholder groups can affect or be affected by an action, decision or development. In addition, stakeholders can be used to illuminate the interests of all groups (Farrington, 1996) especially, the marginalized groups (Frooman, 1999).

Stakeholder analysis has been widely used to improve the effectiveness of business organizations (Mitchell et al., 1997; Polonsky, 1995), enhance the understanding of the political ecology of water management and urban environmental management (Toteng, 2001; 2004), identify stakeholder participation in trans-boundary natural resource management (Chengeta et

al., 2003), increase the recognition and participation of marginalized groups in community projects (Mitchell, 2003; Nyce, 2003), and identify stakeholder groups and their roles (Byrd, 2007; Mitchell, 2003; Mulale, 2005; Nicholas, 2007; Toteng, 2004). However, the history of application of stakeholder theory in tourism sciences is fairly short (Byrd, 2004; Byrd et al., 2008; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Murphy, 1981; 1985; Nicholas, 2007; Nicholas et al., 2009a; 2009b; Timothy, 1999).

Stakeholder theory has been used to increase collaboration between different tourism resource users and institutions, especially on issues relevant to planning, development, resource utilization and management. For instance, Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell (1999) applied the theory to identify stakeholders who were affected by a Costa Dourada tourism project in Brazil. They identified stakeholder groups as environmental groups, business interests, public authorities and community groups. Additional findings revealed a strong public sector involvement and relatively weak private sector involvement in project planning. In addition, they found that involvement of a wide range of stakeholders in the planning process was difficult and time consuming; yet, they highlighted the significant benefits of sustainability that resulted from the approach. Similarly, Timothy (1998) used the theory to assess stakeholder participation in planning as a way to promote sustainable tourism development. Further, Byrd (2006) applied stakeholder theory to identify stakeholders and the roles they play in sustainable tourism development. Byrd's (2006) study revealed that local community planners and destination management organizations were concerned about all stakeholder groups in their area, especially local residents.

In order to have a sustainable tourism venture, managers and planners need to incorporate multiple stakeholder interests in destination product development (Byrd, 2007; Byrd, Cardenas

& Greenwood, 2008; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Millar, 2006; Tosun, 1998). The lack of and failure to adequately involve all affected stakeholders can increase the potential for conflicts and can reinforce inequalities (Byrd, 2007; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Molale, 2005; Nicholas et al., 2009b; Timothy, 1998). Community planners and destination management organizations ought to be cautious and concerned about the various stakeholders and their needs and aspirations within the host community (Byrd et al., 2008; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999).

Mulale (2005) adopted Mitchell et al.'s (1997) stakeholder salience model in order to classify stakeholder groups and organizations involved in community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) initiatives in Botswana. According to Mulale (2005), state agencies were the most salient stakeholders; non-governmental organizations (NGOs) were dangerous stakeholders; and the CBNRM community-based organizations (CBOs) were the most dependent and/or demanding stakeholders. Further, the state institutional actors (as primary stakeholders) were found to dominate the CBNRM program by formulating objectives and strategizing or even dictating how management should operate (Mulale, 2005).

Cornejo (2004) applied the theory to evaluate the promotion of community-based forest enterprise in common property regimes in Ejido X-Maben, Mexico. Stakeholder theory was examined to understand management of natural resources for ecotourism, as well as for identification of the stakeholder groups and their interests. Findings noted that local resident communities participated and benefited from the ecotourism industry based on forest resources and local culture.

Recently, Nicholas (2007) applied the theory to assess the support of three stakeholder groups (visitors, residents and policy makers) for the Pitons Management Area and for

sustainable tourism development at the only World Heritage Site in St. Lucia. Generally, there was positive support for sustainable tourism development in the area. However, a lack of involvement by local residents in the management and decision-making of the site was identified as the most significant challenge for the growth of sustainable tourism at the site. The lack of coordination and inadequate communication within management and between the policy makers was also a major concern. Recommendations included the need to improve communication and collaboration among the stakeholders, and a call for full involvement of local communities in the developmental affairs of protected areas (Nicholas, 2007).

A similar sentiment with respect to local community involvement was shared by Aas et al. (2005); Byrd et al. (2008); Timothy (1998), and Wearing (2001). According to Wearing (2001) “all local interest groups in perfect circumstances should be provided with the opportunity to ‘have their say’ early in any policy, management or planning process” (p. 406). Walker (1996) contends that “in order to maximize the positive impacts of ecotourism, residents must be included in the planning and development of ecotourism projects in the early stages” (p. 944). Also, because the rural communities are vulnerable to the effects of development, they need to be aware of and participate in decision making for a project that will affect them or be affected by them (Timothy, 1998; Tosun, 2006; Walker, 1996; Wearing, 2001).

Millar (2006) noted, “Until recently, a limited number of stakeholders (such as) governments, conservation experts and local authorities were involved in the process, (but) local communities, (indigenous groups), local amenity and local community groups, local businesses, tour companies and visitors were largely left out of the consultation and management processes” (p. 38). Millar (2006) further discussed the need for a change from the rigid top-down approach

of management of communally owned resources, and he recommended a bottom-up partnership approach that involves more groups of local and regional stakeholders with varying interests.

However, Wearing (2001) notes that, “not all groups want the same things.....” (p. 406), as some stakeholder groups may be interested in natural or cultural heritage issues, while others may be interested in a healthy place to live. Stakeholder involvement in development, management and decision-making is essential if all stakeholder interests are considered. Thus, such assessment can assist planners to identify the interests, groups and individuals that are stakeholders, as well as their values, interests and relative power (Aas et al., 2005; Banerjee, 2000; Millar, 2006; Mitchell, 2003). Participation in collaborative tourism planning promotes sustainable development by increasing efficiency, equity and harmony (Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Nicholas et al., 2009a).

Stakeholder theory was employed as the theoretical framework for this study. Two primary stakeholder groups were used as the focus for this research: the public sector (local and national government personnel, Non Governmental Organisations and other policy makers), and the resident communities adjacent to a Transboundary Park – the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park. These two stakeholder groups were selected because of residents’ diverse perceptions and attitudes, and the public sector’s likelihood to influence policies, decisions and actions with respect to development, management and conservation of communal resources at KTP.

This study adopted the definition of primary stakeholders put forth by Mitchell et al. (1997), as those who “bear some form of risk, as a result of having invested some form of capital, human or financial, something of value, in a firm” (p. 854). In this study, the resident communities were those individuals who had lived in the Kgalagadi for at least one year or were born there and would readily identify with the resources found in the area. The assumption is that

the livelihood of these individuals is in large part very dependent on the natural and cultural resources found inside the Park and on its periphery.

This study was conducted in an area where academic research on ecotourism, community-based ecotourism, or stakeholders' attitudes on tourism development has not been empirically conducted. The importance of studying perspectives of stakeholders towards community-based ecotourism development in the Kgalagadi region is underscored by Hitchcock's argument that "remote area populations in Botswana are divided in their opinions about tourism" (Hitchcock, 1991, p.164). Also, soliciting perceptions and attitudes of stakeholder groups who have a stake in the natural and cultural resources of their area (Kgalagadi) is likely to have an impact on the support for CBE development and support for conservation of KTP as a Transboundary Park. Walker (1996) argues that assessments of knowledge of ecotourism impacts can be measured by way of understanding local residents' perceptions of costs and benefits of community ecotourism. Also, in order to understand tourism development issues within local communities, the residents' attitudes, concerns and perceptions must first be sought, understood and considered (Millar, 2006; Sheldon & Abenoja, 2001).

### **Significance of Study**

Stakeholder participation and involvement in CBE and conservation has been found to be an effective strategy used to circumvent and resolve conflicts related to development, planning, and management of communal resources. This study was conducted in Botswana's remote Kgalagadi region, where issues that pertain to common property and multiple-use rangeland management are important. Rangeland erosion and resource-use conflicts are major challenges to the rural communities of Kgalagadi. Incidences of human poverty<sup>3</sup> are not uncommon. Lack of

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<sup>3</sup> Human Poverty refers to the inability to afford minimal standards of food, clothing, shelter and health care (Robertson, 1989, p.188)

alternative livelihoods has put strains on the limited resources of the area. Thus, alternative livelihoods are highly needed among the rural local communities in the district.

Studies conducted in the Kgalagadi region have focused primarily on biodiversity and ecology (geomorphology, soil characteristics, vegetation, wildlife, rangelands and history). Minimal work has covered the socio-economic development issues of the area (i.e. rangelands and livelihood dynamics, the economic value of communal rangelands and livestock farming). The study will complement the Western Kgalagadi Conservation Corridor (WKCC) project, which is an initiative spearheaded by the Government of Botswana in collaboration with Conservation International (CI) and the French Global Environmental Fund (FFEM). The WKCC goal is to implement a project that will help to conserve the biodiversity and integrity of the western Kgalagadi ecosystem by establishing ecological corridors between KTP and CKGR ([www.wambafrance-bw.org](http://www.wambafrance-bw.org)). Additionally, the project intends to i) enhance environmental awareness among the communities, ii) reduce human-wildlife conflicts, iii) ensure that benefits accrued from the use of natural resources are shared by the community, and iv) improve the standard of living of the community.

The Kgalagadi district is a germane and appropriate site for investigating stakeholder or residents' perceptions of CBE development and support for the safeguarding of KTP as a trans-boundary park. The area is also suitable for assessing stakeholders' general conservation attitudes towards KTP, because no study has been conducted to examine local support for conservation of KTP since it was converted into a Transboundary Park. So far, the minimal tourism-related studies in the Kgalagadi district and the rest of southwestern Botswana have not addressed residents' knowledge about tourism, or their perceptions and concerns about tourism

development. Studies related to the general tourism development have focused primarily on the northwestern and eastern districts and the Okavango Delta region.

This study employed both quantitative and qualitative perspectives in its data acquisition. Several studies have indicated the necessity for comprehensive research that would ensure that residents' voices be heard, hence, the researcher preferred to utilize stakeholder analysis in this study. The findings of this study will guide policy makers, managers, practitioners and planners in natural and cultural resource management and the tourism industry en masse. Stakeholder perspectives can be utilized as a guide for future community-based ecotourism development in southwestern Botswana and the entire Kgalagadi district. The results will add to the understanding of factors that influence perceptions about ecotourism development and stakeholder support for Transboundary protected areas or parks worldwide. The study will also contribute to the body of knowledge about protected area management (natural and cultural) and adjacent local communities in Botswana, Southern Africa and globally.

### **Pilot Study**

The research issues for this study are based on the preliminary assessment about community-based tourism which was undertaken in summer 2006 by the researcher. The purpose of the pilot study was to explore key informants' attitudes towards tourism in the Kgalagadi region. The study was an attempt to gain knowledge about the level of tourism awareness among local people, including their views of the importance of the tourism industry, their understanding of the concept of conservation and the reasons why the Park (KTP) was created, their experiences with existing tourism projects, and their desires about future tourism vis-à-vis existing traditional livelihood.

The sample consisted of 19 key informants who worked and lived in the district and were all identified via purposive sampling. The key informants were selected from the following

villages and settlements: Tshane (2), Tsabong (6), Bokspits (2), Hukuntsi (4), Khawa (2) and Kang (2). The informants were comprised of the following: traditional leaders, village chiefs, the district council, a district lands development officer, a community development officer, the Land Board Secretary, the village development committee chair, the tourism officer, a Department of Wildlife and National Park representative, a councilor-politician, a street vendor, a lodge owner, the agricultural research board, a representative from the youth club, and local individuals.

Face-to-face in-depth semi-structured interviews using an interview guide were conducted. Tape-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim. Memos and field notes gathered during interviews were revisited and incorporated in the analysis. Open, axial and selective coding processes were used to develop, define and redefine categories and themes (Daly, McDonald, & Willis, 1992; Patton, 1990; 2000). The general assessment identified the following:

- There were 62% males and 38% females; the youngest was 24 and the oldest was 77 years.
- Residents' livelihoods were dependent on livestock farming, hunting and gathering (by the poorer section of the community), crop farming and remittances.
- Local residents' awareness of tourism was relatively low. A few of the key informants had general knowledge about tourism as a business. Yet, most participants believed that tourism could be accomplished only by owning a lodging facility, and that tourism was considered to be economically beneficial.
- Despite lack of familiarity with tourism as a business, respondents considered tourism as positive and a worthwhile development for their district.
- All participants were positive about tourism development. However, they were not well-informed about tourism, because they associated tourism only with economic benefits, primarily, income and employment. None of them mentioned any negative effects associated with tourism.
- Perceptions of conservation were positive and were relatively high, as respondents believed that the Park was helping them to keep their natural resources safe from overuse.
- With respect to the future of tourism, the participants indicated the need for the government to provide adequate infrastructure and other supporting services for tourism.

## **Purpose of Study**

Based on earlier research and recommendations, the purpose of this study was to examine stakeholders' perspectives with respect to the potential for community-based ecotourism development and support<sup>4</sup> for KTP as a Transfrontier Park in Kgalagadi, southwestern Botswana. Specifically, the following research objectives were formulated and assessed:

1. a) To examine residents' support for community-based ecotourism development  
b) What factors influence support for CBE development?
2. a) To assess residents' support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park  
b) What factors influence support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park?
3. a) To assess public sector's (local & national) perspectives on support both for CBE development and b) support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

## **Conceptual Framework**

Two conceptual frameworks were formulated and empirically tested in this study. Figures 1-1 & 1-2 illustrate the hypothesized causal relationships between independent and dependent variables. Previous studies have been used as the foundation for the conceptual models of relationship between explanatory and response variables. Accordingly, hypotheses were developed and are explained below. In the conceptual models, there were two response variables: Support for Community-based Ecotourism (CBE) development, and Support for the KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The analysis examined factors that influenced or predicted support for the two response variables. The independent or predictor variables were: Perception about CBE, General Conservation Attitudes, Potential Community Concern, Participation (use level), and Socio-demographic Characteristics (Age, Gender, Education, Length of Residence, and Distance/Proximity). The arrows in the conceptual model(s) and the respective directional flow

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<sup>4</sup> In this study, 'support' means that residents will exhibit positive attitudes to KTP as a Transboundary protected area and will express favor toward CBE development.

predicted associations between response and criterion variables. Path analysis was employed in order to assess the independent variables' affect or influence on the outcome variable(s).

The predictor variables were identified and adapted from multiple sources (Cole, 2009; Durant & Durant, 2008; Dyer, Gursoy & Sharma, 2007; Gursoy, Jurowski & Uysal, 2002; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; McCool & Martin, 1994; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Vincent & Thompson, 2002; Weladji, Moe & Vedeld, 2003) and further reviewed below.

### **Perception about CBE**

Researchers have identified that local residents perceive tourism positively due to its propensity to create jobs, generate income, and provide social services and infrastructure in local communities (Andereck et al., 2005; Dyer et al., 2007; Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski et al., 1997; Khan, 1997; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Murphy, 1985; Sikaraya et al., 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Other studies have found that, when resident communities were dependent on tourism economically, they tended to hold strong support for its development (Andereck et al., 2005; Ap, 1992; Banks, 2003; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Carmichael, 2006; Jurowski, 1994; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Lepp, 2004; 2007; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2008). Also, when residents were involved in the tourism industry or recreation activity they tended to show more support for additional tourism development (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999; Cole, 2006; Dyer et al., 2007; Lepp, 2004; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Residents who showed positive environmental behaviors expressed support of tourism (Jurowski et al., 1997; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Perdue et al., 1990). However, local people with negative perceptions and attitudes about tourism showed less support for its development (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006; Banks, 2003; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Teye, Sonmez, & Sikaraya, 2002; Wilson et al., 2001).

Regarding ecotourism, socio-economic factors, such as investments, increased employment, social services, quality of life, income and involvement in the industry-related projects, have been found to influence residents' support for the ecotourism industry (Alexander, 2000; Andereck & Jurowski, 2006; Khatib, 2000; Kibicho, 2003; Ormsby & Kaplin, 2005; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Sikaraya et al., 2002). For example, Vincent and Thompson's (2002) study on perceptions and support for the development of an ecotourism project in Texas discovered that residents were very supportive of it. Therefore, in this study it was hypothesized that residents who held positive perceptions about ecotourism would be likely to express support for CBE development.

There is a paucity of research about perception of CBE and support for PAs. However studies have revealed that residents who showed positive perception of PA-based tourism due to accrued benefits tended to be very supportive (Allendorf, 2007; Allendorf et al., 2007; Mugisha, 2002; Ormsby & Kaplin, 2005; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006). Those with negative perceptions towards PAs and associated tourism activities were less supportive (Allendorf et al., 2007; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). For example, Ite (1996) discovered that local communities in southeast Nigeria held less support for the Cross River National Park and the related ecotourism activities due to its conservation programs. Therefore, it was hypothesized that residents who held positive perceptions about ecotourism would be likely to support KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

### **Conservation Attitudes**

Eagly & Chaiken (1998) define attitude as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor" (p. 269). Also, an attitude is regarded as the tendency to feel toward or react to a given object or subject in a certain way (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999, p. 41). Attitudes have different dimensions as they can show how

individuals feel, think and behave (cognitive), as well as what is being liked or disliked (affective) or what actions are performed toward something (behavior) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991). Literature has found that residents' attitudes are commonly influenced by the costs or benefits that an individual or group experiences (Infield, 1988; Jurowski, Daniels & Pennington-Gray, 2006; Madrigal, 1995; Weaver & Lawton, 2001). Carmichael (2006) noted that if "residents hold beliefs about the effects of tourism, they know if they like or dislike these effects ... the level of reaction is likely to depend on the importance that they place on the perceived impacts and the likelihood of it affecting their quality of life" (p.118).

Also, the literature has reported that residents' general conservation attitudes toward PAs have been influenced in part due to human-wildlife conflicts (De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Gadd, 2005; Kiss, 1990; Naughton-Treves, 1997; Newmark, Leonard, & Sariko et al., 1993; Newmark, Manyanza, & Gamassa et al., 1994), forceful relocation of communities from PAs (Baral & Heinen, 2007; Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Bolaane, 2004; Gadd, 2005; Lepetu, 2007; Lepp, 2004; Lewis & Jackson, 2005; Meskell, 2005; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Sekhar, 2003), and lack of access to forest resources, and an inability to hunt or perform rituals in the protected areas (Baral & Heinen, 2007; Bolaane, 2004; Brandon, 2007; De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Gadd, 2005; Lepetu, 2007; Meskell, 2005). Generally, wildlife damage, predation, resource dependence, strict conservation policies, loss of extraction rights, shortage of land for agriculture and socio-demographic factors have contributed to the variations in lack of support for PA (De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Gadd, 2005; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Kideghesho, Newmark et al., 1993; Newmark et al., 1994; Roskaft & Kaltenborn, 2007; Lepetu, 2007; Lepp, 2004; Lewis & Jackson, 2005; Maveneke, 2003; Meskell, 2005; Parry & Campbell, 1992, Spiteri & Nepal, 2008).

Conversely, other studies have also shown that local residents were likely to indicate positive attitudes towards conservation and tourism, particularly when they were satisfied with accrued benefits (Baral & Heinen, 2007, Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Infield, 1988; Infield & Namara, 2001; Newmark et al., 1993; Lepetu, 2007; Lepp, 2004; 2007; Mbaiwa, 2008; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Toteng et al., 2006; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Conservation policies and cost of tourism development can impede local peoples' support for PA-based tourism and conservation activities (Bauer, 2003). Collectively, stakeholders' support for PAs is dependent on and associated with tangible benefits obtained (Alexander, 2000; De Boer & Baquete 1998; Gadd, 2005). In this study it was hypothesized that residents who held positive attitudes to conservation of PAs would be likely to express support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

### **Community Concern**

Residents are generally concerned with the associated consequences of tourism growth in their respective communities. Findings in the literature has identified that residents were concerned with increased traffic congestion (Andereck et al., 2005; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Jurowski et al., 1997; Long et al., 1990; Mason & Cheyne, 2000), littering and cost of living in the community (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Murphy, 1985), overcrowding and congestion, increase in crime and noise levels (Andereck et al., 2005; Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Burns & Howard, 2003; Dyer et al., 2007; Jurowski, 1994; Keogh, 1990; Long et al., 1990; McCool & Martin, 1994; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Murphy, 1981; 1985; Orams, 2002), and environmental problems caused by construction of lodging establishments and other tourist facilities (Dyer et al., 2007; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005). In general, such concerns about tourism did not always decrease local communities' desires and support for tourism development (Andereck et al., 2005; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Jurowski et al., 2002; Smith & Krannich, 1998). For example, Gursoy et al. (2002) developed a model to determine if residents' support for tourism

was affected by their level of concern about tourism development in the community. Level of concern did not have influence on how the benefits and cost of tourism were evaluated in some communities. This implies that specific concerns tended to be site specific and variable.

Generally, there were differences in opinions regarding concern about tourism and support for tourism development in the community. Thus, it was hypothesized that concern would have an inverse relationship with support for CBE development.

Also, variations in perceptions with respect to concern about the negative effects of tourism development and support for PAs have been documented. Community concern and support for PAs were found to be linked with human-wildlife interactions (Baral & Heinen, 2007; Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Burns & Howard, 2003; Orams, 2002; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001), land use policies, and acquisition challenges by residents (Bolaane, 2004; Durrant & Durrant, 2008; Himoonde, 2007; Kiss, 2004). Local residents who experienced negative impacts of tourism associated with a PA were not supportive (Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Burns & Howard, 2003; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). In other situations, residents who were concerned about park-based tourism were still able to indicate support (Lepp, 2004; Mugisha, 2002). In this study it was hypothesized that concern about tourism would have an inverse relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

### **Participation (Use Levels)**

Visits to a national park environment are important because they give people the opportunity to interact with the natural environment through activities such as nature walks, horse riding, game drives, sightseeing and wilderness camping (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999). Such activities, “provide experiences that are emotionally and spiritually rewarding . . .” (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999, p. 186). Thus, individuals who use recreation resources will have different perspectives than those who do not use them (Dyer et al., 2007; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004).

However, the geographic location and proximity to a resource such as a PA or natural attractions and campgrounds is likely to have an influence on levels of use by residents (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999; Durant & Durant, 2008; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005). Local residents who use the recreation-tourism resource heavily did not support development. Residents who lived farther expressed support for tourism (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004).

Also, lack of participation in park-resource management has had adverse effects on local individuals' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development, subsequently leading to less support for PAs (Bolaane, 2004; Hall, 2000; Keogh, 1990; Mitchell & Reid, 2001; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Weladji & Tchamba, 2003). The level of support for park-based activities is related to increased participation in tourism and recreational activities (Hall, 2000; Lankford, 1994; Lankford & Howard, 1994). This present study examined whether residents who participate in KTP (use the facility) would support CBE development and thereby support KTP as a Transboundary area. Thus, it was hypothesized that residents' participation (use level) at the Park (KTP) would be likely to influence support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

### **Socio-Demographics**

Local residents are not homogenous, as differences and support for tourism development are generally based on socio-demographics (e.g., age, gender, education, income, residence). Socio-demographic characteristics have been assessed with regard to residents' support for tourism development, with variations in findings (Andriotis & Vaughan, 2003; King, Pizam, & Milman, 1993; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994; Wang & Pfister, 2008).

Age has been found to influence residents' support for tourism development, especially among younger residents (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; Huh & Vogt, 2007; Tomljenovic &

Faulkner, 2000). For example, the younger residents in Labuan Bajo, Indonesia (Walpole & Goodwin, 2001) and the Greek Island of Samos (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996) expressed positive perceptions and support for tourism development compared to elderly people. Elderly people were not supportive of tourism development as they associated it with a threat to local traditions (Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Wilson et al., 2001). Therefore, it was hypothesized that age was likely to have an inverse relationship with support for CBE development. Also residents' support for PAs was found to be influenced by age (De Boer & Baquete, 1998). Thus, it was hypothesized that age was likely to inversely influence support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Males have been found to express positive perceptions and more support for tourism development than females (Harill & Potts, 2003; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Mason & Cheyne, 2000; Pizam, 1978). Hence, it was hypothesized that males were likely to be more supportive of CBE development. Similarly, increase in education was found to have a positive relationship on support for tourism (Sikaraya et al., 2002; Teye, et al., 2002; Walpole & Goodwin), which was accordingly hypothesized in this study.

Also, length of residency has been found to be linked with positive perceptions and support for tourism development, with long-term residents in the community tending to demonstrate more support (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; McCool & Martin, 1994). Additionally, McGehee & Andereck (2004) found that a positive relationship existed among residents who have lived in the community longer due to historical ties with the area, and they therefore supported tourism development. In other situations, long-term residents were more negative towards tourism industry, and were less supportive of additional tourism development (Allen et al., 1988; Jurowski, 1994).

Individual members of the community who have lived longer near PA tended to have negative attitudes toward conservation. They may have experienced restrictive management and conservation policies (Bauer, 2003; De Boer & Baquete, 1998). In other situations, residents have indicated a positive relationship and support for PAs (Gursoy et al., 2002; McCool & Martin, 1994). Hence, it was hypothesized that length of residency was likely to have a positive relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Similarly, studies have discovered that women and younger children were mostly disadvantaged, and hence they lacked participation in conservation-related activities, and therefore were less supportive of PAs (Lepp, 2004; 2006; Manwa, 2003; Mordi, 1987; Sah & Heinen, 2001; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007). It was hypothesized that gender was likely to have a positive influence on support of KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Education has been found to influence support for PAs, as those with higher education tended to be pro-conservation and supportive of PAs (De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Kideghesho et al., 2007; Mehta & Heinen, 2001; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001) and associated park-based tourism development (Bauer, 2003; De Boer & Baquete, 1998). Therefore, it was hypothesized that a positive relationship existed between education and support for KTP.

### **Distance/Proximity**

Distance and proximity have been studied to determine residents' support for or restrictions on tourism development, support for additional tourism, tourism preferences (types), perceptions of tourism impacts, and attitudes towards conservation of PAs (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Durrant & Durrant, 2008; Gursoy & Jurowski, 2002; Harrill, 2004; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Madrigal, 1994; Perdue et al., 1990; Weaver & Lawton, 2001). Studies have found that the perception of tourism development impact varies with the residential distance/proximity to a tourist zone or resource. Residents who lived closer

to the resource favored and had positive attitudes towards tourism development due to accrued benefits (Belisle & Hoy, 1980; Keogh, 1990; Sheldon & Var, 1984). Rural residents who lived farther away from a PA or a tourism source had negative attitudes (Keogh, 1990). On the other hand, in Mt. Rogers National Park in southwest Virginia, distance had a significant effect on how costs and benefits were evaluated by the residents (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004). Recreation resource users who lived closest to the Park were more negative or less supportive of tourism than those who lived farther away. However, strong support for tourism is more likely to be positive at the initial stage of development and also due to residential proximity (Butler, 1980, Murphy, 1983; 1985). In this study, it was hypothesized that support for CBE was dependent upon distance/proximity of residents.

Similarly, residents who lived close to Mount Kilimanjaro conservation area showed more support for PA and conservation of resources (Durrant & Durrant, 2008). In a study in Belek, Turkey, residents who lived closer to the PA were less supportive of it, as they had become more sensitive to the problems of the forest (Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005). Additionally, in Bigodi, Uganda, resident farmers who lived closer to and had farms on the boundary of Kibale National Park expressed negative attitudes toward the Park and staff (Lepp, 2004; 2007). Furthermore, Spiteri & Nepal (2008) discovered that local people whose homes were distant from the Park entrance gained only a few benefits, and therefore were less supportive of the PA. However, it has also been found that residents who lived far from the PA were more likely to favor park-based tourism than those who lived at intermediate distances (Harrill & Potts, 2003). Thus, it was hypothesized that distance/proximity will positively influence support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

## Hypotheses (Residents)

### Support for community-based ecotourism development

- **Hypothesis 1:** There will be a positive association between perception about CBE and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 2:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitudes towards KTP and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 3:** There will be a negative association between levels of community concern and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 4:** There will be a positive association between participation (use level) and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 5:** There will be a significant association between the co-variates (i.e., age, gender, education, residence, and distance/proximity) and support for community-based ecotourism development.
- **Hypothesis 5a:** There will be a negative association between age and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 5b:** There will be a positive association between gender and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 5c:** There will be a positive association between level of education and support for CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 5d:** There will be a positive association between length of residence and CBE development.
- **Hypothesis 5e:** There will be a positive association between the distance/proximity of residents to KTP and support for CBE development.

See model in Figure 1-1 for hypotheses 1-5(a-e).

### Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park

- **Hypothesis 6:** There will be a positive association between perception of CBE and support for KTP as a Transfrontier park.
- **Hypothesis 7:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitudes towards KTP and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 8:** There will be a negative association between level of community concern and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

- **Hypothesis 9:** There will be a positive association between participation (use level) and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10:** There will be a significant association between the co-variates (i.e., age, gender, education, residence, and distance/proximity) and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10a:** There will be a negative association between age and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10b:** There will be a positive association between gender and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10c:** There will be a positive association between residents' level of education and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10d:** There will be a positive association between length of residence and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- **Hypothesis 10e:** There will be a positive association between the distance/proximity of residents from KTP and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

See model in Figure 1-2 for hypotheses 6-10(a-e).

### **Interview Questions (Public Sector)**

1. What do you think of Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park as a Transboundary area?
2. What are the major things you like about the KTP?
3. What are the major things you don't like about KTP?
4. What are your opinions about the current management of KTP?
5. What is the role of your organization in CBNRM programs?
6. What is your knowledge about Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE)?
7. What is the role of your organization in CBE development?
8. What CBE initiatives or projects are in practice in your area?
9. What are the accrued benefits for residents from CBNRM and CBOs initiatives in your area?
10. What benefits does your community accrue from the KTP?
11. What is the potential for CBE development in your area?

12. CBNRM is the right approach for wildlife conservation  Yes  No  Not sure

13. Give reasons \_\_\_\_\_

### **Definition of Terms**

COMMUNITY BASED ECOTOURISM - small scale tourism enterprises that are community owned and managed are considered to minimize negative impacts, maximize economic benefits for local people and their natural and cultural environment, and provide positive experiences to visitors (Rozemeijer, 2000, p. 5).

COMMUNITY - a social group with a common territorial base and a sense of shared interests and belongings (Robertson, (1989, p. 361).

CONSERVATION - management of human use of the biosphere, so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations, while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations (Beder, 1993, p. 23).

ECOTOURISM - travel to fragile, pristine, and usually protected areas that strive to be low impact and [usually] small scale. It helps educate the traveler; provides funds for conservation; directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities, and fosters respect for different cultures and for human rights (Honey, 1999, p. 25).

EMPOWERMENT - the capacity of individuals or groups to determine their own affairs; it is a process to help people to exert control over factors that affect their lives (Cole, 2006, p. 631).

HERITAGE - includes tangible assets, such as natural and cultural environments, encompassing landscapes, historic places, sites, and built environments, as well as intangible assets, such as collections, past and continuing cultural practices, knowledge, and living experiences (ICOMOS, 1999 cited inMcKercher & Du Cros, 2002, p.7)

PARTICIPATION - ability of local people to participate in decisions which affect them and which depend upon access to power, resources and knowledge (Wall, 1996, p. 134).

PERCEPTION - Way an individual analyzes and responds to an idea (understanding, awareness & knowledge) (Ite, 1996).

PROTECTED AREA - an area of land or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and of natural and associated cultural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means (International Union for the Conservation of nature and natural resources (IUCN, 2001, p.10)

STAKEHOLDER - any person, group or organization that is affected by the causes or consequences of an issue; or groups or individuals who affect, or are affected by, the achievement of an organization's mission (Freeman, 1984, p. 52).

SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT - development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability for future generations to meet their own needs (WCED, 1987, p.43).

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM - tourism whose development and operation include participation of the local population, protection of the total environment, fair economic return for the industry and its host community, as well as a mutual respect for and gratification of all involved parties (Jafari, 1996, p. 959).

TRANSFRONTIER PARKS - wildlife conservation area with common international boundaries managed as a single unit by a joint authority comprising the representatives of the participating countries (IUCN, 2001, p.10).

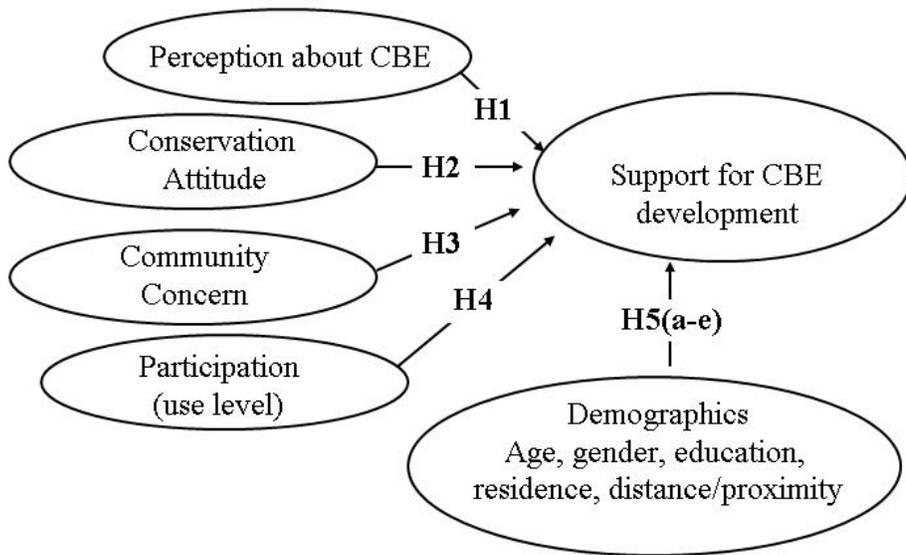


Figure 1-1. Support for community-based ecotourism development (CBE)

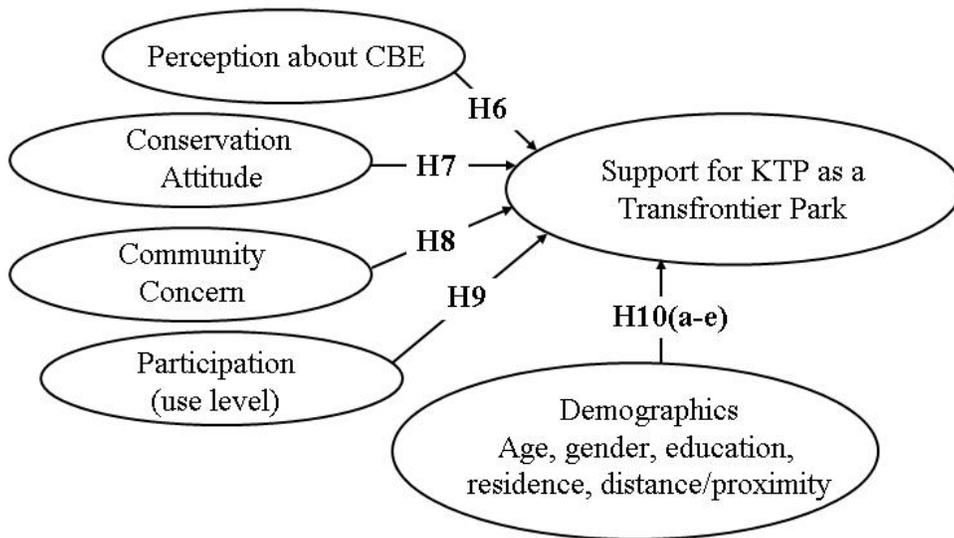


Figure 1-2. Support for Kgalagadi Transfrontier as a Transfrontier Park (KTP)

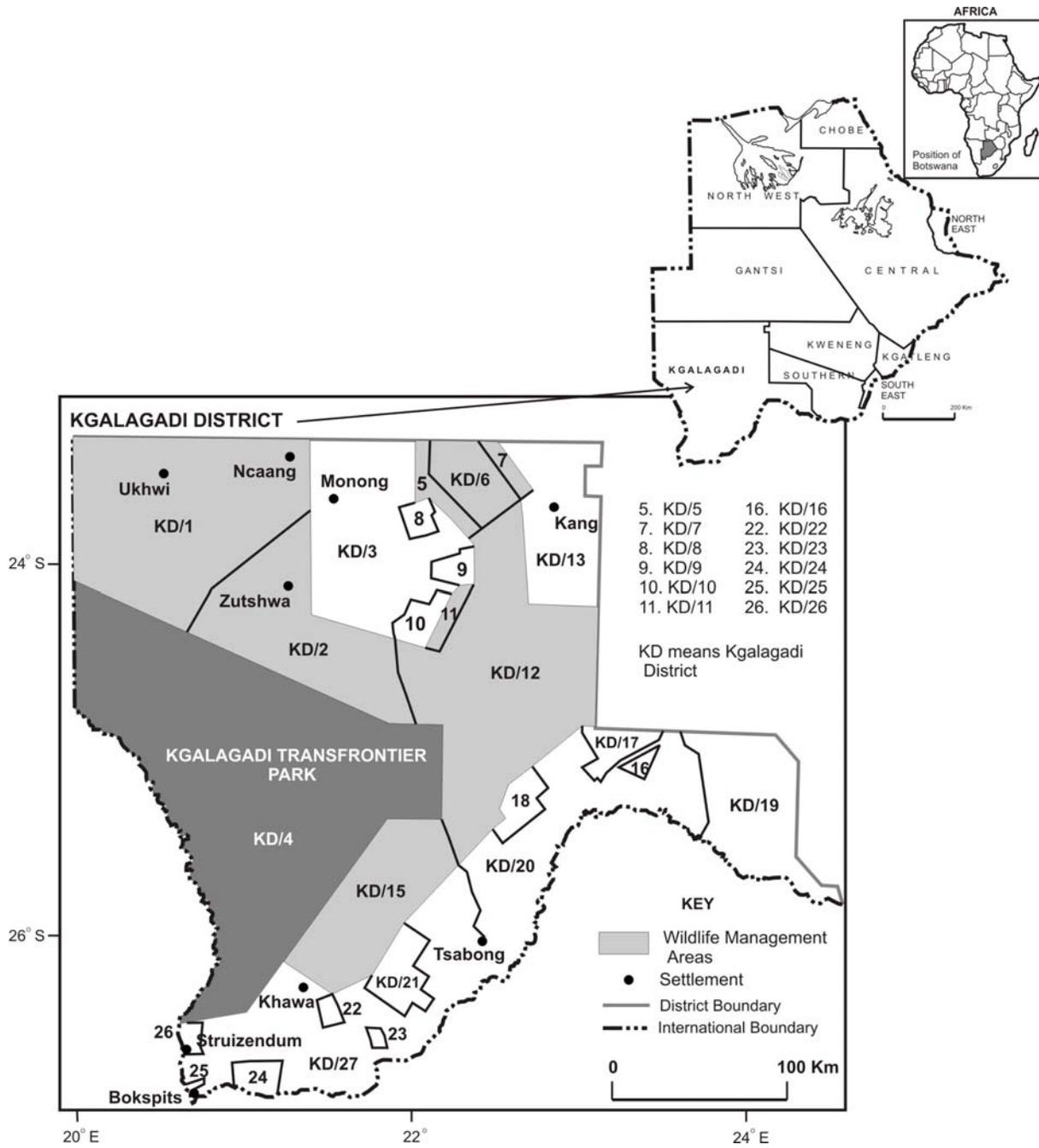


Figure 1-3. Map of Botswana and the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (GOB, 2002)

## CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the review of literature to provide theoretical and empirical background that guides this study. Stakeholder theory is used as a guide to assess and appreciate previous research. The literature review is segmented in three major categories: 1) Tourism in Botswana; 2) Ecotourism; and 3) Protected area management.

### Tourism in Botswana

- Visitors to Protected Areas in Botswana
- Tourism related policies and strategies
- Community-based natural resources management

### Ecotourism

- Community-based ecotourism
- CBE-success stories
- Stakeholder participation
- Stakeholder empowerment

### Protected area management

- Resident attitudes
- Protected Areas in Botswana
- Trans-boundary/Transfrontier Protected Area

### **Tourism in Botswana**

In Botswana, tourism is the second largest economic sector (after mining) and is recognized as a major stimulus to the economy (BTDP, 2000; GOB, 2001). The industry has been growing steadily over the years as evidenced by the number of visitors, which grew from 106,800 to 203,172 between 1993 and 1998 (Central Statistics Office CSO, 1998). An increase in visitor numbers was observed in 2005, when over 1.6 million arrivals were recorded (DOT, 2006; WTTC, 2007). The number of foreign investors has also increased from 331 in 2000 to approximately 550 in 2004 (Botswana Review, 2005). However, tourism is still at an early stage

of development, and is largely wildlife and wilderness-based (Barnes, 1995; Campbell & von Richter, 1976; Child, 1970; GOB, 2001; WTTC, 2007). About 90% of tourists who come to Botswana visit National Parks and Game Reserves (Botswana Review, 2005; Magole & Gojamang, 2005). Also, about 90 % of Botswana tourists listed wildlife-related tourism activity, especially to Chobe and Moremi Game reserves as the greatest attraction (Magole & Gojamang, 2005).

Wildlife-based tourism (consumptive and non-consumptive<sup>1</sup>) plays a significant economic role and contributes 70% of all PA revenues to the total national economy (Gujadhur, 2001; Selby, 1991; WTTC, 2007). Primarily, commercial utilization of wildlife resources has been practiced via non-consumptive means mainly in protected areas, including Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) (Appendix A). In 2000, wildlife/safari hunting activities generated about US\$12.5 million (Arntzen, 2003). Wildlife-based tourism is also considered as the most appealing form of land use (Appendix B) in the country (Barnes, 2001a; Child, 1970; GOB, 2002; 2007; Selby, 1991), as the major activity of safari hunting occurs in remote parts of the country, which creates jobs for rural communities. Trophy animal hunting (e.g., elephant, buffalo) accrue high revenue for safari hunters and provide income for the rural resident communities (Gujadhur, 2001; Thusanyo Lefatsheng Trust (TLT), 2005; Thakadu, Mangadi, Bernard et al., 2006).

Botswana has an abundance of natural, wildlife and cultural resources. The country has a diverse array of tourism segments which include rural tourism, village tourism, urban tourism, cultural-heritage tourism, desert tourism, wildlife and wilderness-based tourism and ecotourism.

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<sup>1</sup> Refers to - use of wild animals for recreational, educational, research, cultural or aesthetic purposes that does not entail the permanent removal of individual game through hunting, cropping, culling, capture or other lethal or non-lethal methods ore removal (GOB, 2002, p.3).

Although tourism has been one of Botswana's largest generators of income and employment, especially in rural areas (Arntzen et al., 2003; Botswana Review, 2005; GOB, 2001; WTTC, 2007), its overall potential for further growth has yet to be maximized. Also, impacts of tourism have been uneven, because benefits accruing from tourism advancement in the country have been unequally distributed across regions or districts (skewed to the Okavango region).

### **Visitors to Protected Areas in Botswana**

In Botswana, ecotourism and/CBE activities occur mainly in National Parks, WMAs, Game and Forest Reserves. The protected areas (PAs) are located in remote areas, far away from urban centers and major villages. Although the history of tourism in Botswana is short, it reveals that safari-based tourism has been growing at a high rate since the 1970s (Child, 1970; Pfothenhauer, 1991; Richter, 1969). According to Child (1970),

The economic exploitation of wildlife in Botswana began in earnest during the early 1960s. Since then it has become an important earner of revenue and has contributed more and more significantly to the national economy; but it is a sensitive renewable resource needing careful management . . . if this value is to be enhanced or even maintained. (p. 22)

Park-based wildlife activities form a large part of community-based tourism (Barnes, 1995; Magole & Gojamang, 2005; WTTC, 2007). This is reflected by visitor numbers, which increased from 76,742 in 1995 to 125,088 in 1997, an increase of 63 percent (BTDP, 2000; CSO, 2001). In 2000, 90% of visitors who came to Botswana listed wildlife-related tourism as their primary purpose of visit (Magole & Gojamang, 2005) Visitor arrivals in northern and southern Parks increased from 139,303 in 2003 to 237,258 in 2005 (DOT, 2005) (see Table 2-1). A significant growth of visitors to Parks was recorded in 2003-2005, and tourism revenues grew by 14% compared to 12.4% in 2004 (DOT, 2005). Park fees generated from Park-based tourism increased from 18.5 million Pula<sup>2</sup> in 2003 to 23.6 in 2005 (DOT, 2005).

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<sup>2</sup> Botswana Pula (USD 1.00 ~ 6.00 BWP)

Of the total visitor arrivals, a large number visited the northern Parks and Reserves, mainly the Okavango Delta, Chobe National Park and Moremi Game Reserve (DOT, 2000; 2005; Magole & Gojamang, 2005). In the period between 2003 and 2005, a sizeable number of visitors also visited the southern Parks. A significant increase in tourist numbers was realized, as there was an increase from 7,885 in 2003 to 10,427 in 2004 (DOT, 2005). However, the numbers declined in 2005, but there was an increase in total tourism revenues. Overall, the northern protected areas attract (228, 000) the highest proportions of all visitors to Botswana and generate more revenue. For example in 2005, 228,000 tourists visited the northern Parks alone and spent 22 million Pula. Of all the parks, Chobe National Park received the highest number of visitors and generated the highest revenue between 2003 and 2005 (DOT, 2005).

