

**TOWARDS AN INTEGRATIVE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT  
FRAMEWORK FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES IN NAMIBIA**

by

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## DECLARATION

I .....declare that the thesis which I hereby submit for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria is my own work and has not been previously submitted for any other degree or examination at any other University and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

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## ABSTRACT

This study examines the existing policy and planning frameworks in relation to tourism and local development in Namibia and the level of integration for the respective rural communities. The focus is on the Torra Conservancy in the north-western part of Namibia. The specific objectives are to assess the relative degree to which the local communities have had control in the community-based tourism (CBT) through the community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programme in terms of rights, empowerment and economic benefits. The study involves a retrospective review of literature on integrative tourism and rural local development and through a survey of key community based tourism (CBT) actors in Bergsig and in Windhoek, Namibia. This study is mainly based on quantitative approach. In addition, thematic interviews were used, where possible, to understand and deepen the views expressed in the survey results. Respondents representing the three main clusters of the tourism industry; government, private sector and the host local communities were examined on their interpretation of the current development of the tourism industry in Namibia. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and factor analysis indicated statistical significant differences between different groups. The research findings revealed that the extent to which local communities participate in the tourism development process depends on the idealistic, and perhaps to some degree unrealistic, expectations, of community-based tourism in the national tourism policy spectrum. Since community perceptions match what is on the ground from development, problems are socially real and necessitated a viable solution for amelioration. Implications are discussed for building a more integrative policy approach that could help guide research, planning, development and evaluation of community-based tourism projects.

**Keywords:** Integrative tourism, rural development, community-based tourism, CBNRM, Namibia

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

<b>AGM</b>	Annual General Meeting
<b>ANOVA</b>	Analysis of Variance
<b>CAMPFIRE</b>	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
<b>CBNRM</b>	Community Based Natural Resource Management
<b>CBT</b>	Community Based Tourism
<b>CBTE's</b>	Community Based Tourism Enterprises
<b>CCS</b>	Communal Conservancy System
<b>EIA</b>	Environmental Impact Assessment
<b>GRN</b>	Government Republic of Namibia
<b>HIV</b>	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
<b>IFAD</b>	International Fund for Agricultural Development
<b>IRDNC</b>	Integrated Rural Development and Nature Conservation
<b>IRT</b>	Integrated Rural Tourism
<b>MAWRD</b>	Ministry of Agriculture Water and Rural Development
<b>MET</b>	Ministry of Environment and Tourism
<b>NACOBTA</b>	Namibia Community Based Tourism Association
<b>NACSO</b>	Namibian Association of Community Based Natural Resource Management Support Organisation
<b>NDP</b>	National Development Programme
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental Organisation
<b>NPC</b>	National Planning Commission
<b>NPRAP</b>	National Poverty Reduction Programme
<b>SPSS</b>	Statistical Package for the Social Science
<b>USAID</b>	United States Agency for International Development
<b>WCED</b>	World Commission on Environment and Development
<b>WEF</b>	World Economic Forum
<b>WTO</b>	World Tourism Organisation
<b>WTTC</b>	World Travel and Tourism Council

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

---

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Community involvement is often thought of as simply a tool used to involve local people in planning and development. In reality, it is a more complex phenomenon in which individuals voluntarily take action to 'confront opportunities and responsibilities of citizenship'(Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram, 2011:280; see also Tosun, 2000). In biodiversity conservation for example, experience from previous nature conservation initiatives has shown that the projects which have excluded local communities and denied their traditional rights to use natural resources, have not been very successful in the long term (Nelson, 2010).

The term 'community' may have different interpretations in the field of social science. It means different things to an anthropologist than to an economist. In the report of the Community-Based Tourism Enterprise (CBTE) workshop held at Wêrldsend in Namibia, the term 'community' was in 2005 is described as: 'community in its broadest concept are those people who live in a designated area'. On communal land no one can claim natural resources as their own. Rather, local people living in a communal area represent the community in its mutual interests and needs to use and benefit from existing natural resources' (Christ, 2006).

Ashley (2000) defines community-based tourism as 'involvement of residents of communal areas in tourism'. The residents have a degree of control over the natural resources and the benefits give community-based tourism an additional potential for generating social development and empowering local communities to sustainably manage natural resources. This kind of community-based tourism is one strategy in Namibia's Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) programme.