There are limited tourism statistics for the Kgalagadi district and most parts of the southwestern Parks. Recently, parks and reserves in the Kalahari region have become known to both inbound and outbound tourists (BTDP, 2003; Roodt, 2008). Visitor numbers to the Kgalagadi region have shown signs of growth in the last decade (S. Keitumetse, personal communication, December 2, 2008). The Central Kgalagadi Game Reserve (CKGR), the largest game reserve in Botswana has experienced an increase in tourists numbers from 230 in 1991 to 3,130 in 1997, and Gemsbok National Park (now Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park) had an increase from 930 in 1995 to 1,125 in 1997 (BTDP, 1998; GOB, 2001). Since 1995, the Park has attracted more visitors subsequent to status change from a national (Gemsbok National Park) to a Transboundary Park (Botswana Review, 2005; Chengeta et al., 2003; DWNP, 1999; Peace Parks Foundation, 2009).

According to the Department of Tourism (DOT), 5,911 tourists who visited KTP in 2006 generated about P531, 007 (BWP). Overall, a total of 11, 912 visitors were recorded for the

southern Parks alone in 2006 (DOT, 2007). The number is significant for the region, yet too low compared to the northern parks (DWNP, 1999; Magole & Gojamang, 2005). The slow growth of tourists to the Kgalagadi region could be due in part to poor marketing and the region's previous accessibility challenges (CIRS, 2002; Johnson, 1996). Poor marketing efforts, lack of resources for tourist development, and increased competition by the tourism boom of the Okavango region are major threats to the district (Johnson, 1996; Chanda et al., 200; Moswete et al., 2009).

However, the opening hours extension at the Mamuno/Buitepos border from 8 to 18 per day (the longest in Botswana) has also contributed to increase the visitor arrivals (Chanda et al., 2005).

High tourist traffic has been noted during the months of January, April, July, and December for both international and domestic visitors (Chanda et al., 2005). Of all the 11,665 (11,912) visitors in 2006, 1,700 were citizens. The highest number of visitors were from South Africa at 5,907 (51%) and 1,363 (12%) were from Europe. Collectively, visitors spent 27,829 camp nights and 6,996 days in the area in 2006. Revenue collected from gate/entry points and wilderness camping was over 3.2 million Pula (DWNP, 2007).

### **Tourism Related Policies and Strategies**

There are several conservation and environmental policies and legislation that promote or embrace community-based ecotourism development in Botswana. Three key policies are: the Tourism Policy of 1990, Wildlife Conservation Policy of 1986, and the National Ecotourism Strategy of 2003. The 1990 Tourism Policy aims to diversify the economy by decentralizing the control and management of wildlife resources to districts and local communities (GOB, 1990). The main goal is to promote rural development, in which local communities can utilize wildlife and other natural resources for their own benefits. The general objective of the policy is to “obtain, on a sustainable basis, the greatest net social and economic benefits for Botswana (citizens) from their tourism resources, scenic beauty, wildlife and unique ecological, geological

and cultural characteristics" (GOB, 1990, p.5). The policy emphasizes that tourism activities should be conducted on an ecologically sustainable basis, and that proceeds should accrue to benefit the citizens. The policy is designed to allow local communities living on the boundaries of protected areas to obtain direct and indirect benefits from tourism, so that they can appreciate the importance of tourism resources, especially wildlife (BTDP, 1999).

The 1986 Wildlife Conservation Policy "encourages the development of commercial wildlife industry that is viable on long term . . . and will serve to create economic opportunities, jobs, and incomes for the rural population in particular, and the national economy in general" (GOB, 1986, p. 1). This clearly states that wildlife activities should generate economic benefits in rural areas, as well as facilitate job creation and allow for active participation of citizens in wildlife management and utilization (GOP, 1986).

The National Ecotourism Strategy of 2003 was formulated for implementation concurrently with the National Tourism Master Plan (2000). Some of the key objectives of the strategy are: 1) to enhance understanding of the concept of ecotourism among all stakeholder groups, and to raise awareness of the costs, benefits, opportunities and implications of development that targets tourists, visitors and local citizens; (2) to increase the number of citizens meaningfully involved in and benefiting from the tourism industry; 3) to generate employment opportunities, mainly in rural areas, and raise incomes in order to alleviate poverty and reduce rural-urban migration and 4) to promote socio-economic well-being in the communities adjacent to protected areas (GOB, 2003, p. 2).

There are also several key policies formulated by the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism and implemented by the Departments of Tourism and Wildlife and National Parks (GOB, 2001) to advocate involvement of rural communities in the sustainable utilization of

natural resources and tourism development. These include the Community-Based Strategy for Rural Development (CBSRD) of 1997 and the Community-Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) Policy of 2007. The overall objective of the CBSRD is to develop community-based approaches to rural development that address economic stagnation and creation of employment and economic opportunities (CBSRD, 1997). The CBNRM was created to promote and diversify economic development in the rural areas through the sustainable use of natural resources. In addition, to increase the proportion of benefits from wildlife utilization and tourism industries that will reach local citizens and communities, especially employment, training, skill enhancement, and investment opportunities (GOB, 1997).

### **Community-Based Natural Resources Management**

Community-Based Natural Resources Management (CBNRM) is an approach or framework that has been formulated to “encourage better resource management outcomes with full participation of local communities and resource users in decision making activities, and the incorporation of local institutions, customary practices, and knowledge systems in management, regulatory, and enforcement processes” (Borri-Feyerband 1996 cited in Armitage, 2005, p.703).

CBNRM as a management and developmental framework featured in the Southern African literature in the 1980s. The framework was established on the premise that rural communities must have the power to make decisions regarding natural resource utilization (Child, Ward & Tavengwa, 1997; GOB, 2005; Gujadhur, 2000; Tsing, Brosius & Zerner, 1999). CBNRM’s main philosophy was built on the need for ‘participation’ of local communities and their ‘empowerment’ through the development process with respect to natural resource use (Boggs, 2004; Rozemeijer & Van der Jagt, 2000; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007). Cornelissen (2005) asserts that, “CBNRM holds that effective nature conservation can only take place if communities living adjacent to protected areas are included in management objectives and

programs and draw some benefit from protection schemes.” (P. 23). The CBNRM framework is known to have its origins with the Zimbabwean Communal Areas Management Program for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE). It is noteworthy that the CAMPFIRE was created to allow rural communities to have ‘rights to manage’, ‘rights to benefits and’ ‘rights of disposal of natural resource utilization’ in Zimbabwe (Child et al., 1997; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007; Maveneke, 2003).

In Southern Africa, the CBNRM program was adopted to address the issue of environmental sustainability, resource management and justice (Child, 2004; Cornelissen, 2005). The region has comparable community conservation programs with relatively similar conservation and resource management principles (Hulme & Murphree, 2001). Yet, each individual country’s CBNRM program differs in formulation and implementation of projects. Botswana’s CBNRM program was premised on the idea that local populations have a greater interest in sustainable utilization of natural resources in their area (Boggs, 2004; GOB, 1990; Twyman, 2000). In Botswana, CBNRM was:

founded on the premise that all members of the community share an interest in improving their livelihoods whilst at the same time managing and using natural resources in a sustainable way. It is also founded on the principle that all natural resources have an intrinsic value that can be realized for the benefit of society. In this context natural resources can be taken to include cultural resources. People who live closest to natural resources generally absorb the greatest costs associated with their conservation and have the most impact on those resources. Given the proper public awareness and incentives they are most likely to successfully conserve and benefit from those natural resources within their environs. (GOB, 2005, p. 6)

The CBNRM program initiative was designed to alleviate poverty and advance conservation by strengthening rural economies and empowering communities to manage their resources for long term social, economic, and ecological benefits (GOB, 2005). Furthermore, there was a quest that local communities should benefit directly and equitably from natural resource management; be granted the rights to utilize resources; and determine the mode of use and distribution of benefits

(Adam & Hutton, 2007; Armitage, 2005; Arntzen et al., 2003; Boggs, 2004; GOB, 2005).

Armitage (2005) and Hulme & Murphree (2001) posit that CBNRM has been viewed as a mechanism to address environmental, social and economic goals which intended to strike a balance between exploitation and conservation of natural resources. Since its adoption in Botswana, CBNRM, through the formation and use of Community-Based Organization (CBO) has become an instrumental tool for rural communities. It provides a forum for rural communities to negotiate their interest, problems, goals, and aspirations in a democratic and participatory manner (Arntzen et al., 2003; Ashley & Jones, 2005; Mulale, 2005).

The Botswana CBNRM program is strongly connected to community-based tourism/ecotourism. Under the CBNRM program, rural or local communities are encouraged and required to form community-based organizations (CBOs), from which they can collectively collaborate to establish community owned tourism-related enterprises or projects (Ashley & Jones, 2005; Boggs, 2004; GOB, 2000). The CBOs (also called Trusts in Botswana) are:

entities formed by a community, groups of communities, or groups within communities that are involved in the management of natural resources, to represent the community's natural resources management related interests and implement any management decisions taken. It is comprised of all members of that community as defined above. (GOB, 2005, p. 3)

In Botswana, CBNRM CBOs activities are not permitted to operate inside National Parks, except in the buffer zone. The buffer zones are designated as Wildlife Management Areas (WMA<sup>3</sup>), and are further subdivided into smaller units referred to as Controlled Hunting Areas (CHAs) (Figure 1-3). The WMAs and CHAs are multiple resources use areas in which sustainable utilization of natural and cultural resources are emphasized. Sustainable use refers to appropriate consumption of resources in a way not to deplete them. As such, controlled tourism

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<sup>3</sup> WMAs - are areas reserved by the government for wildlife uses. In these areas major land uses permitted are consumptive or non consumptive wildlife utilization. These areas are situated on the buffer zones of protected areas they act as buffer for conflicting land uses and as migratory corridors for wildlife (GOB, 2000).

activities are permitted in WMAs, but agricultural practices with large pastoral and arable farming are not allowed (BTDP, 2000; GOB, 1975; 1986; GOB, 2007; Totolo & Toteng, 1998). The various land uses and wildlife activities permitted include photographic safaris (Appendix B), filmmaking, game ranching game viewing and controlled trophy hunting (GOB, 2001; 2002; Johnson, 1996; MLP, 1999). Thus, WMAs play a significant role in ensuring that preservation and protection of wildlife resources is maintained in Botswana (Athopheng & Totolo, 1998; GOB, 2000; Totolo & Toteng, 1998).

In Botswana and Namibia, CBNRM is regarded to have the potential to strengthen community rights, to manage and benefit from a wide range of natural and cultural resources (Arntzen et al., 2003). The success stories include the ability of rural communities to establish CBOs and initiate community-owned tourism enterprises. Community owned and operated projects contribute to infrastructural development and the provision of social services in the rural areas (Arntzen et al., 2003; Ashley & Elliot, 2003; Mbaiwa, 2003). However, some studies (Arntzen et al., 2003; Flyman, 2001; MLG, 2003; Moswete et al., 2009b) have highlighted a lack of meaningful participation and involvement of the local people in tourism which occur in their areas; more monetary benefits that accrue from private safari operators (Mbaiwa, 2003; Maveneke, 2003; Swatuk, 2005; Taylor, 2007), and lack of community capacity to manage tourism-related projects or businesses (Bond, 2001; Cocks & Grundy, 2006; Maveneke, 2003; Taylor, 2007). Generally, CBNRM projects in buffer zones have been successful in Botswana (Arntzen et al., 2003; Boggs, 2004; Buswani et al., 2008; Mbaiwa, 2008; Thakadu, 2006) and Namibia (Ashley, Mdoe & Reynolds, 2002).

### **Ecotourism**

Ecotourism has been defined in various ways (Australian Commonwealth Department of Tourism, 1994; Buckley, 1994; Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Fennel, 1999; Holden, 2003; Honey,

1999; Drumm & Moore, 2002; Page & Dowling, 2002; Sproule & Subandi, 1998). Honey 1999 defines ecotourism as “travel to fragile, pristine, and usually protected areas that strives to be low impact and [usually] small scale. It helps educate the traveler; provides funds for conservation; directly benefits the economic development and political empowerment of local communities, and fosters respect for different cultures and for human rights” (p. 25).

Most definitions of ecotourism share almost all of these elements (Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Drumm & Moore, 2002; Fennel, 2003; Honey, 1999; Holden, 2000; Weaver, 2005). Others emphasize that ecotourism relates to nature, particularly national parks, game and nature reserves (Akama, 1996; BTB, 2008; Cater, 1997; Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Honey, 2008; Khama, 1997; Weaver, 2005). Although Fennel (1999) excludes cultural elements from the definition of ecotourism, Cater (1994) posited that culture must be recognized as an important role in ecotourism, and that natural and cultural landscapes cannot be separated. Caldwell (1996) and Weaver (2003) further argue that most natural landscapes have some cultural influences based on their historical evolution. Culture and nature are intertwined in the concept of ecotourism and needs to be recognized respectively.

Ecotourism has also been described as a continuum and has been classified as soft to hard, shallow to deep, and low to high sustainability (Holden, 2000). In addition, ecotourism is regarded as a spectrum of products or resources (Lindberg, 2001) and is equated with nature tourism (Honey, 1999; Weaver, 2001). The difference seems to surface between the two concepts of nature tourism vs. ecotourism because of the claims that ecotourism is educational, culturally sensitive and sustainable (Fennell, 2003; Weaver, 2001). Also, motivations of people who choose to participate in ecotourism have been found to differ from nature tourism visitors (Weaver, 2005). In nature-based tourism, the main motivation is to enjoy nature and not

necessarily about conservation and learning. The motivation for ecotourism is to learn and establish contact with the host communities for a cultural experience (Caldwell, 1996; Orams, 1995; Page & Dowling, 2002). The key principles of suitability, sustainability, cultural sensitivity, education and responsibility have led to ecotourism's recognition as a prominent tool for resolving socio-economic concerns of destination communities (Cock & Fueller, 2000; Hiwasaki, 2006; Honey, 1999; Kiss, 2004; Gosling, 1999; Gray, 2002; Weaver, 2001).

Ecotourism is considered to be a better management tool, which alleviates the negative effects of mass tourism (Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Gosling, 1999; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Honey, 1999). Mass tourism is "characterized by large numbers of people seeking replication of their own culture in institutionalized setting, with little cultural or environmental interaction in authentic settings" (Kotze, 2002, p. 54). From this exposition, these two forms of tourism are dissimilar, as ecotourism tends to take place in unfamiliar surroundings, involves travelers who seek challenging encounters with the cultural and natural environments of destinations (Fennell, 2003; Weaver, 2005). Unlike ecotourism, mass tourism involves travelers who search for familiar, comfortable and non-challenging adventures. In mass tourism, satisfaction of economic goals is essential in the short term, but it is likely to be harmful to the social, economic and environmental fabric of most countries in the long term (Holden, 2000; Honey, 1999). Orams, (2001) also asserts that ecotourism is not the answer to the problems caused by nature-based tourism, but the concept has value in itself. Several studies, past and present, portray ecotourism as the best segment of the tourism industry when compared to traditional mass tourism (Cock & Pfueller, 2000; Hall, 2000; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003).

Ecotourism has the potential to protect and conserve natural and cultural environments because it often involves small scale developments; small group activities and has generally low

impact on the environment (Brohman, 1996; Scheyvens, 1999; Telfer, 2002). As such, it can be equated with environmental sustainability (Honey, 1999; Tsaur et al., 2006; Vincent & Thompson, 2002). Yet, it is important to note that if the negative effects of ecotourism are not properly managed, the natural and cultural resources on which the industry depends can be adversely affected (Cock & Pfueller, 2000). For example, uncontrolled tourism has led to increased pressure on natural resources such as timber for construction of tourists lodging facilities in many developing countries. In Sagarmatha (Everest) National Park in Nepal over utilization of natural resources has been evident due to increased tourism (Sofield, 2000). It is worthy of note that not all so-called ecotourism leaves the environment unharmed for example, uncontrolled ecotourism can be destructive because it can enable ecotourists to penetrate further afield, exploring natural areas which could not otherwise have been accessed, thus, exposing them to recreation pressure and damage (Cock & Pfueller 2000; Fennell, 1999; Weaver, 2005).

Ecotourism has also become a tool for economic development and environmental protection in many developing nations (Brennan & Allen, 2001; Stronza, 2007). If it is to be beneficial and sustainable, local communities should be allowed to reap a substantial amount of the socio-economic benefits generated by the industry. In Zanzibar, ecotourism has been recognized as one of the best alternatives to minimize problems associated with other types of tourism (Khatib, 2000). Problems incurred by uncontrolled tourism in Zanzibar included environmental degradation, acculturation and economic leakage (money generated as entry fees at Parks and reserves were not reinvested into the community). Also, the lack of involvement of the residents in villages that surround the Jozani Forest Reserve had led to misunderstanding between the government and people over natural resource use (Khatib, 2000). Similarly,

ecotourism has been identified as an alternative option of economic growth in Botswana (Botswana Review, 2005; GOB, 2000; 2005; WTTC, 2007).

### **Community-Based Ecotourism**

CBE has witnessed increased growth as many people are interested in cultural traditions and natural environments different from their own (Eagles & McCool, 2000; Law, 1993; Robinson, 2001; Rogerson & Viser, 2002; Shackley, 1998; Zeppel, 1991). The number of people participating in the outdoors has been growing particularly in ecotourism, including soft and hard adventure activities (Eagles et al., 2002; Page & Dowling, 2002). But, the concept of CBE is studied in some parts of the globe, including countries in Africa. It is noted that ample work has been conducted in Latin America (Avial Foucat, 2004; Haase, 2004; Stem et al., 2003; Timothy & White, 1999) and the Asia-Pacific regions (Cock & Pfueler, 2000).

One of the key principles of CBE is involvement of resident communities living adjacent to protected areas and to enhance their income (BTB, 2008; Chanda, Totolo, GOB, 2003; Moleele et al., 2002; Timothy, 1999). CBE may also help rural residents to refrain from agricultural dependence as they become more aware of alternative economic activities, such as community-owned game farming or sustainable collection of forest resources that can complement and supplement the agricultural sector (Ashley, 2000; Barnes, 2001b). Also, Lindberg (2001) discovered that local communities who participate in CBE and receive tangible benefits tend to become cautious in their use of natural resources, therefore more likely to support tourism and conservation. An example of community-based ecotourism that has changed lives is noted below:

In the Philippines ... the fishermen used to use explosives to catch fish, an act which savaged the beautiful coral reefs. Now, international aid agencies have taught them that they can gain more money giving boat trips to visitors who wish to see the coral. So now they savage the bank accounts of the tourists rather than coral.  
([www.news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/talking\\_point/](http://www.news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/talking_point/)).

In Bigodi, Uganda Lepp (2004) uncovered that tourism provided basic needs such as improved housing, education, jobs as well as cohesiveness and pride amongst the residents. Yet, problems and challenges that hampered further tourism development included external measures which were beyond the local communities' control. Also, ecotourism activities that occur in and around protected areas generated substantial revenue to the national economy and to local communities (Lepp, 2004; Mugisha, 2002). In Botswana, nearly 70% of all jobs in the northern national parks and game reserves are attributable to tourism and/or community-based tourism (BTDP, 2000; Botswana Review, 2005). In Namibia, local residents established conservancies which offered them conditional user rights over wildlife (Ashley, 2000). Local communities became involved in tourism development by forming small scale tourism-related enterprises (e.g. campsite, craft-shop). They were also involved in CBE businesses by engaging in a joint venture<sup>4</sup> agreement with tourism investors who in turn helped them to operate the business. According to Ashley (2000), CBE is a reflection of a success story about conservation and rural tourism in Namibia, and it is recognized by the government.

Conversely, there are also failures in CBE due to varying resource availability as well as management plans and policies (Caldicott & Fuller, 2005; Fuller, Buultjens & Cummings, 2005; Gray, 2002). However, well managed CBE can restore degraded rangelands, revive cultures, protect and preserve endangered species of fauna and flora, reduce resource conflicts, and improve the living standards of rural communities (Ashley, 2000; Avila Foucat, 2002; Flyman, 2001; Lindberg, 2001; Mbaiwa, 2008; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Rozemeijer, 2001). In the Ololosokwan community of northern Tanzania, local communities of Lake Natron (Pinyinyi &

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<sup>4</sup> A joint venture requires a community and a private company to work together, sharing the risks and responsibility of a joint enterprise. It generally offers a community more decision-making power and training. . . . (Jagt & Rozemeijer, 2002, p. 39).

Engare Sero) have not benefited from ecotourism activities due to a lack of information about the industry and empowerment at the village level. Tourism only benefited the non-local tour operators while the residents were found to have had limited knowledge to facilitate ecotourism ventures (Campbell, 1999; Nelson, 2004). However, CBE has contributed toward diversification of northern Tanzania's tourism industry through infrastructural developments and community incomes.

CBE is described and practiced as sustainable tourism (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Butler, 1998; Fennell, 2003; Hall, 2000; Honey, 1999; Khan, 1997; Luck & Kirstges, 2003; Murphy, 1985; Faulker, Moscardo & Laws, 2001; Vincent & Thompson, 2002; Weaver, 2001), and is premised on the following principles:

- Greater local community participation and involvement.
- Provide a framework for raising the living standards of local people through the economic benefits of tourism.
- More benefits accrue to host communities.
- Comprehensive planning.
- More consultative and democratic planning.
- Small scale and less negative impacts.
- Tourism development which maintains ecological integrity of the landscapes.
- Allow only tourism types that have low environmental impacts.
- Commitment to environmental protection and conservation of natural resources.
- Building cultural awareness and respect as well as ensuring that activities are socio-culturally appropriate
- Raise awareness to countries' political and, social and cultural climate.
- Empowers the local community as it promotes the use of indigenous knowledge, material and labour, and provides the opportunity for the local population to generate economic benefits from tourism.

It is noteworthy that the CBE has much in common with community-based tourism (CBT), which is defined as “more sustainable form of development than conventional mass tourism because it allows host communities to break away from the hegemonic grasp of tour operators and the oligopoly of wealthy elites at the national level” (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002, p.150). CBT is typified by “tourism initiatives that are owned by one or more communities, or run as joint venture partnerships with the private sector with equitable community participation, as a means of using natural resources in a sustainable manner to improve their standard of living in an economic and viable way” (GOB, 2005, p. 5). Both initiatives involve enterprises that are wholly owned by local communities and are inherently less dependent on foreign suppliers. The small-scale community initiatives are resident owned, managed and operated, and the benefits accrue to the local community (Hiwasaki, 2006; Khan, 1997; Luck & Kirstges, 2003; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Timothy, 1999). The key difference is that CBE and/or ecotourism is offered strictly in the natural environment, and it integrates the dimensions of cultural landscapes (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002; Lawton & Weaver, 2001) as part of the product, whereas CBT can also be urban-based (Blackstock, 2005).

### **Success Stories of CBE**

#### **Community-Based Project in the Taï National Park, Côte D’Ivoire (Africa)**

Taï National Park is UNESCO’s biosphere reserve and a World Heritage site in Côte D’Ivoire, Africa. This park is popular among tourists due to its unique species of chimpanzees. Communities have initiated and established communally-owned and operated CBE enterprises. Facilities that are owned and operated by residents’ include a 20-bed capacity reception center, a restaurant and bar for tourists have been built at the Taï National Park. Livelihood improvements included creation of jobs, income generation and support for conservation practices by the local communities adjacent to the Park (Bako, cited in Jordan, 2002, p. 46).

### **Village Tourism Program, Senegal (Africa)**

Village tourism program was established in the 1970s in Senegal in order to diversify tourism, which was mainly built on beach resorts and urban hotels. The program was earmarked for local people. Collectively, through external help they built tourist accommodations (built camps) with traditional and local materials. The project was funded by Canadian and French bilateral aid Agencies (Buckley, 2003). Four camps were established for tourists. Visitors enjoy the living local culture and traditions. All project management was conducted by the community and revenues generated through tourism helped towards building village owned health center, youth center, school, craft business outlets. New local jobs were created which reduced rural-urban migrations by youths. This village tourism model has grown and been replicated in other regions (Buckley, 2003; WTO, 1999 cited in Jordan, 2002, p. 40).

### **Babe National Park, Vietnam (Asia)**

In Vietnam, community-based conservation and ecotourism projects have been reported to have brought positive changes to the lives of local people, specifically, among those who reside in and around protected areas. The Babe National Park is a good example, as local residents have developed CBE projects and programs that have generated income and improved employment opportunities. Residents have built homestays, walking trails and restaurants for tourists, and revenue generated from these facilities and services accrue for the community. Improved community conservation of park resources, especially wildlife and forest resources have been reported (Rihawi, cited in Jordan, 2002, p. 43).

### **Sankuyo Community Development Trust, Ngamiland, Botswana (Africa)**

When CBNRM programs were introduced in Botswana in the 1980s, many communities joined hands and created community-based organizations (CBO) popularly known as 'Trust.' Many CBOs were involved in wildlife-related tourism (Mulale, 2005), while a few ventured in

culture-based activities. Sankuyo community is a good model for community-based ecotourism via CBNRM CBOs in Botswana. It is a farming community (arable and small stock agriculture) which also engages in the collection of veldt resources for subsistence. Local residents established a CBO referred to as Sankuyo Tshwaragano Management Trust in 1995. Since then, they have operated a joint venture partnership in safari hunting with a private operator in two Controlled Hunting Areas (NG33 and NG34) for commercial hunting and photographic activities. The joint venture partnership benefits includes: increased employment opportunities, income, game meat, sanitary facilities, social capital, transportation, reduced rural-urban migration and improved Sankuyo village image, and above all reduced illegal hunting of wild animals (Arntzen et al., 2003; Mbaiwa, 2008; Thakadu et al., 2006).

### **Stakeholder Participation**

Community-based ecotourism development encourages stakeholder participation, especially among local residents, tourists and resource administration (Ross & Wall, 1999; Vincent & Thompson, 2002). Participation is a process through which all stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affects them (Gray, 2002). Stakeholder participation also refers to local people's involvement as resource managers and not resource users. Local participation has recently been identified and promoted as an essential strategy used to resolve issues of development, planning and management of communal resources (Child, 2009; Gray, 2002; Fraser, Dougill, Mabee et al., 2006; Mulale, 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b; Spenceley, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Tosun & Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 2006). Community participation is an essential component of sustainable ecotourism/CBE, and has received much attention in the natural resource management and tourism literature (Stem et al., 2003). Wall (1996) noted that, "the ability of local people to participate in decisions which affect them depends upon access to power, resources and

knowledge.”(p.134). CBNRM literature demonstrates that stakeholders especially; residents’ participation in natural resource management, including community-based tourism (CBT) can guide sustainable natural resource utilization (Fraser et al., 2006; Mulale, 2005; Rozemeijer, 2000; 2009; Thakadu et al., 2006; Twyman, 2000).

Local community participation has been used extensively in developing countries in sectors such as agriculture, health and infrastructure (Dei, 2000; Tosun, 2006). From a geographical perspective, participatory processes have focused mainly on the use of indigenous or local knowledge to identify and manage natural resources (Phuthego & Chanda, 2004; Velimpini & Perkins, 2008). Basically, unless the communities are given an opportunity to participate in the development of interventions designed to improve their livelihoods, they will continue to lack the benefits (Child, 2009; Faulker et al., 2001; Himoonde, 2007; Manwa, 2003; Moswete et al., 2009a; Murphy, 1985; Mutandwa & Gadzirai, 2007; Pretty, 1995; Rozemeijer, 2009; Spenceley, 2008; Swarbrooke, 1999; Shackley, 1998; Scheyvens, 1999; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2006). Also, resources will continue to decline unless local people are actively involved and participate meaningfully in conservation (Fraser et al., 2006; Mutandwa & Gadzirai, 2007).

Meaningful participation in planning and management of activities that involve local communities are essential (Government of South Australia (GOSA), 1991; Robinson, 2001; McGurk, Sinclair & Diduck, 2006). According to McGurk et al. (2006), “meaningful public participation includes equitable representation from diverse actors, deliberative involvement techniques permitting long term dialogue, involvement ... collaborative problem solving...” (p. 810). Ensuring community participation in the development of local plans and strategies will help them to keep informed with existing issues in the region (Child, 2009; GOSA, 1991; Pretty, 1995; Tosun & Timothy, 2003; Tosun, 2006). Participation is important for identifying impacts,

especially for people who reside in an area proposed for tourism development. However, it is important that all groups affected by or that will affect an initiative are identified and consulted for participation purposes. This is because stakeholder groups are diverse and therefore should be drawn from different sectors of a region, province or village (Byrd, 2003).

Participation is also a process that brings diverse stakeholders together (Byrd, 2003; Pretty, 1995; Thompson, Elmendorf, McDonough & Burban, 2005). Ecotourism stakeholders consist of groups such as state agencies, businesses, national and local environmental groups, local leaders, church groups, local authorities, and residents (Wood, 2002, p. 33-38). From an ecotourism perspective, stakeholders generally comprise of the following:

- Travel agents
- Outbound tour operators
- Inbound tour operators
- Communities
- Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs)
- Government
- Ecolodge owners/managers
- Protected area managers

The ecotourism stakeholders play a role in development, implementation and management of programs within communities. Local authorities regulate land use activities and infrastructure (Wood, 2002). Non-Government Organizations (NGOs) are also involved by providing assistance in the formation of projects, organization, coordination and facilitation of stakeholder meetings, community development, PA management and conservation initiatives. Local communities have a greater stake in ecotourism development in their area; as such their participation is essential (Wood, 2002).

Participation and involvement of different stakeholders in CBE is critical because they have different views and aspirations with respect to development in their regions (Garrod, 2003; Timothy, 1999). Local participation in all stages of planning and execution of projects that occur

in their area is encouraged in all CBE initiatives (Avila Foucat, 2002; Garrod, 2003; Pretty, 1995; Timothy, 1998; Tosun, 2006). Planning has become an important component of CBE as the focus is involvement of all stakeholders (Ashley, 2000; Berry & Ladkin, 1997; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008). The international, national, regional and local planning of tourism is needed if CBE is to benefit all stakeholders (Eagles & McCool, 2000; Gunn, 1994; Inskip, 1991; Page & Dowling, 2002). Yet, research has shown that local people are often under-represented as developers, planners and decision makers, because of the contention that they lack knowledge of tourism and the associated skills (Blackstock, 2005). Over the years, planning approaches have changed to emphasize a community approach which encourages and supports bottom-up participatory planning (Blackstock, 2005; Child, 2009; Jordan, 2002; Fraser et al., 2006; Tsaor, Lin & Lin, 2006).

Ecotourism-related enterprises that have failed have had problems with the lack of local communities' involvement in management and planning of activities (Himoonde, 2007; Millar, 2006; Tosun, 2006; Tosun & Timothy, 2003). The reasons for failure have emanated due to the top-down system in which the local people were passive receivers or actors (Aas et al., 2005; Fraser et al., 2006; Millar, 2006; Mulale, 2005; Shackley, 1998). Lack of early consultation and involvement in the first stage of a project, and lack of indigenous people's involvement in planning and management have led to disastrous outcomes that have benefited outsiders and left the host communities poorer (Bass, Dalal-Clayton & Pretty, 1995; Fitton, 1996; Himoonde, 2007; Khan, 1997).

Participation in decision making is a situation in which local people determine their own goals for development and have a meaningful voice in the organization and administration of activities in their own regions (Bass et al., 1995; Child, 2009; Timothy, 2002). Also,

participation in planning and decision making can lead to better attitudes towards ecotourism and conservation among communities (Honey, 1999; Tosun, 2006). Local participation in community project initiatives increases an individual's sense of commitment and community (Child, 2009; Timothy, 2002). In addition, local participation leads to benefits associated with leisure and community building through the development of community as well as learning and developing new skills and an ability to influence change (Timothy, 2002). But, "if ecotourism is to succeed as a viable form of sustainable development, the private sector, governments and NGOs all must cooperate to include local communities in the development process" (Wood, 2002, p.38).

There are different levels of community involvement such as, self mobilization which refers to a situation in which the local communities who may have accumulated capital from tourism strengthen and extend their activities (France, 1998; Van der Jagt, Gujadhur & Bussel, 2000). Self mobilized local communities are characterized by independent initiatives where local communities are empowered. France (1998) calls this "interactive participation" which means that residents contribute to planning of ecotourism projects, while Tosun & Timothy (2003) contend that the resident communities often know their home environment better, and are likely to know 'what will work in local conditions.' Local community participation makes people feel that they are part of the whole development that occurs in their area.

Problems emerge when local communities (as stakeholders) are left out in the decision making process that involves tourism development (Aas et. al., 2005; Akama & Sterry, 2002; Garrod, 2003; Scheyvens, 1999). Consequently, the relationship between tourism and management of cultural and natural resources presents challenges. Previous studies have recommended the importance of balancing conservation and development, while ensuring that

the needs and aspirations of the local communities and visitors are met (Akama & Sterry, 2002). If tourism is carefully controlled and collectively managed, it can present a strong basis for future economies of most destinations (Garrod, 2003; Scheyvens, 1999; UNESCO, 2003; Weiler & Witt, 1997; Shackley, 1998).

Ecotourism related economic development can be expanded by incorporating cultural tourism (Keitumetse; Richards, 2007; Moswete et al., 2009b). The principles of cultural heritage tourism are similar to those of community-based ecotourism. Cultural heritage tourism becomes sustainable if it promotes and supports full involvement and participation of local people in decision making with respect to management and sustainable utilization of their own heritage resources (Bakaye, 2007; Brandt & Mohammed, 1996; Briedenhann & Wickens, 2007; Cole, 2006; Garrod, 2003; Mabulla, 2000; McKercher & du Cros, 2002; Richards, 2007). Tosun and Timothy (2003) posit that, “the more that community residents benefit from tourism, the more likely they will protect the area’s natural and cultural heritage and support tourism activities” (p. 5). However, the empowerment framework is premised on the belief that local communities need to have some control over activities that affect them so that they can participate in decision making for CBE initiatives and choose the forms of ecotourism amenities and enterprises to invest in and benefit from (Campbell, 1999; Petric, 2007; Scheyvens, 1999; Sofield, 2003).

### **Stakeholder Empowerment**

The concept of empowerment refers to the ability of the local communities to design and participate in the processes and events that shape their lives (UNDP, 1994). Members of a community become active agents of change and have the ability to identify solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions (Cole, 2006, p.631). Accordingly, empowerment is facilitated by participation, knowledge, access to resources, training and education and social services (Akama, 1996; Arai, 1996; Child, 2004; Onyx &

Benton, 1995; Scheyvens, 1999; 2003; Sofield, 2003). Empowering local communities can be likened to giving the local people weapons (such as education) for survival. But, disempowering the communities occurs when they are not given choices to offer input toward a proposed development (Arai, 1996; Fraser et al., 2006; Scheyvens, 2003) or rights to resource use (Child, 2004; 2009; Scheyvens, 2003). Recently, various studies have recommended the need for direct support, involvement, participation and empowerment of stakeholders, especially, those who are affected by or can affect a proposed idea or new undertaking (Aas et al., 2005; Akama, 1996; Brandon, 2007; Child, 2009; Cole, 2006; Eagles et al., 2002; Fraser et al., 2006; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Nicholas, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2008; Mulale, 2005; Onyx & Benton, 1995; Scheyvens, 1999; Sekhar, 2003).

Ecotourism deals with grassroots empowerment as it seeks to develop the industry in harmony with the 'needs and aspirations' of host communities in a way that is acceptable to them (Brandon, 1996; Garrod, 2003; Scheyvens, 1999; Woodwood, 1997). According to Sofield (2003), empowerment is about "capacity by individuals or a group to determine their own affairs." (p.79). In principle, ecotourism is not detrimental to host cultures, traditions, or the people's day-to-day activities. Instead, ecotourism has the ability to empower them politically, socially and economically (Honey, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999). Local residents need to be empowered to enable them to mobilize their resources to obtain significant benefits from tourism development initiatives (Akama, 1996; Chilisa, 2000; Scheyvens, 1999; Sofield, 2003; Swarbrooke, 1999; Tosun, 2006). When outside control is turned over to local control, several benefits are evident. Some of the benefits are local services and infrastructural development that could be utilized by both tourists and the locals (Barnes, 2008; Himberg, 2006; Relly, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Simpson, 2008; Spenceley, 2008; Tlefer & Sharpley, 2008). Other benefits that

local people can accrue if empowered are economic: ownership of tourism enterprises, employment opportunities and capacity building (training and education) on ecotourism-related commerce (Ashley & Garland, 2001; Relly, 2008; Rozemeijer, 2009; Scheyvens, 1999; Simpson, 2008; Spenceley, 2008; Timothy, 2002; Tosun, 2006). Also, political empowerment offers opportunities to raise questions and concerns that pertain to community-based ecotourism development initiatives in their regions (Himberg, 2006; Himoonde, 2007; Honey, 1999; Scheyvens, 1999; Tosun, 2006). Garrod (2003) further argues for psychological empowerment, which is interpreted as benefits that enable the resident communities to develop self esteem and pride in their own local cultures.

Local involvement and empowerment in tourism-related development and planning is more favorable than a top-down approach, where decisions are imposed on the local population (Cole, 2006; Millar, 2006; Scheyvens, 1999; Shackley, 1998; Wells & Brandon, 1992;1993). Conversely, local communities who get involved in small-scale locally owned and controlled ecotourism enterprises benefit more than if a business is controlled from outside their locality (Brohman, 1996; Cole, 2006; Honey, 1999; Scheyvens, 1999; Timothy, 2002). In Costa Rica, Griffin found that 70% of tourism enterprises were small-scale and citizen-owned (Griffin cited in Timothy, 2002). This positive approach in Costa Rica has instilled power in the locals to start their own small scale ecotourism-related enterprises, and has also created more job opportunities for the general populace. By contrast, in Botswana's Okavango Delta region, 54% of tourism facilities are foreign owned and controlled, whilst only 18% are wholly owned by citizens. Foreign dominance of tourism in the Okavango region and Ngamiland district has contributed to xenophobia among local people because tourism is enjoyed by foreigners and other citizen elites (Mbaiwa, 2003).

Local empowerment and participation in tourism development helps to reduce if not eliminate dependency on foreign companies and/or government, thus, reducing economic leakage from the host destination (Brohman, 1999, Fitton, 1996; Khan, 1996). Further, if the local communities are involved in tourism development initiatives, the level of participation in sustainable resource use is likely to increase. If given power to own and manage community projects, the people would develop a spirit of ownership and pride in absolute powers to decide communal initiatives on which to embark (Arai, 1996; Child, 2004; Hulme & Murphree, 2001; Maveneke, 2003; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007). Lepp (2004) contends that local communities that have control over their own resources, natural or cultural have helped to protect resources (wildlife) from unsustainable utilization. In Arizona and New Mexico, Timothy (2002) found that the Hopi and Taos Indians own the community tourism trade. It was also found that these indigenous groups discouraged and ceased tourism activities in some of their sacred sites in order to protect them (Timothy, 2002). Therefore, participatory approach to CBT and cultural heritage management has been found to be the best option to sustainable ecotourism development because of emphasis on empowerment in the management of local resources (Brandt & Mohammed, 1996; Garrod, 2003; Howard, 2003; Lepp, 2004; Mabulla, 2000; Nepal & Weber, 1995; Twyman, 2000).

Empowerment of local residents to participate in ecotourism helps to broaden constituencies involved in decision making, improve dialogues to reduce conflicts over natural resource utilization among stakeholders (Van der Jagt et al., 2000). Also, empowerment of local people through training facilitates access to financial resources and ownership of assets (Child, 2009; Petric, 2007). It is important that a bottom-up approach to tourism development is considered if local communities are to benefit (Fraser et al., 2006; Young, 1999; Van der Jagt et

al., 2000). In Botswana, community empowerment is one of the key principles of the CBNRM development framework (GOB, 2003; 2007). Rural communities are given rights to specific resource use and development, but not ownership e.g. land (Buswani, Setllhogile, Arntzen & Potts, 2008; GOB, 2007; Mulale, 2005; Rozemeijer, 2009). However, the long term vision for Botswana (Vision 2016) emphasizes the need for citizen empowerment, and maximum participation in all spheres of national and local development, including rural tourism-related projects.

### **Protected Area Management**

A protected area (PA) is defined as “an area dedicated primarily to the protection and enjoyment of natural or cultural heritage, to maintenance of biodiversity, and/or to maintenance of ecological life-support services” (IUCN, 2001, p. 15). Historically, PAs were established with conservation and preservation of natural resources (wildlife, habitat, natural landscape, cultural heritage) as the main goal, but has evolved to accommodate tourism development (Bolaane, 2004; Child, 1970; Child, 2009; Campbell, 1973; Eagles, McCool & Haynes, 2002). In other instances, people were relocated outside the boundaries of some PAs. For example, in Africa, 500 people were forcibly relocated from the Nechasar National Park of Ethiopia in 2004 (Adams & Hutton, 2006), while in early 1960s, San/Basarwa were removed from the Moremi Game reserve of Botswana for natural resource conservation (Bolaane, 2004).

PAs differ in size, structure and composition, and each country has different goals and objectives for allocation of land for protection (Carruthers, 2009; Eagles et al., 2002; Soto, 2009). Also, the history of PAs depicts differences in their status, and these areas are conserved as national parks; game reserves; nature reserves; forest reserves; marine reserves, biosphere reserves, wilderness areas, or World Heritage Sites (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Eagles et al., 2002; IUCN, 2001). The management objectives of PAs include but are not limited to the following:

scientific research, wilderness protection, preservation of biodiversity, education, tourism and recreation (Eagles et al., 2002, p. 11).

Presently, PAs act as a haven for recreation activities that generate economic benefits for local communities (Buckley, 2003; Eagles et al., 2002; Hiwasaki, 2006). They have become tourism attractions in themselves and are globally marketed (Boyd & Timothy, 2001). National Parks are often referred to as “markers”, because “a PA gets a label that functions as a ‘marker’, which shapes perception of the area and ultimately triggers visitations to the specific place” (Reinius & Fredman, 2006, p. 852). International tourists have become more attracted or motivated to visit destinations because of their protection status (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Eagles & McCool, 2000). Thus, the status of a PA motivates tourists to visit for recreation and tourism (Resinous & Fredman, 2006). The history of national parks and reserves in Botswana has largely focused on conservation of biodiversity with a greater concern for the local people living on the periphery of the areas (Campbell, 1973; Child, 1970). Local farmers experience the cost in terms of competition on forage between wildlife and livestock (Moleele & Maina, 2003). The creation of PAs has alienated or distanced resident communities living closer to national parks from access to resources (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Mayoral-Phillips, 2002). In some instances, the local people have been forcibly relocated outside Parks for conservation purposes (Bolaane, 2004; Child, 2004). In general, and in other countries, local communities who live adjacent to PAs have not been allowed in or invited to participate in park-based tourism and conservation activities (Himoonde, 2007; Meskell, 2005; Nelson, 2004). Lack of participation and involvement of local communities in decision making and management of resources in PAs have caused conflicts between the Park management and local communities (Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Himoonde, 2007; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Roe & Hollands, 2004). Collectively, PAs are

faced with myriad financial, socio-economic and environmental challenges as managers attempt to strike a balance between conservation, poverty alleviation and tourism development (Child, 2004; 2009; Eagles et al., 2002, Lawton, 2001; Wells & Brandon, 1992; 1993). Case studies of PAs reveal that some have generated environmental and socio-economic benefits (see Table 2-2), yet borne costs as well (Child, 2009; Eagles et al., 2002; Roe & Hollands, 2004).

Stakeholders, especially local community support for conservation initiatives or protection of protected areas is essential to the advancement of park-based tourism and/or ecotourism (Adams & Hutton, 2007; Brandon, 2007; Baral & Heinen, 2007; Gadd, 2005; Manwa, 2003; Spiteri & Nepal, 2008). There are many different groups of stakeholders in PA-based tourism and the ecotourism industry. Each group of stakeholder plays a different role and have own values and objectives in a project or organization (Eagles et al., 2002; Mitchell et al., 1997). Stakeholder groups who would generally be influential in the daily management of the PA include but are not limited to (Eagles et al., 2002, p. 48):

- Park planners and managers
- Local community
- Park employees
- Park visitors
- Government ministries
- Non-governmental Organizations
- Environmental groups
- Tour operators
- Research bodies
- Media
- Hospitality industry.

Planners are facing challenges regarding ways in which different stakeholder can be involved in tourism planning, conservation and management worldwide (Timothy & Boyd, 2006). Currently, PA managers and planners have begun to recognize and appreciate the importance of involving residents' communities in the general management and development of

Parks (Buckley, 2003; Eagles & McCool, 2000; McCleave, Espiner & Booth, 2006). The needs and aspirations of PA stakeholders are diverse, therefore establishing partnerships between PAs and local communities or other management agencies can provide benefits for both. Such partnerships can open opportunities for full local participation and involvement in the PA general management and tourism planning and development (Eagles et al., 2002; McCleave et al., 2006; Page & Dowling, 2002; Timothy & Boyd, 2006).

## **Resident Attitudes**

### **Residents' Attitudes toward Tourism**

In the last few decades, extensive research has been conducted about residents' perception and attitudes towards tourism and the level of tourism development in varying destination communities and geographical areas, especially in the developed world where tourism has had a significant impact on the local economy (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Banks, 2003; Brown, Turner, Hameed & Bateman, 1997; Gursoy et al., 2002; Long et al., 1991; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Perdue et al., 1990). Local residents' support for tourism is vital to the development of a successful tourism industry (Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Harrill, 2004; Jurowski, 1994; Ko & Stewart, 2002; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Pennington-Gray, 2005; Sikaraya, Teye & Sonmez, 2007).

Generally, residents perceived tourism as a viable industry that brings life to their towns and villages (Allen, Hafer, Long & Perdue, 1993; Jurowski, 1994); however, differences in the way different communities perceive tourism also exist (Andereck & Vogt, 2000). For example, the length of residence and connectedness with the community influenced positive perceptions and support for tourism development. Sikaraya et al. (2002) noted that positive attitudes were linked with increase in recreation and other related benefits (jobs, income). Pennington-Gray (2005) found that social and environmental impacts of tourism led to increased support for

tourism development in the community. However, in other studies, residents held negative attitudes toward tourism because of environmental degradation and social ills associated with its advancement in their localities (Brown et al., 1997; Langford, 1994). In addition, empirical research has also assessed factors that contribute to support. The factors generally examined include demographics, employment, distance/proximity, environmental concern, participation, community attachment and knowledge (Andriotis, 2005; Durrant & Durrant, 2008; Gursoy et al., 2002; Ko & Stewart, 2002; McCool & Martin, 1994).

A number of studies have been conducted to examine the relationships between community awareness and resident perception and support for tourism development (Dallen, Allen & Cosenza, 1988; Jurowski et al., 1997; Gursoy et al., 2002; Sikaraya et al., 2002). The key objective for the relationship was based on the notion that their perceptions of tourism development may be influenced if residents' level of awareness of the tourism industry is high (Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski et al., 2006; Sikaraya et al., 2007). Residents who accrued more socio-economic benefits from tourism tended to have a high level of knowledge about the industry; hence, a strong support existed in favor for tourism related development in their communities (Jurowski, 1994; Sikaraya et al., 2002). Conversely, people who have knowledge about tourism as a business and obtain economic benefits from it had negative perceptions (perceived cost), and opposed further tourism development (Banks, 2003). Also, residents with knowledge about the tourism industry and its role would identify costs associated with benefits (Harrill, 2004). Similarly, Nicholas (2007) found that community attachment had a significant direct relationship with both support for Pitons Management Area as a World Heritage Site and sustainable tourism development in St. Lucia. The positive relationships were influenced by the

fact that “residents were born and raised in their respective communities and they indicated significant levels of attachment to their community” (Nicholas, 2007, p.194).

A few researchers have conducted studies on local community perspectives on ecotourism development (Himberg, 2006; Himoonde, 2007; Jim & Xu, 2002; Lai & Nepal, 2006; Tsaor, Lin, & Lin., 2006; Stem, Lassoie, Lee et al., 2003). Overall, it has been reported that local communities were regularly neglected and/or not even invited to participate in the decision-making and management of resources for tourism (Himoonde, 2007; Stem et al., 2003; Tsaor et al., 2006). However, when local communities are consulted or informed about developments that affect them, Sikaraya et al. (2002) revealed that,

when attempts are made to solicit community input into tourism plans or projects, the public event is ill rushed, invitations are extended mostly to the educated and professional segments of the community, and the proceedings are conducted in English, thereby excluding the vast majority of the population who speak the local Fanti language. (p. 65)

The literature denotes that generally there is a lack of residents’ support for traditional tourism development and participation especially in destinations where it is heavily developed (Banks, 2003; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Teye et al., 2002). Consequently, researchers have highlighted the need, importance and urgency for all stakeholder involvement and participation in matters that relates to tourism development (Aas et al., 2005; Byrd, 2007; Byrd et al., 2008; Himoonde, 2007; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999; Meskell, 2005; Molale, 2005; Nicholas, 2007; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Yuksel et al., 1999).

### **Residents’ Attitudes toward Protected areas (PAs)**

Myriad adverse impacts of tourism on the environment have led to the advent of conservation strategies for natural resources management in the developing world. Conservation is defined as “the management of human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and

aspirations of future generations” (Beder (1993 p. xiii). Conservation relates to sustainable utilization of common resources by which stakeholder participation, especially local people are encouraged in order to obtain equitable benefits and to ensure responsible use (Ewert, Dieser & Voigt, 1999; Manning, 1999; Swinnerton 1999; Walker, 1996). However, many PAs have suffered destruction of the natural and cultural environment (Brandon, 2007, Bauer, 2003). For example, a growth in visitor numbers to PAs means an increased disruption of community traditional livelihood activities which can affect the resources and the local people.

In many instances, conflict has emanated from competition of resource use by various parties. Conflicts have been documented between local residents and government's conservation policies (Baral & Heinen, 2007; Bauer, 2003).

In South Africa, Kotze (2002) found that the eastern side of Golden Gate Highlands National Park (GGHNP) had lost its naturalness due to unlawful and uncontrolled harvesting of grass and wood by the local residents living along the park boundary. Littering from picnickers was also found to be problematic. In Botswana, the implementation of game policy on the San of Khwai led to increased illegal hunting in Moremi Game Reserve (Bolaane, 2004). These problems cut across rural communities in developing countries, especially where huge portions of land have been designated for conservation and ecotourism-related activities.

Human-wildlife conflict is also a major issue in conservation in developing countries. As rural communities encroach into natural areas, the conservation efforts to restore wildlife areas to limit contact between people and wild animals grow (Barnes, 2008; Bauer, 2003; Bolaane, 2004; Gadd, 2005). Conflicts over resource use arise when several interest groups compete for limited resources. For instance, governments may view a game reserve or national park as a wildlife habitat where wildlife is to be protected and preserved. However, rural communities adjacent to

protected areas may view wildlife and other forest resources as rightfully their own (Bolaane, 2004; Meskell, 2005; Nelson, 2000; 2004), and may need to be allowed to hunt and gather food freely (Bolaane, 2004).

In 1963, the San/Basarwa of Khwai were relocated from Botswana's Moremi Game Reserve and resettled at the north gate of the reserve (Bolaane, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2003). This action denied them rights of access to traditional land and resources, consequently, affecting their traditional hunting and gathering lifestyles. These challenges have caused continuous disputes between wildlife conservation, resource managers and tourism developers. This also resulted in increased resentment of tourism and increased illegal hunting of wild animals by the local residents of Khwai since they were not allowed to hunt and gather natural resources (Wild animals and forest foods) (Mbaiwa, 2003; Taylor 2007). Hunting and gathering are not permitted in protected areas in Botswana (GOB, 1986; 1992). Thus, game reserve policy and other wildlife hunting restrictions have adversely affected the Khwai community in many ways including their spiritual and religious practices using certain wildlife species, as well as other economic and socio-cultural activities (Bolaane, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2003; Taylor, 2007).

In Kenya, the Maasai's large landholdings were taken by the government, and state protected game parks were established including tourism facilities and infrastructure. This forced the Maasai tribes to relocate to the unfertile areas of the country (Akama, 1996; 1999). This act by the government brought considerable distaste and suffering as their traditional livelihoods were adversely affected in the name of conservation and tourism. History reveals that the Maasai are traditionalists whose livelihood revolves around cattle farming. Like many Africans, the number of cattle in their culture symbolizes wealth, and the Maasai traditionally lived on blood and milk as part of their major staple food. Akama (1999) notes that:

[T]he Maasai are often in severe persistent and accelerating conflicts with park wildlife over grazing and water resources. This social and economic scenario has been accentuated by state tourism and wildlife policies which focus narrowly on the protection of park wildlife for foreign tourists without any involvement of the Maasai in the management and utilization of these resources. (p. 716)

Recently, Lepp's (2007) study in Bigodi village, Uganda revealed some positive attitudes about tourism. He stated that, "positive attitudes were connected to the belief that tourism creates community development, opportunities for earning income, improved agricultural markets, and a chance at good fortune" (p.883). Nevertheless, farmers who lived on the border of Kibale National Park noted that crop damage by wild animals were their main concern, instead of tourism (Lepp, 2007). In northern Botswana, some rural communities have developed negative attitudes toward wild animals (Bolaane, 2004; Mordi, 1987; Parry & Campbell, 1992), yet some of them have derived socio-economic benefits from safari-based tourism (Arntzen et al., 2003; Barnes, 1995; Bell, 1991; Mbaiwa, 2008; Selby, 1991, Thakadu et al., 2005). Wild animals damage people's property such as crops, kill livestock, contribute to loss of human life, destroy vegetation around fields/farms; yet, local communities have no control over wildlife-related resources. In the majority of cases, compensations for damage are negligible or nonexistent (Gadd, 2005; Meskell, 2005; Manwa, 2003; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007).

Globally, protected area strategies and local communities' resource utilization and management vary. Studies have shown that, often times, residents do not fully understand the potential political, social, economic, and environmental impacts that can result from inappropriate use of non-renewable resources (McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Walker, 1996). Local communities adjacent to protected areas in the developing world, including Botswana are faced with many challenges regarding access to natural resources inside PAs and conservation policies. However, governments and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) have been working with communities in different regions to develop ecotourism or CBE

projects in PAs to benefit rural communities and conserve the environment (Walker, 1996). But, there is a need for governments to use the right channels to reach local communities in order to communicate appropriate resource use and conservation issues pertinent to their respective protected areas.

### **Protected Areas in Botswana**

Botswana has approximately 40% of the total land mass designated as Protected Areas (PA), which include national parks, game reserves; forest reserves, World Heritage Sites and Wildlife Management Areas (see Table 2-3) (GOB, 2001). Overall, 17% had been designated as National Parks and Game Reserves, while 22% were protected as Wildlife Management Areas (Figure 3-1). National parks and game and nature reserves (PAs) are distributed throughout the country, and include the Central Kgalagadi Game reserve, Kutse Game reserve, Makgadikgadi National park, Nxai Pan National park, Chobe National park, Chobe- Linyanti system, Moremi Game Reserve, Mashatu Game reserve, Okavango Delta wetland, Lekhubu islands, Tsodilo Hills, Toutswe-mogala to name a few (see Table 2-3). Other PAs such as Mokolodi Nature reserve, Jwana Game reserve, Gaborone Game reserve, Khama Rhino sanctuary, Manyelanong reserve, Matsieng foot print site and Lepokole Hills are also utilized for conservation, recreation and educational purposes (GOB, 2001; Botswana Review, 2005). In addition, there is the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park - the first formally declared Transboundary protected area in Southern Africa. Other proposed Transboundary conservation areas include, the Shashe-Limpopo Transboundary Conservation Area and Four Corners Transboundary (See Table 2-4). In Botswana, national parks and Game reserves were created to safeguard and maintain wildlife resources, preserve biodiversity, integrate conservation and development activities, foster ecological education and promote Park-based tourism to benefit resources and people (GOB, 1992).

The government's commitment to conservation and preservation of natural and cultural resource base and the promotion of sustainable utilization of such assets is evident. The protection and preservation of wildlife resources inside and/or on the buffer zones of parks and reserves has largely created the highest population of wildlife in the country. Botswana has also been ranked high in the number and species variety in Southern Africa (BTDP, 1999). PAs were also created for scientific research purposes. Child (2009) asserted that,

the majority of National Parks and Game reserve were created on unoccupied state land that obviated the need for authority from a district council representing the people in a tribal area, and the extensive consultation that this involved . . . the result was that considerable areas of Botswana . . . were set aside by central government, at minimal social costs. . . . (p. 51)

Consequently, the government demarcated land area on the buffer zone of PAs as WMAs (Figure 3-1). Currently CBNRM initiatives within local communities created CBOs and operate controlled tourism-related projects such as hunting safaris, photographic ventures and ecotourism in and around WMAs.

### **Transfrontier/Transboundary Parks**

Transfrontier parks (TFPs) are defined as "... wildlife conservation areas with common international boundaries managed as a single unit by a joint authority that comprises of the representatives of the participating countries (Sandwith, Shine, Hamilton et al., 2001, p.3-4). The common objective of creating Transfrontier protected areas is to promote biodiversity conservation, tourism development, poverty alleviation, and to enhance local community participation (Chengeta et al., 2003; Cornelissen, 2005; Eagles et al., 2002; Sandwith et al., 2001; Suich, 2008). Also, Transboundary parks are utilized as a means to reduce conflict or political differences between frontiers (Suich et al., 2009). The benefits are numerous and include the following: to reduce poaching and halt illegal trade across boundaries; enhancement of nature-based tourism due to joint approaches to marketing and tour operator training and joint

agreements on fees, visitor management and possible reintroduction or natural resources re-colonization of large range of species, and promotion of ecosystem management (Sandwith et al., 2001; Suich et al., 2009).

In Botswana, most of the Transboundary protected areas initiatives are still at the consultation and planning stages except for the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (see Table 2-4) (Chengeta et al., 2003). KTP operates under a dual ownership and management of governments of Botswana and South Africa. KTP is the first formally declared Transfrontier Park in Africa (Chengeta et al., 2003). Transboundary Natural Resources Management<sup>5</sup> (TBNRM) is fairly new concept in Botswana. Wildlife management and tourism development initiatives are some of the few activities that are available and practiced. There are several policies, legislation, Acts and regulations that govern TBP or KTP initiatives. Some of the key policies include: Wildlife conservation policy of 1986 (whose role is to ensure complete preservation in national parks and game reserves); the national policy on natural resources conservation and development of 1990; and tourism and water resources policies. Acts include: Wildlife conservation and National Parks Act of 1992, Tourism Act of 1992, National Ecotourism Strategy of 2003, and the National Conservation Strategy. These government policies share a lot in common, as they all emphasize sustainable utilization of natural resources; promotion of a viable commercial wildlife industry that will create employment, increase incomes and improve livelihoods of the rural people; conservation of wildlife, protection of traditional rights of local communities, restoration of degraded rangelands and adoption of better management strategies (Chengeta et al., 2003).

Research on TBNRM initiatives has uncovered some strengths and weaknesses. There is no policy framework to guide management and implementation of activities at KTP. Lack of

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<sup>5</sup> TBNRM are conservation programs across national boundaries and that involves more than one government (Cornelissen, 2005, p53).

guidelines has become a major drawback to the advancement of the TBP initiatives. Also, communication amongst the various stakeholders, especially local communities in TBNRM is lacking (Chengeta et al., 2003). However, there is recognition to involve local communities (especially those residing on the border of TBPs) in the planning and implementation of project that occur in their area. Based on the weaknesses of the TBNRM, Chengeta et al. (2003) recommended that government should have a policy framework that guide implementation and other related management of activities linked to CBNRM.

Table 2-1. Visitors at Protected Areas in Botswana

Year	Arrivals			Growth rate (%)	Revenues Million Pula	Growth rate (%)
	Day visits	Overnight visits	Total			
2003	51,0517	88,285	139,302	-	19	-
2004	50,829	111,950	162,779	17	21	12.4
2005	53,063	184,190	237,258	46	24	13.5

Source: DOT (2005)

Table 2-2. Potential benefits of protected area-based tourism

Enhancing economic opportunity	Protecting natural & cultural heritage	Enhancing quality of life
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Improves living standards</li> <li>• Increases jobs for local people</li> <li>• Increases income</li> <li>• Increases funding for PAs &amp; local communities</li> <li>• Encourages local manufacture if local goods</li> <li>• Stimulates new tourism enterprises, &amp; stimulates &amp; diversifies the local economy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Protects ecological processes &amp; watersheds</li> <li>• Conserves biodiversity</li> <li>• Transmits conservation values, through education &amp; interpretation</li> <li>• Protects, conserves &amp; values cultural &amp; built heritage</li> <li>• Supports research &amp; development of good environment practices</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Supports environmental education for visitors &amp; locals</li> <li>• Encourages the development of culture, crafts and the arts</li> <li>• Increases the educational level of local people</li> <li>• Improves intercultural understanding</li> </ul>

Source: Eagles et al. (2002, p. 24)

Table 2-3. Protected Areas in Botswana

Protected Areas	Year	Description
Central Kgalagadi Game reserve	1961	52,800sq. kilometers, second largest game reserve in the world
Makgadikgadi National park	1970	2,500sq. km of fossil pans and flat grass plains. Zebra and wildebeest, pelicans and flamingos flock in the salty waters of the pans. Extensive grasslands, plains, and baobab trees.
Nxai Pan National park	1976	A haven for birdlife, bird watching is great, game is abundant during wet season game.
The Okavango Delta	1996	Unique inland delta, measures 15,000sq kilometers, listed as a Wetland of International importance, boasts diverse environments.
Chobe National Park	1967	11,000 and 3,900sq. Kilometers respectively. Forest, savanna woodlands, to riparian woodland and mopane,
Moremi game reserve	1965	the rare Chobe, bushbuck, puku antelope, endangered white rhino and the big Five (lion, elephant, buffalo, leopard and rhino).
Northeast Tuli Game Reserve	-	Covers up to 300,000 ha. Largest privately owned game conservation area in southern Africa. Has high numbers of elephants, lions, leopards, cheetahs. Vegetation is spectacular with gigantic nyala trees and yellow barked fever trees, frontier history & heritage
Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	1931	The first formally declared trans-boundary park in Southern Africa. Straddles two major landmasses of South Africa and Botswana, covers a bout 38,000_sq. kilometers of the Kalahari ecosystem. Diverse wildlife resources predators, birds of prey, variety of antelopes.

Table 2-4. Transboundary Parks Initiatives in Botswana

Name of TBP	Countries involved	Reasons for Trans-boundary Park
The Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	Botswana & South Africa	Verbal agreement since 1948. Formal agreement between the two governments in 2000. Reason: ecosystem conservation and preservation of large mammals of southwest Kalahari and tourism. Park is operational
The Kalahari- Namib ‘desert’ Transfrontier project	Botswana, Namibia & south Africa	20 year project, Focus’’: land and soils rehabilitation. Formulated within the framework of UNCCD. Awaiting funding to commence
Shashe Limpopo Transfrontier Park	Botswana, South Africa & Zimbabwe	Promote cross border tourism as a means for fostering regional socio-economic development. Reason: Implementation of the TFCA, wildlife management & tourism:
The Four corners Trans-boundary Project	Botswana, Namibia, Zambia & Zimbabwe	Since, 2002. funded by AWF and USAID, RCSA Focus: Increased cooperation in the management of shared natural resources
The Expanded Okavango Upper Zambezi International Tourism (OUZIT) initiative (regional project)	Botswana, Angola, Lesotho, Namibia, Zambia & Zimbabwe South Africa, Swaziland, Mozambique & Tanzania,	Focus: stimulating economic growth in the SADC region by developing its comparative advantage on ecotourism. is to establish a coast to coast tourism, conservation, and resource development zone built around a core network of conservation assets of TFCAs

Source: Adapted from Chengeta et al. (2003, p. 49)

## CHAPTER 3 METHODS

### Study Site

The Kgalagadi District is located in southwestern Botswana and covers an area of 110,110 square kilometers (see Figure 1-3). The district is bordered by the Kweneng and Southern Districts in the east, Ghanzi in the north and South Africa and Namibia in the south-southwest and west, respectively (Ministry of Local Government (MLG, 2003). The district is divided into two sub-districts, the north and south, both situated within the Kalahari Desert region. Kgalagadi north covers 44,004 square kilometers, while the southern block comprises 66,066 square kilometers in land area (Kgalagadi District Development Plan KDDP 6, 2003-2009). The district's main administration offices are based in Tsabong and Hukuntsi villages. Tsabong is the headquarters and the largest village in the district.

The Kgalagadi district forms part of the first formally declared Transfrontier Park<sup>1</sup> in Southern Africa, the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park. Other Transfrontier and/or Trans-boundary Parks in the Southern African region include the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park; Shashe Limpopo Transfrontier Park; Lubombo Transfrontier Conservation Area and Maloti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation Area (Table 3-1).

The Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) straddles two major landmasses of the Republic of South Africa and Botswana, and covers approximately 38, 000 square kilometers of the Kalahari ecosystem (SANP & DWNP, 1997). Historically, the park on the Botswana side was called Gemsbok National Park (28,400 square kilometers), while the South African frontier was referred to as the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park (9,591 square kilometers). In 1997, the

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<sup>1</sup> Relatively large area that straddles frontiers (boundaries) between two or more countries and covers a large-scale natural system encompassing one or more protected areas (World Bank, 1996, p.10).

Gemsbok National Park (Botswana) and the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park (South Africa) were merged into a single co-managed protected area (KTP) based on the following goals

(SANP & DWNP, 1997, p. 9):

- To guarantee essential long term conservation of the wildlife resources in the Southern Kalahari, which will help maintain the integrity of the entire Kalahari ecosystem
- To improve regional ecological management
- To share management of the park
- To allow free roaming of wildlife between the two countries
- To increase the international profile of KTP as a conservation area, thereby greatly enhancing its potential as a tourist destination
- To realize fully the economic potential of the Transfrontier Park and the surrounding areas in order to bring economic benefits to both countries, especially to the local communities adjacent to the park
- To provide facilities and opportunities for research and monitoring of activities for a better understanding of the physical and biological processes of the Kgalagadi ecosystem.
- To mitigate the undesirable impacts of existing and potential land-use conflicts between the Park and neighboring local communities.

The overall goal for KTP is the protection and conservation of flora and fauna resources of the Kgalagadi. There are no communities in existence inside the boundaries of KTP. Since, there is no physical demarcation between South Africa and Botswana, there is free movement of wild animals and people throughout the Park area (SANP & DWNP, 1997).

### **Environmental Features**

#### **Climate**

The Kgalagadi area is arid to semi-arid, and is characterized by high annual variations of rainfall, with averages of 150mm and 250mm per year in the south and north, respectively (Moleele & Maina, 2003). On average, the district receives 95% of its total rainfall during the summer months of October to April. Temperatures are higher in the summer and below the

national average during winter. Some villages within the district are known to experience very chilly days and frost during winter (MLG, 2003).

### **Topography, Geology, Soils and Hydrology**

The Kgalagadi district's terrain is generally flat, with occasional low rocky hills, plains, salt pans, fossil valleys and sand dunes (GOB, 2001). The geology is composed of Karoo-super group sedimentation rocks, which include arkoses, carbonaceous mudstone, shale and fillite (Ministry of Local Government, (MLG, 2003). Mining activity is not practiced due to the lack of significant mineral ores in the district. However, small scale salt production and mining-related activity occurs in the Zutshwa settlement for subsistence utilization (GOB, 2001; Chanda et al., 2005).

The area lacks surface hydrological features except for seasonal shallow pans and the fossil valleys of Molopo and Nossob. Underground water exists in isolated perched aquifers. The district has three types of soils - calcisols, regosols, and luvisols which are found in Molopo farms, Lokgwabe, Middlepits, Tsabong and the southern boundary along the South African side, (GOB, 2001; SANP & DWNP, 1997). The soils are generally sandy with low fertility and loose, fine texture and are not conducive for agriculture (MLG, 2003; MLP, 1999).

### **Flora**

The vegetation in the district has been classified as arid to semi-arid savannah shrub in the southwest and bush savannah in other parts of the region (Ecosurv, 1997). There are variations within the types of vegetation that are linked to soil types, topography and climate. Generally, grass cover is fairly low, especially during the dry period. Also, desert veldt resources such as grapple plant, wild berries, herbs and edible tubers, mokwa (*Coccinia rehmannii*) and tubers are abundant (GOB, 2001; May, 1998; Moleele & Maina, 2004). Common plants found in the area are kgengwe (wild melon, *Citrullus lanatus*); mahupu (Truffle, *Terfezia spp*);

sengaparile (*Harpagophytum procumbens*); moretlwa (*Grewia flava*) and motsotsojane (*Grewia retinervis*). Hoodia (*Gordonii cactus*) is a protected plant species in Botswana, and is found in abundance in the Kgalagadi region. Plants play a significant role in the residents' livelihood, and are collected for subsistence and commercial purposes (MLG, 2005). However, conflicts over exploitation have been reported and there is a need for sustainable utilization (GOB, 2005).

## **Fauna**

Substantial numbers of wild animals are still found in the Kalahari region. The desert environment is popular for wildlife species, such as eland (*taurotragus oryx*), gemsbok (*Oryx gazella*), blue wildebeest (*connochaetes taurinus*), kudu (*Tratgelaphus strepsiceros*), duiker (*cepholophus natalensis*), steenbok (*raphicerus campestris*), hartebeest, springbok, and warthog (Arntzen & Veenendaal, 1986, cited in Moleele & Maina, 2004). Trophy animals and predators that are found in the area include lions (*panthera leo*), leopards (*panthera pardus*), cheetah (*Acinonyx jubatus*), spotted hyenas (*crocuta crocuta*), brown hyena (*hyena brunnea*) and Black backed jackal (*canis mesomeals*), and bat-eared fox (*otocyon megalotis*). In 2008, it was estimated that about 450 individual lions live in KTP (SANP & DWNP, 2008), while in 2003 about 204 cheetahs were estimated to reside in KTP while 302 reside in the Kgalagadi Wildlife Management Areas (Klein, 2007), and 367 cheetahs were spotted in the Kgalagadi agricultural areas alone (Klein, 2007). Other predators found in large numbers at KTP are brown hyenas (600 est.) and spotted hyenas (375). Large herbivores such as buffalo and elephant are not found in this region due to lack of sufficient water.

The Kgalagadi is also home to a variety of bird species, including ostrich (Figure and social weavers. Birds of prey which include the black-breasted snake eagle, lanner falcon, black korhaan, kori bastards and forktailed drongo, are also found in abundance and are adaptable to the desert environment (DWNP & SANP, 1997; GOB, 2001; Roodt, 2008). However, research

shows that there has been a decline in wildlife population in the district, due to the expansion of the livestock sector and increased hunting activities (Castley, Knight, Mills & Thouless, 2002; Kgabung, 1999).

### **District Background**

In 2001, the population of the Kgalagadi district was 42,049 with a density of 0.38 persons per square kilometer (CSO, 2001). Ninety percent of the inhabitants live in the communal areas, especially in and around the villages of Matsheng, Kang and Tsabong (MLG, 2003; 2005). Collectively, the district population occupies a network of 193 settlements within the Kgalagadi Communal Areas (KCA), and the average village/settlement size consists of 198 inhabitants. Settlements are often small with fewer than 500 people, comprised of a few household clusters usually inhabited by people with nomadic background. Villages are more formal, and are officially recognized establishments with at least 500 persons. They have basic facilities and services, such as water, health clinics, postal services and schools. The level of available services is dependent on the village classification (Botswana National Settlement Strategy, 2003).

Eighty-three percent of the total village/settlements in the Kgalagadi communal areas have a population of more than 500 and only 8% have populations below 500. Tsabong village is the only village with more than 5,000 inhabitants. There are more people and settlements in Kgalagadi south (59% of the population and 58% of settlements) than in Kgalagadi north (41% of the population and 42% of settlements (KCA, 2005; MLG, 2005). Table 3-2 illustrates the population distribution and densities from 1981 to 2001.

The settlement patterns are typical in that most people live in villages and settlements such as Tsabong, Hukunsi, Kang, Lehututu, Makopong and Werda (KCA, 2005, MLG, 2005). Tsabong and Hukunsi villages have acquired the status of secondary centers, based on the 1998

National Settlement strategy. They provide basic social services and facilities (health, banking, telecommunications, postal, police, community development, education services) to the people and the surrounding areas. The villages and settlements are sparsely populated and tend to be situated near pans, fossil river valleys or rock outcrops. The patterns are associated with the history of settlement in the Kgalagadi region (MLG, 2005; Roodt, 2008). The main economy of the district has primarily been based on raising small scale livestock and nominal crop farming. Other traditional livelihood activities include subsistence hunting and gathering (Chanda & Magole, 2001; Totolo & Chanda, 2003).

Demographically, the district population is young with 37% below the age of 15. There are more than five ethnic groups, namely: Bangologa, Basarwa, Baherero, Batlharo, Coloureds and Nama. The San/Basarwa people are classified as Remote Area Dwellers (RAD), and live in the settlements of Ukhwi, Ngwatle and Ncaang (KD 1), Khawa (KD 15) and Zutshwa (KD 2). The Nama ethnic group mainly resides in and around Tshane, Lokgwabe and Tsabong, while Coloureds live in Struizendam, Bokspits, Rappelspan, and Vaalhoek (MLG, 2005).

The Kgalagadi district incorporating KTP offers a wide range of eco-tourism resources and products (Table 3-3). Eco-resources include nature, desert-landscape, unique sand dunes (ridges), salt pans, culture and history. With respect to cultural heritage resources, artifacts dating to the early, middle and late Stone Ages have been uncovered in the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) and the surrounding villages and settlements (GOB, 2000). Also, anthropological and archaeological remains have been uncovered in the nearby Central Kgalagadi Game reserve (CKGR) (Segobye, 2006). Overall, the district is endowed with rich nature and cultural-based heritage resources (See Table 3-4), such as history, tribal stories and lifestyle, as well as the rich intangible heritage of the San/Basarwa, Baherero (Damara), Nama, Batlharo, Coloureds and

Bangologa ethnic groups (CSIR, 2002; MLG, 2005). The ethnic songs, music, dances, traditions, local food, poetry, folklore, handicrafts, religion, language and traditional costumes have unique traits. Handicrafts made from ostrich eggshells (head bands, bracelets, necklaces, belts, floor mats) are produced mainly by the indigenous communities of San/Basarwa who reside in and around the KTP buffer zone (CSIR, 2002; Johnson, 1996).

### **Selected Communities: Background**

For the purpose of this study, nine village/settlements were selected from the Kgalagadi district: Kang, Ncaang, Ukhwi, Zutshwa, Tshane (Kgalagadi North) and Khawa, Struizendam, Bokspits, Tsabong (Kgalagadi south). Stratified sampling was used to select the nine communities. Distance/proximity of communities to the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park was also a major criteria employed in the sampling procedure. The total number of inhabitants in these communities is 13,619 (CSO, 2001), while the total population for the entire Kgalagadi district is approximately 43,000, with more people living in the Kgalagadi north (25, 938) than in the south (16,111) (CSO, 2001).

The village/settlements of Ncaang, Ukhwi, Zutshwa and Khawa are located within Wildlife Management areas (WMAs), where the main rangeland utilization is wildlife conservation. Ncaang and Ukhwi are positioned within a WMA and are referred to as KD 1 (Controlled Hunting area 1); Zutshwa is situated in a WMA and is called KD 2; Khawa is in the WMA KD 15. Figure 3-1 shows the WMAs for western Botswana.

Among all the sampled villages, Tsabong is the largest and is the headquarters and administration center of the Kgalagadi district. The village became a popular tourism destination after the Trans-Kalahari Highway (TKH) was completed. Tourism facilities include: lodging facilities (lodges, motels, guesthouses, and campsites), amenities (banking facility, post office, gas station, vehicular parts and service outlets, restaurants, fast food outlets, grocery stores,

butchers, vegetable stores and wholesale outlets), a shopping precinct, an airstrip and small-scale tennis court.

Kang village is the second largest village in the Kgalagadi region. The Trans-Kalahari Highway (TKH) was constructed in the early 1990s and runs through this village (Imani-TMT Consortium, 2000). TKH plays a major role in tourism, as it has opened business opportunities in southwestern Botswana (Imani-TMT Consortium, 2000). It has also provided easy access to the neighboring countries of Namibia and South Africa. Kang has now become a popular stop-over for lodging, food and re-fueling for tourists and visitors. The tourism-related physical infrastructure in Kang includes guesthouses, lodges, campsites, game farms, craft shop, indigenous art outlet, airstrip and petrol/gasoline filling stations, which were largely built after the completion of the TKH (CSIR, 2002).

Tshane is located in Kgalagadi north and is one of the Matsheng groups of villages. There are a few ethnic groups found in Tshane: Bangologa, Bakgalagadi, Bakgatla and Bashaga. Studies show that about 56% of the households in Tshane are involved in crop farming for subsistence (Chanda & Magole, 2001). The harvest does not meet the total subsistence needs in many homes (Van der Mass et al., 1994 cited in Chanda & Magole, 2001; Totolo & Chanda, 2001). High out-migration has been reported for this village as 45% have migrated to urban centers in search of job opportunities (Chanda & Magole, 2001).

The village/settlements of Khawa, Ncaang, Ukhwi, and Zutshwa are located within WMAs, and have low populations. The least populated village is Ncaang with 175 inhabitants, and the majority are San/Basarwa (CSO, 2001). These settlements offer safari hunting to both

local and overseas hunters, and have established Community-Based Organizations<sup>2</sup> (CBO) for conservation and tourism activities.

### **Study Design**

This study employed a mixed method, with both quantitative and qualitative components. Personal interviews and questionnaire surveys were integrated concurrently to increase potential for the understanding of the research problem and data validity (Babbie, 2001; Pallant, 2007; Simmons, 1994). The mixed method is defined broadly as “research in which the investigator collects and analyzes data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or a program of inquiry” (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007, p.4).

The quantitative approach involves the collection of numerical data in order to explain, predict, and/or control phenomena of interest via statistical analysis (deductive process), with the assumption that objective can then be expressed as a numeric value (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005). In quantitative research, only one type of statistical generalization is pertinent, namely the generalizing of findings from the sample to the underlying population (Hatch, 2002; Onwuegbuzie & Collins, 2007). Conversely, the qualitative approach involves the collection of extensive narrative data in order to gain insights into the phenomenon of interest (in this case stakeholder perspectives toward CBE development), and the data are analyzed by coding and production of a verbal synthesis (inductive process) (Grix, 2004; Hatch, 2002; Henderson, Ainsworth, Stolarczyk et al., 1999; Henderson, 2006).

In the qualitative approach, there is emphasis on understanding, because a researcher cannot rely on statistical observations alone to understand social phenomenon (Grix, 2004;

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<sup>2</sup> Khawa = Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust; Zutshwa = Qhaa Qhing Development Trust and Ukhwi & Ukhwi = Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Development Trust.

Hatch, 2002). However, qualitative results can be skewed, because the researchers are part of the social reality being studied (Grix, 2004; Henderson, 2006). Qualitative researchers typically do not make external statistical generalizations, because their goal usually is not to make inferences about the underlying population, but they “attempt to obtain insights into a particular educational, social, and familial process and practices that exist within a specific location and context” (Connolly, 1998 cited in Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007, p. 240). Qualitative techniques frequently are used to provide information to further develop quantitative research (Decrop, 1999). Goldman & MacDonald (1987) contend that it is logical for qualitative research to precede a quantitative study, because “survey analysis implies a progressive tightening of focus and a validation or refinement of qualitative hypothesis” (p.13). Further, qualitative research can adjust or modify the survey methodology by giving insight into meaningful response categories or alternatives (Goldman & MacDonald, 1987; Henderson et al., 1999).

The two research techniques that guided the study were drawn from the views and approach of Creswell & Clark (2007), Denzin & Lincoln (1994), Emerson (2001), and Sayre (2001). These authors believe that employing multiple methods in data collection helps to improve the probability that findings and interpretations will be credible. In particular, Creswell & Clark (2007) maintain that “the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone” (p. 5). Henderson (2006) argues that “no one method is perfect, so more than one method may give additional information to a researcher (p. 221). Similarly, Sayre (2001) contends that qualitative methods can be used to gather insights that “may or may not be absolutely typical of another group of folks who inform the research” (p. 3). Mixed methods therefore were used to

corroborate results, and also enabled the researcher to obtain deeper understanding of the issues at stake.

Integration of both quantitative and qualitative approaches benefited this study, since the community that was studied was unique, due to the geographical location, diverse ethnic groups and high illiteracy rates, especially among the San/Basarwa (Arntzen, 2001; Chanda & Magole, 2001). According to Henderson (2006), linking both approaches is important in studying an area which has not been extensively examined. Sayre (2001) adds that combining both methodologies provides a comprehensive approach to problem solving. However, the mixed method approach can be time consuming and expensive for a single study (Bernard, 2000; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Sayre, 2001). These disadvantages are usually outweighed by the increased trustworthiness and theoretical importance of the results (Henderson, 2006).

Some of the information sources used were, government policy documents, official reports, consultancy working papers, government tourism statistics, books, and other important unpublished materials. The tourism industry's performance reports on Botswana and the southwestern region were obtained from the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism, Department of Tourism and Department of Wildlife and National Parks, as well as the University of Botswana, the Botswana Tourism Board, and industry associations such as the Hospitality and Tourism Associations of Botswana and the Botswana Community Based Organization Network (BOCOBONET). Local and regional maps, land use management plans and other related documents were obtained from the Department of Town and Rural Planning. The Botswana National Development Plan (NDP 9) and community-based natural resources management-related literature were also utilized.

For the primary data, two stakeholder groups were consulted and studied: the local residents and public sector. Both groups were selected for the study based on the assumption that they have primary stake in the resources of the Kgalagadi district and in the south western region's general planning and development programs. Secondary stakeholders such as visitors were not included in this study due to scope of study and time limitation.

### **Data Collection**

Data collection was conducted from October 2008 to January 2009, approximately 13 weeks of fieldwork in total (Table 3-5). Residents were sampled from their respective communities, while the public sector participants were interviewed at their work places (Table 3-6). A pilot study, which was the foundation for this study, was undertaken from May 2006 to July 2006. At that time, the researcher visited the district and conducted key informant interviews with some knowledgeable members of the community, with the aim of understanding the level of tourism awareness; the importance of tourism in the community, understanding conservation and other issues. Interviews were held with village chiefs/headmen, chairs of village committees; government personnel, wildlife and tourism departments' staff; youth club representatives; and the game scouts and staff at KTP at Two Rivers in Kgalagadi south.

Data for this study were obtained via fieldwork using two research instruments: an in-depth semi-structured interview and a structured household survey. The in-depth interview was employed to solicit information from the local and national public sector representatives. The public sector included those individuals who have worked and lived in the area for at least six months and were familiar with local communities and/or have participated in some village development meetings and activities. The latter group included those who dealt with district development matters, but were based in Gaborone, the capital city. The policy makers are known to have different interests or stakes that pertain to development in the Kgalagadi region. They

formulate policies and management plans which others have to adopt. According to De Haas, (2004), “the use of knowledgeable local people enables tourism planners, managers and developers to obtain views that could provide them with insight for a specific area that they would not otherwise have been able to access” (Luck & Kirstges, n. d, p.150). Pigram (1992) supports the idea by arguing that certain people in communities possess local knowledge and are aware of events in the village because of the types of employment and experiences they have with the village culture. For the household data, a structured face-to-face interview was used to elicit data from the residents. Thus, two sampling frames were employed.

### **Selection of Participants**

#### **Residents: Quantitative**

A stratified sampling method based on the geographic location or proximity of villages to the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park was used. Nine villages were sampled, with five in the north and 4 in the south (Table 3-7). For sampling purposes, a list of villages and associated population sizes contained in the 2001 population census report was obtained from the Central Statistic Office. A systematic sampling of residents was utilized to select households from the villages of Bokspits, Kang, Khawa, Ncaang, Struizendam, Tshane, Tsabong, Ukhwi and Zutshwa. The systematic sampling was used, because it precludes the need to go through a table of random numbers and to attach each number with a matching case (Bryman & Cramer, 2005). The study area is different, because unlike urban centers, there are no streets and avenues that can be used to classify households or residential blocks in rural Botswana. Instead, households tend to be demarcated or separated by paths, tracks, roads, rock outcrops, hills or valleys. Thus, every other home or plot that intersects paths and roads was selected and visited for an interview.

The head of the household was requested to participate and a consent form was signed by the interviewee before each survey. A face-to-face interview method was employed for data

collection based on the fact that there is high illiteracy in the Kgalagadi region (Arntzen, 2001; Phuthego & Chanda, 2004). Therefore, the researcher read the questions to the respondent and accordingly completed the survey based on verbal responses. In the African context, men are the heads of households, and in the absence of a household head, the spouse was interviewed. However, in instances when the head of the household (husband/wife) was not home, any member of the family who was 18 years or older and had lived in the village or district for at least 12 months was asked to participate. It is important to note that in Kgalagadi, villages and settlements are located far from each other because of the history of settlement in the area. All village/settlements are situated on or near natural desert features called salt pans and fossil valleys. The researcher's familiarity with the study area and culture allowed for information gathering that would otherwise have been difficult to obtain. Table 3-7 shows the sampled villages, populations and actual number of households interviewed and approximate distance from KTP.

In estimating the total number of households in each community, the total population was divided by 4.1, which is the average household size for rural Botswana as per the 2001 population census (CSO, 2001). The assumption was that the 4.1 average value applies to the sampled communities in the Kgalagadi region (Chanda, personal communication). The sampled village/settlements for the study had a total population of 13,619 inhabitants (CSO, 2001) and 3,331 households (est., CSO 2001). A sample size of 1000 households was targeted for the survey, which represented 30% of the total households in the nine communities selected for this study. But only 22.4% of the total households (3,331) were surveyed. Further, thirty percent of households were selected from each of the sampled communities, except for Kang and Tsabong (Table 3-6). The two rural communities of Kang and Tsabong have exceptionally high

populations and a substantially high number of households compared to the other villages and settlements in the Kgalagadi (DDP, 2005). A further thirty percent cut point was applied to the 482 Tsabong and 274 Kang households based on the principles of Central Limit Theorem (CLT) (Agresti, 1999). In CLT, when N is large, the sampling distribution of  $\bar{Y}$  is approximately normal, even if the population is skewed (p.105). A normal curve represents a distribution of values, where the mean, median and mode are equal. Thus, a sample of 30 is regarded as good to estimate the household mean with reasonable accuracy (Munro, 2005). Overall, 75% (N=746) of residents completed the questionnaire. The remaining 25% of the sample included those who refused to be interviewed, did not complete the survey or in other instances, an eligible member was not present at home.

Due to high illiteracy rate within some ethnic groups in rural Kgalagadi, the survey questions were translated into the national language – Setswana. An expert from the University of Botswana with double majors in English and African languages (literature and Grammar) checked the translation for consistency. The questionnaire was translated back into English to ensure accuracy and clarification (see Henderson & Kaufman, 1990). English is an official language and is used as the medium of instruction in schools and all government institutions. Three research assistants from the University of Botswana were recruited and trained at workshops held in Gaborone and Kang. Occasionally, local persons were recruited and hired to assist with the translation, whenever it was needed.

### **Operationalization of Variables**

The survey instrument for residents was created based on a review of existing literature. The research constructs in this study were: knowledge of ecotourism; perception of CBE; community concern; participation (use levels); conservation attitudes; support for CBE

development; and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, such as age, gender, education, length of residence, income, employment, occupation, ethnicity, and distance/location were also included in the survey. These items provided the general characteristics of the household composition of the total sample.

The survey instrument (Appendix C) comprised of nine sections that ranged from the socio-demographic questions (12 items); ecotourism knowledge (11 items); perceptions of CBE (14 items); conservation attitudes about KTP (16 items); community concern (5 items); participation (use level) (3 items); support for KTP (5 items), and support for CBE development (6 items) (see Table 3-8).

### **Knowledge about ecotourism**

This part of the survey contained 11 items that measured local residents' awareness of tourism and ecotourism activities in their communities. The section had three-choice responses from which respondents were to denote either; 'yes', 'no', 'don't know' as their answer. Example questions were: "There are guesthouse, lodges, and motels for visitors in my village;" "Many people from Kalahari region visit my district strictly for recreation/tourism;" "Revenue from community-based tourism benefits many people in my village". The items were adapted from multiple sources (Avila Foucat, 2002; Brandon, 2007; Dyer et al., 2007; Lai & Nepal, 2006; Kuvan & Akan, 2005; Welbourne, 2001).

### **Perceptions about community-based ecotourism**

The perception about CBE construct was measured by 14 items based on a five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 to 5, where 1=Strongly Disagree; 3= Neutral; 5= Strongly Agree. The items were adapted from Lai & Nepal (2006).

### **Conservation attitudes**

Conservation attitudes were operationalized by 16 items on a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 to 5, where 1=Strongly disagree; 3=Neutral; 5=Strongly Agree. The items were adapted from the literature (Gadd, 2005; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Infield, 1988; Infield & Namara, 2001; Nguen, 2006; Sekhar, 2003; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001).

### **Community concern**

For this construct, the level of potential concern if tourism was increased in the community was assessed. A five-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 to 5, where 1= Not at all concerned; 3= moderately concerned; 5= extremely concerned was used. The indicators for level of concern were adapted from Gursoy et al. (2002), and Jurowski & Gursoy (2004).

### **Participation (use levels)**

The participation (use levels) variable was measured by a binary question of ‘yes’ or ‘no’. The respondents were asked if they had ever visited KTP. The section also contained open-ended questions for frequency of visitation, and motivations to visit in the previous twelve-month period. The items were adapted from multiple sources (Bauer, 2003; Keogh, 1990; Perdue et al., 1990).

### **Support for KTP**

The support for the conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park was measured by 5 items in which respondents were asked if they support or oppose KTP as a Transfrontier Park. A 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from 1 to 5, where 1=Strongly oppose; 3= Neutral; 5= Strongly support, was employed. Items were adapted from multiple sources (Alexander, 2000; De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Sikaraya et al., 2002).

### **Support for community-based ecotourism**

The support for community-based ecotourism construct was measured by six items based on a five-point Likert-type scale from 1 to 5, where 1= strongly oppose; 3= neutral; 5= strongly support. The questions asked respondents if they would support or oppose CBE development in their area. The indicators were adapted from multiple sources (Jurowski, 1994; Lai & Nepal, 2006; Nelson, 2004; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Sikaraya et al., 2002).

### **Socio-demographic**

This section consisted of the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents (age, gender, education, household income, employment, residency, ethnicity, household size, sources of income and occupation). The items in this section consisted of both closed and open-ended questions designed to assess the characteristics of the respondents.