The goal of this programme is to protect biodiversity and maintain ecosystems and life support processes through the sustainable utilisation of natural resources for the benefit of rural communities (Ashley, 2000). The challenges involved in attempting to universally apply this definition are readily apparent in the divergent goals of locals, as well as in a broad range of socio-cultural, political, and economic conditions that can lead to different levels of participation (Chang, 2011; Dredge, 2006). More recently, considerable reaction to the biases of tourism planning has been voiced, ranging from discussion of limits to growth, to advocacy of alternative tourism planning models (Honey, 2008; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008).

Today, tourism as a major component of rural development strategies is on the rise. This is because of increases in tourism demand, transforming rural economic patterns, perceptions of tourism as a lean industry, its apparent relative ease of creating employment and other community development benefits (Bandyopadhyay, Humavindu, Shamsundar and Wang, 2004; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Apparently, in many southern African countries, tourism provides new development opportunities, jobs and economic benefits for local people (Bushell and McCool, 2007; Saarinen, 2010).

Building on a new political paradigm of people's participation, the ownership and operation of tourism ventures by local people themselves is now increasingly seen as one of the seven mechanisms by which tourism could efficiently help reduce poverty (Suich, 2010). With the involvement of local people, tourism development can be controlled locally, and their engagement in the process can be a highly effective way of mobilising and coordinating the resources required to develop a distinctive rural identity (Chang, 2011; Jones, 2010; Bushell and McCool, 2007; Ashley and Haysom, 2008). For example, the development of tourism cannot 'guarantee the results will be either sustainable or compatible with existing economic, social and ecological processes already established in those rural areas' (Cole, 2006). In particular, the negative impacts of tourism on the local sustainability have been recognised in tourism literature (Hall and Page, 2000).

Therefore, the starting point of this thesis is an examination of the role of tourism and how it could contribute to sustainable rural development. In order to respond to the multi-faceted nature of the tourism discourse, as well as the holistic concept in sustainable development, an integrated concept approach has been suggested in several studies (Clark and Chabrel, 2007; Saxena and Ilbery, 2007). Baud-Bovy (1982) suggests that the integrated concept of tourism can be applied on two levels. Tourism development should be integrated into a wider rural development planning approach, and be integrated with stakeholders (collaboration and cooperation) from local to central levels’.

In this study, rural development is conceptualised as governance, with particular emphasis on democratic decentralisation (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001). The term ‘rural’ and ‘development’ are ambiguous and they will be discussed more later. Ashley and Maxwell (2001:392) for example, states that ‘rural areas constitute the space where human settlement and infrastructure occupy only small patches of the landscape, most of which is dominated by fields and pastures, woods and forest, water, mountain and desert’ (see also Killick 2001:157).

Beyond these features rural areas can be characterised in various alternative ways: ‘as places where most people spend most of their working time on farms’ (Killick, 2001); ‘by the abundance and relative cheapness of land’ (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001); and ‘by geographical conditions that increase political transaction cost and magnify the possibility of elite capture or urban bias’ (IFAD, 2001). An integration of policy and rural development planning are frequently suggested when pursuing sustainable rural development (Butler, 1999; Chang, 2011). This is because of the needs of controlling limits of tourism development from the environmental perspective.

Moreover, with the involvement of local people, tourism development can be the most effective way of mobilising and coordinating the resources required to develop a distinctive rural identity (Chio, 2006). Additionally, an integrated concept has been suggested whereby tourism is embedded into local resources, for the reason that rural tourism development highly relies on the natural and socio-cultural resources of the place (Nelson, 2010; Baud-Bovy, 1982).

A conceptualised 'integrated rural tourism' (IRT) approach was introduced in several recently published articles, pioneering the concept of integration between stakeholders and local resources within a place-specific context (Saxena and Ilbery, 2007). Integrative Tourism Development Framework (ITDF) is theorised as 'tourism explicitly linked to the economic, social, cultural, natural and human structures of the localities in which it takes place' (Johannesen and Skonhoft, 2005). The argument is that ITDF – as a theory and an approach – leads to more sustainable tourism (broadly conceived) than other forms of tourism because it creates powerful network connections between social, cultural and environmental resources (Miller and Twining-Ward, 2006). The notion of ITDF is also intended to open up practical ways of thinking about improving linkages between tourism and local and regional resources, activities, products and communities in the light of changing trends in tourism demand.