### **Distance/proximity**

The distance/proximity of the respondents' village/settlement to the KTP was assessed. The variable was assessed with a single open-ended question, "How far is your village from KTP (in kilometers)?" The distance between villages and KTP was verified by cross-checking with the Botswana National Atlas road maps. This single open-ended question was adapted from multiple sources (Durrant & Durrant, 2008; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Ko & Stewart, 2002).

### **Validity and Reliability**

Validity is the extent to which the data obtained in the study truly reflects the phenomenon being studied (Henderson, 2006; Pallant, 2007); specifically, whether the survey questions measure what they are intended to measure. Bernard (2000) states that, "validity is the accuracy and trustworthiness of an instrument, data and findings in the research" (p. 46). In order to address issues of validity and reliability, a pilot study was conducted with 20 households to cross-check wording, clarity of questions, and the amount of time required for each interview.

Content validity was verified by involving a team of four experts (research committee members). Validity was also enhanced by use of an array of questions which were adapted from previous literature. Following the pilot test, minor corrections were identified and corrected prior to the actual survey administration. For the qualitative data, validity was checked by comparing data collected through multiple instruments that included note-taking and tape recording of interviews.

Reliability refers to the extent to which research findings would be the same if the research were to be repeated at a later time or with a different sample of subjects (George & Mallery, 2006; Pallant, 2005; Veal, 2006). It refers to the degree to which items being measured are consistent with one another, in that they represent one, and only one, dimension, construct or area of interest (Babbie, 2001; Veal, 2006). In this study, the internal reliability of items was estimated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Cronbach, 1951; George & Mallery, 2006; Nunnally, 1978; Pallant, 2007). The value of coefficient alpha depends on the average inter-item correlation and the number of items in the scale (George & Mallery, 2006). Both Nunnally (1978; 1994) and George & Mallery (2006) argue that a calculated coefficient of a 0.70 or above confirms that the scale is internally reliable.

### **Public Sector: Qualitative**

Purposive sampling was employed to select a sample of the public sector stakeholder representatives for in-depth semi-structured interviews. Purposive sampling is characterized by the use of judgment to obtain a representative sample by including typical areas or groups in the sample (Kerlinger, 1986; Patton, 1990). With purposive sampling, the sample is selected for the convenience of the researcher who uses his/her own judgment in the selection process. The researcher decides on the participants and/or study sites that can best provide the needed information.

There is no overall sampling design that dictates the number of respondents needed (Bernard, 2000; Creswell & Clark, 2007; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). Thirteen (13) representatives were purposively selected from existing institutions and organizations that have stake or are influential in tourism and ecotourism-related development issues in the study area. Interviews of people with knowledge and expertise about issues of development in local communities provide an important knowledge base, which may contribute to the review of policies, and may improve planning, management and marketing of community-based ecotourism in the area. The total sample (N=13) of representatives was drawn from; local and national organizations (see Table 3-9). The sample included men and women aged 18 and older, who have worked or resided in the Kgalagadi region for a period of at least six months. Each organization and its representative were identified, contacted and requested to be interviewed. Participants were contacted via telephone and by actual visits to their organizations.

An in-depth interview was used in this study. The researcher-participant discussions were directed by the use of a semi-structured interview guide (Appendix D) with thirteen questions (Table 3-10). The interview questions measured the public sector stakeholders' knowledge and understanding of ecotourism, community-based ecotourism, the general conservation issues, park-based tourism, residents' participation in tourism/recreation, natural resource management, and the Transfrontier Park conservation and management issues. Additional questions for discussion were added through probing during the interview process. Participants were interviewed face-to-face by the researcher. The average duration for an interview was approximately 45 minutes.

## Data Treatment

### Residents

The household survey data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 13.0. First descriptive statistics, including frequencies and pivot tables were used to summarize data for all main constructs and variables in the conceptual models (Figure 1-1 & 1-2). Second, statistical analyses were conducted for statistical significance at the 0.05 level. The suitability of the data was assessed via Kaiser Meyer-Oaklin (KMO), and all analyses with a KMO of 0.7 and above were used (Babbie, 2001; George & Mallery, 2006). KMO was assessed because it is a measure of sampling adequacy (see Kaiser, 1970; 1974). The test of internal consistency (coefficient alpha) was performed for each of the constructs in this study.

The fourteen items in the perception construct were subjected to reliability analysis, and demonstrated a coefficient alpha of 0.80. To improve the alpha value, two items were deleted, and the reliability increased to 0.84 (Table 3-11). The conservation attitudes construct consisted of 16 items, with a coefficient alpha of 0.69. In order to improve the reliability for this construct, one item was removed and the reliability coefficient alpha increased to 0.72 (Table 3-12). These items had low inter-rater correlations, and their removal or deletion enhanced the reliability of their respective indices. Also, the community concern construct consisted of five items, with a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of 0.79 (Table 3-13); support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park consisted of 5 items, with a coefficient alpha of 0.70 (Table 3-14); and lastly support for CBE development construct had 6 items, with an alpha of 0.86 (Table 3-15). The alpha values were all above the threshold of 0.70 (see Table 3-16) as recommended by Nunnally (1978), and there is indication for a strong internal consistency of the items (Table 3-16). In this

study, the coefficient Alpha of 0.7 or greater was regarded suitable based on Baumgartner & Jackson (1999), Field (2005), Hair, Anderson, Tathan et al. (1998) and Nunnaly (1978).

Initially, a series of factor analyses were conducted with two objectives a) to identify and understand the basic underlying ideas among a large number of variables (items) and b) to reduce the number of variables, if necessary (see Meyers & Mullet, 2003, p. 203). Since the results identified some factors with satisfactory reliability scores while a few with less than satisfactory scores, summated scales of the measures with calculated mean scores were used in analysis.(Hair et al., 1998).

Based on all the constructs in the model, aggregated indices or mean scores were created (Table 3-17). The mean scores for the constructs (*perception index, attitudes index, concern index, support for CBE index and support for KTP index*) were used in the subsequent analyses in this study (see Darley, 1999; Morgan & Strong 2003; Pessemier, Bemmoar & Hanssen, 1977; Wang & Pfister, 2008; Wernimont & Fitzpatrick, 1972).

The collinearity analysis of all constructs was conducted to check if there were any problems of multicollinearity between independent variables (Osborne & Waters, 2002 Callaghan & Chen, 2008). The commonly used cut-off mark for determining the presence of multicollinearity is the Tolerance (TOL) value of less than 0.10 or Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) value of above 10 (Pallant, 2005, p.150). According to Callaghan & Chen (2008) and Meyers, Gamst & Guarino (2006) multicollinearity is indicated for a particular variable if tolerance value is 0.10 or less or if VIF is greater than 10 (p. 212). The VIF and Tolerance for this study ranged from 1.041 to 2.353 (VIF) and 0.425 to 0.961 (TOL), respectively. Thus, multicollinearity was not a problem (Allison, 1999; Hair et al., 1998; Osborne & Waters, 2002; Pallant, 2007). Also, the correlation matrix (Table 3-16) did not show any evidence of

multicollinearity. All correlations for the composed indices were below 0.50 except for one at 0.55, and were all significant except one. In order to assess discriminant validity, the correlations between paired variables were compared with their individual reliabilities. The correlations ranged from 0.007 to 0.554, and the reliabilities ranged from a 0.70 to 0.86. Gaski (1984) contends that if the correlation between two constructs is not higher than their respective reliability estimates, then discriminant validity exists. As shown on Table 3-16, no correlations were higher than their respective reliabilities. Thus, discriminant validity was ascertained for the construct indices.

Research hypotheses testing were conducted. First of all regression analysis assumptions (linearity, reliability of the measurement and normality) were tested to ensure that the data was fit for analysis (Babbie, 2001; Pallant, 2007). Overall, testing of the main variables (explanatory and response) in the conceptual models was employed. Data analyses for residents' survey were assessed. Pearson (r) correlation analyses were performed to determine if there were associations between the independent and dependent variables in the two conceptual models. Standard multiple regressions were also conducted with all the independent and dependent variables for both conceptual models to test for predictive validity. Both analyses were employed in this study in order to predict residents' behavior (multiple regressions) and to examine and understand association or relationship (correlation) (Grimm & Yarnold, 1997).

### **Public Sector**

For qualitative interview data, three types of coding (open, axial and selective) were employed in the analyses of interview data. Coding enables the researcher to organize information into manageable units and to compare information obtained from interview data. Coding also allows comparisons of one interview with another (Bernard, 2000; Coffey &

Atkinson, 1996; Henderson, 2006; Patton, 1990; 2002; Rubin & Rubin, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Thirteen in-depth interviews (8 locals and 5 nationals) were analyzed. All audio-recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim, except for 2 interviews in Kgalagadi district that were handwritten. The five stages of data analysis specified by Daly et al. (1992) and Hatch, (1998) were adapted in this study. First of all a codebook<sup>3</sup> was created. Pre-coded items such as age, gender, education, length of residency, place and date of interview were included in the codebook. The data was first coded by using open codes or labels whereby ideas or general themes were identified in the data and assigned labels. Portions of data were coded based on recurring themes and were marked by underlining meaning units or unit of analysis line by line using different colored pencils. The created codes were then organized in an index system (see Daly et al. (1992). The next step was axial coding, which involves studying the data to develop and organize labels, themes or categories (which were open coded) to further identify possible patterns and linkages between them (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Then similarities were identified and differences between categories determined based on recurring themes. Lastly selective coding was employed where themes were re-organized into meaningful categories and summary of what was found was written (see Daly et al., 1992; Hatch, 2002; Miles & Huberman, 1984). In addition, field memos were utilized for constant comparison and verification of issues that involved audio-recorded information.

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<sup>3</sup> A code book is a list of all of the codes used for the analysis of a particular collection of data, names of the variables that the codes represent, and a list of the kinds of items that are to be coded for each variable (See LeCompte & Schensul, 1999, p. 85).

## Hypotheses Testing

### Support for Community-Based Ecotourism Development

- **Hypothesis 1:** There will be a positive association between perception of CBE and support for CBE development.
- \*\* Support for CBE (**CBEIndex**) was correlated with perception about CBE.
- **Hypothesis 2:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitude towards KTP and support for CBE development.
- \*\* Support for CBE (**CBEIndex**) was correlated with conservation attitude.
- **Hypothesis 3:** There will be a negative association between levels of community concern and support for CBE development.
- \*\* Support for CBE (**CBEIndex**) was correlated with level of community concern.
- **Hypothesis 4:** There will be a positive association between participation (Use level) and support for CBE development.
- \*\* Support for CBE (**CBEIndex**) was correlated with participation (use level).
- **Hypothesis 5:** There will be a significant association between the co-variates (i.e., age, gender education, residency, distance/proximity) and support for CBE development.
- \*\* Support for CBE (**CBEIndex**) development was correlated with socio-demographic characteristics (age, gender, education, residency, distance/proximity).

### Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park

- **Hypothesis 6:** There will be a positive association between perception of CBE and support for KTP as a Transfrontier park.
- \*\* Support for conservation of KTP (SupKTP\_Index) as a Transfrontier Park was correlated with perception about CBE.
- **Hypothesis 7:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitude towards KTP and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- \*\* Support for conservation of KTP (SupKTP\_Index) as a Transfrontier Park was correlated with conservation attitude.
- **Hypothesis 8:** There will be a negative association between level of community concern and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

- \*\* Support for conservation of KTP (SupKTP\_Index) as a Transfrontier Park was correlated with level of community concern.
- **Hypothesis 9:** There will be a positive association between participation (use level) and support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- \*\* Support for conservation of KTP (SupKTP\_ID) as a Transfrontier Park was correlated with participation.
- **Hypothesis 10:** There will be a significant association between the co-variates (i.e., age, sex, location, residency, education) and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.
- \*\* Support for KTP (SupKTP\_Index) as a Transfrontier Park was correlated with socio-demographic characteristics (age, sex, education, residency, location) among residents.

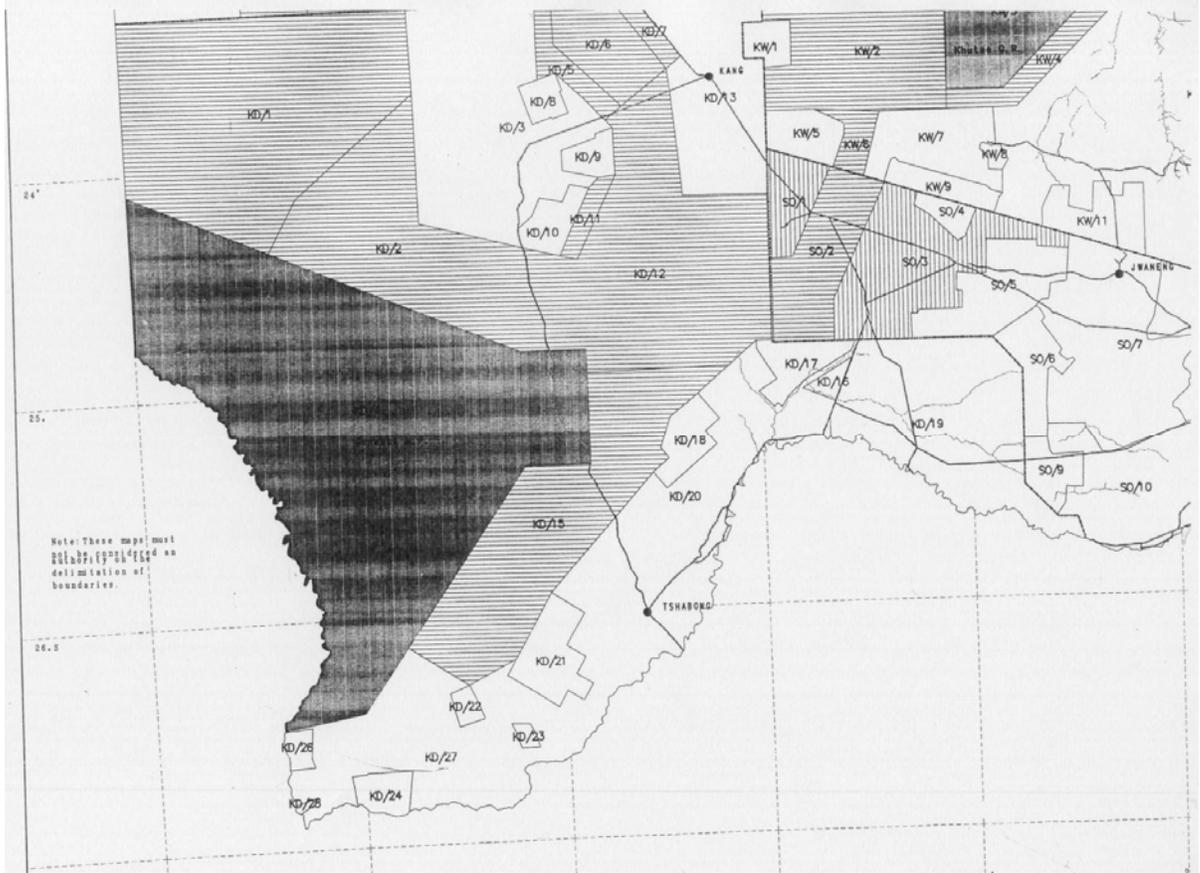


Figure 3-1. Designated Wildlife Management Areas in Southwest Botswana (GOB, 2001)

Table 3-1. Transfrontier Conservation Parks in Southern Africa

Names of Protected Area	Countries	Year	Size (km <sup>2</sup> )	Resources
Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	Botswana & South Africa	1999	38,000	Wildlife, wilderness, desert landscape, culture, historic & archaeological material, indigenous landscape
Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park	Mozambique, South Africa & Zimbabwe	2002	35,000	Wildlife, wilderness, culture, wetlands, archaeology, indigenous history
Shashe Limpopo Transfrontier Park	Botswana, South Africa & Zimbabwe	2006	4,872	Sandstone formations, baobab trees, diversity of game , birds, golden rhino, Mapungugwe World Heritage site, historic & anthropological resources
Lubombo Transfrontier Conservation Area	Mozambique, South Africa and Swaziland	2000	4,195	Wildlife, wilderness, culture, wetlands, archaeology, indigenous history
Maloti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation Area	Lesotho & South Africa	2001	8,113	Wildlife, unique montane and sub-alpine ecosystems, botanical landscape, culture, archaeology, indigenous history, mountains
Ai-AIS/Richtersveld Transfrontier Park	Namibia & South Africa	2003	6,222	World's second largest canyon, fish river canyon floor, Hot-spring game park, Richtersveld national park

Table 3-2. Population densities and distribution (1981 – 2001)

	Botswana	District		Kgalagadi South		Kgalagadi North	
		district	density	South	Density	North	Density
Surface area km <sup>2</sup>	582,000	110,110	-	66, 066	-	44 044	-
Population 1981	941,027	24,059	0.22	15 409	0.23	8 650	0.20
Population 1991	1,326,796	31,134	0.28	19 586	0.30	11 340	0.26
Population 2001	1,680,863	42,049	0.38	25 938	0.39	16 111	0.37

Source: KDDP 6, (2003-2009)

Table 3-3. Ecotourism resources in Kgalagadi area

Types of resources	Eco-activities
Nature	Nature walks, bird watching, guided walks, wilderness camping, dune biking, 4x4 trails, photographic safaris, sand dune/ridge, dune rides, desert landscape filming, sightseeing, wildlife, birding, salt pan system.
Culture/history	Cultural activities, indigenous/traditional villages, dances, music, dress, traditional weddings, traditional healing practices, San hunting, archaeological and historical remains, traditional life,
Arts and crafts	Bead-work, ostrich eggshell handiwork, hide and skin tanning, bone and wood carving, artifacts, music, initiation practices, hunting rituals,
Events/festivals	Agricultural shows, traditional dances, rain making/prayer rituals, initiation performances and rituals
Farming activities	Traditional farming, farm equipment & practice, karakul sheep and wool weaving, horses, donkey, hoodia gardens, game farms, game and livestock ranches, ostrich farms, camel ranch, organized donkey & camel rides,

Table 3-4. Attractions in the greater Kalahari region

Name	Attraction description	Category/type
Kuru museum & cultural centre	Contemporary artwork. San/Basarwa arts and craft and curios	Cultural-heritage
Ghanzi Craft center & shop	A 1953 outlet and training centre for San crafts-people, showcases, promotes and sells San/Basarwa crafts. Bow-and-arrow sets, springbok-skin dancing skirts, leather aprons, musical bows, hatched ostrich eggshell necklaces, woven mats, hats and indigenous dancing dolls.	Cultural - heritage
Gantsi Trail Blazers	San/Basarwa cultural camp. Guided walks & hunting and gathering expeditions	Nature & cultural-heritage
Central Kalahari Game Reserve	Largest game reserve in Botswana. wildlife resources & Basarwa cultural heritage	Nature & cultural-heritage
Kutse Game reserve	Most remote and unspoiled areas of Southern African region. Rich wildlife resources & anthropological, archaeological cultural heritage	Nature & cultural-heritage
Deception valley	Fossil valley, which stretches 80km across CKGR - Northern part, covered with short grass, dotted with the occasional islands of bushy trees, historical and heritage resource	Nature & cultural-heritage
Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	Transboundary conservation are, rich wildlife and wilderness resources, anthropological, archaeological remains, rich cultural heritage resources	Nature & cultural-based heritage
Mabuasehube wilderness Trail	From Molapo pan to Nossop, campsites mosemane salt pan, wild animals, (e.g., lions, leopards, cheetah, gemsbok), landscape features	Nature & cultural-based heritage
TSAMAMA large scale Camel Ranch	Variety of wildlife, Kgalagadi camel, wilderness built campsites – game and sight viewing, camel rides and photographic safaris	Nature & cultural-heritage
Kaa Kalahari Concession Area	Kalahari scenery, enclose three settlements of Ukwi, Ngwatle & Ncaang, and Masetlheng Pan & wilderness site, large numbers of desert animals and birds, unique desert landscape features-popular for photography, hunting and wilderness camping	Nature & cultural-based heritage
BORAVAST Hoodia project & tourist attraction	Hoodia cordonii gardens, desert landscape, unique undulating red soil ridges/mount	Nature & cultural-heritage
Kang tourist site	Lerucama game ranch, desert wild animals, birds & nature-scape and wilderness camping	Nature & cultural-heritage
Berry Bush camel ranch & built tourist campsite	Wildlife, camel and wilderness campsite, anthropological remains	Nature & heritage

Table 3-5. Data collection for local residents (October 2008 – January 2009)

Week	Location/villages	# of surveys
1.	Ncaang	37
2.	Ukhwi	59
3.	Zutshwa	55
4.	Tshane	89
5.	Khawa	75
6.	Struizendam	44
7	Bokspits	53
8 & 9	Tsabong	212
10, 11 & 12	Kang	122
TOTAL		746

Table 3-6. Data collection for the public sector

Date	Village/town	Time	Organization
11/13/2008	Ukhwi	10:00	Ukhwi customary court- Kgotla
11/15/2008	Zutshwa	16:18	Xaxe! Trust (community-based Organization)
11/18/2008	Hukuntsi	14.00	Wildlife Department (Sub office)
11/20/2008	Khawa	8:20	Khawa Development Trust
11/28/2008	Struizendam	11:40	Village Development committee
11/28/2008	Struizendam	10:00	Struizendam customary - Kgotla
11/28/2008	KTP-Two Rivers	16:00	Department of Wildlife National Park
11/29/2008	Struizendam	13:00	Farmers Association
11/30/2008	Bokspits	12:00	Bokspits Customary court
12/03/2008	Tsabong	10:45	Community Development & Outreach Unit (DWNP)
12/14/2008	Kang	12:00	Kang Customary Court
12/29/2008	Tsabong	10:00	Kgalagadi Land board
12/29/2008	Tsabong	16:30	Tsabong Customary court - Kgotla
10/30/2008	Gaborone	14:00	Botswana Tourism Board
12/10/2008	Gaborone	9:00	Department of Wildlife & National Parks (Park Unit)
12/10/2008	Gaborone	10:00	Department of Wildlife & National Parks (CBNRM)
01/23/2008	Gaborone	15:00	Department of Environmental Affairs (NCSA)
01/27/2008	Gaborone	14:00	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife & Tourism

Table 3-7. Sampling for local residents per village, household and population

Village/settlements	Total village Population (N)	Total households (N)*	30% of households	Household sampled	Approx. Distance to KTP (KM)
North Kgalagadi					
Ncaang	175	43	13	37	250
Ukhwi	453	114	34	59	90
Zutshwa	469	118	35	55	75
Tshane	858	209	63	89	160
Kang	3,744	913	274	122(82)**	280
South Kgalagadi					
Khawa	517	128	39	75	21
Struizendam	313	76	23	44	23
Bokspits	499	122	37	53	53
Tsabong	6,591	1,608	482	212(145)**	300
Total (9)	13,619	3,331	1000	746	

\* Household estimate = total population/4.1; Note: \*\* Number in parentheses is 30% of the original 30%.

Table 3-8. Operationalization of variables: survey questions and measurements

Residents	Measurement level and type
Village/settlements	Nominal – 9 categories (Ncaang, Ukhwi, Zutshwa; Tshane...)
Age	Scale
Gender	Nominal – (male, female)
Ethnicity	Nominal – (Basarwa; Bangologa; Baherero...)
Residency	Scale (No of years)
Level of education	Ordinal – (no schooling; primary; secondary; vocational)
Distance	Scale (kilometers)
Income	Ordinal – (>P500; P501-P1000 ...)
Employment status	Ordinal – (Formal, part time; self employed; unemployed...)
Ecotourism knowledge	Nominal – 3 categories (No; Yes; Don't know): 11 questions
Potential concern	Interval – 5-point Likert scale (Not at all concerned...): 5 items
Participation (Use levels)	Nominal – yes/no; Reasons for visit & frequency of visit yes/no
Conservation attitudes	Interval – 5-point Likert scales (strongly disagree to strongly agree): 16 items.
Perception about CBE	Interval – 5-point Likert scales (strongly disagree to strongly agree): 14 items.
Support for KTP	Interval – 5-point Likert scale (strongly oppose; to strongly support): 5 items
Support for CBE	Interval – 5-point Likert scale (strongly oppose to strongly support): 6 items

Table 3-9. Sampling frame: respondents and instruments

Local Residents	Public Sector
Villages	National
Households	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife & Tourism
	Department of Environmental Affairs
	Department of Wildlife (National Parks Division)
	Department of Wildlife (Community development Unit)
	KTP Two Rivers Sector
	Customary Court Headmen
Systematic sampling	Purposive sampling
Household survey	In-depth interviews

Table 3-10. Public Sector stakeholder interview questions

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What do you think of Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP) as a Trans-boundary Park?

What do you consider to be the 3 major things that you like about KTP?

What do you consider to be the 3 major things that you dislike about KTP?

What are your opinions about the current management of KTP?

What is the role of your organization in CBNRM programs?

What is your knowledge about Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE)?

What is the role of your organization in CBE development?

What CBE initiatives or projects are in practice in your area?

What are the accrued benefits by residents from CBNRM and CBO initiatives in your area

What benefits does your community obtain from KTP?

What is the potential for CBE development in your area?

CBNRM is the right approach for wildlife conservation  Yes ;  No;  Not Sure

Give reasons \_\_\_\_\_

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Table 3-11. Reliability analysis for respondents’ perceptions about community-based ecotourism development

Statements	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Corrected Item-total correlation	Alpha if item Deleted
CBE increases income and standard of living in the community.	3.93	0.81	0.56	0.83
CBE increases job opportunities for the community.	3.87	0.88	0.62	0.82
CBE promotes equal sharing of benefits from community projects	3.64	0.93	0.51	0.83
CBE provides educational experiences for the local community.	4.02	0.80	0.13	0.84
CBE enhances the quality of life of local communities.	3.78	0.84	0.32	0.83
CBE promotes meeting new people & increases cultural exchange.	4.11	0.72	0.38	0.82
CBE improves understanding & image of my community.	3.89	0.83	0.18	0.84
CBE enhances local arts & crafts in local communities.	4.02	0.79	0.31	0.83
CBE provides casual earning opportunities by	3.82	0.92	0.26	0.83

selling grass, crafts, firewood, berries, mahupu.				
CBE protects & supports wildlife resources.	4.18	0.59	0.52	0.83
CBE supports conservation of forest or veldt resources.	4.14	0.59	0.51	0.83
CBE increases support for natural resources conservation.	4.12	0.62	0.47	0.83
Overall Index	M=3.9	SD=0.47		$\alpha=0.84$

<sup>a</sup> SD Standard Deviation.

Table 3-12. Reliability analysis for respondents' conservation attitudes to KTP

Statements	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Corrected Item-total correlation	Alpha if item Deleted
KTP should be protected for benefit of our future generations.	4.51	0.59	0.34	0.71
KTP conservation has taken our land from us*.	3.63	1.06	0.33	0.70
It is important to protect KTP for survival of plants.	4.11	0.69	0.33	0.71
Farmers don't have land to cultivate and graze livestock due to KTP*.	3.65	1.08	0.43	0.69
Staff from KTP has done nothing for villagers' lives*.	3.04	1.10	0.25	0.71
People who illegally kill and eat wild animals in KTP should not be fined or jailed*.	3.89	1.21	0.27	0.72
KTP is for tourists and we are not allowed to visit*.	4.01	0.82	0.28	0.71
It is better to have some parts of land in KTP allocated to the local people to use for agriculture*.	3.62	1.11	0.42	0.69
If hunting and grazing in KTP is allowed then wildlife will disappear.	4.06	0.89	0.36	0.70
If there is unlimited access to forest resources in KTP (firewood, medicinal plants, forest foods), then they will all disappear.	3.94	0.92	0.32	0.72
It is important for government to devote more money toward a strong a conservation program for KTP.	4.11	0.76	0.30	0.71
KTP provides jobs to people from the village.	3.18	1.13	0.33	0.71
KTP is being managed for the local people.	3.09	1.10	0.35	0.70
I am happy to have my village next to KTP.	3.90	0.77	0.28	0.71
It is important to protect KTP for the survival of wildlife.	4.21	0.71	0.34	0.71
Overall Index	M=3.8	SD=0.43		$\alpha$ =0.72

\* Items reverse coded prior to analysis. Note: <sup>a</sup>Standard Deviation.

Table 3-13. Reliability analysis for level of concern about tourism

Statements	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Item-total correlation	Alpha if item Deleted
Destroy our environment	3.37	1.33	0.63	0.73
Change our cultural traditions	3.56	1.33	0.58	0.75
Increase social ills (e.g. crime)	4.14	1.09	0.60	0.74
Increase incidences of HIV/AIDS infection	4.33	1.06	0.56	0.75
Loss of grazing land for our livestock if more hotels and lodges are rebuilt.	3.53	1.26	0.49	0.77
Overall Index	<i>M</i> =3.78	<i>SD</i> =0.89		$\alpha$ =0.79

<sup>a</sup> SD Standard Deviation

Table 3-14. Reliability analysis for respondents' support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park

Statements	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Corrected Item-total correlation	Alpha if item Deleted
Support conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park	3.61	1.20	0.472	0.66
Support current management staff at KTP	3.61	0.93	0.553	0.61
Support creation of Buffer zone and wildlife management areas (WMAs)	3.87	0.86	0.299	0.71
Support regulation and guidelines to maintain KTP as a Transfrontier Park	3.75	0.98	0.609	0.58
Support protection of KTP as conservation area	4.23	0.59	0.410	0.68
Overall Index	<i>M</i> =3.8	<i>SD</i> =0.63		$\alpha$ =.70

<sup>a</sup>SD Standard Deviation.

Table 3-15. Reliability analysis for respondents' support for community-based ecotourism development

Statements	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Corrected Item-total correlation	Alpha if item Deleted
CBE promotes preservation of local cultures & traditions	4.0	0.64	0.65	0.84
CBE promotes environmental education within local communities	4.0	0.79	0.62	0.85
CBE encourages local participation in tourism planning & development	4.1	0.69	0.67	0.84
CBE promotes collective income for the community	3.9	0.75	0.70	0.83
CBE encourages conservation of natural resources	3.9	0.82	0.64	0.85
CBE promotes preservation of local culture and traditions	4.2	0.64	0.69	0.84
Overall Index	<i>M</i> =4.0	<i>SD</i> =0.56		$\alpha$ =0.86

<sup>a</sup> Standard Deviation.

Table 3-16. Constructs and reliabilities

Constructs/Indices*	# of items	Mean	SD <sup>a</sup>	Reliability ( $\alpha$ )	# of cases
Perception index	12	3.96	0.47	0.84	730
Conservation attitude index	15	3.80	0.43	0.72	734
Concern index	5	3.78	0.88	0.79	745
Support for KTP index	5	3.80	0.63	0.70	742
Support for CBE index	6	4.0	0.56	0.86	739

<sup>a</sup> Standard Deviation.

Table 3-17. Correlation matrixes of constructs indices

Indices	Concern index	Support for KTP index	Support for CBE index	Perception Index	Conservation attitude index
Concern index	1.00				
Support for KTP index	0.217***	1.00			
Support for CBE index	0.124***	0.376***	1.00		
Perception index	0.095**	0.259***	0.554***	1.00	
Conservation attitude index	-0.007	0.397***	0.406***	0.448***	1.00

\*\*\*= P<0.001    \*\*=P<0.01    \*=P<0.05

Table 3-18. Visitor lodging facilities and activities

Name of village	Ownership	Guesthouse/ lodge	Built campsites & campground	Campground with longdrop shower, pitlatrine & <i>Boma</i>
Struizendam	Local	Kgalagadi birdsong	Kgalagadi birdsong	Kgalagadi birdsong
Bokspits	Community <sup>4</sup>	Guesthouse		
Khawa	Community	Guesthouse		
	Community	Guesthouse		Safari hunters campsite
	KKDT/CBO			
Zutshwa	Community	guesthouse		
	Xaxe! Trust/CBO	guesthouse	campsite	Safari hunters campsite
Ncaang	Community	guesthouse		Safari hunters campsite
Ukhwi	Community	guesthouse		-
	NKXT Trust/CBO	Guesthouse	campsite	Safari hunters campsite and tourist campsites
Tshane	Community	Guesthouse		Tshane pan tourist campground
Kang	Joint Ownership	Insigi		
	Local	Guesthouse		
	Local	Kang guest house		
	Local	Echo lodge		
	Joint Ownership	Ultrastop lodge complex		Tourist restcamp
Tsabong	local	Guest house		
	local	Desert motel		
	local	Diana		
	local	guesthouse		
	Local	Mokha lodge		
	Foreign owned	Guesthouse	Berrybush built campsite	Berrybush camp & camel farm

<sup>4</sup> Community – Refers to a facility that is owned by the Village Development Committee partially funded by District Council Office.

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

This chapter presents results in two sections: Quantitative and Qualitative. Data were collected from two stakeholder groups (residents and public sector). The results are analyzed, summarized and presented in this chapter.

### **Profile of Residents**

A total of 746 of household surveys were completed with a response rate of 75%. The socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 4-1. Based on the total sample, there were more females (55%) than males (45%). The difference in gender could be cultural, since during the time of the survey male household heads were at work in farms, fields, cattle-posts, while females stayed home to tend to household chores and children. Also, in rural Botswana, it is common for men to out-migrate to other towns and villages in search of job opportunities.

The youngest respondent was 18 and the oldest was 92 years of age, with 41% in the age bracket of 18-30 and 24% in the 31-40 age bracket. The 41-50 age group was the third largest and constituted 16% of the total sample. Residents who were 61 years and older were representative of 10% of the total sample. The median age was within the age bracket of 31- 40 years. Thirty-two percent of the respondents lived in a household with 5-7 persons; 30% lived in a household size of 2-4 persons, and about 9% lived alone.

Literacy levels varied by village/settlement, and there were vast differences across communities. Sixteen percent had no formal schooling, 21% had attained primary education, 32% had junior certificate (U.S. Grade 8), 18% had secondary education equivalent to the United States' high school education. Only 6% of the respondents had some form of university education.

A total of 31% indicated involvement in formal employment, 25% were unemployed, 24% were self employed, and 19% had part-time employment. In addition, 80% of the respondents noted that 1-2 persons in the household had a job, and 10.5% reported that 3-4 persons in their home had paid employment. Respondents (26%) reported a total household monthly income in Botswana currency (i.e. Pula) of less than P500<sup>1</sup> (U.S.\$71), followed by 16% in the range of P501- P1000 (U.S.\$71-143). Thirty percent had total household incomes that exceeded P3000 (U.S.\$429). Overall, the total monthly household income displayed two extreme cases: very low total income for some residents, and very high for other members of the community. The median monthly household income ranged between P1001- P1500 (U.S.\$143 – U.S.\$214).

Respondents were from Tsabong (28%), Kang (16%), Tshane (12%), Khawa (10%), Ukhwi (8%), Zutshwa (7%), Bokspits (7%), Struizendam (6%), and Ncaang (5%) villages. With regard to respondents' ethnicities, the highly represented group was Bakgalagadi (28%), followed by Batlharo (Batlhware) (21%), Bangologa (14%), Coloureds (13%) and San/Basarwa (7%). Approximately 67% of the respondents were native residents, born and raised in Kgalagadi as children. Seventeen percent had lived in the Kgalagadi for 1-5 years, while 10% had lived in area for at least 10 years. Length of residency in the study area averaged 28.5 years. Residents had lived in the community from a 12 month period to 85 years.

Finally, the majority of the respondents (73%) had knowledge or could estimate the distance of their respective villages to KTP in kilometers. About twelve percent of the respondents noted that their villages were located less than 30 kilometers from KTP, and 23% of them lived about 120 km away from KTP. However, about 27% indicated that they did not know because they had never visited the Park.

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<sup>1</sup> Botswana Pula (US\$1.00 ~ BWP 7.00)

## Frequencies of Variables: Residents

### Ecotourism Knowledge

Respondents were asked knowledge-based questions about ecotourism and related activities in their various communities and the results are summarized in Table 4-2. Nearly all respondents (96%) indicated that accommodation establishments were available in their area, while 55% expressed knowledge of availability of campsites in their respective villages. The majority of respondents (76%) reported that they were aware that many Batswana (citizens) visit Kgalagadi district strictly for meetings, funerals and business activities. About 56% of the residents reported to be aware that many people from the Kgalagadi visit their area for recreation and tourism. Approximately 44% of the respondents were aware that people who visit the Park (KTP) stay and utilize lodging facilities and services available in their villages. Residents (61%) were not aware<sup>2</sup> of a cultural village for tourism in the Kgalagadi district.

Most respondents (46%) noted that KTP does not provide opportunities for community development programs or projects in their communities, while 25% indicated that they did not know of any programs. A sizeable number of respondents (44%) indicated that community-based revenues did not benefit many members of their community; while 23% did not know of tourism benefits accruing for the community. Also, approximately 35% indicated that they did not know if community-owned campsites outside KTP accrued more money from visitors and tourists. The majority of the residents (89%) perceived ecotourism as an important industry in their communities. Also, many residents (88%) were of the opinion that community-based ecotourism is essential in their respective village/settlements.

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<sup>2</sup> Those who answered yes to this question may also have been referring to individually built cultural heritage properties that were not necessarily for tourists (Bokspits, personal comm.)

### **Perceptions about Community-Based Ecotourism**

Residents' level of perceptions towards community-based ecotourism development was measured with 14 items. The items were created using a 5-point Likert-type scale (Table 4-6). Nearly all respondents (95%) agreed that CBE has the potential to help communities protect their wildlife resources. Similarly, almost all respondents (93%) agreed that CBE supports conservation of forest resources. Additionally, 92% agreed that CBE increases support for natural resources conservation.

The majority of respondents (82%) agreed that CBE development has the potential to increase income and the standard of living in their community. Most (81%) agreed that CBE has the potential to increase jobs in the villages. Also, 66% felt that CBE would promote equal sharing of benefits accrued from ecotourism-related community projects. However, 21% were neutral (neither agree nor disagree) whether CBE promotes equitable sharing of benefits. Eighty-three percent of the respondents agreed that CBE has the potential to provide educational experiences for local people. About 77% agreed that CBE enhances quality of life of local residents. Thirteen percent of the respondents were neutral. Most (79%) agreed that CBE provides casual earning opportunities by selling grass, craft, firewood, berries and other forest foods.

A significant number of respondents (90%) agreed that CBE has the potential to promote cultural exchange. Similarly, 83% agreed that CBE can improve understanding and image of their local communities. Also, the majority (87%) agreed that CBE can encourage production of regional arts and crafts in local communities. Finally, only 25% agreed that CBE discourages preservation of cultural resources.

### **Conservation Attitudes**

This construct was used to assess the general conservation attitudes (16 question items) of residents towards KTP as a Transfrontier protected area. The items were based on a 5-point

Likert-type scale that ranged from 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree. Re-coding of items was employed such that positive and negative statements with higher scores indicated higher levels of attitudes (pro or anti conservation) (Table 4-5).

The vast majority of the respondents (98%) agreed<sup>3</sup> that KTP should be conserved for future generations. About 70% disagreed<sup>4</sup> that conservation and protection of KTP had taken land from the local community. Similarly, 71% disagreed that farmers do not have land to cultivate and graze their livestock due to KTP, while 20% agreed. Respondents were also asked to put forth their views about whether it would be better if some parts of the land in KTP were allocated to communities to utilize for agriculture. A sizeable percentage of respondents (69%) disagreed that parts of land from KTP should be allocated for agriculture, while 23% agreed. Furthermore, almost all respondents (94%) agreed that it is important to protect KTP in order to safeguard wildlife resources. Most (92%) agreed that it is important to protect KTP for survival of plants.

About 87% of the sampled residents agreed that if hunting of wild animals and grazing of livestock was permitted within the confines of KTP, then wild animals would disappear. Similarly, the majority (85%) also agreed that unlimited access to the forest resources (e.g. collecting fuel wood, medicinal plants, herbal teas, etc.) inside KTP would lead to disappearance of resources in the Park. Most respondents (90%) also agreed that the government should allocate more monetary resources for a vigorous conservation program at KTP.

In order to establish if communities were truly inclined to conservation of KTP, they were asked: “People who illegally kill and eat wild animals from KTP should not be fined or jailed”? Most respondents (80%) disagreed with the statement. However, 16% of the respondents agreed

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<sup>3</sup> Agreed (strongly agree and agree responses combined)

<sup>4</sup> Disagreed (strongly disagree and disagree responses combined)

that illegal hunters should not be convicted for poaching of wild animals. Respondents were also presented with benefit-related questions. About 51% agreed that KTP provides employment opportunities in the community, while 36% disagreed. Approximately, 44% agreed that KTP was managed for local people. Eighty-six percent of the respondents disagreed that KTP is for tourists and they are not allowed to visit. Additionally, respondents were asked to give their views with regards to proximity/distance of their village from KTP. A substantial number (82%) were happy to have their village next to the KTP. However, 43% disagreed that staff from KTP had done nothing for the villagers, while 37% agreed and 20% were neutral.

### **Community Concern**

Residents were presented with 5-point likert-type statements designed to assess level of potential concern for their community if tourism were to increase (Table 4-3). Most respondents expressed varying concerns about potential growth of tourism in the community. About 60% expressed concern<sup>5</sup> that tourism has the potential to damage the local environment. Loss of grazing land for livestock if more hotels and infrastructure were built was a concern for 65% of the respondents. Also, residents (66%) were concerned that tourism would cause changes in the local cultural traditions. A substantial number (83%) expressed concern about possible increases in social ills, especially crime in the community. The majority of the residents (87%) were very concerned that tourism is likely to increase incidences of HIV/AIDS infections.

In addition, respondents were asked an open-ended question designed to identify the major potential concern if tourism was increased in their area. Respondents were free to discuss major potential concerns about tourism. Three major concerns surfaced: possible increase in incidence of HIV/AIDS infections (33%), increase in social ills i.e. crime (24%), and loss of grazing land

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<sup>5</sup> Concerned (extremely concerned and very concerned responses combined)

for livestock (11%). When probed further, respondents indicated their aspirations to have a well rounded tourism industry that could create jobs and improve lives within their communities.

### **Participation (Use Levels)**

Respondents' use levels or participation in activities at KTP was also measured. About 58% indicated that they had never visited the Park in their lifetime, while 42% had visited. About 23% visited KTP for the purposes of recreation/tourism, 24% visited to see wild animals, birds and nature and 19% had visited for shopping, visiting friends and relatives, attending funeral and purchasing gasoline. Almost all respondents (99%) had never been inside the KTP for veldt or forest food collection. According to Botswana's conservation policies and National Park Act (1992), collection of natural resources, such as, fuel wood, grass, timber and others, is not permitted in any protected and conservation areas. Also, 97% of the respondents never visited KTP for any meetings associated with Park management (Table 4-4).

Respondents were also asked to indicate the frequency of their visits to KTP based on the previous twelve-month period for recreation/tourism. The majority (92%) of the respondents indicated they had not taken any trips to KTP in the previous 12-month period. Among those who had visited, only 9% entered the park to see wildlife, birds or nature, while 4% visited for recreation/tourism activities. Other respondents (6%) had entered the Park only once for other reasons, such as shopping, attending a funeral, visiting friends and relatives, or when in-transit to other villages and towns in South Africa. Of those who had visited the Park at least 3 times in the previous 12 month-period, 4% had visited for wildlife viewing and nature.

### **Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park**

Residents' level of support for KTP as a Trans-boundary Park included 5 items measured by a 1 to 5-point Likert-type scale. Results showed variation in residents' responses with regards to support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park (Table 4-7). The majority of respondents (95%)

expressed support<sup>6</sup> for protection of KTP as a conservation area. Seventy-two percent indicated that they were supportive of KTP as a Transfrontier Park. However, 21% opposed<sup>7</sup> KTP's status as a Trans-boundary protected area. Sixteen percent indicated that they opposed and/or were not in favor of the current management staff at KTP. Nonetheless, 65% of them expressed support of the current KTP management staff. The results also show that a substantial number of respondents (78%) were supportive of the creation of KTP buffer zones and Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs); while 73% indicated that they supported regulations and guidelines that maintain KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Additionally, respondents were asked an open-ended question in order to assess level of awareness of the creation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park. They were asked: "Why was KTP created?" (Table 4-8). Generally, most of the respondents (75%) were conversant and noted that KTP was created for conservation of wildlife and plant resources. Only 8% indicated that KTP was established for ecotourism. However, 11% of the respondents expressed lack of knowledge about why the Park was converted into a Transfrontier Park (TFP).

### **Support for Community-Based Ecotourism Development**

The level of support for community-based ecotourism development consisted of 6 items, measured on a 5 point Likert-type scale (Table 4-9). About 90% of the residents indicated support and noted that CBE promotes local community involvement in tourism activities, while only 7% were neutral. The majority (84%) supported the notion that CBE promotes preservation of local culture and traditions. About 88% expressed support that CBE promotes environmental education for the local community. Most respondents (83%) indicated support that CBE encourages local

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<sup>6</sup> Support (strongly support and support responses combined)

<sup>7</sup> Oppose (Strongly oppose and oppose responses combined)

participation in tourism planning and development, while 12% of them were neutral. In addition, 78% supported the idea that CBE can promote collective incomes for local people. Nearly all the respondents (94%) supported the idea that CBE encourages conservation of natural resources.