Various studies have provided a comprehensive array of theoretical understandings and empirical studies in integrating tourism with other dimensions, such as policy or community participation, in relation to its potential to promote rural development (Cawley and Gillmor, 2008; Clark and Chabrel, 2007; Reid, 2003; Simpson, 2009). However, notwithstanding these ideas on changing the emphasis and scope of tourism planning there remains a deep-rooted dissatisfaction with traditional tourism planning or at least a perception that considerable improvements can be made. Making such progress will require not only an acceptance of the ideals being professed, but progress in planning methods (Stem, Lassoie, Lee, Deshler and Schelhas, 2003).

To accomplish such aim, a new model of tourism planning should be developed. The purpose here is not to merge many disparate models, but to conceptualise planning in a way that fosters the integration of tourism to socio-economic development process of rural areas. Based on these understandings, this research takes a case study approach to investigate the development of tourism in rural Namibia, and to contextualise the interrelationship of these potential key elements (community participation in tourism development, planning and benefit) in suggesting an integrative tourism development framework.

### 1.1.1 Problem statement

After gaining independence from apartheid South Africa in 1990, the Namibian government absorbed the lessons of the Zimbabwe's Communal Area Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) to influence the design of its own wildlife management reforms. The Nature Conservation Ordinance Amendment Act of 1996 introduced the approaches of community-based natural resources management (CBNRM) and communal land conservancies (Lapeyre, 2010). Rights are devolved to local communities to manage resources and to benefit from them. It is hoped that local institutions and strategies for sustainable use will emerge and lead both to rural poverty alleviation and to biodiversity preservation.

Yet, after nearly 20 years of NGO-supported and state programmes, economic and ecological results show contradictory trends (Nelson, 2010). Is the devolution of rights to local communities just a political discourse of tokenism, rhetoric or a real institutional innovation for resource conservation? Is the decentralization of natural resource management not just a substitute vector for the currently slow land reform? Are rural inhabitants truly empowered and do they benefit from their management efforts?

In the view of the above, the overall problem of the Namibia's tourism industry is a lack of an integrative tourism development framework constructed on scientific data to guide and balance delivery of tourism services with conservation objectives. The lack of such framework leads to different definitions of CBTs, conflicting objectives of line function institutions, poor understanding of tourists' needs, inconsistent standards of service-delivery, poor product quality, financial under-performance, inadequate maintenance of infrastructure, lack of community-participation and absence of indicators to measure the impact of tourism services on the environment, tourists and the local communities.



### 1.1.2 Significance of the study

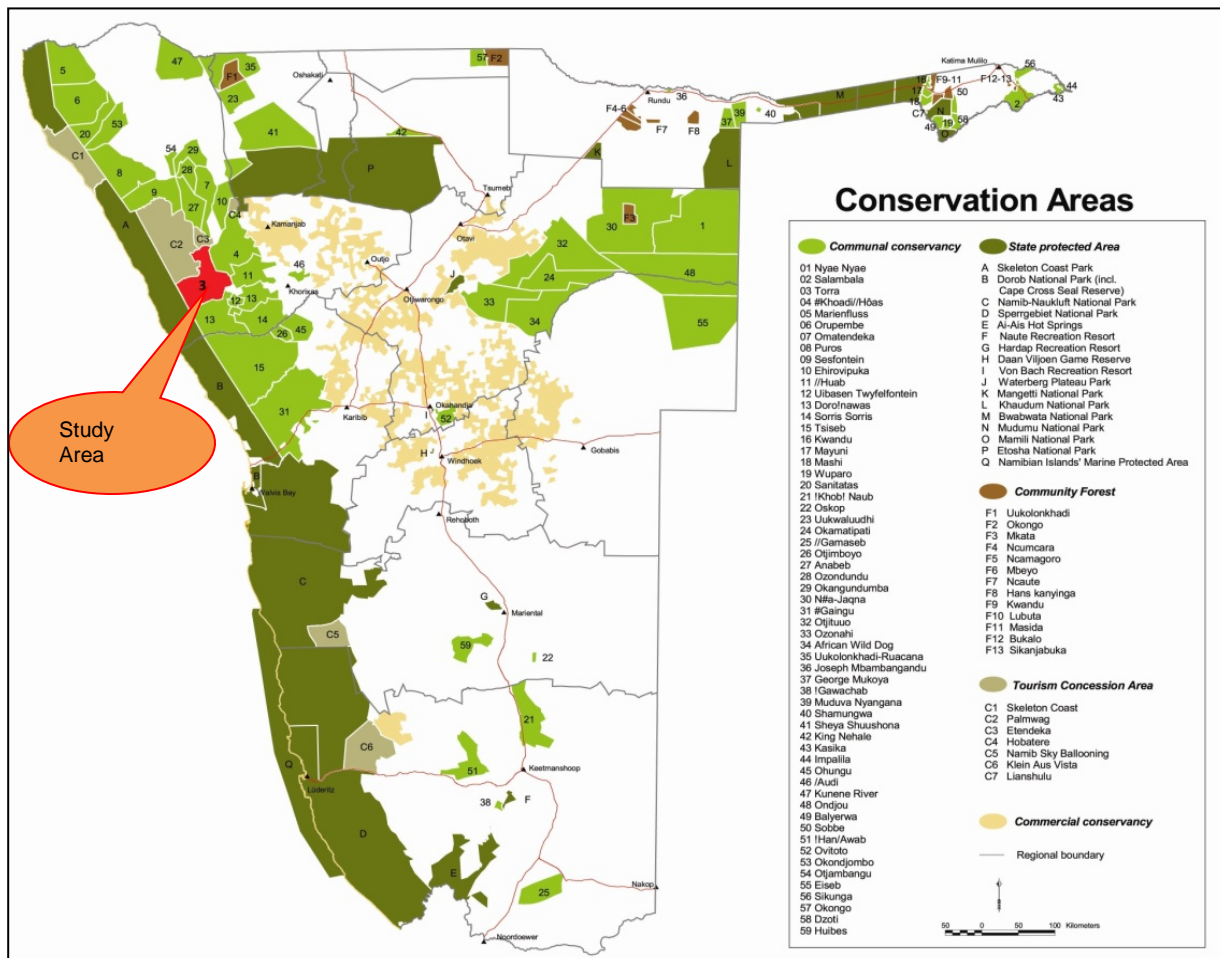
While evolved in recent years, there is still limited research that has been done in Namibia to investigate the contribution of tourism to local development. This investigation therefore, is significant, in that it will provide the necessary baseline information on the tourism as a viable component in local development in the study area. There is at present little coherent information on the socio-economic and improved livelihoods of tourism development in the Torra Conservation area. It is, therefore, hoped that this study will contribute toward filling this void. In the past, isolated consultancy studies on economic benefits of tourism were carried out in the area, but such studies in most cases do not follow an academic approach. This study should thus provide the baseline or framework and should identify research gaps upon which other and/or relevant stakeholders can conduct future academic studies.

The major shortcoming of existing secondary data in the study area of Torra Conservancy is the lack of relevant information concerning local community opinions of tourism development. Despite the positive and negative outcomes derived from tourism development, community opinions have been neglected. This is in conjunction with the significance of tourism for the economic activity of the area, as an insular and peripheral rural region; make Torra Conservancy an appropriate site for the study.

Finally, the findings of this study are expected to be symmetrical and should contribute to the dimensions of integrative tourism development frameworks. On a theoretical context, the research applies validated theoretical frameworks of sustainable and ecotourism concepts. Finally, from a practical point of view, it identifies the components of tourism development, which are important attributes in the planning and implementation of a successful local development initiative.

### 1.1.3 Study area

Torra Conservancy was gazetted in 1998 and is situated in the southern Kunene region of north-western Namibia (Figure 1.1). It incorporates 3522 km<sup>2</sup> of arid and semi-arid landscapes, ranging from undulating ridges bisected by dry riverbeds to rugged mountains. Aside from employment in conservation or ecotourism, most residents are subsistence goat herders (Nott, Davis, and Roman, 2004). Torra Conservancy has a well-developed management plans and has eliminated illegal poaching. It is undoubtedly a 'flagship conservancy in Namibia' (Long, 2002; Baker, 2003; NACSO, 2008).



**Figure 1.1 Study Area**

Source: NACSO, (2008:19)

## **1.2 RESEARCH AIM, OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS**

### **1.2.1 Research aim**

The aim is to seek an understanding of the current rural tourism planning practices and to apply this understanding to an integrative framework for improving the manner in which tourism is planned in rural Namibia. The Torra Conservancy and the Namibian rural tourism contexts form the empirical setting for the thesis.