### **Results of Hypotheses Testing**

#### **Residents**

The primary purpose of this empirical study was to examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables in the conceptual models (see Chapter 1) to assess residents' support for CBE development, and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

To reiterate, the dependent variable support for community-based ecotourism development index was used in both Pearson ( $r$ ) correlation and regression analysis, and consisted of six items measured on a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale. The second dependent variable, support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index had five items, and was also measured on a 1 to 5 Likert-type scale. Mean scores or indices were calculated for each dependent and independent variable in the model except for gender, education and participation. The mean substitution was used in regression analysis as the proportion of missing values was very small (Field, 2005; Meyers et al., 2006), and Tabachnick & Fidell (2001). Gender, education and participation were dummy coded (1 and 0) in the regression analysis.

For the purposes of this research, first Pearson ( $r$ ) correlation was used to test for associations between each response and the criterion variables in the conceptual models. Second, two standard multiple linear regression analyses were conducted to test for variables predictive ability. The first standard multiple regression analysis used *support for CBE development index* (Figure 1-1) as the dependent variable, while *perception index*, *conservation attitude index*, *community concern index* and *participation* were the independent variables. The socio-demographic variables were *age*, *gender*, *education*, *residency* and *distance/proximity*. These

variables are considered essential in this study because they can help to predict support for CBE development and KTP. The second standard multiple regression analysis had *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* (Figure 1-2) as a dependent variable, and socio-demographic variables were similar to the previous regression analysis.

### **Support for community-based ecotourism development**

#### a) Perception about CBE

**Hypothesis 1:** There will be a positive association between perception about CBE and support for community-based ecotourism development.

Pearson's correlation( $r$ ) was performed, where *support for CBE development* index was correlated with *perception of CBE index*. The results indicated that a statistically significant relationship existed (Table 4-10). *Perception about CBE index* had a very strong positive effect ( $r=0.55$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) on *support for CBE development index*. The results showed that the hypothesis was supported as it indicated that a positive association existed between *perception about CBE development* and *support for CBE development*. The more positive the respondents' perceptions were about CBE, the more likely they held support for CBE development.

#### b) Conservation Attitude

**Hypothesis 2:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitude towards KTP and support for CBE development.

Pearson correlation ( $r$ ) was employed to test the hypothesis which evaluated association between *support for CBE development* index and *conservation attitude* index. Results noted a strong positive and statistically significant association ( $r=0.41$ ,  $p=0.001$ ) between *conservation attitudes* and *support for CBE development*. The hypothesis was supported as a positive association was observed (Table 4-10). The more positive residents were about conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park, the more support they expressed about CBE development. This finding implies that those who displayed favorable attitude towards conservation of KTP as a

Transfrontier Park were likely to perceive CBE as beneficial, and thus would express positive support for CBE development.

c) Community Concern

**Hypothesis 3:** There will be a negative association between level of community concern about tourism and support for CBE development.

Hypothesis 3 was tested using Pearson's correlation( $r$ ) to evaluate the association between *support for CBE development index* and *community concern index*. The correlation analysis identified a positive and statistically significant relationship between *community concern index* and *support for CBE development index* ( $r=0.12$ ,  $p=0.001$ ). The results indicated that even if residents expressed concern about potential increase in tourism in their community, they were still more likely to support CBE development. Hence, the hypothesis was not supported because a positive relationship was observed (Table 4-10).

d) Participation (Use levels)

**Hypothesis 4:** There will be a positive association between participation (use level) and support for CBE development.

Participation was a dichotomous variable which represented whether respondents had visited KTP in the past or had not. This variable was dummy coded with those who had visited as 1, and those who had not as 0. The correlation analysis showed no statistical Association between *participation (use level)* and *support for CBE development index* ( $r=0.01$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) (Table 4-11). Residents who participated in activities at KTP were likely not to support CBE development. The hypothesis was not supported, as relationship between *participation (use level)* and *support for CBE development* did not exist (Table 4-10).

e) Selected Socio-Demographic variables

**Hypothesis 5 (a – e):** There will be significant associations between the co-variates (i.e., age, gender, education, residency, distance/proximity) and support for community-based ecotourism development.

Hypotheses 5(a-e) were tested using Pearson's correlations ( $r$ ) to evaluate the associations between the selected socio-economic variables and support for CBE development. Age, gender and education were dummy coded.

**a) Age**

It was hypothesized that *age* will have a negative association with *support for CBE development*, with younger residents likely to express support. *Support for CBE development index* was regressed on *age*. The results of the correlation analysis indicated a positive and significant association between *age* and *support for CBE development index* ( $r=0.08$ ,  $p<0.01$ ). The hypothesis was not supported because there was a positive association between *age* and *support for CBE development index*. Increase in age equated to more residents' support for CBE development (Table 4-10).

**b) Gender**

It was hypothesized that *gender* will have a positive association with *support for CBE development*, with more males than females likely to *support CBE development*. *Support for CBE development index* was correlated with *gender*. Results indicated a lack of statistically significant association ( $r=0.02$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) between *gender* and *support for CBE development index*. The hypothesis was not supported because gender did not have any association with *support for CBE development* (Table 4-10).

**c) Education**

It was hypothesized that level of education will have a positive association with *support for CBE development*, with residents who had secondary or higher education likely to *show support*. *Support for CBE development index* was correlated with *level of education*, and results showed that a statistically significant association existed ( $r=-0.14$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). *Support for CBE*

*development* was influenced negatively by *level of education*, and the hypothesis was not supported. The more educated residents were, the less support they held for CBE development in their area (Table 4-10).

#### **d) Residence**

It was hypothesized that length of *residence* would have a positive association with *support for CBE development index*, with long time residency likely to express support. The association between *support for CBE development index* and *length of residence* was tested. The analysis indicated a positive and statistically significant association between residents' *length of residency* and *support for CBE development index* ( $r=0.11$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 4-10). The results supported the hypothesis because the longer residents lived in the community, the more they were likely to express support for CBE development.

#### **e) Distance/Proximity**

It was hypothesized that a positive association existed between distance/proximity of villages to KTP and *support for CBE development index*, with *support increasing with distance from KTP*. The Pearson r correlation was performed between *support for CBE development index* and *distance/proximity*. The hypothesis was rejected as the results indicated a lack of statistically significant association ( $r=-0.03$ ,  $p>0.05$ ). *Distance/proximity* of villages to KTP did not have a direct effect on residents' *support for CBE development* (Table 4-10).

An additional analysis was performed in which a standard multiple linear regression was conducted with all research variables (*perception of CBE, conservation attitudes, community concern participation*), and covariates (*age, gender, education, residency, distance/proximity*) to determine the best predictive validity of the dependent variables (Figure 1-1). Explanatory variables: participation, gender and education were dummy coded as (0 and 1), and

distance/proximity was in kilometers. All predictors were entered into the model to examine the model's ability to predict the outcome (Field, 2005). Based on the enter method, multiple regression was calculated and a statistically significant regression equation was obtained [ $F(9, 736) = 45, 43, p < 0.000$  with  $R^2 = 0.357$  and adjusted  $R^2 = 0.349$ ], and the model explained 35% of the total variance (see Table 4-11), indicating the weaker predictive ability of the model.

For all the research variables in the model, *perception of CBE index* ( $\beta = 0.446, p < 0.001$ ), *conservation attitudes index* ( $\beta = 0.218, p < 0.001$ ) and *community concern index* ( $\beta = 0.058, p < 0.01$ ) were positive and also statistically significant predictors of residents' *support for CBE development*. *Length of residence* in the community also had a positive and statistically significant relationship with *support for CBE development* ( $\beta = 0.142, p < 0.001$ ). However, *participation (Use level)* was not a significant predictor. None of the following socio-demographic variables *age, gender, level of education and distance/proximity* was statistically significant. However, in the analysis *age* and *level of education* were statistically significant predictors of residents' *support for CBE development*. Thus, residents' *support for CBE development* was predicted by the *perception of CBE, conservation attitudes, community concern and length of residency* (Figure 4-1). In all, *participation, age, gender, level of education and distance/proximity* were not good predictors of residents' *support for CBE development* (Table 4-11).

### **Summary of results for conceptual model 1**

Results of the multiple linear regression analysis in Table 4-11 showed that the model is a significant predictor of residents' support for CBE development ( $F(9, 736) = 45, 43, p < 0.001$ ). The predictor variables explained 35.7% (i.e.  $R^2 = 0.357$ ) of the variation in the model. Based on the regression analysis, *perception of CBE* was the best predictor to the total model ( $\beta = 0.446, p < 0.001$ ), followed by *conservation attitudes* ( $\beta = 0.218, p < 0.001$ ), *length of residency* ( $\beta = 0.142,$

$p < 0.001$ ), and *community concern* ( $\beta=0.058$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). It is important to note that *participation*, *age*, *gender*, *level of education* or *distance/proximity* showed statistically significant predictive validity in the conceptual model.

In all, Pearsons' correlation revealed that overall, hypotheses 3 (community concern), 4 (Participation), 5a (age), 5b (gender), 5c (education) and 5e (distance) were not supported.

### **Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park**

#### f) Perception about CBE

**Hypothesis 6:** There will be a positive association between perception about CBE and support for KTP as a Transfrontier park.

Pearson's correlation( $r$ ) was performed between *perception about CBE index* and *support for conservation of KTP index*. Results of the analysis identified a positive and statistically significant association between *perception about CBE* and *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier protected area* ( $r=0.26$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was supported because as perceptions about CBE increases, the support for KTP increases. Thus, residents with positive perceptions about CBE were likely to express support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

#### g) Conservation attitude

**Hypothesis 7:** There will be a positive association between conservation attitude toward KTP and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Pearson's correlation( $r$ ) was performed between *support for conservation of KTP index* and *conservation attitude index*, and results showed a positive and statistically significant relationship ( $r = 0.39$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). *Conservation attitudes* were significantly associated with *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park*. The hypothesis was supported as increase in pro-conservation attitudes led to more support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park (see Table 4-12).

#### h) Community concern

**Hypothesis 8:** There will be a negative association between level of community concern and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ) was performed between *support for conservation of KTP index* and *level of community concern index*. The results revealed a positive and statistically significant association between *level of community concern* and *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park* ( $r= 0.22, p< 0.001$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was not supported because a positive relationship was observed. The result suggested that, while residents were concerned about the potential cost of tourism increase in their community, they were still likely to express support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

i) Participation (use level)

**Hypothesis 9:** There will be a positive association between participation (use level) of KTP and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ) was performed to between *participation (use level)* and *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park index*. The results showed a lack of statistically significant association between *participation (use level)* and *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* ( $r= 0.03, p>0.05$ ). The hypothesis was not supported; as there was no association between *participation (use level)* and *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park* (Table 4-12).

j) Selected Socio-demographic variables

**Hypothesis 10 (a-e):** There will be significant associations between the co-variates (i.e., age, gender, education, residency, distance/proximity) and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Hypotheses 5(a-e) were tested using Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ) to evaluate the associations between the selected socio-economic variables and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Age, gender and education were dummy coded.

a) Age

It was hypothesized that a negative association existed between *age* and *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* with older residents likely to express support. Pearson's correlation ( $r$ ) was performed and analysis revealed that *age* and *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* were positively related ( $r=0.09$ ,  $p<0.05$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was not supported because positive relationship was observed between *age* and *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park*. The probability of support for KTP as a Transfrontier protected area increased with age of the residents. Elderly people were likely to express support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

b) Gender

It was hypothesized that a positive association existed between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* and *gender*, with more males than females likely to support KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Pearson's correlation results showed that *gender* had a positive and statistically significant association with *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* ( $r=0.08$ ,  $p<0.02$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was supported because a positive association was observed in which males were more likely to express *support of KTP*.

c) Education

It was hypothesized that a positive association existed between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* and *level of education*, with residents with secondary or higher education likely to support KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Pearson's correlation was performed between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index and level of education*, and a negative and statistically significant relationship existed ( $r=-0.16$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was not supported because a negative relationship was observed. The more educated residents were, the less support they were likely to express for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

d) Residence

It was hypothesized that a positive association existed between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* and *length of residence*, with longer time residency likely to express support. Pearson's correlation was performed between *support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* and *length of residence*. The analysis revealed a lack of statistically significant association between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* and *length of residency* ( $r=0.04$ ,  $p>0.05$ ) (Table 4-12). The hypothesis was not supported because length of residence does not have an effect on support for conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

e) Distance/Proximity

It was hypothesized that there will be a positive association between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* and *distance/proximity* of villages to KTP, with support increasing with distance from KTP. Pearson's correlation was performed *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park index* and *distance/proximity*. The results revealed a statistically significant association ( $r=-0.120$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) (Table 4-12), and the negative association indicated an opposite relationship. The *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* decreased with distance away from KTP. Thus the hypothesis was rejected, because the closer the communities were to KTP, the more support they held for KTP as a Transboundary Park.

In conceptual model 2, a standard multiple linear regression analysis was conducted with all independent variables and covariates to determine the best predictors for residents' *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park*. The dependent variable was regressed on the following explanatory variables: *perception of CBE index*, *conservation attitude index*, *concern index* and *participation*, and with socio-demographic variables: *age*, *gender*, *level of education*, *length of residence* and *distance/proximity* (Figure 1-2). It is important to note that explanatory variables (participation, gender, education) were dummy coded as (0 and 1). Based on the regression analysis, and using

the enter method, a statistically significant model was revealed [ $F(9,736) = 26,307, p < 0.001$ ],  $R^2 = 0.243$  and adjusted  $R^2 = 0.234$ ], and explained 24.3% of the total variance (Table 4-13). The support for *KTP as a Transfrontier Park* was positively affected by *conservation attitudes* ( $\beta = 0.351, p < 0.001$ ), *community concern* ( $\beta = 0.201, p < 0.001$ ) and *perception of CBE* ( $\beta = 0.091, p < 0.05$ ) which were all statistically significant. There was a lack of a statistically significant relationship between *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* and *participation* (use level). For socio-demographic variables, only *age* and *length of residency* indicated a lack of a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable. However, *gender*, *level of education* and *distance/proximity* were found to have statistically significant effects on the dependent variable. *Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* was influenced negatively by both *level of education* and *distance/proximity*. Overall, the factors that influence residents' *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* were *conservation attitude*, *community concern*, *perception of CBE*, *gender*, *level of education* and *distance/proximity*. The three variables; *participation*, *age* and *length of residence* were not good predictors of *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park*.

### **Summary of results for conceptual model 2**

Multiple regression analysis in Table 4-13 revealed that this model is a significant predictor of residents' *support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park* FP [ $F(9,736) = 26.307, p < 0.001$ ]. The independent variables explained 24.3% (i.e.  $R^2 = 0.243$ ) of the total variability in the dependent variable, and model has a weaker predictive ability. Based on the results, *conservation attitude* was the best predictor and contributed highly to the predictive ability of the conceptual model ( $\beta = 0.351, p < 0.001$ ), followed by *community concern* ( $\beta = 0.201, p < 0.001$ ), and *perception of CBE* ( $\beta = 0.091, p < 0.05$ ). Among the socio-demographic variables, *distance/proximity*, *level of education* and *gender* showed significant relationships with the *support for KTP as a*

*Transfrontier Park*. However, *participation, age and length of residence* were not significant predictors (Table 4-13).

Also, results of Pearsons' correlation revealed that overall, hypotheses 3 (community concern), 4 (Participation), 5a (age), 5c (education), 5d (residency) and 5e (distance) were all rejected.

### **Public Sector**

The selected representatives for this study included administrators, extension workers, farmers, technical advisors, managers, local authorities and village leaders. Collectively, thirteen representatives were selected and interviewed with 62% (N=8) from Kgalagadi and 38% (N=5) from Gaborone (Table 4-14). The sample was comprised of five females and eight males; the youngest participant was 24 years old, and the oldest was 78. It is important to note that names of the interviewees were changed into pseudonyms to protect the anonymity of the participants. Common themes generated via open coding were identified (Daly et al., 1992; Hatch, 2002). Further analysis was conducted using axial coding to examine the pattern of relationships that emerged from interrelated themes. The summary of key themes and sub-topics within each theme are presented in Table 4-15.

### **Community ecotourism development**

This theme focused on the participants' knowledge and views about community-based ecotourism development. Two major sub themes emerged: knowledge and appreciation of community-based ecotourism, and perceptions about community tourism.

**Knowledge and appreciation of community-based ecotourism:** Almost all participants demonstrated a high level of familiarity with community-based ecotourism. The respondents associated community-based ecotourism to a form of tourism that deals with wildlife and cultural

heritage resources. Latife, who represented Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism explained:

Mm! Community-based ecotourism has to do with wildlife and cultural heritage tourism. We have our communities investing in cultural tourism; cultural villages, wildlife. Some communities have begun to venture into museums. For example, Xai! Xai! Community – a CBO in northern Botswana has started to develop campsites for tourists. Lopokole community in the Bobirwa does not have charismatic animal species, but has a monument hill and rock paintings. We have assisted them to obtain land for their project. We are now working toward helping them with marketing their project. We encourage them to market their project. In Moremi village, the Moremi Gorge community project is in progress. The gorge is ecologically sensitive therefore we have engaged a consultant to carry out an EIA (Environmental Impact Assessment) for them before the community starts the project.

Most the respondents viewed ecotourism as a form of tourism that promotes and encourages the use of existing local resources within communities. Wenzo who represented Community Extension and Outreach Unit noted:

CBE is about cultural villages and other related activities . . . like crafts, local foods, camping sites . . . It is a form of tourism that deals with the use of resources that communities already have. . . . In Kgalagadi communities have access to ostrich egg shells, which they obtain from ostrich farms and use in making handicrafts? They make items for use and sale M! necklaces, head bands, bracelets, floor mats, bags. . . .

The majority of the participants believed that CBE encourages involvement and participation of communities in tourism development and that it is beneficial. Pineke, one of the village chiefs shared his views:

Community-based ecotourism is important because it takes place in our village . . . Within our environment. Mm! it involves everyone. In this way, it is a good form of tourism. It benefits all. Even the poor can participate and benefit.

Similarly, an official from Department of Environmental Affairs, Fosante, expressed his viewpoint that CBE ensures involvement of local communities, and that usually residents are in the forefront of projects in their villages:

Mm! can say that community-based ecotourism is an ecotourism enterprise that involves communities . . . Ecotourism that is driven by local communities . . . In a way, community-based natural resources management (CBNRM) can be regarded as similar to ecotourism. . . . I know that the principles of community-based tourism are similar to those of community-

based natural resource management (CBNRM). Community-based ecotourism and CBNRM both encourage promotion of sustainable use of resources and local participation in the management of natural resources.

A Botswana Tourism Board official Bushielo reiterated:

M-m! Before the advent of ecotourism, local communities did not have much say in whatever tourism activities that was going on around them. They just saw foreigners arrive in their village and start taking pictures, buying some items from them. Really, it was haphazard, it was not organized. It was only appreciated by some members of the community who were reaping benefits from it. There were no benefits for all the people in the village. With ecotourism we [Pause], I come to appreciate it more when I think of projects like Khwai and Sankuyo Trust [CBO] in the northern Botswana. You just see the whole community really benefiting, also actively involved. Sankuyo Trust (CBO) owns a lodge. They receive visitors . . . Manage their lodge. There is an enhanced involvement of the community in tourism development and management. I have always been an ardent believer in pure [inaudible] mm! I believe in active community involvement in the hospitality sector such that when we have our long-haul tourists coming to Botswana . . . . So, ecotourism promotes active residents' involvement in development.

All but three of the representatives expressed a high level of understanding of CBE as an activity that promotes conservation of natural resources and is beneficial. Scubie who represented Qhaa Qhing CBO explained:

CBE involves conservation of forest foods such as moretlwa, mahupu, motsotsojane, sengaparile. I know that we need to collect and gather these forest resources in a proper way. There is need to have permission to collect these resources . . . as a way to control over collection of our forest foods. CBE encourages conservation of our culture, dress . . . songs and dances.

Similarly, some of the participants indicated that CBE encourages sustainable and non-damaging use of resources. Letsadi who represented CBNRM Division noted that: “. . . CBE is about non-consumptive utilization of wildlife resources . . . photography, campsite”.

**Perceptions about community ecotourism:** All participants believed and emphasized the importance of establishment of community-based ecotourism enterprises or projects in their villages. Nearly all representatives conversed verbosely about the potential for ecotourism advancement in the area. Participants often reported availability of suitable resources for ecotourism development. According to Wendy, a Community-Based Organization representative:

There are some people in our village who are so talented, uh! They make handicrafts eh! Wood and bone carving, skin tanning. They make skin mats and clothes. There are known traditional dancers and poets in Khawa. We have lots of wildlife. We have beautiful sand dunes that can be enjoyed by visitors to our village. There is a variety of vegetation like, M! Forest foods like a! [bo] Kgengwe (wild melons) of which people eat the melon fruit and fry the melon seeds and eat it as snack. . . . There is plenty of sengaparile (grapple plants), mokawa, which you can roast and eat or sell.

A similar perspective was expressed by one local authority representatives, Tatiana:

Yaa! I believe there is a great potential for ecotourism in our area. Our cultural traditions are unique, especially living traditions of the people of Struizendam. The dance and music . . . like Polka dance. There are lots of people with talents in this village. Yee! We used to have a Karakul wool project also . . . a group of women used to make floor mats and other items from wool taken from sheep called karakul. The project used to generate lots of revenue but, for individuals. I think that if the group could re-start the project, build a structure where they can work [pause] you know! Say by the road side . . . could become a big business to generate revenue for the people. We are a farming community [pause] we have sheep, goats, horses, donkeys, cattle. So, those tourists interested in farming or farm activities could stop by our village while visiting at KTP. A! There are sand dunes . . . there are pit wells natural and historical that tourists and visitors can experience and appreciate in our area. If these resources are developed and promoted [pause] they have potential to attract tourists to our village.

In addition, a Bokspits Village Development Committee (VDC) member indicated the potential for ecotourism development. He said:

I think there is a lot that can be exploited for ecotourism in this village. We have the beautiful sand dunes in our area. There is one unique sand dune that has been identified as a tourist attraction because of its outstanding beauty. The community with the help of VDC has already put fence around it to avoid it being damaged. Plans are under way to plant *Hoodia*<sup>8</sup> (Gordonii cactus) plant inside the fenced area. *Hoodia* is a protected plant species and is unique. There is a lot of it in Kgalagadi. If taken care of and well marketed and tourists and visitors know about it, we could benefit.

Many participants discussed about the ecotourism wealth of the area with sentiments and connectedness to the Kgalagadi, including the diversity of desert wild animals and cultural anthropological resources which make the whole Kalahari region unique. One of the village headmen, Pineke, averred:

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<sup>8</sup> *Hoodia* (Gordonii cactus) - has been used for centuries by San/Basarwa people of the Kalahari Desert to stave off pain, hunger and thirst when they travelled during long hunting trips for weeks, months and even years across the vast desert. Also used as food and medicine.

Eh! We have resources for ecotourism. [Pause] If we could build tourists' campsites in our area . . . we can build campsites ourselves [pause] in a better way, like using local material, have water, traditional food. We can have our people take charge of the campsites m! Like manage. See, we could have CBE enterprise that could generate so much revenue. Our people could have jobs and our village life m! I mean people could live better. Wild animals like herds of elands, springbok, gemsbok, Kalahari lions, leopards, hyena . . . and different beautiful desert birds m! Like black-breasted snake eagle, kori bustard, ostrich –many there for people to see . . . Forest resources mm! Wild herbs and teas, and things like eh! Like wild foods like motsotsojane, mokwa, mahupu . . . We also have meraka (ostrich egg shells) that we use to make handicrafts (head bands, earrings, belts, handbags) that we could sell to visitors and tourists and get cash and improve our lives.

Nearly all participants were articulate in their conversation about the uniqueness of the Kgalagadi region as an ecotourism destination, pointing to the availability of natural and cultural resources in their locality. Many of the interviewees indicated that the area was a unique ecotourism destination where the aesthetic beauty and charm of the natural and cultural landscapes are entwined. Bushielo noted: “I see a great potential there; there is unique culture of the San/Basarwa. This unique culture can enrich the general Botswana culture and increase the destination image of Kgalagadi . . .” A representative from the Kgalagadi Land board affirmed that the area was endowed with resources inimitable for tourism advancement. He noted:

I believe that Kgalagadi has a high potential for tourism, but it is lagging behind in development compared to northern Botswana. Other interesting things . . . I mean resources for tourism are the Kgalagadi desert landscape; sand dunes, wild animals, parks, desert landscape . . . there is more adventure. I believe that the Kalahari Desert, I mean the Desert could be tapped for tourism development. . . .

In addition, the official in the Department of Environmental Affairs shared:

You know! KTP portrays what the Kgalagadi has for tourism. Yes! I mean the wilderness qualities of KTP and the Kgalagadi region. You know! . . . Actually! This is what we should be marketing. However, this . . . has not been exploited. The Botswana side of the Park portrays its [wilderness] as they have attempts to maintain wilderness quality M! There is potential of packaging KTP . . . where you could combine wilderness and culture to capture and further exploit the socio-economic attributes of the Park. We had in the past attempted to establish a tourism project in Tshane. We wanted to set up a lodge to exploit tourism in that area. You know, we knew and believed that Tshane was a perfect area for such tourism business. In Ukhwi, we wanted to set up a lodge in Masetlheng. . . . We, in fact, started a Joint venture partnership with a Safari operator who took over and set up a campsite, and it is doing very well.

A similar view was echoed by Bushielo:

The wilderness aspect of KTP is a selling point. The uniqueness makes KTP different from Botswana's northern parks. Um! Like the Chobe National Park and Okavango Delta. There is a whole contrast between northern parks and the southern ones. I like it because KTP offers a complete desert experience. You find magnificent desert features like salt pans. The area is more for tourists who are adventurous and want to have a rough experience. There you can find yourself lost in the complete wilderness. KTP region stands out as an opposite of our traditional tourism destinations.

Many of the participants emphasized the uniqueness and aesthetic beauty of the Kgalagadi region and noted that the government only promoted and marketed the Okavango Delta at the expense of southwestern Botswana. The senior wildlife official, Mafie remarked:

Tourism activity is greatest in northern Botswana because focus has been in development of tourism there. Marketing by DOT and Government has focused on north, and the south has been overlooked. This has led to increased tourism awareness among residents in the north than here. In the north, communities understand tourism, know tourists and identify with them . . . But, I believe that the Kgalagadi region has high potential for community-based ecotourism development due to availability of varying ecotourism resources: sand dunes of different sizes, soil color, and shape; landscape, desert features, sand dunes with rock outcrops; salt pans that are rich in wildlife, e.g. Masetlheng pan in Kgalagadi north. In KTP concentration of tourists is in Mabuasehube, Kaa (Qhaa!) and Two Rivers. There are other parks and reserves in the vicinity: Central Kgalagadi Game Reserve, Kutse game reserve, wilderness campsites with game and the general natural beauty.

### **Knowledge about transfrontier protected area**

This major theme revealed participants' knowledge and perspectives of KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Emergent subthemes about the Park included: significance and recognition, as well as collaboration and partnership issues. Respondents' knowledge about KTP, particularly as it related to development within local communities was discussed equally by the majority of the participants.

**Significance and recognition:** Nearly all the participants indicated having heard about the concept of Transfrontier Parks, especially KTP. Generally, participants were aware that KTP had a dual ownership and control by the governments of Botswana and South Africa. Wenzo explained that: "Transfrontier refers to management of two frontiers that are situated between two

international bodies - it is about a Trans-boundary management and wildlife system”. A few of the participants shared a brief history of the Park. An official from the Wildlife Unit of DWNP explained:

This park was established in 2000 when Gemsbok National Park in Botswana was adjoined to the South African Kalahari National Park to become TFP. Ee! During the colonial era, there was no demarcation between the two Parks. . . . Look at this map. So, in 2000 that’s when they started managing the Park (KTP) together. That’s why they call it a Transfrontier Park. It is now co-managed. . . . Before 2000, each government had its own management plan. Since then, the management has become one. Benefits are shared between the two countries. Because management is one . . . benefits, profits, development, and administration are shared by both countries.

The majority of the participants indicated knowledge and awareness that there should be shared management and benefits between the two countries. According to Tatiana:

I think that the idea of making it a joint park was a good idea. Our park was much bigger than the South African, but the South Africans had more developments on their side of Park, so most of the money from tourism was going to South Africa. Now it is our animals, our Park . . . it was a good idea because now the income from the Park is shared between the two countries - equally. I think and believe it was a good thing because the two governments now share revenue generated from Park tourism unlike before. . . .

Similarly, Wendy, contended that: “Residents’ awareness about the existence of KTP is high in my village. Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust benefits so much from safari hunting because of KTP”. However, Philo, who represented Kgalagadi Land board, further explained:

At government level there is understanding of the existence of KTP as a Transfrontier Park, but the local people seem a bit skeptical; hence the resident communities still need to be convinced further.

**Collaboration and partnerships issues:** More than a dozen participants indicated that Transfrontier Parks encourage and promote collaboration. A CBO representative, Wendy, explained that: “KTP has improved peace between Botswana and South Africans” while, a Land Board official professed: “I know that it (KTP) promotes cross boarder tourism benefits to both countries, and government interaction and cooperation has improved between South Africa and Botswana”. A representative from National Parks Division explained:

Authorities from both countries share ideas, experience, knowledge, expertise. There is free migration of wild animals between the two countries; it is good for wildlife and conservation. Also, money accrued from tourism via gate fees is shared equally by both Botswana and South Africa.

Also, collaboration about immigration matters was discussed by scores of the interviewees, because it was no longer a requirement to present a passport to visit either side of the Park. A representative from KTP said:

Unlike before, [pause] there is free movement of people. We have border passport control based here at Two Rivers that handles immigration issues. It was intended to help with immigration needs for those who wish to travel outside South Africa via the Botswana immigration border gate or vice versa. One person has been assigned duty as an immigration officer and now resides at the site.

Scubie also added that:

The Park is open to all people; as such everyone has access to the park for recreation and tourism. Both South Africans and Batswana<sup>9</sup> can visit both sides of the park without using passports.

Also, one of the local chiefs noted:

The advantage is that if you enter the Park (KTP) you can either choose to go to the Botswana side or South African side [pause] there are no restrictions. Previously people were not allowed. Having this Park as a Transfrontier has made it easier for tourists.

However, about a dozen participants expressed concern about the need for collaboration between the two governments in view of protection and management of the Park. Thus, nearly all of the participants expressed need for strengthened stakeholder collaboration and inter-relationships in KTP management, especially with adjacent communities. Some participants discussed effective communication, information sharing and transparency in KTP-related activities, including tourism advancement, creation and availability of jobs, and human-wildlife conflicts. Another village leader contended:

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<sup>9</sup> Botswana citizen

In most cases, the Park staff [pause] KTP management continues to implement the park plan without our knowledge. . . . But, I believe there is need however for KTP staff to update us on what is going on at this Park, particularly the South African side of the Park. We don't know. We need to know what problems or challenges they encounter so that we become aware of what is going on there. . . .

Nearly all the local representatives indicated a lack of information sharing between the South African National Parks (SANP), Botswana's Department of Wildlife, and local residents. A tribal administration representative noted:

Since the Park became a Transfrontier, we don't benefit from it at all. There is lack of communication between the Park management, government and the residents. Also, there is no program or forum through which we could have discussions with the Park Authority and both governments

Greta, who represented Farmers Association CBO, also added that:

The South Africans [pause] or Park Authority do not consult with us (residents) as to what they are doing in the Park. But as I say before, we used to have combined meetings. But now they have stopped. We now have no forum to discuss these things. We have not been given that opportunity. In the very first meeting, the South African and Namibians were there when we discussed the Park. We also discussed about the issues of compensating adjacent communities in case they experience property damage from wildlife. But since then we have never had any meeting with the Park Management to discuss the issues about KTP.

### **Management issues**

Management of KTP as a Transfrontier Park and the general tourism development of Kgalagadi were discussed under this theme. Three subthemes or issues were identified: policy and co-management, human-wildlife conflicts, and land ownership and control. A key contextual issue was the need for Park authorities to adhere to Transfrontier Park policy, as well as to ensure equal representation and involvement in all Park activities by local residents from both countries.

**Policy and co-management challenges:** Under this sub-theme, respondents' personal perspectives and experiences with regards to KTP were identified. A substantial number of the participants noted inflexible regulations and policy-related issues about KTP. Greta, a representative of the Farmers' Association, contended:

South African Park Board is controlling the Botswana side of the Park as well. . . . We know that the Park has to be managed by both South Africa and Botswana Board of governors. This is a bad attitude. South Africa is too controlling. Mm! At one time, we were not even allowed to attend a funeral of our colleague [silence] a friend and a relative. The burial took place right here at the Park. We were only allowed to stand outside . . . I mean by the Park fence.

Wendy aired similar sentiments:

There are restrictions on our movement in the area, and eh! . . . I mean restrictions to use our dogs when searching for our domestic animals. In KD 15, we are not allowed to use horses when herding our livestock because this is associated with illegal hunting of wild animals. Um! Restrictions on our movement in and around our village are too harsh. We are not allowed to search for livestock riding on our horses or donkeys. We are not allowed to go around our village looking for our domestic animals when accompanied by our dogs. This restricts peoples' life to their traditional life of hunting and gathering. This has to change. It is not good for people in my community. We are not happy with this. Dogs help us. There might be a dangerous animal out there! You know. It could kill you . . . Your goats could be eaten. I don't know, but something needs to be done to help the situation.

In a similar vein, a tribal administration official declared:

Most of the time people are accused of killing wild animals even if they are just out in the bush collecting fire wood or forest foods. We don't have freedom to move around our area . . . The Park was created for protection of natural resources Mm! Wildlife [inaudible] in order to improve our standard of living, but now this goal is not fulfilled. . . .

Also, Pineke added:

I oppose this idea of KTP as Transfrontier and shared management because it is South Africa that's only benefiting from this park and Botswana is doing nothing about this situation. Our animals have moved to their side of the Park because they built many boreholes. This is hurting. I am totally against this Transfrontier thing.

About half of the representatives expressed their mixed feelings about management of KTP and the associated benefits that accrue to the local people. An official from the Customary Court, Tatiana, contended:

KTP mm! At the beginning (in 2000) they had a stakeholder meeting where we discussed issues of adjoining the Park. Now, they have stopped calling meetings, so we don't know what is happening with this Park. Mm! I know that this Park has a shared management mandate, but when there are jobs at the Park, they only offer them to South Africans. This is an unfair treatment on our part because they require our people to obtain work permits if they are to work there - something that was never a requirement before the Park became a Transfrontier. I am not happy about this. Unemployment is too high in our village. . . . you

see right now there are construction activities going on at the Park (KTP), where they are building of an office block and the main entrance gate, but only the South Africans are engaged.

Additionally, Moagi shared his thoughts:

I feel that we are not fairly treated . . . Um! Since this Park was turned into a Transfrontier all water holes (wells and boreholes) that our forefathers owned [inside KTP] M! And were closed. Yet! More boreholes on the South African side of the Park were drilled and improved to attract wildlife from our side of Park so that many tourists could go there. They are stealing our animals. Our side of the KTP is big, has more animals. They take our animals and benefit. If the Government can dig boreholes say about 20-30km on the Botswana side of the Park, then wild animals could be attracted to our side of the Park as well. More animals mean increased tourism and job creation for our people.

The majority of the participants discussed the imperfection and weakness of the KTP management system. Fosante contended:

I believe that we have failed to establish or come up with a management plan that was implementable. [Pause] as regards to KTP, we have the management plan in place, but the plan was never implemented. So, I'm inclined to believe that there is lack of capacity on the implementers. Also, I think the political will is lacking. Natural resources management is like new, so we are still struggling to learn about natural resource management. Eh! Maybe we could separate our Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP) from government and privatize it or M-m! Make it a Parastatal mm! Just like in South Africa, you know! I mean the South African National Parks (SANP).

A few of the participants expressed concerns of current KTP management. As Latife, one of the National representatives, noted:

The government should create a co-management program that will enable government [pause] local communities to work together in managing the resources of KTP. A good example would be a situation where local communities own campsites inside a Park. . . . Something similar to what they do at Kruger National Park in South Africa. For the KTP local communities are not involved [pause] not benefiting. So, I believe that it is time for us as government to work with these communities. There is need to provide capacity for communities residing on the boundary of Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park. Within Government, I believe that we need strong leadership and people who understand policies and can guide local people as needed.

Many of the participants expressed their opinions about the KTP and co-management practices. They noted some positive outcomes that were consequential of KTP as a Transfrontier protected area. A representative of the Tebelopele Development Trust (CBO), Scubie, explained:

Yes! Wildlife department takes care of our wild animals. There is no [boundary] fence, but there is a proper management and control of wild animals inside the Park. The Park authority provides water for animals. There are waterholes for animals. We wish to see no one killing these animals because they are very valuable and important to us. . . .

Fosante shared a similar outlook:

Since the Park became a Transfrontier, the management has become one. Benefits are shared between the two countries. Because management is one . . . benefits, profits, development, and administration [Pause]. All are shared by both countries. It is a good idea because the park is big. A large area is covered . . . covering different habitats, different types of resources. You know there is free movement of animals and there is free movement of people within KTP. You know! [Pause] TFPs' are sponsored by conservation organizations . . . these organizations provide funding . . . Yea! [Pause] reducing the cost of management. If Botswana was managing the park all alone it was going to be pricy. Benefits are shared equally and some are used towards the management of the Park. Revenue generated by the KTP goes back into conservation projects.

In addition, Wenzo, who represented local Community Extension and Outreach Unit, noted:

Uh! We learn a lot from them. We benefit from their administration. South Africa is well equipped, um! Equipment, material, training, technical know how . . . Some of our people who work at the Park (KTP) have benefited through educational training. Wildlife staff at the Park has been trained at the South African Wildlife College.

Philo further asserted:

I like the idea of co-management. Now, Botswana and South African Wildlife Departments work together towards translocation of wild animals in the park. . . . Also, if KTP was not managed by both governments, maybe our people would not be involved. So, this is a good thing . . . joint management of our natural resources is a good thing.

Some of the interviewees indicated the urgent need for a review of the current management plan of KTP. Greta elucidated:

[Sighs] that it is high time we have Board of governors with representatives from Botswana and South Africa so that we can deal with these issues and make them fair. At the moment, the Board of Governors is one sided. But, there is an urgent need to have representatives from both countries. Um! Now, I can see that the South African laws and polices are the only ones used to manage this Park. Yet it is a Transfrontier [pause] it is shared by Botswana and South Africa.

Also, a national representative reasoned that:

Developments at KTP and Kgalagadi have been very slow. I wish, as a country or department, we could move faster to implement the tourism plan such as putting up some

tourism structures on the Botswana side of KTP. South Africans are faster in implementing plans, so once the two governments have agreed to do so. . . .

**Human-wildlife interactions:** In terms of human-wildlife conflicts, some of the interviewees indicated that they were apprehensive of the KTP management plan and its implementation with regard to natural resource utilization. A substantial number of them expressed concern about the unmerited treatment of residents by the Park management with respect to wildlife and conservation practices at KTP.

Greta contended:

[Sighs] In Botswana, we have the right to shoot one lion if it attacks our livestock. But, in South Africa, they don't allow people to shoot lions even if they attack, kill and eat livestock. I recall that some time ago 18 cattle from our village jumped into the Park (KTP). All 18 cattle were attacked and killed by lions, but none of those lions was killed due to the strict conservation policies of South Africa. Because of this, I believe that it is high time we have a Board of governors with representatives from Botswana and South Africa so that we can deal with these issues and make them fair. . . . At the moment, the Board of Governors are one sided. But, there is an urgent need to have representatives from both countries.

A handful of the local representatives expressed similar views about human-wildlife issues in their area. Several others indicated that they were not contented with the lack of clear-cut regulations dealing with human-wildlife challenges in the community. An official who represented tribal administration explained:

Mm! As a community living closer to this Park (KTP) we have problems of wild animals killing and eating our livestock. We are aware that the Park fence was constructed to control domestic animals from entering the Park, and wild animals from escaping into our villages and farm areas. But, you know some areas of the Park are not fenced. The existing fence is not well maintained. So, animals do escape from the Park and kill our livestock and devour them. The regulation was that if domestic animals enter the Park, they should be killed, but farmers are not happy about this. We are not happy when our animals get killed. In the Botswana side of the Park, here in Kgalagadi we don't have problems with foot and mouth. I believe that the South African Park authorities should not kill our livestock. . . . There is need to review this regulation or policy because farmers are not happy. I . . . I feel that there is a need for an alternative option than to kill our livestock when they are found inside Park boundary.

Further, another village headman retorted:

When predators escape into our village, ya! On our farms, and we report the matter to the authority, it always takes too long to get assisted. The Problem Animal Unit is based in Tsabong. We have suggested this to the wildlife office in Tsabong that we should have one or two officers in the village so that if there is a predator problem it will be quick to deal with the matter. The use of 'teaser gun' for predators is also a concern. We were told that teaser guns can only be done by a 'doctor' eh! The specialist! Whenever there is a problem and the 'doctor' is not there we encounter serious problems. So, if the government could train more people to use a teaser gun on predators, this could reduce the challenges we face at the moment. Our South African counterparts have been using teaser guns for a long time; they are not new to them. Hence, that's the reason why they don't experience similar problems. Just think of our livestock, cattle, donkeys [pause] about 26 of them were killed by predators from KTP last year (2007).

**Land ownership and control:** Land ownership issues were discussed by a substantial number of representatives, who indicated that land was a major cause of conflicts between communities and the Park authority, especially for villages with cattle posts and farms that are very close to the Park. A dozen respondents expressed their views about the buffer zone or Wildlife Management areas (WMA) surrounding the Park. They articulated their dissatisfaction about land ownership and control of WMAs. Many of them indicated that the areas of land outside of KTP rightly belong to the community, but averred that government has full control of the land designated as WMA. Latife asserted:

A! Parks in Botswana! We still like this idea of Parks and People. . . . People tend to live very close to Park boundaries, yet, they might not be permitted entry to collect or perform some traditional livelihood activities in these Parks. Most of the Parks in Botswana are not executing this. The Parks, our parks sit there like diamonds.

Another village leader also added his viewpoint:

KTP has taken land from us because our forefathers were staying there; then they were forced out there by Afrikaners . . . we could still be benefiting from our land, and the wells are still there which were built by our forefathers. . . . We've already asked the government to give back to us a portion of KTP land for agriculture.

Similarly, an official from Kgalagadi Land Board, Philo, added:

The Park is surrounded by WMAs this is a region between KTP and communal land. Also, WMAs are known as wildlife migratory routes. . . . WMAs have been reserved primarily as wildlife migratory routes, but, the communities of Kgalagadi view the area as a threat because it has taken much of their grazing land, cattle post, I mean farmland. . . . Initially,

WMAs were designated for wildlife management area only. Other wildlife related activities such as game ranches or farms were not allocated in WMAs. . . . In Kgalagadi District alone WMAs cover 39% of the Tribal land or communal areas. So, I feel that this is too high M-m! a way too much. Ha! There is need to increase communal land for residents than have so much land designated as WMAs. . . . Local people should be allowed to have some business developments within KTP and WMAs.

In addition, some of the participants conversed about uncoordinated Park management practices and land use activities in and around KTP, and noted that designation of land as WMAs and KTP as a Transfrontier Park has become a contentious issue within local communities. An official from a local CBO retorted:

You know! The area where WMAs are . . . is tribal land. I don't have a problem with KTP, but I don't like the idea of a WMA. We, as people of . . . have rights to ownership of our resources. [Pause] I was the chairman of the Land Board when Wildlife Management Areas were created and demarcated. I never agreed to the idea of their formation nor supported the idea to have them in the first place. I know that these WMAs [pause] are in tribal land. . . . Staff from the Park come to the village to harass people. They harass people in Wildlife Management Areas (WMAs) I mean the Buffer zone. [Pause] That's why I don't support the creation of WMAs because these WMAs are in tribal land. People have the right to their tribal land.

Some participants indicated that they did not have problems with wild animals because their villages were relatively far from the Park (KTP). However, a substantial number of interviewees mentioned that they were aware that predators (lions, cheetahs, leopards) from the Park attack and kill farmers' livestock. Interviewees indicated that human-wildlife conflicts were prevalent in farm areas and cattleposts that were in close proximity to KTP. An official from the Tribal authority remarked:

Animals don't cause trouble in our village, we are far from there, but they attack and kill livestock in farms near the Park . . . in areas around Khawa and Middlepits villages, communities have reported cases of predators killing livestock. Now, Middlepits community wants the livestock grazing land to be extended, but Khawa people are against the idea because they benefit from safari hunting through their CBO. This dispute over tribal land has been reported to the Kgalagadi Land Board, but I'm not sure what will happen.

Some participants indicated that some communities desired to have WMA land reduced to give way for agriculture. Other communities that have been favored by wildlife-tourism business did not support the idea. One of the village leaders noted: “I am aware that the Department of Lands, Wildlife and National Parks Office and the Kgalagadi South Technical committee are working on the issue.” But, it is important to note that a few of the representatives wanted WMA land reduced.

Greta also explained this need:

My opinion regarding this issue of WMA and Tribal land is that something has to be done [pause] the policy should be reviewed such that the size of WMAs is reduced to give way for some activities that are permitted in communal area like farming. Ecotourism is ok, but should take place in WMAs.

### **Development challenges**

All the participants emphasized concerns about the one-sided tourism development between the South African side of KTP and Botswana. The two major subthemes discussed were: infrastructure for tourism and cultural-heritage tourism issues.