### **1.2.2 Research objectives**

The specific objectives of the thesis are to:

1. examine the impact of policy framework on tourism development in rural Namibia;
2. assess the level to which local communities have had control in the community-based tourism (CBT) in terms of rights, empowerment and economic benefits;
3. examine the impact of tourism development in the study area; and
4. to integrate these perspectives towards an integrative tourism development approach based on the findings of this study.

### **1.2.3 Research questions**

In line with the above-stated objectives of this study, these research questions seek to investigate the effectiveness of the current tourism planning spectrums in relation to the sustainability of the consumptive nature of rural tourism in Namibia:

1. *What are the impacts of the current tourism policy framework on rural development?*
2. *To what extent does the community have had control over the development of tourism?*
3. *How has the locality of the Tora Conservancy been affected as a result of tourism development in the area?*

### 1.3 THESIS STRUCTURE

The thesis is divided into six chapters. After the introduction, **Chapter 2** provides an account and assessment of the literature addressing the various tourism development concepts. The chapter also introduces the concept of integrated rural tourism and sustainable rural tourism development in general and how they are applied in the context of tourism planning.

**Chapter 3** examines the development of tourism in Namibia in general with specific emphasis on community-based tourism (CBT) policy at a local level. Further to describing this practical implementation situation, subsequent sections will elaborate on the main approaches taken by various institutions for tourism development in the Torra Conservancy.

**Chapter 4** presents the research methodology used to achieve the objectives of the thesis, outlining the mode of operation, sampling procedures and techniques, along with the instruments and methods used in data collection. This is based on the notion of sustainable local development and follows the concept of integrative tourism planning which has emerged in the literature, as discussed in Chapters 2 and 3.

**Chapter 5** presents the detailed findings obtained from the fieldwork, including the views of key stakeholders of the effects of tourism on community development in the Torra Conservancy.

**Chapter 6** presents the issues emerging from the findings and suggests their potential implications for future policy formulation. A summary of the main findings, a discussion of the limitations of this research and a suggestion for further research is also presented.

## CHAPTER 2

### TOWARDS THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK IN PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

---

#### 2.1 RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Most poverty in the world is rural and the International Development Targets highlight the need to give high priority to rural development (Maxwell, Urey and Ashley, 2001). There is no shortage of narratives about – or prescriptions on – rural development. Past narratives included ‘Community Development’, ‘the Green Revolution’ and ‘Integrated Rural Development’ (Rauch, Bartels and Engel, 2001). Current narratives (see Getz, 2004; Wilson, 2001) include ‘a new, doubly-green revolution’, ‘sustainable agriculture’, ‘rural livelihoods’, and a growth-based, liberalisation-friendly narrative (Timothy, 2002).

The term rural development generally refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic well-being of people living in relatively isolated and sparsely populated areas (Malcolm, 2003). Since the 1950s, the concept of development has evolved chronologically through four main schools of thought, namely, modernisation, dependency theory, alternative development and sustainable development (Shen, Hughey and Simmons, 2008). Expansion of freedom is also viewed in the developmental approach, both as the primary and a principal means of development (Sen, 1999). Development thus constitutes various types of unfreedoms that leave people with little choice and little opportunity to exercising their reasoned agency. The concept of rural development can be theorised as ‘a process by which the people of a country, particularly the rural communities, progressively acquire a mastery over their destiny’ (Hirsch, 1978). Many rural areas specifically in Africa are characterised by deplorable living conditions, coupled with lack of infrastructure and social services. Among the factors leading to the aforementioned conditions are; land ownership systems, rural skills and labour shortages and the lure of high wages in urban areas.

One may also look at rural areas as spatial manifestations of changing adjustments to the environment, socio-economic variables, and the role of elders in land allocation. For example, there is evidence that population growth and territorial expansion often leads to a sequence from dispersed to more clustered rural area forms (Silberfein, 1998). Some schools of thought such as, Mabogunje (2002); Ellis and Boggs (2001) feel that development takes place when 'the central problems of poverty, unemployment and inequalities in a society have declined from high levels'. So, too, is the ability of rural communities to mobilize and take collective action. Be that as it may, true development must mean the development of people, the unfolding of his/her creative potentials enabling him/her to improve his/her material conditions of living through the use of resources available to him/her.