**Infrastructure for tourism:** Nearly all the representatives talked elaborately about the importance of tourism development in their districts, and the need for associated support infrastructure. One of the village headmen noted:

As for the developments [pause] I think that we need to have more developments like um! Let’s say tourist facilities like motels, lodges, rest camps and so on . . . so that we also get more income from tourists from the Botswana side of the Park. I was told that as for accommodation fees, food stuff and so on . . . all go to South Africa, and it is only entry or gate fees that both countries share. I think on the Botswana side we need more developments [pause] shops. Youth don’t have jobs. More developments will mean more job creation for the people.

Letsadi, who represented the CBNRM Unit, added:

The changes I’d like to see, ‘would like the government [pause] the government should allow tourism investments in the Park . . . to let people build facilities like lodges similar to those in the South African side of the park. This could be a way to provide employment for local communities and services for tourists and visitors.

Almost all the participants expressed their aspirations to have more developments provided both inside and outside the Park, and noted that communities would appreciate tourism and benefit from it. An official from the Botswana Tourism Board contended: “Well-sealed roads and airstrips are needed if tourism is to grow in the area. Tour operators could bring more tourists to the Kgalagadi area if there were better roads and other amenities and services for tourists.” An official from a CBO explained that:

At the Botswana side of the KTP there are no telephone facilities. . . . People in the nearby villages and settlements have to use South African VODACOM and MNET Cellular Phone Companies. Like now, when a tourist come, they prefer coming to enjoy nature at the Botswana side of the Park, but would go to South African side for other things like lodging, food, souvenirs, fuel. Even us Batswana when we visit the park we use lodging facilities available on the South African side.

A few of the representatives talked about access road systems in the area, indicating that dirt roads, paths and treks that connect villages were not in good state. They were sandy, full of potholes and deterrence to tourists and investors. Almost all participants expressed dissatisfaction about the level of development that exists inside KTP. Wendy shared her standpoint:

On the South Africa side of the Park there are tourism developments, but the Botswana side Park is all natural. So, Batswana should be given the opportunity to have tourism businesses inside the Park as well. Throughout my stay in this area, I have observed that tourists tour and enjoy the Botswana side of KTP. Yet they would have accommodation (fully serviced cabins, lodges) in the South African side of the Park because they have better visitor facilities. At the Botswana side there are only campsites with ablutions.

In addition, Mafie, one of the national representatives, noted:

Like I said before, there are no tourism facilities on the Botswana side of the Park. We need to speed up development at this Park so that we can sell and benefit. Mm! 2010 is approaching mm! The South Africans are busy marketing KTP (Park) as a way to be ready for the World Cup. So, it is expected that there might be some people who would want to come to Botswana, and visit KTP to experience the wilderness, and would like to come to Botswana. We need tourists’ facilities and services because you cannot cash from tourism if you do not have facilities. If we don’t have facilities we may lose out.

A VDC representative, Moagi, shared his views:

If only our government could erect a fence along the international boundary of KTP it would be helpful. They should put up a fence all the way to Union's End (part of the Park boundary) then we could be sure that the Park belongs to us (Botswana). Government should drill boreholes on the Botswana side which we could utilize for tourism; just like in South Africa . . . This could benefit us due to job creation because more tourists will come.

Some participants made reference to the ideals or changes that government should make in order for local people to benefit. Many expressed their concerns about the sluggish development or negligence on the part of the Botswana government with respect to basic tourism facilities.

Letsadi asserted:

We need to improve infrastructure at KTP. One of the major disincentives of the private sector in participating in tourism at KTP is lack of supporting physical infrastructure. I believe that the government has to ensure that facilities are provided. If tourism related facilities and services are in place, investors will be attracted, and tourists will come in large numbers. This is a management issue that for now poses a challenge to the government and for tourism growth at KTP. The South African side of the Park seems to be managed better for tourism. We have not developed this area to standards required by different visitors.

The majority of the representatives discussed about the need for tourism development at KTP, but they did not indicate what type of tourism and what level of development they wanted.

Another CBO representative said: "I suggest that government should provide developments to our area of the Park so that people would stop illegal hunting of wildlife."

Only one respondent expressed concern about the negative impact of tourism development, by hinting that creation of too many trails inside KTP could affect or pose a threat to the Park landscape. Fosante explained: "More trails have been created inside the Park, but I believe that too many trails might jeopardize the wilderness quality of KTP. . . ."

**Cultural-heritage for tourism development:** With regards to the type of tourism development suitable for Kgalagadi, many of the participants believed that cultural heritage tourism was a niche for the area. Almost all of the interviewees deemed that resources for cultural heritage tourism existed and that there was need to exploit these resources to promote the tourism industry. A representative from the Kgalagadi District Council noted:

We have natural and unique caves in our area that are not yet thought of as something important for tourism. The caves [pause] very large ones are in Tshane, larger than the ones in Kang. These caves are unique and beautiful. Inside these caves there is *letsoku*, traditional 'green' paint. . . . Already people in the village use the cave site for taking wedding photos. . . . To attract tourists I think a traditional house could be built there. . . . These kinds of caves are found in Tshane and Hukuntsi. People could make crafts and display them there so that when tourists come, they could see the caves, see our culture through craft and even buy. Caves could be used for tourism, but they are not utilized at the moment. . . . There are pans, which also hold water during rainy season and attract many wild animals and beautiful birds of Kgalagadi. Lodges or any other tourist enterprise could be built near the pans; people could pay to take pictures and show to their friends at overseas. The numbers of tourists coming to stay in our village have increased. Before the lodge was built they used to drive past the village going to Zutshwa.

Additionally, an officer who represented a local CBO noted:

As well as using wildlife as a tourism product I think people should try other resources, like traditional foods . . . You know, when it rains, beautiful and unique grass sprouts all over the district, and we could take advantage of this by starting a community project like that of the Ba-Swati of Swaziland. Some of the types of grasses found in my district are similar to those found in Swaziland. Our people could use this type of grass to produce crafts and attract tourists like in Swaziland. There are important plant species here in Kgalagadi for example, *mositsana* plant. This plant is unique to Kgalagadi and it is very important to local people. It is used in leather tanning – to give a skin mat an appealing and nice color. Therefore it is important that it is protected and for tourism. They (tourists) could also try our traditional cuisine M! *legodu* (mix of melon and beans), *Bogobe jwa lerotse* (melon porridge). This year the rains were so good so we have lots of melons. People are selling melon seeds as snack in the streets.

One of the village headmen added his view that:

We have sites of tourists' interest like. . . . Um! There is a natural pit well on the Logaganeng Hill [pause] this well does not dry up. We have identified the site and indicated its potential for tourism. Right now we are working on a report about how we could protect and conserve it. We are planning to submit the report to the Department of Tourism. Other sites of tourist interest include Bok's pit well in Bokspits M! a 3000m deep well with rich local history and memories. There are many other sites all over Kgalagadi, in Kolonkwaneng . . . Bogogobo natural caves and many other historical sites especially inside KTP. Our forefathers used to live there [pause] there are still some structures there . . . remains of houses, boreholes and others.

In addition, a national representative explained that:

As government, we need to exploit other resources for CBE that are available in Kgalagadi, not just wildlife. There are plenty of them M! The Kgalagadi culture (language, music, dance, history and heritage) and sand dunes. There are people who would like to go there to see these features. And we can develop Kgalagadi in such a way that it becomes more like

the Delta. There are people who visit Botswana but would not want to see water of Okavango Delta. They can come and see Kgalagadi [pause] our beautiful Desert. We need to explore our culture. We need to sell the culture. We need to develop circuit tourism. You know we could combine this into one big tour [pause] starting from the north (Okavango region) to southwestern (Kalahari), incorporating villages, and then end the tour here at the city (Gaborone).

According to one of the local CBOs:

I believe there is a lot we can offer as cultural tourism in this village. We are a farming community, we have karakul sheep. We have our unique folk dances. We have historic buildings around here which have unique stories about how people settled in this area. The community through VDC has identified a site; it is pit well called Bok's pit well (from which our village was named after). It is the first pit well to be built in the area when people moved here and had no water. We have already contacted the Department of Museum to help protect and develop it as a cultural attraction. Special forest resources that are unique to our region are plentiful eh! Like mahupu, sengaparile, mokala.

### **Community integration**

This theme established interviewees' views and opinions about KTP and adjacent communities. Subthemes discussed include KTP benefits to local communities and residents' involvement/participation in KTP activities.

**Park benefits to local communities:** A few of the participants mentioned that KTP generates benefits. They indicated that the Park has benefited local people by controlling illegal hunting. Mafie pointed out: "Transfrontier Parks are very important . . . are essential . . . because this park – KTP has helped us a lot in reducing poaching in this area." Wenzo noted: "South Africa has been of great help to us by assisting us on how to take charge of problem animals. South Africans are so advanced, so as a department we have gained a lot of experience and support this Park [pause] as a Transfrontier."

Similarly, Pineke also noted this benefit:

I don't believe that the community benefit from the Transfrontier Park. In fact, I know that there are no benefits for the people. Mm! maybe benefits are that we have our Wildlife Department taking care of the Park. This is beneficial to all of us because poaching (illegal hunting) is very high in this area. M-m! If we did not have the Department of Wildlife staff helping, poaching was going to increase; animals would all disappear. The Department of

Wildlife helps the community [pause] helps us with our livestock, a! Otherwise our livestock could be killed and eaten by predators (lions, leopards, wild dogs). At Swart pan a lot of our livestock (cattle, horses, goats, and donkeys), 26 of them, were killed by lions which escaped from KTP into our cattle post (farm areas).

Similarly, a representative from CBO explained:

They help us with problem animals . . . like lions. Whenever they escape from the Park (KTP) and come to into our village and cattle posts (farm), the animals kill and devour our livestock (cattle, donkeys, goats, horses). [Pause] They (KTP authority) hire casual laborers from our village to work at the Park . . . The Park management helps us because when the fence is broken and needs to be fixed, they send staff to our village to recruit and hire some members of the community. This helps us by stopping predators from escaping into our village to kill and eat our livestock.

Also, a handful of the interviewees expressed their satisfaction with KTP. Scubie noted:

“During hunting season the residents of Zutshwa obtain lots of benefits . . . like meat, income and part-time jobs. We don’t have to go to Gaborone (the capital city) to look for jobs. . . .” A local

CBO representative stated:

Ah! Benefits from the Park . . . as a Trust [CBO] we get advice from the Park management on how we can develop our tourists’ trail. Our children learn about the Park [pause] when they visit a campsite inside the Park. The Park (KTP) has created jobs for residents. KTP has created jobs for us – local people. The Park protects and conserves our natural resource diphologolo (wild animals). As a Trust (CBO) we often visit the Park (KTP) management to seek advice about how to develop and manage our Trust. Ah! I can say that KTP acts as an education centre for our Trust.

Fosante had the same outlook about KTP:

School children from our district benefit from KTP. Students come to this Park for tours and learn about wildlife conservation and the natural resource management. Residents might not be benefiting from tourism because of low education/awareness of tourism. Residents focus more on livestock than tourism. They put value on livestock than tourism.

Additionally, Wenzo contended:

[Silence] the creation of awareness regarding the Transfrontier Park. We have been holding meetings with communities. People have shown understanding about the Park. There is free movement of wild animals within the park. Residents have begun to gain benefits from the Park. . . . Mm! There is free movement of people within the South Africa and Botswana side of the Park. Local people no longer need to show passports whenever they want to tour both sides of the Park. People from Botswana are free to go shopping at the South African

side of the Park. Also, capturing of predators that escape from the park has been successful because of the assistance we get from co-management of KTP with South Africa.

Tatiana, who represented a Tribal Administration, added:

The advantage about KTP . . . right now, mm! We can enter the Park freely; there are no restrictions of movement between the two countries. [pause] Now you can go inside the Park without having to show your passports . . . uh! The signing of the Park for dual ownership by the two governments has made things easier for local people, tourists and visitors.

However, a substantial number of the participants noted that, while KTP was created with a goal to benefit adjacent communities, the people were getting only a little in return. Some of the major concerns about KTP and tourism were that the local communities did not benefit directly from the Park, as Safari hunting enterprises are owned by outsiders and local people work as laborers. One of the village chiefs expressed his opinion:

There are no benefits that we get from KTP. We are aware that gate fees from KTP belong to the government. But, some members of the community have part time jobs at the Park . . . they get, like three to six months part time jobs, sometimes fixing the Park fence. In the past, [Pause] before the Park became a Transfrontier many people from my village worked at the Park. Now, Batswana (citizens) are not employed as many as they used to be. . . .See many young people don't have jobs. We see many of South Africans working at the Park. Mm! . . . Right now there is a construction work going on at the Park. There is a problem with construction of the Park main entrance gate and offices. I was told that this was going to be a joint project between South Africa and Botswana people. [pause] so that all would benefit equally. But, I was in shock to learn that the construction work has started and none of the people from the village is involved or hired. I mean none of the people from our village. So many people here are depended on namola leuba<sup>10</sup>.

Moagi shared a similar opinion:

Mm! [sad] totally nothing! The only benefits I can speak of are when KTP staff come to recruit some individuals from the village and offer them menial jobs. Some people get hired temporarily to repair the Park fence whenever there is need. This is seasonal, like three to six months. I wish the Park management could employ members of the Struizendam community to work on permanent basis [pause] at the Park so that they could benefit. I have discussed the employment issue with the manager of KTP on the Botswana side of KTP but, in vain. . . . You see we live close to the Park, but we are not employed there. . . . People want to work at the Park. These people don't have jobs. Those who went there in

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<sup>10</sup> Local Government Drought Relief projects – one of State Welfare programs (see NDP 9, 2003)

search of jobs have been sent back and were told that Batswana are not going to be hired. I feel that jobs should be created at KTP. More jobs are needed for our community, especially residents who live in villages close to the Park. More developments are needed on the Botswana side of the Park.

Some representatives felt that tourism in the area has benefited only certain individuals.

Moagi noted: “Park benefits to communities are not much, but only individuals who can afford.”

Also, Letsadi explained:

People in my village and most people in Kgalagadi South have not benefited much from tourism. Only a few individuals who own tourism-related business such as accommodation, petrol filling (gasoline) stations. However, it is hopeful that the newly developed community-based camel ranch project will help people here once it starts to operate. Those who already understood tourism and have the knowledge about the business benefit more than individuals whose knowledge of tourism is very low.

Similarly, Philo added:

There is low tourism awareness within communities; therefore tourism benefits just few individuals in the villages. So, education is important for us to be able to assess whether tourism is important and essential to us or not. Very few people in my village benefit from tourism. Education awareness is needed especially for community-based projects as there have been incidences of misappropriation of funds for these projects.

Mafie, who represented National Parks Unit, indicated that:

KTP has not played a significant role in helping with the growth of tourism in this district as there is a lack of tourism development on the Botswana side. I would like to see more developments since lack of investment hampers benefits that could be accruing for people in this area.

**Local involvement and participation:** The majority of the interviewees indicated that

local residents were not involved in the management activities of the Park (KTP). Scubie retorted:

The management of KTP is done by our government alone. We, the people living closer to the park are not involved. I believe it would be helpful if the government via the Department of Wildlife and National Parks could involve the local people in the day-to-day operation of the Park. Mm! I feel ... you know! We want to be part of the anti – poaching unit so that we could assist the government. It should not just be the Department of Wildlife and National Parks that does everything. We live here, close to KTP Um! Just 73km. Wildlife office is in Tsabong. Many people from Zutshwa should be involved to help curb illegal hunting.

A similar response was added by Moagi:

KTP management does not inform us, not even through the media or any type of reports to let us know how the Park is progressing. We don't know what is going on? We are just in the dark. What is the management doing for the people? The Park does not benefit us? Wild animals from the Park could benefit us. We could be informed to know of how many people from KTP are employed; how much money the Park generates. If you ask me how much money KTP is making, I would tell you that I don't know.

Also, Tatiana noted:

The people are not involved in the management of the Park. It is the responsibility of the two governments. Before, many of the people from my village were involved. They worked there. But, after the government took over and started managing KTP with South Africa, South Africa government does not allow Batswana (citizens) to work on the South African side of the Park.

In addition, a significant number of the interviewees' indicated the need for changes, emphasizing that Park authorities or management should ensure that adjacent communities are recognized and involved. An official who represented Tribal authority affirmed:

We have asked the government to let us have one member of the community to sit in the Park Board. . . . To represent the community . . . us in the Park Board so that we can have an idea of what is going on at KTP . . . Representation in the Park Board, so that we could have our views taken into consideration in planning . . . To make communication better between the community and the Park . . . better . . . so that people could be represented! [pause] So that they have [silence] Um! They could present their problems and discuss. Uh! I believe there is need, however, for the KTP staff to update and inform us about what is going at this Park, particularly the South African side of the Park. We don't know. We need to know what problems or challenges they encounter so that we become aware with what is going on there.

An official from Tribal Administration also noted:

We need to have someone from the community as a representative on the Park board. I don't know if Park Board exists, but I think it would be a good thing to have one person from our village representing us as a community. Need to have someone to represent the community on that board so that we can get information . . . also we can have better communication between the community and the Park management or park authority. That is one of the things I believe would be good to do. So that if there is a problem this could be communicated to us.

A village headman, Pineke, added that:

I only visited KTP once. I visited at the time when this Park was signed into a Transfrontier protected area in 2000. So, I cannot pinpoint to the bad and good about KTP. But, I have an interest to visit. I also believe that if chiefs and headmen were assisted with transportation

to visit they could benefit from knowing about the resources in the Park. Many people who visit our villages always ask us about what's in the Park, but we don't know.

The issue of community empowerment was expressed by some of the interviewees. They alluded to community empowerment via active participation and capacity building. Fosante said: "To me the long term solution is to build capacity not just through workshops, but via formal proper training, starting by . . . identifying people . . . within these communities. . . ."

Bushiello expressed a similar sentiment:

I believe is all about community empowerment. [Long silence] Actually community empowerment is one of the key points that are being emphasized by the Botswana National Ecotourism strategy. It is through community involvement in tourism that is more likely to instill a sense of ownership. Involving local people in tourism is likely to make residents more inclined to preserve tourism products [resources] [pause] the entire environment and the wild animals that thrive on it. If residents can see themselves benefiting directly from tourism they will be more inclined to care and manage these resources better: In other words, they should not view tourism as foreign to their region or villages. When there is a perception of tourism as an alien industry, benefiting only foreigners, then local people would have no motivation or incentive to try and preserve their resources. [Pause] The resources, so I'm saying yes, we should try by all means to promote community tourism projects so that they (residents) can too become players in the development of the tourism industry.

Latife also avowed:

I believe that KTP will open opportunities for local communities to sell their crafts. So, I believe that a strategy should be put in place whether small shops are built inside the park where people could be allowed to come and deliver their [produce] items for sale and then they can be charged a certain percentage for Park management. This could be an incentive for people to engage in craft making as a livelihood activity.

Almost all local respondents shared similar views that residents have not been given the opportunity to participate or be involved in job-related meetings about KTP.

Great explained:

We live close to the Park . . . but we are not involved in any activities taking place at KTP. People are interested in this Park. People want to work at the Park. If the current management and the on-going activities at KTP are looked into, and addressed fairly, I believe everyone would appreciate. Only South Africans are involved in the construction work. People want to identify with KTP and benefit from it, but we don't know what is

going on there. Some members of my community, were forced out of the Park, but were never compensated [see this letter].

Wenzo opined that:

But I wish the government of Botswana could perhaps match the standards of operation of our side of the Park to that of South Africa. Mm! right now the Park entrance gate and office block construction work is going on, but only South Africans are involved. No involvement of people from Botswana. Yet, when meetings are held in South Africa, representatives from DWNP (Botswana) are invited. But ordinary members from the community are not invited to these meetings. Also, there is a mismatch of the management system as it is State (Botswana) vis-à-vis Parastatal (South Africa).

### **Awareness of CBNRM and Conservation**

Interviewees were also asked a single close-ended question: “Is CBNRM the right approach for wildlife conservation”? Eleven out of all interviewees answered ‘yes’, while only one said ‘don’t know’. All the interviewees except one reported that the approach was a robust program for conservation. In particular, respondents indicated that they heard about the program when it was introduced in their districts and that the program was useful. One village leader noted: “. . . when it started I was very happy to learn about it. Corjan Van der Jagt helped us to know about CBNRM”. Almost all participants believed that CBNRM was a good approach for wildlife conservation. Many discussed benefits that communities have accrued from the program, especially in communities with CBOs. Philo, who represented the Kgalagadi Land Board explained: “Through CBNRM we can regulate management and use of natural resources.” An official from a CBO also added: “With CBNRM there is reduced poaching within communities. Poaching has become very low in Khawa village.” A representative from a CBNRM Unit, Letsadi, asserted:

Oh! Communities are encouraged to manage their own resources (wildlife) and other natural resources available in their areas. In the past, communities used to manage their resources, but when the government took over, poaching increased. This was the time when the government centralized everything. Control and management was with the central office, but then communities poached more. They hated to see us (wildlife officers). With CBNRM, we now relate very well with communities . . . Now communities seem to

understand the benefits of conservation. They help us in monitoring and taking care of wildlife resources because they get benefits.

Pineke from the Tribal Administration added a similar view:

Yes, conservation knowledge. Um! CBNRM programs have helped the community to understand the importance of conservation of our natural resources. The program has helped us to know how to manage our wildlife resources; . . . how to [*train wildlife*] to be closer to our area . . . we have gained the knowledge about environmental education. . . . CBNRM officers have come to our village to teach us and help us learn about how to manage and hunt wild animals. The officers have taught us how to hunt, count wild animals and spot wild animal droppings. Then they gave us machines to use when counting animals in the wild.

An official from the Ministry of Environment also added that:

Before CBNRM, people used to be involved in illegal hunting, but it is bad because it benefits only individuals. Communities or villages that are involved in CBNRM activities are benefiting as a group. They have begun to police their own resources (wildlife), and this has so far reduced illegal hunting in some areas.

### **Summary of Results: Public Sector**

Major themes were identified and responses were compared and contrasted within subjects and across local and national public sector participants. Based on the different accounts of issues by individual participants, five major themes were identified: community ecotourism development, knowledge about ecotourism, management issues, development challenges, and community integration. In addition, there were multiple subthemes within each individual theme (Table 4-15).

The results show diverse perspectives with regards to knowledge of and support for community-based ecotourism development. Perceptions also differed with regards to general conservation attitudes toward KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The majority were knowledgeable about the concept of Transfrontier protected areas, especially Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park. They indicated awareness that Gemsbok National Park (Botswana) and Kalahari Gemsbok National Park (South Africa) were amalgamated as a Transfrontier Park. Many representatives outlined

costs and benefits of KTP as a co-owned and managed park, particularly to adjacent communities. The benefits included: shared management costs, reduced poaching, collaboration and partnerships, and increased significance of KTP. Nearly all of the participants expressed support for community-based ecotourism development and the availability of the rich and unique resources for nature and culture-based tourism.

However, there were negative perspectives about KTP as a Transfrontier protected area. Generally, participants revealed challenges that included: land ownership and control issues, problem animal control, poor communication with Park authorities, lack of transparency with regards to Park activities, lack of local involvement in Park management, and inequality and favoritism with regards to benefits sharing, especially part-time employment. Collectively, participants expressed the need for change in the management approach of KTP to ensure active involvement and full participation of equal benefits for adjacent local communities. The issue of empowerment of local residents was also discussed by all participants. Another critical concern was the need for government to provide support infrastructure and superstructure for tourism both inside and outside KTP.

Table 4-1. Socio-demographic characteristics of residents

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender (N=746)		
Male	334	45
Female	412	55
Age (N=746)		
18-30	305	41
31-40	178	24
41-50	118	16
51-60	70	9
61+	73	10
Household size (N=742)		
1 person	70	9
2-4	224	30
5-7	240	32
8-10	125	17
10+ persons	87	12
Education (N=746)		
No schooling	123	16
Primary	155	21
Secondary (JC)	242	32
Secondary (COSC/BGSC)	136	18
Tech/vocational	56	8
University degree	44	6
Employment status (N=744)		
Formal employment	231	31
Part time employment	143	19
Self employment	175	24
Unemployed	186	25
Retired	9	1
Monthly household income (N=739)		
Less P500	196	26
501-1,000	118	16
1001-1500	74	10
1501-2,000	62	8
2001-2500	31	4
2501-3,000	34	5
3001+	224	30
Village/settlements (N=746)		
Ncaang	37	5
Ukhwi	59	8
Zutshwa	55	7
Tshane	89	12
Khawa	75	10

Table 4-1. Continued

Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Struizendam	44	6
Bokspits	53	7
Tsabong	212	28
Kang	122	16
Ethnicity (N=745)		
Basarwa	53	7
Bangologa	106	14
Batlharo	157	21
Baherero	20	3
Bakgalagadi	210	28
Banama	3	0.4
Coloreds	98	13
Other	98	13.1
Length of residence – years (N=746)		
Since birth	501	67
1-2 years	126	17
6-10	47	6
10+	72	10
Location/proximity (N=746)		
No idea	199	27
under 30km	87	12
31-60	73	10
61-120	99	13
121-240	114	15
241+	174	23

Note: The valid percentages have been rounded to equal 10%

Table 4-2. Frequency distributions (percentages) for residents' knowledge of ecotourism activities in the area.

Questions	Response (percentages)		
	Yes	No	Don't know
There are guesthouse/lodges for visitors in my village.	96.0	3.1	0.9
There are campsites for visitors and tourists to use when in my village.	54.6	35.5	9.9
Many visitors who come to KTP stay in my district.	43.7	39.4	16.8
Many Batswana visit my district strictly for meetings, funerals & business.	75.5	16.8	7.5
Many people from the Kalahari region visit my area for recreation/tourism.	55.8	29.2	14.9
Community campsites outside KTP accrue more money from visitors.	39.3	24.7	35.3
Revenue from community-based tourism benefits many people in my village	32.6	44.1	23.2
KTP provides opportunities for community development projects.	27.9	46.2	25.2
There is a cultural village for tourism in my district.	18.6	61.1	20.2
Ecotourism is important to my community.	89.4	5.0	5.5
Community-based ecotourism is essential for my community.	87.8	4.8	7.2

Table 4-3. Frequency distributions (percentages) for community concern about tourism

Statements <sup>a</sup>	NC	SC	MC	VC	EC	# of Cases
Destroy our environment	15.8	10.1	14.2	41.0	18.9	746
Change our cultural traditions	13.3	9.1	11.9	39.0	26.7	746
Increase social ills (e.g. crime)	4.8	4.6	7.8	39.1	43.4	746
Increase incidents of HIV/AIDS infections	3.9	4.2	5.1	30.3	56.2	745
Loss of grazing land for our livestock if more hotels & infrastructure are built	12.6	7.8	14.2	44.8	20.6	746

<sup>a</sup>Items coded on a 5-point scale ranging from 1=Not all concerned (NC), 2= Some-what concerned (SC), 3= Moderate concerned (MC), 4= Very concerned (VC), 5= Extremely concerned (EC)

Table 4-4. Purpose for residents' visit to Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (Participation)

Purpose of visit	Responses N=746			
	Yes	%	No	%
Recreation/tourism	171	23	574	77
See wild animals, birds & nature	176	24	569	76
Veldt resource collection	8	1	737	99
Park management meeting	24	3	721	97
Other	140	19	605	81

Table 4-5. Frequency distributions (percentage) for conservation attitudes to KTP

Item/statement <sup>a</sup>	SD	D	N	A	SA	# of cases
KTP should be protected for benefit of our future generations.	0.4	0.4	1.3	42.9	55.0	746
KTP conservation has taken our land from us*.	17.8	51.7	9.5	17.8	3.1	746
It is important to protect KTP for survival of plants.	0.8	3.6	3.2	68.0	24.3	745
Farmers don't have land to cultivate and graze livestock due to KTP*.	19.2	51.7	9.0	15.8	4.3	746
Staff from KTP has done nothing for villagers' lives*.	6.4	36.2	20.0	29.8	7.6	746
People who illegally kill and eat wild animals in KTP should not be fined or jailed*.	35.1	44.8	3.5	7.4	9.0	744
KTP is for tourists and we are not allowed to visit*.	24.4	61.1	6.4	6.8	0.9	744
It is better if some parts in KTP be allocated to the local people to use for agriculture*.	19.7	49.7	7.4	19.2	3.6	743
If hunting and grazing in KTP is allowed then wildlife will disappear.	2.4	6.3	3.6	57.4	30.0	744
KTP wild animals do not cause problems in our village.	8.8	37.5	11.7	34.6	7.4	746
If there is unlimited access to forest resources in KTP (Firewood, medicinal plants, forest foods) they will all disappear.	3.4	6.7	5.4	61.7	22.9	746
It is important for government to devote more money toward a strong a conservation program for KTP.	1.2	3.9	4.4	62.9	27.5	745
KTP provides jobs for people from the village.	5.4	31.1	12.1	42.4	9.1	746
KTP is being managed for the local people.	4.2	35.3	16.4	35.3	8.7	743
I am happy to have my village next to KTP.	0.9	6.4	9.5	66.2	16.2	741
It is important to protect KTP for the survival of wildlife.	1.6	1.5	2.9	61.9	32.0	746

<sup>a</sup>Items coded on a 5 point scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree (SD), 2=disagree (D), 3=neutral (N), 4=agree (A) 5=strongly agree (SA). Note: \*Items were reverse coded prior to analysis.

Table 4-6. Frequency distributions (percentage) for residents' perceptions about community-based ecotourism development (CBE)

Statement <sup>a</sup>	SD	D	N	A	SA	#.of cases
CBE increases income and standard of living in the community.	1.2	6.2	10.2	62.3	19.8	744
CBE increases opportunities for the community.	1.3	10.2	7.5	61.5	19.0	743
CBE promotes equal sharing of benefits form community projects.	2.3	10.7	20.9	52.1	13.7	744
CBE provides educational experiences for local communities.	1.2	4.3	11.0	57.9	25.2	743
CBE creates problems to local people in my village*.	12.6	57.8	13.0	13.8	2.8	746
CBE enhances the quality of life of local communities.	1.9	8.2	12.6	63.9	12.9	742
CBE promotes meeting new people & cultural exchange.	1.1	2.8	5.6	64.1	26.0	743
CBE improves understanding & image of my community	2.3	5.8	8.8	65.8	16.9	743
CBE enhances local arts and crafts in communities.	1.9	3.9	7.2	63.0	23.6	743
CBE discourages preservation of cultural resources*.	16.6	50.1	8.2	19.8	4.8	743
CBE provides casual earning opportunities by selling grass, crafts, firewood, berries, mahupu.	2.7	9.4	8.3	61.7	17.7	743
CBE protects and supports wildlife resources.	0.5	0.9	3.8	68.5	26.0	744
CBE supports conservation of forests or veldt resources.	0.4	1.1	5.6	68.9	23.6	743
CBE increases support for natural resource conservation.	0.5	1.6	5.6	68.4	23.2	741

<sup>a</sup>Items coded on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1=strongly disagree (SD), 2=Disagree (D), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Agree (A), 5=strongly agree (SA). Note: \*Items reverse coded prior to analysis.

Table 4-7. Frequency distributions (percentage) for residents support for conservation of KTP

Statements <sup>a</sup>	SO	O	N	S	SS	# of cases
Support KTP as a Transfrontier Park	9.4	11.9	6.7	51.7	20.0	744
Support current management staff at KTP	1.1	14.6	19.2	51.5	13.5	745
Support creation of buffer and WMAs	2.1	6.2	13.0	58.8	19.6	744
Support regulation and guidelines for KTP	4.3	7.6	15.3	54.2	18.5	745
Support protection of KTP as a conservation area	0.4	1.2	2.8	65.5	29.8	743

<sup>a</sup>Items coded on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1=Strongly Oppose (SO), 2=Oppose (O), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Support(S), 5=Strongly Support (SS)

Table 4-8. Residents' knowledge about creation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park

Variable/Item	Respondents (N)	Percentage
Ecotourism	69	9.3
Conservation of wildlife & plant resources	565	75.9
Other Reasons	30	4.0
Don't know	80	10.7
Total	744	100

Table 4-9. Frequency distributions (percentages) of residents support CBE development

Statements <sup>a</sup>	SO	O	N	S	SS	# of cases
Promotes local involvement in tourism activities.	1.1	1.6	7.1	72.5	17.4	744
Promotes preservation of local culture and traditions.	1.3	3.8	10.5	59.0	24.8	741
Promotes environmental education for local people.	0.8	2.0	8.3	64.2	24.0	741
Encourages local participation in tourism planning & development.	0.9	3.8	11.7	62.7	20.2	741
Promotes collective income for the community.	1.9	4.8	14.5	60.9	17.4	742
Encourages conservation of natural resources.	0.8	1.2	3.9	65.0	28.6	742

<sup>a</sup>Items coded on a 5-pt scale ranging from 1=Strongly Oppose (SO), 2=Oppose (O), 3=Neutral (N), 4=Support(S), 5=Strongly Support (SS)

Table 4-10. Correlations: Residents' support for CBE development

	Support for CBE index	Perception index	Attitude index	Concern index	Participation	Age	Gender	Education	Residence	Distance
Support for CBE index	1.00									
Perception index	.55***	1.00								
Attitude index	.41***	.45***	1.00							
Concern index	.12***	.09**	-.01	1.00						
Participation	.01	-.02	-.03	-.06	1.00					
Age	.08*	-.02	-.06	.09**	.10**	1.00				
Gender	.02	.00	.05	-.05	.18***	-.01	1.00			
Education	-.14***	-.06	-.02	-.16***	.01	-	.04	1.00		
Residence	.11**	-.04	-.11**	.17***	.05	.54***	-.10**	-.49***	1.00	
Distance	-.03	.11**	.01	-.00	-.14***	-.07*	.02	.13***	-.14***	1.00

\*\*\*= P<0.001    \*\*=P<0.01    \*=P<0.05 (2-tailed)

Table 4-11. Standard Multiple linear regression analysis for predicting support for community-based ecotourism development.

Independent variable (s)	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	SEB	Standardized Coefficient (β)
<b>Research Variables</b>			
Perception index	0.529	0.040	.446***
Attitudes index	0.284	0.043	.218***
Concern index	0.037	0.019	0.058*
Participation (Use level)	0.020	0.034	0.018
<b>Socio-demographics</b>			
Age	-0.002	0.002	-0.042
Gender	0.024	0.034	0.021
Level of education	-0.053	0.043	-0.047
Length of residency	0.004	0.001	0.142***
Distance/proximity	0.000	0.000	-0.051

R<sup>2</sup> =0.351; Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = 0.349. F (9,736) =45.43\*\*\*; \*\*\*=p<0.001; \*\*=p< 0.01; \*=p< 0.05

Table 4-12. Correlations: Residents' support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park

	Support for KTP index	Perception index	Attitude index	Concern index	Parti- cipation	Age	Gender	Education	Residence	Distance
Support for KTP index	1.00									
Perception index	.26***	1.00								
Attitude index	.39***	.45***	1.00							
Concern index	.22***	.09**	-.01	1.00						
Participation	.03	-.02	-.03	-.06	1.00					
Age	.08*	-.02	-.06	.09**	.10**	1.00				
Gender	.08*	.00	-.05	-.05	.18***	-.01	1.00			
Education	-.16***	-.06	-.02	-.16***	.01	.59***	.04	1.00		
Residence	.04	-.04	-.11**	.17***	.05	.69***	-.10**	-.49***	1.00	
Distance	-.12***	.11***	.01	-.00	-.14***	-.07*	.02	.13***	-.14***	1.00

\*\*\*= P<0.001    \*\*=P<0.01    \*=P<0.05 (2-tailed)

Table 4-13. Standard Multiple regression analysis for predicting support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park.

Independent variable (s)	Unstandardized Coefficient (B)	SEB	Standardized Coefficient (β)
<b>Research Variables</b>			
Perception index	0.122	0.049	0.091*
Attitudes index	0.521	0.054	0.351***
Concern index	0.143	0.023	0.201***
Participation (Use level)	0.028	0.042	0.022
<b>Socio-demographics</b>			
Age	0.001	0.002	0.034
Gender	0.091	0.042	0.072*
Level of education	-0.127	0.053	-0.099*
Length of residency	-0.001	0.001	-0.033
Distance/proximity	-0.001	0.000	-0.120***

R<sup>2</sup> = 0.243; adjusted R<sup>2</sup> = 0.234 F (9, 736) = 26.307\*\*\*; \*\*\*=p< 0.001; \*\*=p<0.01; \*=p< 0.05

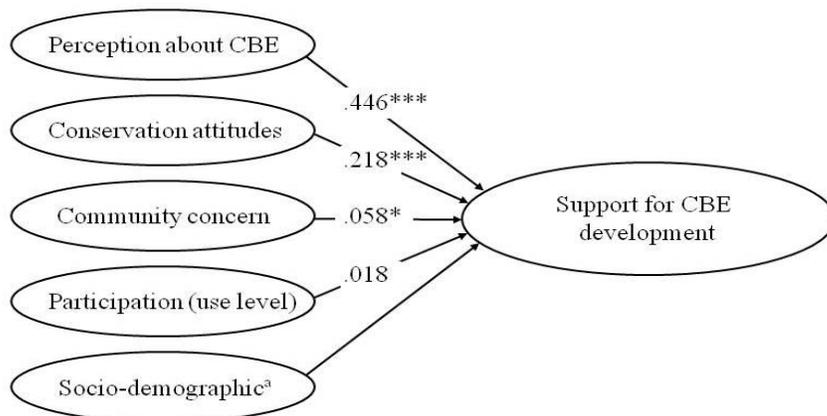


Figure 4-1. Factors that predict residents' support for Community-based ecotourism (CBE).  
 Note: \*\*\*=p< 0.001; \*\*=p< 0.01; \*=p< 0.05; a: Length of Residence (.142\*\*\*)

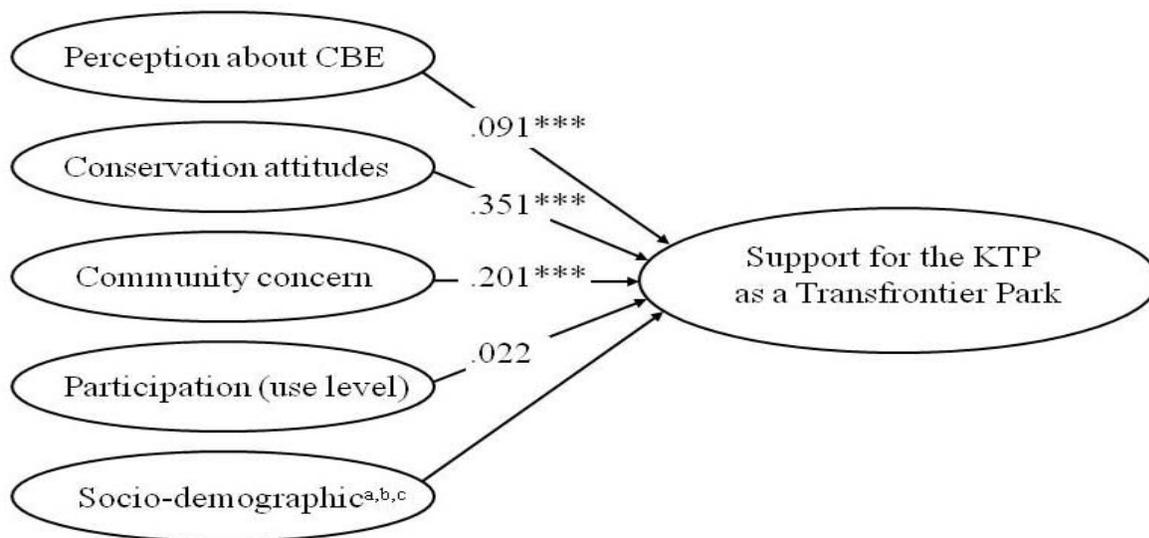


Figure 4-2. Factors that predict residents' support for Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park (KTP). Note:  
 \*\*\*=p< 0.001; \*\*=p<0.01; \*=p<0.05; a: Distance/proximity (-0.120\*\*\*),  
 b: Education (-0.099\*), c: Gender (.072\*)

Table 4-14. Profile of representatives (members) of the Public Sector

Gender	Pseudonym	Organization/Institution	Region	Representatives
Female	Latife	Ministry of Environment, Wildlife & Tourism	Gaborone	National
Male	Fosante	Department of Environmental Affairs	Gaborone	National
Female		Department of Wildlife (Parks Division)	Gaborone	National
Female	Letsadi	Department of Wildlife (CBNRM Unit)	Gaborone	National
Male	Bushielo	Botswana Tourism Board	Gaborone	National
Female	Mafie	Wildlife Department (Sub-district)	Kgalagadi north	Local
Male	Tatiana	Local authority	Kgalagadi south	Local
Male	Pineke	Local authority	Kgalagadi north	Local
Male	Wenzo	Community Extension Unit	Kgalagadi south	Local
Male	Scubie	Xaxe! Development Trust (CBO)	Kgalagadi north	Local
Female	Wendy	Khawa Development Trust (CBO)	Kgalagadi south	Local
Male	Moagi	Village Development committee	Kgalagadi south	Local
Male	Greta	Village Farmers Association	Kgalagadi south	Local

Table 4-15. Thematic analysis for interview data

Key Themes	Sub- Themes
Community ecotourism development	Knowledge and appreciation of community-based ecotourism
Knowledge about KTP Transfrontier Area	Perception of community ecotourism
	Significance and recognition
Management issues	Collaboration and partnership issues
	Policy and co-management challenges
Development challenges	Human-wildlife interactions
	Land ownership and control
Community integration	Infrastructure for tourism
	Cultural heritage for tourism development
	Park benefits to local communities
	Local involvement and participation

## CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION

A systematic analysis of residents' attitudes and perspectives about tourism can help government planners, local authority decision makers, protected area authorities, and tourism developers and promoters to identify stakeholder concerns and issues in order for appropriate policies and actions to be formulated and implemented (Allen et al., 1988; Byrd, 2007; De Lopez, 2001; Lankford & Howard, 1994; Murphy, 1981; Weladji et al., 2003). Also, strategic planning of Transfrontier protected areas is a complex task due to the interdependence of multiple stakeholders that ought to be involved in management and conservation of shared resources (Byrd & Cardenas, 2006; Jamal & Gertz, 1995; Kelson & Lilieholm, 1999; Schoon, 2008). Currently, governments in developing countries, notably in Africa (e.g. Botswana, Namibia; South Africa, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda and Zambia) have developed community-based ecotourism in and around PAs to benefit adjacent local communities and to preserve and conserve ecological resources (Akama, 1996; Jones, 2005; Murphree, 2001; Nelson, 2004; Spenceley, 2008; Zuich, 2009). Therefore, it is paramount that the perspectives of all stakeholder groups (in particular, resident communities) be understood so that they both can play a lead role in the issues that pertain to ecotourism development and planning in their area (Khan, 1997; Parker & Khare, 2005; Stem et al., 2003). It is also important that factors that affect or influence residents' support for conservation of Transboundary Protected Areas within their local communities are identified to benefit policy reviews and implementation (Allendorf, 2007; Bruyere et al., 2009; Kelson & Lilieholm, 1999; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006).

As an exploratory effort, this study focused on two stakeholder groups: residents and public sector. Specifically, this study examined factors that influence or predict stakeholders' support for community-based ecotourism development and support for KTP as a Transfrontier

protected area. The discussion of results of each stakeholder group and integration of the findings with respect to implications are further expanded in the following sections.

### **Resident Perspectives**

The study identified the multiplicity of factors that can be utilized to explain or predict residents' perceptions about CBE, support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Overall, the majority of the residents had strong support for both CBE development and KTP as a Transfrontier Park. In this discussion, 'support' refers to a situation in which residents' would exhibit positive attitudes toward general conservation of KTP as a Transfrontier protected area or CBE development.

### **Support for Community-Based Ecotourism Development**

Ecotourism development is founded on the notion of safeguarding natural and cultural resources in PAs (Honey, 1999; Weaver, 2001). CBE has become an important livelihood option for rural communities in the developing world. Therefore, it is important to identify and understand the factors or elements that determine perceptions and support for community-based ecotourism development in communities adjacent to Transfrontier Conservation Areas. Ecotourism development and successes in and around PAs rely heavily on local communities' support and willingness to participate in park-based tourism and conservation projects (Lai & Nepal, 2006; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Stem et al., 2003). Thus, this study further sought to determine factors that influence or predict residents' support for CBE development.

Results of this study identified four variables (perception about CBE, conservation attitude, length of residency, and community concern), which have statistically significant positive relationships with support for CBE development. All the selected socio-demographic variables: age, gender, education and distance/proximity were poor predictors for support.

Perception about CBE was found to have the strongest relationship with support for CBE development. The results are consistent with several previous perception and attitude studies that found that the majority of residents in most destinations have associated tourism with general socio-economic benefits (Byrd, 2003; Gursoy & Rutherford, 2004; Gursoy et al., 2002; Hiwasaki, 2006; Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski et al., 1997; Keogh, 1990; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Teye et al., 2002) as well as personal benefits (Oviedo-Garcia, Castellnos-Verdugo & Martin-Ruiz, 2008; Yason & Pfister, 2008). In all of these studies, positive perceptions about tourism influenced local residents' support for its development. However, it is important to note that most previous studies were highly varied and tended to be site-specific (Byrd & Cardenas, 2006; Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski et al., 1997; Lepp, 2008; Pennington-Gray, 2005).

More specifically, Gursoy & Rutherford (2004) found that residents perceived socio-cultural and economic benefits of tourism to have a strong influence towards further development in Idaho, US. In Ghana, local residents of Lake Bosomtwe Basin equated tourism advancement in their town with economic benefits. The strong support for tourism in the community was due to its potential to generate employment, additional income and more businesses in their area (see (African Consulting Engineers, 2000; Amuquandoh & Dei, 2007). Similarly, residents' perception about tourism was associated with revenue-sharing and infrastructural development in Kenya (Bruyere, et al., 2009). In these case studies, local people were aware of tourism projects and there was a desire for increased activities. Also, tourism was at a developmental stage at the respective destination (Butler, 1980).

The results of this study are similar to those of many perception studies (especially in destinations where tourism and/or ecotourism were at the initial stage of growth) whereby local residents have predominantly positive perceptions and very few negative perceptions of tourism

development outcomes (Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Oviedo-Garcia et al., 2008). In this study residents did not seem to be aware of the negative effects that ecotourism development can create for their community due to lack of planning and management (see Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Weaver & Lawton, 2001). As experienced in other destinations (Butler, 1980; Doxey, 1975), residents' attitudes towards conservation activities and tourism development in and around PA may change over time. Thus, it is paramount that when policies that deal with ecotourism development and resource conservation are formulated, formal education and local capacities be prioritized and emphasized to benefit local communities.

Residents were also asked to indicate their general conservation attitude toward KTP and their support for CBE development. This study found generally favorable conservation attitudes, which subsequently led to a significant positive relationship with support for CBE development. The present study showed that nearly all residents (90%) noted that they supported CBE because it promoted local involvement in tourism activities, while 84% supported CBE for its potential to promote preservation of local cultures and traditions within local communities. Also, 88.7% indicated strong support with respect to the importance of CBE for their community as was the case with the previously discussed tourism perception studies; this study is supported by the literature, where similar attitude patterns were found. In these studies, resident communities who expressed pro-conservation attitudes toward a PA also indicated strong support for park-based tourism (see Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Also, previous research discovered that residents who derived economic benefits from conservation-related activities were supportive of ecotourism development (Alexander, 2000; Fiallo & Jacobson, 1995; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Stem et al., 2003). In Madagascar, Mahalevona and Ambohitralanana residents perceived Masoala National Park as an economic benefit (Ormsby & Mannie, 2006).

In this study, when residents were asked if revenue from community-based tourism benefited people in the community, 64%<sup>1</sup> indicated no benefits. Overall, resident communities showed positive general conservation attitudes toward KTP which subsequently led to support for CBE.

Length of residency was also a good predictor for support for CBE development. The results suggest that long-term residency in the area has an influence on residents' support for CBE development. This could mean that long term residents could be attached to the community so much that they believe that CBE could bring positive change. The findings in the literature with respect to this relationship are mixed. Findings are consistent with some of the previous studies that discovered that duration of residency in the community influenced support for tourism development (Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996; McCool & Martin, 1994). Also, local residents who had lived in the community much longer expressed their desire to experience more tourism growth and were very supportive of further developments (Andereck et al., 2005; McGehee & Andereck, 2004). However, the present findings differed from Allen et al. (1988), Pizam (1978) and Johnson, Snepenger & Akis, (1994), who found that residents with longer-term residency in the community were more likely to express negative attitudes toward tourism advancement and ultimately show less support. Also, Jurowski's (1994) study among rural communities in Virginia discovered that length of residence did not have predictive validity with support for tourism development. Such results may be due to the fact that local residents who lived in the area longer may have observed tourism growth and its associated negative changes, and as a result they have become less supportive of its development (Um & Crompton, 1987).

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<sup>1</sup> Response 'no' and 'don't know' combined.

Community concern about tourism was found to have a positive and significant relationship with support for CBE development. The majority of the residents (87%) were very concerned that CBE could increase the incidence of HIV/AIDS infections, while a substantial number (83%) were also concerned that CBE will increase social ills (e.g., crime) in their communities. Other members of the community (66%) were concerned that CBE would change their cultural traditions. Although the majority of residents indicated their concern about possible negative effects that tourism could bring to the community, surprisingly they still demonstrated positive attitudes and support for CBE development. These results were consistent with Gursoy & Rutherford's (2004) study in Idaho whereby residents showed concern over increased traffic, littering, and crime, while still showing a strong overall support for tourism. In other studies, local residents were concerned about crime, noise, overcrowding and congestion, but the general findings showed that residents were still supportive because they perceived tourism as an economic tool (Andereck et al., 2005; Burns & Howard, 2003; Dyer et al., 2007; Jurowski, 1994; Keogh, 1990; McGehee & Andereck, 2004).

However, negative effects of tourism also led to less support for the tourism industry in those communities where residents were too wary about tourism and growth (Banks, 2003). In the present study, even if Kgalagadi residents expressed concern about the potential negative impacts of tourism, they still expressed support for CBE development in their community. This may be partly explained by the fact that resident communities have positive attitudes toward tourism in general, since there are few alternative economic or livelihood opportunities in their respective areas. In addition, Gursoy et al. (2002) concluded that, "the level of concern about one's community and the extent to which residents use the resource base have no effect on their evaluation of the costs and benefits of tourism" (p. 94). Thus, it is logical that those who have no

employment and also have knowledge of ecotourism would express strong support for CBE development in the community. Concomitantly, it is feasible that in a destination where tourism is still very new, local people would exhibit positive perceptions and behavior towards its development. Similar to residents of the Bosomtwe Basin in Ghana (Amuquandoh & Dei, 2007), local residents of Kgalagadi equated tourism development with socio-economic benefits. Social ills such as crimes are almost non-existent and cases of HIV/AIDS are still very low (KDDP 5, 2005). Thus, support for CBE development was plausibly linked to socio-economic opportunities.

The lack of relationship between participation (use level) and support for CBE development denoted that residents' participation or use level of the KTP does not influence or determine support of CBE development. Results indicated that close to half of the total sample had visited KTP for reasons that included recreation/tourism (23%, N=171); interest in wild animals, birds and nature (24%, N= 176) and other reasons (shopping, visiting friends and relatives, in transit) (19%, N=140), while only 3% (N=24) attended the park management meeting. Given the low buying power of the communities as well as unemployment and illiteracy among residents (KDDP 5, 2005), resident visitor numbers to KTP can be regarded as relatively high. Even so, participation in park activities does not guarantee support for CBE development. Previous studies have found that participation (use level) influences residents' level of support for the tourism industry (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999; Lankford & Howard, 1994). The results of this study are different from previous studies because there was a lack of relationship between participation (use level) and support for CBE development (see Gursoy et al., 2002; Keogh, 1990; Perdue et al., 1987).

The four socio-demographic variables (age, gender, education, and distance/proximity) did not predict support for CBE development. The reason for this finding could be due in part to

the fact that tourism is very new to the area. Thus, local people showed positive attitudes toward tourism regardless of their age, gender or education. These findings are supported by Tosun (2002) who found that the general socio-demographic variables did not determine residents' support for tourism advancement in the community.

There was also a lack of relationship between distance/proximity of residents' home to the KTP and their support for CBE development. The relationship between distance and support for tourism has received mixed findings in the literature due to varying factors. For instance, Jurowski & Gursoy (2004) found that the further residents lived from the tourism resource, the less they supported tourism development. Belisle & Hoy (1980) discovered that Santa Marta residents in Colombia, especially those who lived close to the tourism/recreation zone showed positive perceptions about tourism. Local residents who derived benefits from tourism activity became supportive of its advancement in their area of abode (Belisle & Hoy, 1980).

Based on the previous work conducted in the area, tourism was equated with perceived economic benefits, especially income and employment (Moswete, 2007; Moswete et al., 2009b). In this present study residents are not economically dependent on tourism activity, but their support for CBE development is elevated. It is worthy of note that overall support for CBE development was not predicted by respondents' age, gender, education level or distance or proximity of communities to the KTP. Although the socio-demographic variables were poor predictors of support for CBE development, they are essential elements of research when dealing with local peoples' perceptions and attitudes especially in developing countries including Botswana (Amuquandoh & Dei, 2007; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Kideghesho, Roskaft & Kaltenborn, 2007; Kalternborn, Bjerke, Nyahongo & Williams, 2006; Lepetu, 2007).

The study revealed factors that influence or predict residents' support for CBE development as: perception about CBE, general conservation attitude, residency and community concern. Thus, the conceptual model was found to be a significant predictor of residents' support for CBE development. The next section discusses residents' support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park based on the same predictor variables used in model 1.

### **Support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park**

Collectively, six variables were found to be good predictors of support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park: perception about CBE, conservation attitudes, community concern, distance/proximity and two socio-demographic variables (gender and education). Overall, conservation attitude was the strongest predictor for residents' support, and was found to have a positive and highly significant relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier protected area. In this study, a substantial number of residents held positive conservation attitudes about KTP, which ultimately led to strong support for KTP as a Transboundary protected area. For example, almost all residents (98%) agreed that KTP should be protected to benefit future generations. Also, the majority (91%) agreed that it is essential for government to devote more money toward a strong conservation program for KTP, and (87%) agreed that if hunting and grazing were allowed in KTP, wild animals will all disappear. This finding is similar to other attitude and perception studies, in which residents' conservation attitudes were found to have positive links with support for PAs in developing countries (Infield, 1988; Lepp, 2004; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). In such studies, residents' positive attitudes toward conservation were a result of derived benefits from a protected area and tourism development (see Durant & Durant, 2008; Newmark et al., 1993).

This was confirmed by Lepetu's (2007) study on residents' conservation attitudes toward Kasane Forest reserve in Chobe, whereby 60% (N=163) indicated that they had obtained socio-

economic benefits from the reserve, and therefore were supportive of the reserve. However, 42% of the residents also noted livestock predation as a concern, but still held positive attitudes towards the reserve (Lepetu, 2007). Similarly, Mbaiwa (2008) found that communities of Mababe, Khwai and Sankoyo in Ngamiland, Botswana held strong attitudes to conservation of sable antelope, thatching grass, and giraffe due to the significant benefits accrued from tourism development in their villages. Also, Ormsby & Kaplin (2005) revealed that residents who obtained benefits from ecotourism-related activities and forest resources from Masoala National Park in Madagascar expressed positive attitudes toward the Park. Generally, studies have consistently demonstrated that positive conservation attitudes were heavily linked with accrued benefits (Baral & Heinen, 2007; Durant & Durant, 2008; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Additionally, favorable conservation attitudes and support for PAs were found to increase with household affluence (Infield, 1988; Kideghesho et al., 2007; Lepetu, 2008).

Conversely, negative attitudes and less support were usually associated with wildlife conflicts and lack of access to park resources and benefits (Bauer, 2003; Newmark et al., 1993; 1994). For example, Newmark et al. (1993) found that 71% of local residents held negative attitudes toward Mukumi National Park and Selous Game Reserve in Tanzania. In the present study, although favorable conservation attitudes were demonstrated, there were still some issues that resonated among residents. For example, 46% of residents indicated that KTP did not provide opportunities for community development activities, while 44% noted that revenue from community-based tourism did not benefit many individuals in the area. Also, some members of the community indicated that they had farms and cattle posts near KTP, and about 46% noted livestock loss and crop damage from wild animals from the Park. Additionally, 43% of the

residents indicated that staff from KTP had done nothing to improve villagers' lives. However, these negative issues, did not seem to have influenced their support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. This finding deviates from the general literature as researchers have identified that negative conservation attitudes among local communities led to less support for the respective PA in adjacent local communities (Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Gadd, 2005; Lepp, 2007; Meskell, 2005; Naughton-Treves, 1997; Newmark et al., 1993; Newmark et al., 1994; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Sekhar, 2003). Moreover, in the context of this study, the local residents were generally very poor (Arntzen, 2001; KDDP, 2005; Totolo & Chanda, 2003) but still demonstrated support for KTP. Similarly, Arjunan et al.'s (2006) study on local attitudes toward conservation of Kalakad-Mundanthuri Tiger reserve discovered that poor people were supportive of the PA whether they obtained benefits or not. Hence, it can be concluded that local residents' appreciation of nature (wildlife and wilderness) can be considered as intangible benefits.

Community concern about tourism was found to have a positive relationship with support for KTP. This finding was not expected, as it was hypothesized that a negative relationship would exist. Previous studies have identified that local residents who had obtained benefits from Park-based tourism projects were likely to perceive fewer negative tourism impacts (Liu & Var, 1986; Liu & Wall, 2006; Perdue et al., 1991). The more positive residents were about benefits derived from tourism, the more support they held for tourism development in their community, especially when tourism was newly introduced (Butler, 1980; 1998). However, recent research has found that residents who have indicated concern about the negative effects of tourism in their communities still expressed strong support for park-based tourism development (Dyer et al., 2007; Stem et al., 2003). Similar results were also found in this study, as the majority of residents (65%) were very concerned that tourism might contribute to loss of grazing land for their

livestock if more tourist infrastructure were built. In addition, residents (60%) worried about possible harm to the environment if tourism activities were to increase in their areas of abode. This finding offers a useful insight for the communities of Kgalagadi, who viewed tourism as beneficial even though their knowledge or awareness of negative effects of tourism development was acknowledged. Hence, it holds true that when tourism is new in the area, residents view it positively due to its perceived economic benefits (Dyer et al., 2007), thereby influencing local residents to support it. Such an outcome in this study was likely as tourism is new to the region and there were perceived expectations of economic benefits. Therefore, residents' perceived economic benefits of tourism led to subsequent support for KTP, and quite possibly outweighed the social and environmental costs in their minds.

Perception about CBE was found to have a positive and significant relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. An exceptionally high number of residents (92%) agreed that CBE has the potential to increase support for natural resource conservation, while (79%) agreed that it can provide casual earning opportunities for local communities where they could sell veldt resources (thatching grass, wild fruits). The positive perception about CBE is substantiated by residents' high level of knowledge about tourism-related activities that occur in their areas. When residents were asked if CBE was an essential industry in their communities, almost all (89%) indicated that it was very important. It is interesting and encouraging, because tourism development in the study area is still at an initial stage of the destination lifecycle (Butler, 1980). This finding is supported by previous research, in which local residents in communities where tourism growth was still at an early stage tended to express favor about potential benefits of tourism, and ultimately indicated support for its development (Ko & Stewart, 2002; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Wilson et al., 2001; Yason & Pfister, 2008).

In this study, residents' positive perception about CBE development seemed to drive their strong support for KTP as a Transboundary protected area. Generally, residents agreed that if tourism activities at KTP were increased, more visitors would come, and employment would be created (C. Mothelesi, personal communication, December 6, 2008). Similarly, residents' general perceptions about CBE were premised solely on the positive aspects of tourism in the community, such as employment creation opportunities and revenues. Other perception studies helped to put these results in perspective and also added to understanding of local residents' perspectives with regards to potential ecotourism development (Lai & Nepal, 2006; Moswete et al., 2009b).

The distance/proximity of communities to the Park had a significant negative relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Support was found to decrease with distance away from KTP. The results indicate that the closer the communities or villages were to the boundary of the Park, the more support they held for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Support for KTP by communities located along buffer regions may have been influenced by access to resources. Such a finding has been identified, whereby positive attitudes and support of PAs were influenced by benefits obtained, such as easy access to resources, e.g. firewood, forest foods (Ormsby & Kaplin, 2005). Conversely, previous studies have also shown that communities located far from PA express pro-conservation attitudes and strong support for a Park (Akama, 1996; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Mordi, 1987; Parry & Campbell, 1992).

Also, livestock predation and crop damage have been reported as major challenges for rural communities flanking national parks and game reserves (Brandon, 2007; Lepp, 2004; Mordi, 1987; Newmark et al., 1993; Roberson & Lawes, 2005). Local people are barred from killing these wild animals by both the country's wildlife policies and international conservation laws. Less support towards PAs are also garnered as local people perceive that animals are held in

higher regard than people, leading to suspicion of conservation and tourism policies (Bauer, 2003; Bolaane, 2004; Lepp, 2004; Meskell, 2005; Parry & Campbell, 1992). Overall, attitudes of local residents towards and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park were strong, especially in villages that were very close to the Park.

Of all the five socio-demographic variables in the model, two (education and gender) were found to have statistically significant relationships with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Education had a significant negative association with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Essentially, residents with secondary or higher education were less likely to express support for KTP. This was contrary to some of the findings in the literature and was unexpected. In Ecuador, education was found to have a positive influence on local communities' attitudes towards conservation of Machalila National Park (Fiallo & Jacobson, 1995). Stem et al.'s (2003) study of four communities adjacent to two PAs in Costa Rica also revealed that high education levels were linked to strong conservation perspectives. Recently, in their study on socio-economic impacts on the attitudes towards conservation of natural resources in Serbia, Tomicevic, Shannon, & Milavanovic (2009) discovered that education had a positive influence on residents' conservation attitudes of Tara National Park.

In the present study, highly educated people were likely to understand park management and conservation policies and to realize if they were favorable. In this study, the level of support for the current management staff at KTP was supported by 65% of the residents, while the remaining proportion (35%) was comprised of those who opposed and also were neutral about KTP. Despite the fact that the majority of residents were supportive of KTP as a Transfrontier Park, there were other individuals (21%) who strongly opposed KTP as Transfrontier Park, and these were likely to be those with higher education.

In this study, males were more likely than females to express support for KTP as a Transboundary protected area, possibly because males were constantly recruited by KTP management to help mend the Park boundary fence (Village Chief, personal communication, December 1, 2008). Also, mostly men were recruited and hired by the safari operator as animal trekkers (during hunting expeditions) and skimmers and camp watchers during hunting season. The involvement of males in park-based wildlife tourism justifies their strong support for KTP as a Transboundary Park. This finding is supported by Tomicevic et al. (2009), whereby men who were actively connected and engaged to Tara National Park via employment and other means had positive attitudes towards conservation and the Park. Conversely, support for PAs diminished among young men who were engaged in illegal hunting of wild animals (Kideghesho et al., 2007; Mugisha, 2002).

Another interesting finding was that age and length of residence were not good predictors for support for KTP as a Transfrontier protected area. Many studies have found that age plays an important role in conservation attitudes and behavior, likely leading to varied levels of support toward PA among residents (Lepetu, 2007; Kideghesho et al., 2007; Stem et al., 2003; Tomicevic et al., 2009; Wilson et al., 2001). For instance, elderly people were not supportive of conservation activities in PAs because they were denied rights to resource use and therefore had negative attitudes toward Parks (Tomicevic et al., 2009). Lepetu (2007) found that young people were more dependant on forest resources, while elderly people were less supportive of the Forest Reserve due to history and restrictive policies. Overall, although the majority of the residents held positive attitudes towards and support for KTP, the influence of age did not predict support.

Results also demonstrated that length of residency in the community was not significantly associated with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. This finding deviated from the literature

as most recently Nicholas (2007) discovered that long-term residency created a personal bond with the community or resource or an area and hence established support towards a PA.

Conversely, De Boer & Baquete (1998) found that long-term residents who have lived in and around Maputo Elephant Reserve in Mozambique were not supportive of the Reserve due to very restrictive conservation policies. Also, Newmark et al. (1993) found that long duration of stay in the community was associated with negative attitudes toward PA staff. In this study, 67% of the sampled residents were born and raised in their respective communities. The lack of relationship between length of residency and support suggests that the creation and review processes for KTP conservation programs cannot rely on length of residency as a predictor of support for the Transfrontier Park.

Participation<sup>2</sup> (use level) was also not found to have a significant relationship with support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The results revealed that only 42% of the sampled residents had visited KTP at some point in time while living in the district. Previous research has revealed that a lack of participation in tourism-related activities has caused resentment of conservation policies by local residents (Alexander, 2000; Bauer, 2003; Manwa, 2003; Meskell, 2005; Mordi, 1987; Weladji et al., 2003), exacerbated negative attitudes toward protected areas (Archabald & Naughton-Treves, 2001; Kideghesho et al., 2007; Peters, 1999), and resulted in a lack of interest in the general conservation of natural resources (De Boer & Baquete, 1998; Gillingham & Lee, 1999; Himoonde, 2007; Infield & Namara, 2001; Kiss, 2004; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Twyman, 2001). Despite the fact that not many residents participated in activities at KTP, they still expressed positive and strong support for the Park. Participation was not a good predictor for support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park, as there may be other salient factors not identified in this

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<sup>2</sup> Participation was dummy coded, with 1 representing those who had visited the Park for different reasons, including tourism and recreation.

study. For example, in Masoala National Park, Madagascar, Armsby & Kaplin (2005) found that the history of Park management, including residents' attendance at Park meetings, visitation, and participation in community projects, had strongly influenced attitudes and support for the Park.

The results of this present study indicated that the factors that influence support were: conservation attitudes, community concern, perception about CBE, gender, education and distance/proximity. Participation (use level), age of respondents, and length of residency were not good predictors of support for KTP. The interplay between conservation attitudes, community concern about tourism, perception of CBE, gender, education and proximity has provided insights into residents' support for the Transboundary area. These elements can be re-examined and studied in other diverse geographic settings and protected areas.

### **Public Sector Perspectives**

This section presents an overview of the public sector representatives' (local & national) perspectives on their support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Collectively 13 officials from 11 organizations/institutions were contacted and interviewed, with 5 based in Gaborone and 8 from Kgalagadi District. There were five females and eight males; the youngest representative was 24 and the oldest 78 years old.

This section of the study was designed to identify and assess factors that influence the public sector stakeholder support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The study also sought to examine the public sector representatives' knowledge of ecotourism, perceptions about community ecotourism, awareness of KTP as a Transboundary area, park management, and community integration, as well as to assess stakeholder knowledge about CBNRM as an approach for natural resource conservation. Understanding perspectives about Transfrontier protected areas is recognized as a key attribute in the development of successful management plans to conserve and preserve conservation areas that would ultimately benefit local

adjacent communities and resources (see Allendorf, 2007; Jones, 2005; Schoon, 2008; Tao & Wall, 2008). The adoption of the CBNRM approach to wildlife resource conservation in Botswana is one vital strategy devised to ensure remarrying of natural resource conservation and development (GOB, 2007; Rozemeijer, 2009). Therefore, this study further sought to determine the differences and similarities in perspectives between local and national public sector representatives.

The findings from the public sector revealed diverse perspectives about issues that pertain to knowledge and support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transboundary area. Generally, there was consensus about existing flaws in management and park-related development activities. Some variations of opinions were noted between local and national public sector representatives in relation to collaboration and partnership initiatives, conservation projects, park management, tourism development and park benefits to adjacent local communities. The differences could have stemmed from the fact that participants were drawn from various institutions and organizations, where individual representatives held different responsibilities, in addition to the diverse institutional objectives (see Table 4-14). More often, negative responses were discussed by representatives at the local level. This could be attributed to the fact that they understood local issues better, since they resided in the district and interacted more effectively with local residents.

An overwhelming majority of local and national representatives demonstrated a high level of awareness of ecotourism. The results were very encouraging especially at the local level, as there was awareness of the availability of ecotourism-related resources in their communities. The majority of the public sector officials believed that cultural-heritage resources were in abundance and that they could be exploited for ecotourism development. These results indicated the importance of the Department of Tourism's educational and tourism awareness program (BTDP,

2003), and the fact that it had ultimately reached the Kgalagadi community, particularly among local leaders.

With respect to knowledge of ecotourism, nearly all representatives indicated that ecotourism encouraged local participation and equal sharing of benefits in communally-owned projects in which conservation of natural resources (mainly wildlife) was promoted. Generally, local officials noted that they had heard about ecotourism via the government's CBNRM initiatives, but seemed to have insufficient knowledge of ecotourism as business (Chanda et al., 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b). Based on the responses, participants may possess knowledge of ecotourism's potential economic benefits, but lack full understanding and experience. This condition triggers the need for increased capacities and additional educational training of local leaders, so that they can be at par with the development in their area. A general education program should target local authorities, including village chiefs. Education of local leaders (e.g., chiefs - traditionally divine leaders) is imperative, as the local chiefs can communicate various developmental activities or policy changes to the entire community via traditional institutions and village gatherings.

In light of tourism development in the study area, there was also a unanimous agreement among local and national respondents that the district is endowed with vast opportunities for ecotourism development. The district was often described as a destination where aesthetic beauty and charm of natural and cultural landscapes intertwined. Generally, the region was described as an area with considerable potential for CBE development, due to availability of the rich and unique resources. Some of the attractions cited included, but were not limited to, numerous desert fauna of high value (lions, leopard, cheetah, giraffe, eland, gemsbok), Kalahari wilderness, massive and dramatic Kalahari desert landscape (sand dunes, salt pans, fossil rivers; caves),

tangible (San/Basarwa handicraft) and intangible cultural-heritage attributes (cultural traditions, culture-scape). Previous literature demonstrates residents believe that tourism creates demand for local arts and crafts and desires for knowledge about local culture in the community (Besculides et al., 2002). Although the representatives expressed support for CBE development, many indicated distress with regards to tourism developments at KTP. Overwhelmingly, responses were linked to the urgent need for infrastructural development inside the Botswana side of KTP and among the adjacent villages. All representatives expressed the need for the government to provide ecotourism infrastructure and also to create conditions for private-sector investment in ecotourism. Almost all respondents expressed concern over the imbalance of tourism advancement that existed in KTP because of better tourist facilities (e.g., tarmac roads, visitor information office, souvenir shops, petrol/gas station and a variety of lodging facilities) were available in the South African side of the Park, while only campsites were available on the Botswana side (Figure 5-1). By and large, there was a common agreement about the disparity observed at KTP with regards to the level of tourism development.

Due to the availability of upscale tourism facilities and services on the South African site, nearly all representatives were concerned that revenues generated through tourism would accrue only for the South African government. Almost all local participants expressed their dissatisfaction that tourism development and conservation activities were dominated by the South African Park management. Negative responses, especially by some local representatives, indicated that, at a ratio of 88 to 4, considerably more boreholes were drilled on the South African (KGNP) side than on the Botswana side (KNP) following the conversion of the park into a Transfrontier. However, only a handful of respondents noted the importance of sustainable projects, so that the beauty of KTP not be compromised for the sake of tourism. However, GNP is

renowned for its pristine environs largely due to its unaltered landscapes and vegetation communities and wildlife resources (see SANParks & DWNP, 1997).

Tourism development in the Kgalagadi region is generally low as many individuals are not engaged in tourism-related projects. Self employment in tourism-related commerce is minimal across the district with people involved in the accommodation sector. It is important to note that the majority of those involved in tourism-related commerce have relevant business skills, strong financial capital and business interests. Craft-making with ostrich eggshells and hides and skin was also highlighted as a common activity among the San/Basarwa communities (Figure 5-2). A handful of villages were engaged in joint venture safari hunting activities via CBNRM-CBO government initiatives: the Nqwaa Khobee Xeya Development Trust (KD1<sup>3</sup>) (TLT, 1998), Qhaa Qhing Development Trust (KD 2<sup>4</sup>) (MNRC, 2006), and Khawa Kopanelo Development Trust (KD 15<sup>5</sup>) (TLT, 2005). Other CBNRM-CBOs<sup>6</sup> have been established, but were not engaged in joint venture partnerships with a private operator at the time of this study (Kgathi, Personal communication, Novemeber 3, 2008).

Subsequently, public sector officials perceived CBE as an activity with the potential to generate socio-economic benefits to rural communities, and that was highly recognized and appreciated as an essential livelihood alternative. The socio-economic gains highlighted were employment, business opportunities, income, and education. The overwhelming majority of the respondents expressed positive perceptions that further development of unexploited ecotourism resources could generate job opportunities and thereby improve the standard of living of the

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<sup>3</sup> Comprised of 3 communities: Ncaang, Ngwatle and Ukhwi.

<sup>4</sup> Zutshwa community

<sup>5</sup> Khawa community

<sup>6</sup> MAHUMO Trust - KD 6, KOINAPHU Trust - KD 12 and TSAMAMA Trust)

people (see Chanda et al., 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b). This strong perception and favor for CBE development in the community could be partly founded on the notion that tourism in the Kgalagadi is still in an exploratory stage of the destination lifecycle (Butler, 1980). It is worthy of note that the results of this study are remarkably similar to other perception studies (both qualitative and quantitative) that have been conducted both in the developing and developed world (see Andereck & Vogt, 2000; Ko & Stewart, 2002; Ormsby & Mannie, 2006; Stem et al., 2003).

In the present study, an overwhelming number of the representatives claimed that local communities derived only nominal benefits from KTP following its change in status as a Transfrontier Park. However, they were aware that entrance fees to the park were collected and shared between the governments of South Africa and Botswana as per the initial agreement (KTP Management Plan, 1997). Despite low or lack of Park (KTP) benefits to adjacent local communities, the public sector representatives still held strong attitudes toward KTP and perceptions about ecotourism development in the Kgalagadi region.

Generally there was an undisputed credence among national and local representatives that CBE could benefit all residents. This assertion is consistent with previous studies showing which local communities that accrue more socio-economic benefits from tourism tend to have knowledge about the industry, and these communities therefore demonstrate strong support and favor for tourism development (Jurowski, 1994; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Teye et al., 2002). Also, the level of knowledge about the tourism industry generally influences residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development (Gursoy et al., 2002; Jurowski et al., 2007; Sikaraya et al., 2007). However, there were divergent responses with respect to park benefits to adjacent local communities. Only a few of the interviewees indicated that some communities derived benefits

from KTP. The benefits included part-time jobs for residents and skill training and other administrative assistance specifically for DWNP staff and some functional CBNRM-CBO members. The major topical issue discussed was the view that KTP management provided part-time jobs to only a small fraction of people in the community, leaving many youth loitering in the village with no jobs. In addition, the part-time jobs were reported to be seasonal and available only for a period of 3 to 6 months. Furthermore, all local representatives complained resentfully of a lack of equal sharing of Park benefits, indicating that even the seasonal job opportunities created were allocated in favor of South African citizens.

Overall, KTP has not played a significant role in assisting adjacent local communities with tourism-related developments. Negative responses highlighted collective views that KTP does not offer any community development ecotourism programs or projects. Thus, there was no park-community tourism project to benefit communities. A disappointing observation highlighted by the local participants was about unfair treatment of communities surrounding KTP. They noted that two neighboring communities on the South African side of KTP, Khomani San and Mier seem to have collaborated with KTP authority/management and ventured into an ecotourism-related commerce. These communities are engaged in a joint venture partnership with a private operator for the !Xaus community-owned eco-lodge, which is located on their tribal lands bordering KTP (SANP & DWNP, 2008; Schoon, 2008). Thus, on the side of Botswana, community power and control over Park-based tourism and conservation development are lacking (see Schoon, 2008). This calls for an urgent review of the KTP mandate with regards to relationships with adjacent local communities.

There were more negative responses with respect to local participation. An overwhelming majority of the representatives were pessimistic about KTP's chief mission as a Transfrontier

protected area with shared ownership and management. Almost all the local officials indicated that they were not recognized as part and parcel of KTP. They strongly expressed their concern that they have never been invited to participate in any decision-making and planning activities by the KTP Park Board or management. Generally there was a lack of power (political will) to participate effectively in all KTP activities, as the local officials are never informed. Almost all local representatives revealed that they were rarely, if ever, invited to management meetings at KTP. However, it is important to note that in Botswana, protected areas are under the sole power of the national government (GOB, 1987; 1992). It is also important to note that KTP appears to operate contrary to one of its important goals of ensuring local involvement in conservation activities, which were earmarked to generate “economic benefits to both countries, especially to the local communities adjacent to the Park” (SANP & DWNP, 1997, p. 3). Thus, top-down decision making by the government has restricted local people’s access to KTP and denied them opportunities to participate in the park-related management programs. Similarly, Schoon (2008) found that local communities living in the vicinity of KTP have not derived tangible benefits, and recommended changes that will recognize that they too are part of the Park. Even though the majority of the representatives expressed negative attitudes towards the current KTP management and the Transboundary concept due to lack of involvement in the planning and management of Park-based tourism, they still expressed positive perceptions and strong support for community-based ecotourism development in the area. However, it seems that the lack of participation in KTP activities by adjacent local communities has ignited resentful behavior and distrust of the South African Park staff.

The present study has revealed that an overwhelming number of representatives were very knowledgeable about KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Further probing of the concept of TFP and the

idea of co-management led to a consensus and appreciation of the government's idea of converting GNP into a shared resource, emphasizing that the move was treasured by the public sector stakeholders. However, there was an overall uncertainty, an indication that the designation of GNP and KGNP into a TFP between the two governments generated unfavorable conditions to adjacent local people, local authorities and village leaders. Opinions regarding the current KTP management varied across local and national participants. Nearly all local representatives indicated an imbalance with regards to residents' collaboration and partnership in KTP conservation-related projects and the general Park management activities. The contentions or challenges included: land ownership and control, human-wildlife interactions, perceptions about communication with Park authorities/management, lack of transparency with respect to KTP activities, and inequality and favoritism with regards to Park benefits sharing (especially jobs). The results indicate that the current management approaches of KTP as a Transfrontier protected area failed to endorse and address KTP as a Transfrontier Park. In fact, the issues conflict with the goals and missions of Transboundary and Peace Parks (see SANP & DWNP, 1997; Peace Park Foundation, 2009).

For issues of shared resource management, only a handful of both local and national participants noted that KTP was beneficial because it has strengthened peace and cooperation between Botswana and South African wildlife departments/governments. There was a general appreciation with regards to the transboundary status of KTP due to some improvement in co-management of park resources (mainly wildlife). It can be concluded that KTP as a Transfrontier Park has performed marginally better in terms of wildlife management costs (especially problem animal control and translocation) and skills transfer (DWNP and CBOs members) including free movement of people and animals between the two parks.

With regards to general conservation, a substantial number of the respondents reported that poaching or illegal hunting of wild animals has been significantly reduced, especially in communities with CBNRM-CBOs, such as Ncaang, Ukhwi and Zutshwa (Kgalagadi north) and Khawa (Kgalagadi south). Illegal hunting and unsustainable utilization of the general natural resources was reported to have been high before the park was converted into a Transfrontier (B. Pelekekae, personal communication, November 18, 2008). Thus, most communities with CBNRM-CBOs, such as Khawa, Zutshwa, Ukhwi and Ncaang, have better opportunities for low-skill employment, skill training, cash and meat sharing, because they were reported to be involved in a joint venture partnership with a private safari operator. It is in these areas where individual members were engaged in daily policing of poachers that less poaching had been recorded. Furthermore, nearly all representatives regarded CBNRM as a robust approach for wildlife conservation which has contributed considerably to resource conservation in the region.

In contrast, a few of the representatives indicated that some parts of KTP were unmarked or had no boundary fencing<sup>7</sup>, and that this has led to human-wildlife conflicts, especially in farms situated in close proximity to the KTP fence. Predators such as lions, leopards and wild dogs were reported to be a menace to nearby farms as they escape from KTP into farm areas and villages to attack and kill livestock. The representatives argued that farmers who were attacked or whose properties were damaged by wild animals were not able to secure immediate help, as wildlife officers dealing with problem animal control were stationed in Tsabong and Hukuntsi, very far from villages and farm areas. The results of this study are remarkably similar to those of several studies conducted in Africa and in developing countries in other parts of the world (Alexander, 2000; Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Mordi, 1987; Mugisha, 2002; Newmark et al., 1993;

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<sup>7</sup> The Botswana section of KTP is partially fenced and nearby cattleposts are separated by the fencing (SANP & DWNP, 1997).

Newmark et al., 1994; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001). Human-wildlife conflicts have been noted as a challenge to local communities on both sides of KTP (South Africa and Botswana) (See Schoon, 2008). Thus, there was common agreement that wildlife policy and regulation and other conservation strategies associated with management of KTP should be reviewed to benefit adjacent communities and resources.

The Botswana side of unfenced KTP is surrounded by WMAs (see Figure 3-1). However, this study found some negative responses about KTP and buffer zones or WMAs. A substantial number of local representatives expressed concern about land ownership and control in the KTP area. Major challenges mentioned were essentially about resource use competition and conflicts over buffer zones around KTP. Results from half of the sampled local representatives indicated that local farmers needed more land and therefore demanded reduction of WMAs to make more land available for livestock grazing. A small number of communities with CBNRM-CBOs favored WMAs, because they benefitted from safari-based tourism. An official from the Kgalagadi Land Board indicated that, in Kgalagadi district alone, 39% of tribal land was designated as WMAs (Figure 1-3). This is a contentious issue among local communities, especially those whose cattle posts were located on the border with KTP and CBOs with a private safari operator (Appendix B). At the time of study, the land issue had been handed over to the Department of Land Board in Tsabong. Based on information from N. Mothobi (personal communication, December 4, 2008), it was indicated that some discussions were on-going regarding the possible reduction of some parts of WMAs to give way for agricultural activities (see appendix A and B).

In addition, an overwhelming majority of local representatives (as opposed to national leaders) worry about inadequate working relationships and lack of collaboration with KTP

authority. They believed that the barriers to collaboration and partnerships in management activities have stemmed from lack of communication, limited knowledge about PAs' management protocol, lack of financial resources, and limited skills and information-sharing among local leaders and PA authorities. The results of this study are similar to those of other studies that have been conducted in Uganda (Lepp, 2004; Mugisha, 2002), South Africa (Jones, 2005; Schoon, 2008), Kenya (Himberg, 2006; Kideghesho et al., 2007), Zambia (Himoonde, 2007), and in other developing countries (see Allendorf, 2007; Cole, 2006). For example, Cole (2006) discovered that in the Wogo and Bena villages in Indonesia, a lack of full participation by resident communities in tourism development was due to inadequate knowledge, and lack of confidence, skills, and capital, as well as minimal or no local empowerment. In the present study, the majority of the local participants resented the behavior of the KTP management staff or authority for not sharing information or collaborating with local leaders (e. g., chiefs). Thus, the local representatives harshly indicated the need for change, in which they will be allowed an opportunity to become part of the park management or have representation on the KTP Park Board. All local participants, especially village chiefs and headmen, indicated the importance of communication regarding the KTP management progress, either by media or reports. It appeared as if none of the local chiefs knew what was going on at the Park.

Also, there was common agreement among the public sector officials, especially the national representatives that local people should be empowered and be involved in the planning and development of the Park. They retorted that community empowerment was clearly stated in the CBNRM policy of 2007 and in the Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy of 2003, yet initiatives have not been made with regards to Kgalagadi communities. Other studies in the Southern African region and other parts of the world have highlighted problems associated with

not recognizing local people as part of conservation of PAs. Thus, recommendations have been made to empower leadership and communities and to include them in the future planning of sustainable projects at PAs (Allendorf, 2007; Child, 1995; Infield, 1988; Newmark, et al., 1993). Child (2004) argued that local people should be given power and opportunities to participate in conservation-related activities if they are to benefit from their own resources. Also, the importance of allowing adjacent local communities to participate in the management of parks has been emphasized (Himoonde, 2007; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008; Timothy, 1999; Tosun, 2006).

Collectively, the representatives indicated the urgent need for change with regards to the KTP management approach. Critical issues brought forth by the overwhelming majority of participants included the need for improved communication in all matters that relate to KTP and local residents (see Bruyere et al., 2009). At the time of fieldwork, all local representatives evaluated communication between the local people and KTP management as nonexistent. In all, there was unanimous agreement among local representatives that a member of the community should be allowed to sit on the KTP Park Board. In order to reverse the situation, it is important that the national officials devise a better strategy to improve communication with local leadership, so that there will be shared knowledge with respect to policies that will guide KTP management.

There were no developmental initiatives or programs that involved adjacent communities in the co-management and collaborative activities and planning with respect to KTP as a Transfrontier Park. The local communities did not have representatives on the KTP Management Board. Wildlife Conservation and National Parks Regulation (2000) has noted the importance of having Local Advisory Committees (LACOMs) for all Botswana PAs to act as mouth pieces for communities flanking the PAs in Botswana. For example, LACOMs were created to advise on PA management and to provide a forum for communication, conflict resolution and consensus-based

decision-making for local stakeholders (Thakadu, 2002). But none of local representatives and only some nationals knew if LACOMs existed or were ever created. However, it was reported that LACOMs were created and are operational at Chobe National Park and Makgadikgadi and Nxai National Parks in northern Botswana. Furthermore, special LACOM meetings are held quarterly with local stakeholders to inform them of project progress at these PAs (G. Masunga, personal communication, October 23, 2009).

**Cultural heritage:** This present study discovered interesting findings about cultural heritage resources at the research site. These findings are consistent with previous research in the area (CSIR, 2002; Moswete et al., 2009b; Richards, 2007). All public sector representatives demonstrated high knowledge of the importance of cultural resources for tourism. An overwhelming majority of the public sector representatives were conversant that Kgalagadi was endowed with a wealth of cultural heritage resources (Chanda et al., 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b). Specifically, almost all highlighted the availability of both tangible and intangible resources in and around KTP, for example, Rooipuits cultural landscape inside KTP (Figure 5-3). However, the participants were quick to indicate that a lack of financial capital in the community has hindered them from utilizing the resources for tourism business. As indicated in the study there are many talented people in the community (ritual practices, artists, handicraft, skin tanning, bone and wood carvers, traditional dancers, wilderness trekking). According to the Botswana CBNRM strategy, “CBNRM stakeholders should support the efforts of communities to maximize benefits from the exploitation of traditional knowledge of practical uses of natural [and cultural] resources, including medicinal properties and ethno botany.” (GOB, 2007, p.19). This study points to a limited appreciation of Kgalagadi cultural richness by the government which has led to low involvement in community development as far as southwestern region is concerned. The

study suggests that a number of opportunities exist for CBE and cultural heritage management for Kgalagadi region of Botswana in terms of ecotourism business potential and destination development.

### **Stakeholder Perspectives: Integration**

This part of the study presents stakeholder perspectives on the potential for ecotourism, support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Data from two stakeholder groups (residents and public sector) were examined, integrated and conclusions were formulated. The objective of this study was to examine issues related to ecotourism and/or community-based ecotourism development in local communities adjacent to KTP. Also, it was considered essential to conduct this type of study in order to identify factors that contribute toward the sustainable management of KTP as a transboundary resource. The results of the present study will be of assistance towards PA management, policy reviews, effective planning of CBE projects and government aided community conservation programs associated with KTP.

This study has generated essential insights into the perspectives of two stakeholder groups with regards to support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Differences and similarities in perspectives between the two stakeholder groups were evident. Collectively, the two groups were generally positive about ecotourism and support for CBE development in their communities. Also, there was a strong support for KTP as a Transfrontier area in view of the general conservation of park resources.

The stakeholder groups showed positive attitudes and perceptions about CBE development in the community. The positive outlook for CBE was founded on the notion that Kgalagadi region is a unique tourist destination with resources that are mostly unexploited and/or underdeveloped for ecotourism business. Support for the ecotourism and/or CBE industry was strong among the two stakeholder groups. They both expressed high aspirations for CBE development partly

because studies in the area have found that there were shortages of alternative economic livelihoods, and that people were generally very poor (Arntzen, 2001; Arntzen, 2003; Chanda et al., 2005; Moswete et al., 2009b; Totolo & Chanda, 2003). By and large, CBE was likened to and perceived as an economic tool, especially with regards to employment and income. Specifically, the two stakeholder groups opined that CBE development would lead to the creation of employment opportunities, collective income, tourist revenue, shops and better road and telecommunication networks. Ecotourism and/or CBE were highly regarded in the region for the perceived potential to conserve resources. Specifically highlighted were the unique cultural and natural landscape, the unique architecture of the San/Basarwa and other ethnic groups, endemic desert fauna and flora, unique customs and practices, rich history and anthropological and archaeological resources (Figure 5-3), serenity and friendly local communities. These special characteristics of the Kgalagadi region were also documented in previous studies (see Chanda et al., 2005; CSIR, 2002; Hitchcock, 1991; 1997; Johnson, 1996; Moswete et al., 2009b).

Both stakeholder groups argued strongly that the Kgalagadi region was rich in cultural heritage resources that were unexploited for ecotourism and CBE development (see Chanda et al., 2005; CSIR, 2002; Johnson, 1996; Moswete et al., 2009). There was an indication that lack of financial resources and skills and/or formal training was a deterrent to venturing into heritage identification and management in the area. Some cultural heritage sites were already identified by villages and earmarked (see Figure 5-4) for further development upon securing monetary resources and permission from Department of Museum (S. Esterhuizen, personal communication, November 29, 2008).

The two stakeholder groups drew attention to the disparity in terms of low tourism activity and inadequate infrastructure for ecotourism development on the Botswana side of KTP. There

was an indication of the need for and value of CBE development in the community and inside KTP but the groups appeared to be indiscriminate in the forms of tourism and/or CBE developments that they supported. Only a very small fraction of both groups expressed concern with respect to the sustainability of tourism projects. However, their views can be questioned based on their level of understanding of sustainable tourism (Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Cottrell et al., 2008; Mckercher & du Cros, 2002; Tosun, 1998) and support for sustainability for ecotourism development (Vincent & Thompson, 2002) in and around KTP. Hence their collective mental picture of increased tourism facilities in KTP seemed to be incompatible with ecotourism principles (Eagles et al., 2002; Fennel, 2003; Honey, 1999) and sustainable tourism development (Eagles et al., 2002; Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Harris, Griffin, & Williams, 2002; Swarbrooke, 1999). Based on the overall findings of the study, these results warrant the need for capacity building for members of the communities adjacent to KTP and local leaders so that they will not accommodate just any type of ecotourism development, but will become cautious and knowledgeable about the associated developmental impacts (Eagles et al., 2002; Bramwell & Lane, 1993; Briedenhann & Wickens, 2007; Harris et al., 2002; Murphy, 1985; Tosun, 1998).