The rural area needs to provide a living and create economic value for its inhabitants. With the modernisation paradigm, indices such as gross national product (GNP) or per capita income are the main indicators of development. In this paradigm, economic growth is synonymous with development. It is believed that all countries and regions will go through a similar process, from underdeveloped to developed, and issues like poverty and social inequality will be tackled automatically with economic growth (Wickens, 1984). In the late 1960s and 1970s poor countries in the South did not follow the steps of the North to become 'developed' and may have even experienced negative growth (Shen *et al.*, 2008). In this context, dependency theory prevailed, contending that development is not a linear process and that the poor will remain within the status of underdevelopment, owing to their high economic dependency on the developed (Rogers, 1999). In the 1980s, 'alternative development' emerged and became dominant. This paradigm signified a major shift from a traditional focus on things to people (Shen *et al.*, 2008). It acknowledged grassroots initiatives and called for an endogenous, bottom-up approach (Sharpley, 2002).

In this period, concern about environmental deterioration caused by unchecked economic growth reached a peak which led to the emergence of a new development philosophy – 'sustainable development', in the late 1980s (Harrison, 1988; Bruntland, 1987). This paradigm stems from the convergence of economic growth and environmentalism. It is often related to paradigms such as: *balanced growth; long-term development; and social equity* (Shen *et al.*, 2008:21).

With time, the focus of sustainable development evolved from an emphasis on environment to people, as evidenced by the development of new paradigms such as: poverty reduction, community empowerment and social justice (Ashley, 2000). Sustainable development is now regarded as a holistic, integrated and long-term development philosophy. Embedded in these narratives are critical choices about rural development policy: state or market; growth or stability; agriculture; community-based tourism; expenditure on investment or consumption.

Maxwell *et al.*, (2001:2) further state that, *'different narratives will apply in different places, but all need to be consistent with current thinking on development more generally – which not all are, for example on empowerment, the importance of income distribution, or the form and pace of market liberalisation'*. The prescriptions currently on offer do not always appear to capture the degree and pace of change in rural areas. New narratives are needed to deal with challenges such as globalisation, urbanisation, and the 'de-agrarianisation' of rural space, the increasing diversity of rural environments and the special problems of low potential areas: particular, small-scale farming may be facing unprecedented and unmanageable pressures.

Rural development implies the creation of new products and services and the associated development of new markets. From this it can be suggested that the concept of rural development is above all a heuristic device which may warrant a search for new future and reflects the drive of the rural population. It goes beyond modernisation theory where the problems of agriculture and countryside were considered resolved. In Africa today, agriculture remains largely embedded in traditional kinship systems and generally operates outside the market economy. Yet, increased agricultural and rural productivity is depended on the market economy, which requires that all means of production be commodified and tradable (Mabogunje, 1985).

This contradiction is a major weakness of the post-colonial state and a major challenge for African leaders. Whatever, the grand design of the projects, its tendency to positively reinforce existing socio-economic inequalities within the rural communities has serious implications for future development in the area (Mabogunje, 1985).

The author stresses on the reinforcement of the importance of effective territorial organisation and community mobilization as a *sine qua non* for rural development. This has succeeded in providing a model which sets in bold relief what should and should not be done in search for self-sustaining solutions to problems of rural development. An alternative strategy must build on these strengths and weaknesses.