All stakeholders expressed concern over lack of fairness and equity in the distribution of park-based benefits, especially employment. Both stakeholder cohorts indicated that management power and control with respect to jobs in KTP were vested within South Africa Park authority and therefore few local residents were hired. Of the resident stakeholder cohort, only 51.5% agreed that KTP provided jobs to people in the community, while the local public sector stakeholders felt that there was discrimination in hiring at KTP, and that favoritism was skewed to citizens of South Africa. These claims have created aversion between South Africa KTP management and adjacent communities and the local authority. The local public sector representatives criticized

KTP management and authority for failing to ensure equal distribution of jobs and fair hiring. The dissatisfaction between local people and KTP seemed to have been exacerbated by a high incidence of unemployment and the dependence on government welfare support programs. Also, it appeared as if a lack of understanding of the PA management could have added to confusion within communities. Thus, there is a need to create more job opportunities in and around KTP as well as to increase the recruitment of adjacent local communities. A win-win situation for local communities and the KTP authority will help towards improved conservation and CBE programs. Naughton-Treves (2001) and Weladji & Tchamba (2003) argued for adequate consultation with communities and local leaders, and support for equal sharing and distribution of Park-based benefits to all stakeholders.

Also, slightly more than half of the sampled residents and an overwhelming majority of the public sector stakeholder group indicated that KTP did not provide opportunities for community development projects. However, this finding was not expected as one of the objectives of the creation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park was the need to increase awareness about the importance of the Park (KTP) among local communities, and to ensure that local communities understood the role that wildlife and other natural resources can play in improving their living standards (SANP & DWNP, 1997; 1999). It was evident that KTP had not established community projects for adjacent local people at the time of this study. In addition, there was a general agreement that revenue from community tourism and KTP-based tourism did not benefit many individuals in the community. However, both groups indicated that tourism was benefiting South Africa and local people who owned tourism-related businesses, such as gasoline stations or shops. However, the national public sector group was knowledgeable that tourism in the South African side of KTP was privatized, and the Park is managed by SANP which is a parastatal organization, while the

Botswana side of KTP is managed by DWNP which is government-run. Hence, there is very little tourism activity or benefits for adjacent communities and the government. Previous studies have also shown mixed success rates in revenue-sharing from PA-based projects in developing countries. For instance, Archabald & Naughton-Treves's (2001), study found that park-based tourism revenue was shared equally among local communities surrounding the three PAs in Uganda, and there were reports of improved attitudes toward PAs due to benefits. A lack of equal sharing of benefits from protected areas has been reported in most communities in rural Africa (Cottrell et al., 2008; Ferreira, 2004; Lepp, 2007; Mutandwa & Gadzirayi, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2007; Manwa, 2003; Meskell, 2005; Peters, 1999; Schoon, 2008; Suich, 2005). However, the results of the present study were not expected since KTP is the first formally declared TransFrontier Park in Southern Africa and therefore would be expected to be a good example or a model that could be emulated by PA authorities in the region and beyond (see Child, 2004; Schoon, 2008; Suich, 2005; 2008). It is noteworthy that KTP bottom-up transfrontier conservation would have contributed to a better co-management, especially one that involves adjacent local communities. The findings of this study can help towards reawakening of KTP plan by all stakeholders that are associated with KTP and to collectively evaluate its progress since 1997.

Another interesting finding was all stakeholders were knowledgeable about why GNP and KGNP were amalgamated into a Transfrontier Park. The majority of the residents (75.9%) and an overwhelming number of the public sector representatives (12 out of 13) indicated that KTP was created for conservation of wildlife and plant resources. This was an encouraging result because all participants knew why GNP was called Transfrontier. They were all aware of the fact that the new status of KTP has brought changes with respect to free movement of people and animals.

There were diverse and differing perceptions and attitudes with regards to KTP management and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park among stakeholder groups. Both stakeholder groups indicated strong support for protection of KTP as a conservation area. Almost all the public sector stakeholder group talked with pride about KTP belonging to the local people. Hence; there was an overall positive relationship and support for it. However, variations in opinions surfaced regarding stakeholders' support for the current management staff at KTP. An overwhelming number of the public sector stakeholders (mainly local officials) opposed and/or did not favor the current KTP management staff, while 21% of the residents opposed KTP as a Transfrontier Area and 16% opposed the current management staff. The majority of the public sector group, especially the local representatives were not supportive of the regulations and guidelines of KTP. Although there were few individuals who did not support KTP as a Transboundary Park they still showed support unlike the local public sector stakeholders. Lack of communication between Park management staff, local communities and local leaders was a serious concern that created distrust between local people and KTP authority.

In a similar vein, Sorongwa (1999) discovered that mistrust emerged between local residents and PA authority due to a lack of consultation and involvement on matters of wildlife conservation initiatives in Tanzania. In this present study, the challenges faced by both stakeholders (especially local representatives and residents) is on the opposing side of the Peace Parks Foundation's goal of creating peace and harmony between internationally shared resources and poverty reduction in communities adjacent to PAs (Peace Parks, 2003). In addition, an overwhelming majority of the local public sector group differed with their national counterparts that there was lack of transparency and accountability regarding KTP staff. On the whole, both

stakeholder cohorts expressed support for KTP even though they indicated negative attitudes toward management staff at KTP (see Infield, 1988, Mordi, 1987; Parry & Campbell, 1992).

There was also an emphasis on the call for change as the local officials indicated the importance of information sharing and transparency with regards to activities that occur in and around KTP. Recommendations have been made that the concept of PAs must be “expanded to include conserved areas that build on local rights, knowledge, and institutional structures . . . PAs should ‘do no harm’ to local people and whatever they should ‘seek [to] do good’ (Roe & Hollands, 2004, p. 1). The results suggest that the formation of the Transboundary Park may have done more harm than good to adjacent communities. The challenge is to ensure that all KTP stakeholders are equally involved and informed so that they can work collectively. Strategies for resolving differences and distrust over KTP management between the stakeholders (the Park authority, local and national stakeholders and residents) should be formulated and implemented. All stakeholders, especially, local leaders and residents should be fully involved so that their views are heard. There is a need to strengthen relationships and communication between the Park management and local authority and communities. Residents seem to have no knowledge or a poor understanding of KTP as a Transboundary area, as most of them expressed support of KTP but indicated that they were not benefiting. Local residents need to be empowered through education to become part of KTP management and participate in conservation-related programs.

Similar to previous studies, this study employed stakeholder theory (Byrd, 2004; 2008; Freeman, 1984; Miller, 2006; Mitchell et al., 1997; Nicholas, 2007; Walker, 1996; Wearing, 2001). With reference to stakeholder theory, this study took heed that the management and conservation of internationally shared resources can be complex (Bruyere et al., 2009; Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999). The management challenge becomes critical when there are

multiple stakeholders with varying degrees of power, legitimacy and vested interests (Byrd, 2003; 2007; Farrington, 1996; Freeman & Miles, 1997; Mitchell et al., 1997). Local people are usually the powerless stakeholder group and stakeholder theory emphasizes their inclusion (Mulale, 2005). Thus, this study focused only on two primary groups – the resident communities and public sector as protected area stakeholders, as too many groups can yield confusing outcomes (Medeiros de Araujo & Bramwell, 1999). Hill & Jones (1992) have argued that stakeholder groups differ by the size of the stake they possess, while Mitchell et al. (1997) stated that groups differ by level of power accrued in management. Thus, local residents were targeted for the study because they are usually the most negatively-impacted by PA conservation, management and related developments (Bruyere et al., 2009; Byrd et al., 2008). Incorporating a better understanding of local residents' general conservation attitudes into management structures improves local attitudes toward, and support for, PAs and ecotourism (Brandon & Wells, 1993; Castley et al., 2002; Castley, Patton, & Magome, 2009; Child, 2009; Suich, 2008; Stem et al., 2003). Public sector stakeholders often have different views from local residents with respect to natural resource management. They also possess a larger share of power in resource ownership and control (Byrd, 2007; Mitchell et al. 1997; Mulale, 2005).

The theoretical contribution of this study involves the integration of ideas and opinions from local residents and the public sector stakeholder groups in the specific case of transboundary protected area. Overall results of this study suggest that stakeholder theory and/or stakeholder consultation is an important and effective tool that can be used to solicit views and opinions of various groups. This is evident from the results of this study. As indicated by the proponents of stakeholder theory, different groups can have diverse and different opinions regarding managing a resource or for a proposed development. In this study, there was a degree of consensus among the

public sector representatives that KTP's management was flawed as local residents were not consulted or involved. Also, both stakeholder groups indicated unfair sharing of Park benefits between Botswana and South African adjacent local communities.

In addition, this study was able to identify discrepancies in the consultation process, which included a lack of concern over conservation of resources because of perceived CBE benefits when tourism is new to the area (Butler, 1980). Also, PA development is based on conservation principles, but the adjacent local communities were more concerned with economic gains. This points to the importance of consulting local communities or all affected groups in the region to solicit their views before introducing a new development or policy. The application of stakeholder theory demonstrated that economic value creation and distribution of economic benefits to local communities have largely failed to eventuate in spite of the importance of these concepts in the creation of KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Therefore, a clear-cut conceptual and empirical understanding of KTP management and conservation programs is required at both local and national levels.

In addition, this present study has both academic and practical implications. Two conceptual models, each with five constructs, were formulated. First, key factors that influence support for CBE development in a community where tourism is in its early stage of development were explored. The main predictors of support were: perception about CBE, conservation attitudes, community concern and length of residence. Secondly, predictors that influence support for KTP as a Transfrontier protected area were identified as: conservation attitudes, community concern, perception about CBE, distance/proximity, education level and gender. It is worthy of note that there are relatively few studies that empirically examined relationships by incorporating these constructs to evaluate support for CBE or Transboundary developments in a desert setting

of a developing country in Africa. These empirical results extend our understanding of stakeholder perceptions about CBE, support for CBE development and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Based on the findings of this study, it is important that the factors that influence support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park be further re-studied and applied in other diverse geographical locations.

For managerial implications, PAs managers, policy makers, natural and cultural heritage resource managers, tourism developers and planners can apply this conceptual model in various stages of Park-based ecotourism development and for any protected area (eg., world heritage site or Nature Park) to identify factors that would need to be addressed in case of policy or program review or for an introduction and implementation of a new community-related conservation initiative. It is essential that natural and cultural heritage resource managers, policy makers, tourism planners and developers understand local people's values and aspirations regarding park-based ecotourism development and associated conservation activity of PAs.

## **Conclusion and Recommendation**

### **Conclusion**

Notwithstanding stakeholders' high regard for KTP as a Transboundary protected area, this study discovered two major policy concerns, namely a low level of local participation in park activities and a lack of collaboration between KTP management and residents. The lack of participation in KTP activities has denied communities the opportunity to benefit and local residents obtained only minimal benefits from the KTP. Child (2009), Tosun (2006) and Twyman (2000) emphasized the need for and importance of local participation in natural resource conservation and management projects, while Aas et al. (2005), Jamal & Getz (1995), Ladkin & Bertramini (2002), and Little, (1994) contended that local participation can foster stakeholder collaboration, and ultimately lead to greater benefits. Even though local residents (including local

leaders) were left out of all park activities, they still held very strong general conservation attitudes to and support for KTP as a Transboundary area.

In the case of KTP, power over the management of resources still lies predominantly in the hands of a major influential stakeholder (Mitchell et al., 1997; Mulale, 2005) – the government. This top-down approach disempowers the local communities (see Cole, 2006; Fraser et al., 2006; Sofield, 2003). Devolution of authority and responsibility has not occurred at KTP except on paper (see SANP & DWNP, 1997; 1999). As generally indicated, KTP as a Transfrontier area situated within the Kgalagadi community stands out as or sits like a diamond beyond the control of the general local communities. Thus, the government has to ensure that adjacent local communities understand the principles of shared resource management and their roles in order to identify with KTP not just emotionally and spiritually but physically (see Schoon, 2008).

Based on the overall results, there is a high level of distrust and suspicion between South African KTP Management and adjacent local people and local leaders on the Botswana side with regards to shared Park benefits (distribution of jobs). Lack of communication between local communities and KTP Management has exacerbated the situation. Thus, it is the responsibility of the government of Botswana to ensure that local communities understand their functions and roles regarding KTP management.

Overall, this present study revealed various factors that influence perceptions about ecotourism and thereby influence support for CBE development, and support for KTP as a Transfrontier Park. Literature on tourism development in Botswana is limited, thus this study will stimulate further research on residents' perceptions and attitudes toward PAs in order to aid policy makers, park management, tourism developers and academics in their review and formulation of PA-related ecotourism development strategies, and conservation policies.

There was a common belief that local communities should be recognized by the two governments, with special reference to the National Park Board (South Africa) and DWNP (Botswana), and that local communities should be given opportunities to become a part of KTP management. More local than national representatives emphasized their awareness that local residents were willing to share in the management of KTP. Thus, collaborative actions could lead to improved conservation and CBE development successes. Also, management strategies and policies ought to be based on the common objectives of resource managers and adjacent local communities as this would benefit Park resources and local people. Equitable distribution of management projects and park benefits to local people should be emphasized so that KTP objectives are answered and residents' needs are fulfilled.

Protected-area based ecotourism activities could benefit local people living adjacent to KTP if conservation and tourism activities were well-planned, executed, and monitored and included local residents as representatives in the management (Cusack & Dixon, 2006; Ferreira, 2004; Jones, 2005; Suich, et al., 2005; Suich, 2008). In a related study in Zambia, Himoonde (2007) discovered that local residents at Kasanka National Park derived benefits from park-based ecotourism that included employment, income and social services (health center, community school). However, the benefits accrued for the Kafinda Community Resource Board and did not reach individual residents. Similarly, Jones (2005) found that the Mbangweni community in Kwa Zulu-Natal experienced decreased access to social, natural and economic benefits as a result of the creation of the Lobombo Transfrontier Conservation Area. Accordingly, recommendations have been made to the effect that increased local participation in community-based ecotourism development would guarantee equal sharing of benefits (Brennan & Allen, 2001; Cater, 1993; Cock & Fueller, 2000; Cusack & Dixon, 2006; Fennell, 2003; Lindberg & et al., 1996; Little,

1994; Relly, 2008; Rozemeijer, 2008; Scheyvens, 1999; Spenceley, 2008; Woodward, 1997). Ecotourism resources (culture and nature) were identified as a foundation for rural Kgalagadi. However, government should provide basic infrastructure to attract tourism investors and developers in the Kalahari region. There is a need to address the problem of unemployment in rural areas, particularly in Kgalagadi region especially as it relates to KTP as a Transfrontier Park. One of the critical values of Transboundary Conservation Areas is to provide employment to adjacent local communities. However, this study revealed that only a very small fraction of residents has been involved in part-time or seasonal employment at KTP.

Overall, the findings of the present study came as a surprise because Botswana's PA policy and regulations were premised on the idea of protected area management that would benefit from mutual participatory approach as opposed to conventional practice (GOB, 2007; Thakadu, 2002). However, in the case of KTP this idea seems to have been ignored. In her study on ecotourism in Kenya's Taita Taveta (Chawia<sup>8</sup>), Himberg (2006) discovered that local community environmental committees were created to allow local residents full participation in management and sustainable utilization of forest resources. Local residents had developed pride and sense of ownership of their PAs and the associated forest resources. A similar practice could be emulated for KTP communities with the help of government of Botswana and South Africa as per Peace Parks Foundation mandate of cooperation and inclusion rather than exclusion.

Cooperation and collaboration among different stakeholders in activities that involve them is vital. Jamal (1994) noted that, "collaboration may be suitable to manage turbulent planning domains at the international, regional and local level" (p. 200). Concerns about inadequate collaboration between residents and PA management have been emphasized especially by local

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<sup>8</sup> Chawia Community Environmental Committee has a tree nursery where they grow trees; other activities include bee-keeping and butterfly farming enterprise.

representatives. In this study local representatives were not involved in activities that occurred at KTP, denying them opportunities to stay informed about the Park. Collaboration is encouraged in Transboundary protected areas as strategies to ensure involvement of multiple stakeholders that all have a stake in the planning and management of shared resource (Byrd, 2003; 2008; Cusack & Dixon, 2006; Jamal & Getz, 1995; Nicholas, 2007). However, collaboration between local communities (including local leaders) and Park Authority/management does not exist at KTP. This has resulted in increased suspicion of ownership of KTP and distrust between KTP management (South Africa) and adjacent local communities (Botswana).

The findings of this study are not unique to KTP as a Transfrontier area and the Kgalagadi region, as it is supported by previous studies that discovered challenges of collaboration among stakeholder groups, especially where there had been misrepresentation of some groups, lack of information-sharing and transparency (Brennan & Allen, 2001; Freeman, 1984; Miller, 2006; Mulale, 2005; Rozemeijer, 2009; Spenceley, 2008; WWF, 2001). A lack of representation of all stakeholder groups, especially local people in decision-making with respect to conservation-ecotourism related developments has been highlighted (Lai & Nepal, 2006; Little, 1994; Timothy, 1999). Also, Drumm & Moore (2002) argued that it is essential to involve all stakeholders that exist in a region in all matters that deal with planning, development, and conservation and utilization of resources that affect them. The model of KTP as a Transfrontier Park seemed to be more conservation-oriented than community-oriented (see Schoon, 2008). An integration of the two has been recommended in the literature of protected area management (Child, 2004; Hanks, 2003; Hulme & Murphree, 2001; Mbile et al., 2006; Mitchell & Reid, 2001; Suich et al., 2009; WWF, 2001).

## Policy Recommendations

- Transfrontier protected area authorities such as SANP (South Africa) and DWNP (Botswana) need to recognize the importance of stakeholder cooperation and improved communication in all matters of management and conservation of the Transboundary Park (KTP). It is important that the Park (KTP) authority and management create collaboration programs with local communities especially those living on the fringes of the park to enhance management and conservation of KTP as a Transboundary protected area.
- There is a need to reassess the co-management ideals in the general conservation of KTP and local communities. Therefore, it is essential to formulate and have well documented guidelines that incorporate views of KTP authority and adjacent local communities to guide community conservation projects at KTP.
- Co-management between the two governments (Botswana and South Africa) and adjacent local people needs to be revisited to ensure understanding of the goals of natural and cultural heritage conservation and management with regards to KTP.
- Park-people policy guidelines need to be formulated that will define roles of local stakeholders, especially local leaders, political leaders and adjacent local communities in Transboundary protected area activities and programs. Greater residents' participation and involvement in decision making, planning and development about KTP as a Transfrontier Park is essential if people are to derive benefits.
- A revised KTP management plan, with a clear-cut and comprehensive community-based ecotourism strategy should be developed. This should be followed by an appropriate implementation of the reviewed management plan, and should ensure inclusion of all stakeholders, particularly adjacent local communities to ensure that they identify with the Park and benefit from it.
- Increased capacity building and formal education about conservation, ecotourism enterprise development and resource management for residents, local leaders (especially village chiefs) and other stakeholder groups should be encouraged so that all stakeholders can work cooperatively towards the same goal for sustainable tourism development. Ensuring that residents and local leaders are informed about CBE and other related KTP conservation activities could trigger interest and willingness to try or venture into new livelihood activities. As was emphasized by local leaders, it is worthwhile to include citizens in the KTP management and decision making board so that they also have voice.
- Based on common agreement about the need for ecotourism development in and around KTP, the government should provide more facilities and infrastructure such as bitumen and gravel roads that connect villages and attractions, improved telecommunication network (telex and cellular phones), banking facilities and other necessary amenities that will be used by local residents and visitors alike. Improved superstructures (e.g., banking facilities) will attract more investments in the area, create job opportunities and increase the buying power of local communities.

- The government should develop mechanisms to ensure greater equity in the KTP-based benefits (employment) to adjacent communities both in Botswana and South Africa.
- There is a need to create awareness of conservation and preservation of cultural heritage resources and to teach and encourage local communities to identify resources in their region. In addition, there is a need to find ways in which they can benefit from CBE and cultural heritage activities. Local leaders could be taken on a tour of operational and successful cultural heritage sites in other parts of the country such as Trail Blazers – a San/Basarwa cultural tourism village/camp in Ghantsi district (Figure 5-4), Lepokole Hills CBO project (Bobirwa), Kgetsi-ya-Tsie community (CBO) project (Tswapong) to experience and learn.
- The government should devote funding to embark on a large scale cultural heritage resources inventory, mapping and documentation in the study area incorporating the greater Kalahari region, and local residents, government and the University of Botswana research center - all should collaborate in order that work is done to meet multiple stakeholders' interest.

### **Limitations of the Study**

Although this study has provided valuable insight into understanding the factors that predict support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park, there are some limitations. The study was limited by sampling only nine villages within the study area due to time, resource and spatial limitations. The Kgalagadi district is vast with very long distances between villages and settlements, and some roads are difficult to navigate due to deep desert sand. Also, the study was conducted during summer (October 2008 to January 2009) when the temperatures were very high, with blistering heat of the Kalahari Desert making it difficult to walk in and around the villages. Therefore, the results may not be generalizable to the entire southwestern region.

Also, only two stakeholder groups were studied, even though ecotourism stakeholder groups are many and varied, especially in the case of Tranboundary protected area. Time and funding have limited the number of different stakeholder group to involve in the study.

There are many factors that could influence the manner in which an individual or a group may perceive CBE or the general tourism impacts but, this study is limited to the specific

elements or variables only shown in the conceptual model (s). There are problems encountered when conducting an interview. As shared by Merton & Kendall (1946), “there is no unambiguous definition of ‘the right’ behavior for the interviewer in the focused (or any other semi-structured) interview.” cited in Ewe Flick p78). The successful carrying out of such interviews depends essentially on the interview’s situation competence. Some of the interviews were conducted during November-December, when local people were preparing for the festive season, and also were getting ready to move to the fields for plowing. The possibility of dilemma due to interviewees’ limited time, and the researchers’ interest in information was observed. However, the advantage of this method is that the consistent use of an interview guide increases the comparability of the data and that their structuration is increased as a result of the questions in the guide.

### **Future Work**

- This study was conducted in a region where tourism is at an early stage of development, and visitor numbers are low compared to other parts of the country. The area is remote and most tourism activities are nature/wilderness and culture-based. Thus, it is recommended that similar variables be studied in other geographical areas where tourism is at a different stage of development.
- A more rigorous qualitative study is needed of residents’ perception and attitudes in order to uncover deeper elements that influence residents’ support or opposition to KTP as a Transfrontier Park and support for CBE development.
- The scope of this study was limited to identifying factors that predict residents’ support for CBE development and for KTP as a Transfrontier Park, but did not identify, assess or address other salient elements that could influence support or opposition to CBE development or KTP as a Transboundary area. Further work is needed in which both close-ended and open-ended questions are used for the residents’ stakeholder group.
- Structural equation modeling (SEM) could be used for further analysis of the independent and dependent variables to test the validity of this study.

It is suggested that future studies focus on assessing the attitudes of PA/KTP managers (government and private) South Africa and Botswana. With areas of conflict identified, measures can be design to rectify them.



Figure 5-1. Tourist campsite inside KTP (Botswana side) (Photograph courtesy of Naomi Moswete, 2008)



Figure 5-2. Handicraft of the San/Bushmen made from ostrich eggshells collected from Farms (Displayed in a craftshop, Ghantsi village). (Photograph courtesy of Naomi Moswete, 2008)

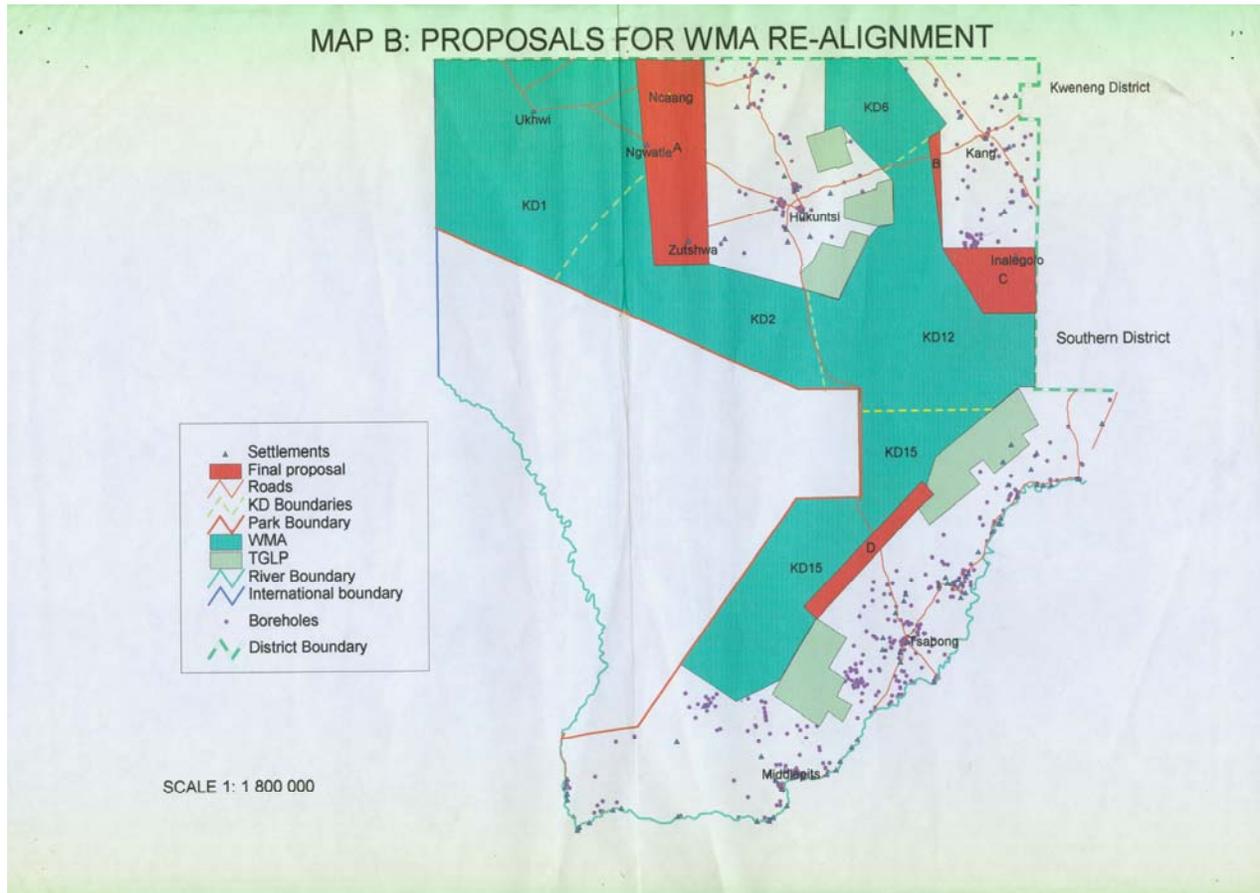


Figure 5-3. Cultural landscape and dwelling remains at Roopuits, inside KTP (Botswana)  
(Photograph courtesy of Naomi Moswete, 2008)



Figure 5-4. Trail Blazers San/Basarwa cultural camp near Ghanzi. (Photograph courtesy of Naomi Moswete, 2009)

APPENDIX A  
 K GALAGADI DISTRICT WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT AREAS



APPENDIX B  
KHAWA LAND USE AND MANAGEMENT PLAN (KD 15)



**APPENDIX C  
RESIDENT SURVEY INSTRUMENT**

**Community-Based Ecotourism in the Kgalagadi Region of Botswana: Resident Survey (2008)**

Survey #: \_\_\_\_\_ Site Location: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: \_\_\_\_\_ AM/PM Interviewer: \_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION 1: Ecotourism Knowledge**

- |  |                              |                             |                                     |
|--|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. There are guesthouse/lodges for visitors in my village                        | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 2. There are campsites for visitors and tourists to use when in my village       | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 3. Many visitors who visit KTP stay in my district                               | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 4. Many Batswana visit my district strictly for meetings, funerals and business  | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 5. Many people from the Kalahari region visit my district for recreation/tourism | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 6. Community campsites outside KTP accrue more money from visitors               | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 7. Revenue from community-based tourism benefits many people in my village       | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 8. KTP provides opportunities for community development programs/projects        | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 9. There is a cultural village for tourism in my district                        | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 10. Ecotourism is important to my community                                      | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |
| 11. Community-based ecotourism is essential for my community                     | <input type="checkbox"/> Yes | <input type="checkbox"/> No | <input type="checkbox"/> Don't Know |

Please indicate your level of understanding of ecotourism that best matches your response: 1= Not sure; 2= False; 3= True

Statements	Not sure	False	True
1. Ecotourism encourages conservation of natural resources in local communities	1	2	3
2. Ecotourism promotes preservation of cultural traditions in local communities	1	2	3
3. Ecotourism encourages local participation in planning and decision-making activities	1	2	3
4. Ecotourism ensures economic benefits for local communities	1	2	3
5. Ecotourism encourages sustainable use of wildlife in local communities	1	2	3
6. Ecotourism promotes sustainable harvesting of veldt resources in local communities	1	2	3

**SECTION 2: Community Concern**

Please indicate your level of potential concern for your community if tourism increased. Please respond by checking the respective statements that best matches your response: 1=Not at all Concerned; 2= Somewhat Concerned; 3= Moderately Concerned; 4= Very Concerned; and 5= Extremely Concerned.

Statements	Not at all Concerned	Somewhat Concerned	Moderately Concerned	Very Concerned	Extremely Concerned
1. Destroy our environment	1	2	3	4	5
2. Change our cultural traditions	1	2	3	4	5
3. Increase social ills (e.g. crime)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Increase incidents of HIV/AIDS infections	1	2	3	4	5
5. Loss of grazing land for our livestock if more hotels and infrastructure are built	1	2	3	4	5

What are your biggest concerns?

**SECTION 3: Participation (Use Levels)**

- Have you ever visited the KTP?  Yes  No
- If you have visited, for what reason do you usually visit the KTP? (Check all that apply):
 

<input type="checkbox"/> Recreation/tourism	<input type="checkbox"/> See wild animals, birds and nature	<input type="checkbox"/> Veldt resource collection
<input type="checkbox"/> Park management meeting	<input type="checkbox"/> other, please specify _____	
- How many trips have you made to the KTP in the last 12 months for each of the following?
 

<input type="checkbox"/> Recreation/tourism: _____	<input type="checkbox"/> See wild animals, birds and nature: _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Veldt resource collection: _____	<input type="checkbox"/> Park management meeting: _____
<input type="checkbox"/> Other, please specify: _____	

**SECTION 4: Attitudes to the KTP**

Please indicate your level of attitude towards conservation by choosing the number that best matches your response: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly Agree.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. KTP should be protected for benefit of our future generations	1	2	3	4	5
2. KTP conservation has taken our land from us	1	2	3	4	5
3. It is important to protect KTP for the survival of plants	1	2	3	4	5
4. Farmers don't have land to cultivate and graze livestock due to KTP	1	2	3	4	5
5. Staff from KTP have done nothing for villagers' lives	1	2	3	4	5
6. People who illegally kill and eat wild animals in KTP should not be fined or jailed	1	2	3	4	5
7. KTP is for tourists and we are not allowed to visit	1	2	3	4	5
8. It is better if some parts of the land in KTP is allocated to the local people to use for agriculture	1	2	3	4	5
9. If hunting and grazing in KTP is allowed then wild animals will disappear	1	2	3	4	5
10. KTP wild animals do not cause problems in our village	1	2	3	4	5
11. If there is unlimited access to forest resources in KTP (e.g. firewood, medicinal plants) they will all disappear	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is important for the government to devote more money towards a strong conservation program for KTP	1	2	3	4	5
13. KTP provides jobs for people from the village	1	2	3	4	5
14. KTP is being managed for the local people	1	2	3	4	5
15. I am happy to have my village next to KTP	1	2	3	4	5
16. It is important to protect KTP for the survival of wildlife	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 5: Community Based Organization (CBO)**

1. Is there a Community Based Organization/Trust in your area/village?  Yes  No  Not sure

If yes, please name it: \_\_\_\_\_

2. Has your community benefited from CBO?  Yes  No  Not sure  
 3. Has your CBO/Trust benefited from tourism?  Yes  No  Not sure  
 4. Have you benefited from tourism in your area?  Yes  No  Not sure

If yes, please indicate how so? \_\_\_\_\_

5. CBO/TRUST has brought positive changes to my village life  Yes  No  Not sure  
 6. The CBO/TRUST has created business opportunities for my village  Yes  No  Not sure  
 7. I do not support the work of the CBO/TRUST in my village  Yes  No  Not sure

Please indicate your level of involvement in your Community Based Organization/Trust activities by choosing the number that best matches your response: 1= Not at all Involved; 2= Somewhat Involved; 3= Moderately Involved; 4= Very Involved; and 5= Extremely Involved.

Statements	Not at all Involved	Somewhat Involved	Moderately Involved	Very Involved	Extremely Involved
8. Involvement in tourism activities of the CBO	1	2	3	4	5
9. Involvement in the decision making about the CBO	1	2	3	4	5
10. Involvement in the management of CBO finances	1	2	3	4	5
11. Involvement in the CBOs daily activities	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 6: Perceptions about Community-Based Ecotourism**

Please indicate your level of perception about Community Based Ecotourism. Please check the number that best matches your response: 1= Strongly Disagree; 2= Disagree; 3= Neutral; 4= Agree; and 5= Strongly Agree.

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. CBE increases income and standard of living in the community	1	2	3	4	5
2. CBE increases job opportunities for the community	1	2	3	4	5
3. CBE promotes equal sharing of benefits from community projects	1	2	3	4	5
4. CBE provides educational experiences for local communities	1	2	3	4	5
5. CBE creates problems to people in my village	1	2	3	4	5
6. CBE enhances the quality of life of local communities	1	2	3	4	5
7. CBE promotes meeting new people and cultural exchange	1	2	3	4	5
8. CBE improves understanding and image of my community	1	2	3	4	5
9. CBE enhances local arts and crafts in local communities	1	2	3	4	5
10. CBE discourages preservation of cultural resources	1	2	3	4	5
11. CBE provides casual earning opportunities by selling grass, crafts, firewood, berries, mahupu	1	2	3	4	5
12. CBE protects and supports wildlife resources	1	2	3	4	5
13. CBE supports conservation of forest or veldt resources	1	2	3	4	5
14. CBE increases support for natural resource conservation	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 7: Support for the KTP**

Please indicate your level of support for the KTP by choosing the number that matches your response: 1= Strongly Oppose; 2= Oppose; 3= Neutral; 4= Support; and 5= Strongly Support

Statements I support:	Strongly Oppose	Oppose	Neutral	Support	Strongly support
1. Support KTP as a Trans frontier Park	1	2	3	4	5
2. Support current management staff at KTP	1	2	3	4	5
3. Support creation of KTP Buffer zone and WMAs	1	2	3	4	5
4. Support regulation and guidelines to maintain KTP as a Transfrontier Park	1	2	3	4	5
5. Support protection of KTP as a conservation area	1	2	3	4	5

6. Why was the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park created?  
 Ecotourism       Conservation of wildlife and plants resources       Don't know       Other: \_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION 8: Support for Community-Based Ecotourism**

Please indicate your level of support for Community Based Ecotourism development by choosing the number that matches your response: 1= Strongly Oppose; 2= Oppose; 3= Neutral; 4= Support; and 5= Strongly Support

Statements I support:	Strongly Oppose	Oppose	Neutral	Support	Strongly Support
1. CBE promotes local community involvement in tourism activities	1	2	3	4	5
2. CBE promotes preservation of local culture and traditions	1	2	3	4	5
3. CBE promotes environmental education for local community	1	2	3	4	5
4. CBE encourages local participation in tourism planning and development	1	2	3	4	5
5. CBE promotes collective income for the community	1	2	3	4	5
6. CBE encourages conservation of natural resources	1	2	3	4	5

**SECTION 9: Demographics**

1. Are you?       Male       Female      2. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_
3. Please indicate the highest level of education you have obtained? (Check one only)  
 Primary school       Secondary JC       Secondary COSC       Technical/Vocational School  
 University Degree       Some Graduate School       Other \_\_\_\_\_
4. What is your ethnicity? (Check one only)  
 Basarwa       Bangologa       Batlharo       Baherero  
 Bakgalagadi       Banama       Coloureds       Other \_\_\_\_\_
5. How long have you lived in this area (in years)? \_\_\_\_\_
6. How far is your village from KTP (in kilometers)? \_\_\_\_\_
7. How many people, including yourself live in your household?    \_\_\_ Male \_\_\_ Female \_\_\_ Adult \_\_\_ Child
8. What is your main source of income in your household 1st source \_\_\_\_\_, 2<sup>nd</sup> source \_\_\_\_\_, 3<sup>rd</sup> Source \_\_\_\_\_
9. What is your employment status? (Check one only)  
 Formal employed       Part-time employed       Self employed       Unemployed       Retired
10. How many people in your Household are employed? \_\_\_\_\_
11. What is your occupation? \_\_\_\_\_
12. Which of the following best describes your total household income in Pula per month (Check one only)  
 Under 500       501-1,000       1,001-1500       1,501-2,000  
 2,001-2,500       2,501-3,000       3001- 3,500       Above 3,500

**Thank you**

APPENDIX D  
PUBLIC SECTOR INTERVIEW GUIDE

Interview: \_\_\_\_\_ Site Location: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Time: \_\_\_\_\_ am/pm  
Interviewee Name: \_\_\_\_\_ Name of Organization: \_\_\_\_\_  
Job Title: \_\_\_\_\_ Years at Current Job: \_\_\_\_\_  
Responsibilities: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_\_\_ Years at Current Residence: \_\_\_\_\_

1. What do you think of Kgalagadi Transfrontier National Park (KTP) as a Transfrontier Park?
2. What are the major things you like about the KTP?
3. What are the major things you don't like about KTP?
4. What are your opinions about the current management of KTP?
5. What is the role of your organization in Community-Based Natural Resource Management programs?
6. What is your knowledge about Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE)?
7. What is the role of your organization in CBE development?
8. What CBE initiatives or projects are in practice in your area?
9. What are the accrued benefits for the community from CBNRM and CBOs initiatives in your area?
10. What benefits does your community accrue from the KTP?
11. What is the potential for CBE development in your area?
12. CBNRM is the right approach for wildlife conservation  Yes  No  Not sure
13. Give reasons \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you for your participation**

APPENDIX E  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



PO Box 112250  
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250  
352-392-0433 (Phone)  
352-392-9234 (Fax)  
irb2@ufl.edu

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DATE: October 16, 2008

TO: Naomi Moswete  
281 Corry Village #13  
Gainesville, FL 32603

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, PhD; Chair *ISF:dl*  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: Approval of Protocol #2008-U-0792

TITLE: Stakeholder Perspectives on the Potential for Community-based Ecotourism  
Development in the Kgalagadi District of Western Botswana

SPONSOR: Kellogg Foundation and/or University of Botswana

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants. Your protocol was approved as an expedited study under category 7: *Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.*

Given this status, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of informed consent from each participant. Enclosed is the dated, IRB-approved informed consent to be used when recruiting participants for the research. If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, *including the need to increase the number of participants authorized*, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

It is essential that each of your participants sign a copy of your approved informed consent that bears the IRB approval stamp and expiration date.

If you have not completed this protocol by **October 15, 2009**, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

ISF:dl

**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**

You are invited to participate in an interview on the general perception or views of community-based ecotourism advancement in your district. The research focuses on potential for the development of community-based ecotourism in your district or area to determine your knowledge, concern, participation and conservation attitudes toward support for ecotourism development and the conservation of the Kgalagadi Trans-frontier National Park.

This study is conducted as part of PhD program. It is estimated that the amount of time required to complete the interview will be no longer than 45 minutes.

Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. A random identification number will only be used as an identifier. There are no anticipated risks to your participation in this study, and there will be no compensation or other direct benefits to you as a participant.

Your signature below indicates that you have decided to participate in this study and that you have the information in this consent form. Your decision as to whether or not to participate will not prejudice your relations with the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management or the University of Florida. If you decide to participate you are completely free to withdraw consent and discontinue participation at any time.

If you have any additional questions, please contact me – Naomi Moswete, University of Florida, Department of Tourism, Recreation and Sport Management. Phone 352 392 4042 ext 1385, Email [nom1996@ufl.edu](mailto:nom1996@ufl.edu). Or you can contact my advisor, Dr. B. Thapa at 352 392-4042 ext. 1239 or email [bthapa@hhp.ufl.edu](mailto:bthapa@hhp.ufl.edu). Questions and concerns about the research participants' rights can be directed to the University of Florida Institutional Review Board office, PO Box 112250, University of Florida, Gainesville, FL 32611-2250.

Thank you very much!

\_\_\_\_\_  
I have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure, and I have received a copy of this description.

Participant's signature	_____	Date	_____
Interviewer's signature	_____	Date	_____
Principal investigator	_____	Date	_____

Approved by  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02  
Protocol # 2008-U-0792  
For Use Through 10/15/2009

APPENDIX F  
RESEARCH PERMIT, BOTSWANA

TELEPHONE: 3914955

TELEGRAMS: MEWT

TELEX:

TELEFAX: 3914861

REFERENCE: EWT 8/36/4 III (41)



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF ENVIRONMENT,

WILDLIFE AND TOURISM

PRIVATE BAG BO 199

GABORONE

ALL CORRESPONDENCE MUST BE ADDRESSED TO  
THE PERMANENT SECRETARY

Naomi N. Moswete  
Department of Environmental Science  
Private Bag 00704  
Gaborone

31 October 2008

Tel: 355 2527  
Fax: 355 2808  
c/o moatshe@mopipi.ub.bw

Dear Madam,

**APPLICATION FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT:**  
**“Stakeholder Perspectives on the Potential for Community -Based Ecotourism”**

Reference is made to your application for research permit dated 8<sup>th</sup> April 2008 and received on the 2<sup>nd</sup> July 2008 on the above subject matter.

We are pleased to inform you that you are granted permission to conduct a research entitled **“Stakeholder Perspectives on the Potential for Community - Based Ecotourism”**. The research will be conducted in the **Kgalagadi District including the Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park**.

This permit is valid for a period effective from the **3 November 2008** to the **31<sup>st</sup> January 2009**.

This permit is granted subject to the following conditions:

1. Payment of Research Permit Fees is waived.
2. Signing and submission of an Agreement between Government of Botswana and Independent Researchers (enclosed).
3. Copies of any videos/publications produced as a result of this project are directly deposited with the Office of the President, National Assembly, Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism,

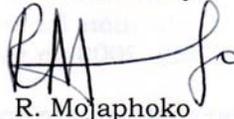
1

Botswana Tourism Board, Department of Wildlife & National Parks, National Archives, National Library Service, Research and Development Office, and the University of Botswana Library.

4. This permit does not give authority to enter premises, private establishments or protected areas. Permission for such entry should be negotiated with those concerned.
5. You conduct the study according to particulars furnished in the approved application taking into account the above conditions.
6. The research team comprises of Naomi Moswete, Masego Kgafela, Peace G. Koorutwe and Ramatse M. Moswete.
7. Failure to comply with any of the above conditions will result in the immediate cancellation of this permit.
8. The applicant should ensure that the Government of Botswana is duly acknowledged for all material originally from Botswana.
9. You are advised to apply to the Department of Wildlife & National Parks (DWNP) for a Supplementary Permit to enter any of our protected areas and pay appropriate parks fees as determined by the DWNP.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,



R. Mojaphoko

**FOR/PERMANENT SECRETARY**

cc: Director of Wildlife & National Parks  
Department of Tourism

**encl.**

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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Naomi Moswete (nee Moatshe) was born and raised in a small remote village of Mmathubudukwane in Kgatleng District, Botswana. Her parents, Morwadi and Botha Moatshe were farmers. She attended Letsebe Primary school (1973-1979), Matshekge Hill School for junior certificate (1980-1982) and Lotsane Senior Secondary School for Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (1983-1984). She then joined the National Service (Tirelo Sechaba) and completed one year of field work in a tiny rural village of Marapong in Central District, Botswana. The author joined the University of Botswana (1986-1991) where she majored in Environmental Science and African Languages.

After graduating from the University of Botswana (UB) with a Bachelor of Arts degree (Humanities) and Post Graduate Diploma in Education, she was offered a teaching job at Kgari Sechele Senior Secondary School (KSII) in Molepolole village, where she taught geography (1991-1996). While at KSII she was the coordinator of the School drama club, and also a member of the Molepolole Village Stop Crime Committee.

In May 1996, Naomi joined the Department of Environmental Science, University of Botswana, as a Staff Development Fellow. She moved to Melbourne Australia, where she completed her master's degree in Tourism at Monash University's Clayton campus. After completing her studies in Australia, she moved back to the University of Botswana, where she worked as a Lecturer and taught the following undergraduate courses: Human geography, Introduction to statistics in Geography (elementary), Ecotourism, Introduction to Wildlife and Tourism Development (2000-2004). At the time, Naomi was nominated as a member of the Botswana National Advisory committee, Country representative of the International Academy of African Business and Development. She also served in the following committees: Kalahari Conservation Society, and the Botswana National Museum and Art Gallery. The author was also

the coordinator of the Study Abroad Program at UB. In 2004, the author was offered a W. Kellogg Foundation study grant, which enabled her to join the University of Florida at Gainesville where she pursued her doctoral program, focusing on management of protected areas, community conservation and development, ecotourism and local communities. She intends to rejoin the University of Botswana on completion of her doctoral program.