### **2.1.2 Sustainable rural tourism development**

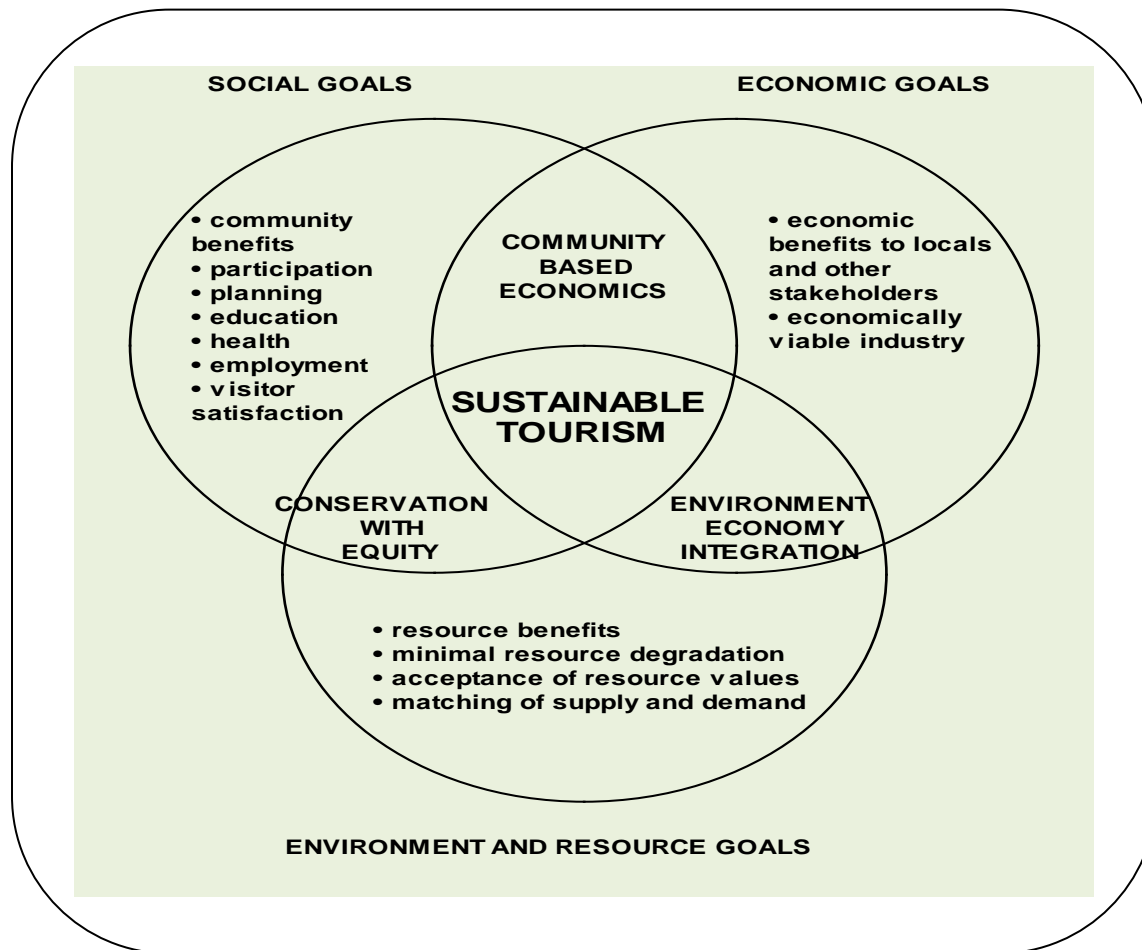
As subsets of development, rural development and tourism have experienced a similar evolving process. Rural development can be, in its simplest sense, understood as socio-economic development in a rural area. In the case of tourism, a four-platform framework elucidated well the evolution of tourism (Inskip, 1991). The first platform, 'advocacy', considered tourism as 'without fault and its economic contribution was widely, if not exclusively, supported'. It was popularised after the Second World War and embedded in the modernisation paradigm (Jafari, 1990; Inskip, 1991; Shen *et al.*, 2008). Some main traits, such as foreign exchange earnings and the multiplier concept were evidence of this platform (Sharpley, 2002). Upon entering into the 1960s, this was gradually substituted by the second platform, 'cautionary' (Weaver, 2004). This recognised the negative aspects of tourism and criticised tourism's seasonal and unskilled employment opportunities/needs, destruction of the natural environment and exclusion of host society structure (Blackstock, 2005).

With the passage of time, the debates between the advocacy and cautionary platforms led to the growth of the third platform, adaptancy, in the early 1980s. This called for alternatives to mass tourism, for example ecotourism, rural tourism and green tourism (Shen *et al.*, 2008; Hall, 1994; Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010). The fourth platform is knowledge-based and it aims 'at positioning itself on a scientific foundation and, at the same time, maintaining bridges with other platforms' (Jafari, 1990). This platform has been evident since the early 1990s and can be compared to the 'sustainable development' paradigm. Figure 2.1 demonstrates the relationship between sustainable development and tourism. Rural and tourism development are both embedded in the wider development context. Sustainable livelihoods alongside tourism are a convergence of sustainable, rural, and tourism development.



Thus, not only should sustainable livelihoods be viewed and analysed in the context of rural development but also in the context of tourism. Accordingly, it is necessary to systematically examine the principles of tourism to obtain a deeper understanding of sustainable livelihoods and tourism. Local participation is a necessary part of sustainable development. Local participation means: ‘the ability of local communities to influence the outcomes of development projects that have an impact on them’ (Richards and Hall, 2001).

Local participation can be defined as ‘empowering people to mobilize their own capacities, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions, and control the activities that affect their lives’ (Long, 2004:14). This may also mean the adoption of ‘putting the last first’ approach (Moscardo, 2008:234).



**Figure 2.1: Relationships between Sustainable Development and Tourism**

Source: Adapted from Shen, Hughey and Simmons (2008)

'Rural area' is a term which has a multiplicity of meaning in different research areas and contexts (Reisingern and Turner, 2003). Auty (1995:89) suggests three key features of rural areas that simplify the complexity of the concept and help to identify and define it. These features are: 'agricultural production dominates the local economy; distance, peripherality and zones of transition; low population density and open spaces'. These have been developed as the three main approaches to identify and classify rural areas (Nell, Illgner, Wilkins and Robertson, 2000). In terms of defining rural areas by their traditional social structures, a popular way in which 'rural areas' have been distinguished from 'urban areas' is according to their 'rural characteristics'. However, it is not easy to give a general definition of what the characteristics are, since they can be diverse between nations and even between national regions. Furthermore, the social structures definition is facing increasing difficulties because rural areas are rapidly changing (Saarinen, 2008).

Recently, the traditional rural idyll myth commonly associated with rural areas has not worked well in identifying rurality. In addition, these romantic idyll concepts have been criticized as being '*created by the wealthy for the wealthy and reflects particular power relations*' (Matheison and Wall, 1982). Since the notion of sustainability became popular in the late 1980s, many policies and programmes have been produced by the public sector and funding organisations in order to make tourism sustainable. The interest of researchers in the evaluation of the sustainability of these policies or programmes has also arisen. In order to obtain a general understanding of the key issues in tourism in sustainable rural development, this section reviews several studies regarding sustainable rural development, with a focus on adopting tourism to promote sustainable rural development (Saxena *et al.*, 2007; McCool and Moisey, 2001).

Mog (2004:541) in his study on managing development programmes for sustainability claims that 'there are two groups of principles which can help to promote sustainable rural development'. These are the 'process-oriented' principles and 'outcome-oriented' criteria. The term 'process-oriented' outlined below, refers to actions undertaken in the process of a sustainable development project, which is described as 'the most essential element of an effective sustainability-oriented approach' (Mog, 2004:542).

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These principles aim to evaluate the quality of a development programme's approach. The first principle, the character of participation, concerns the involvement of the local community in terms of the level of participation in the programme (Tosun, 2006; Scheyven, 2003). On a continuum from no to full participation, there are several levels of participation, such as being passively informed by authorities, expressing a local voice in consultations, building a partnership with the government or relevant authorities, to being fully empowered to practice citizen control (Chang, 2011; Mog, 2004). According to the level of participation, it is possible to evaluate the level of sustainability of the programme.

Higher levels of participation are considered to match the principles of sustainable development (Dixey, 2008; Mog, 2004). According to Saarinen (2006:1129), 'the setting of limits of growth through negotiations and participation can be termed a community-based tradition of sustainable tourism, in which the host and the benefits that it may gain from tourism are central in the processes. Participatory approaches have evolved towards new kinds of processes which include justice, social, and pro-poor tourism, all aiming at practices that contribute to the local development and especially to the needs of marginalised people (Hall, 1994).

The second criterion, the 'success and nature of the institution and its capacity-building efforts', puts emphasis on the importance of social capital, which is necessary to sustain long-term development programmes (Chang, 2011; Mog, 2004). For this reason, governments should invest resources in order to support institutions and non-government organisations and strengthen their ability to contribute to sustainable development. The third criterion, 'diversity, multiplicity and adaptability of ideas promoted by the programme', highlights the fact that there is no panacea for sustainable development; it should therefore involve different people in order to provide a full suite of options in order to meet the demands of the economic, physical environment and social aspects of development (Fabricius and Koch, 2004).

The fourth and the fifth principles are associated with local control and the importance of the acknowledgement of local difference. The former points out that the reason why numerous sustainable development programmes end in failure is that they tend to be structured around a 'one-size-fits-all model' without considering the distinguishing features of local areas.

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Instead, a successful sustainable programme should be designed for and targeted at its population. This highlights the importance of local knowledge because sustainable development programmes are ultimately carried out according to the nature of the place, involving the local community and local resources (Chang, 2011; McCool and Moisey, 2001). Therefore, in this respect, sustainable development programmes are able to become more acceptable to localities at an early stage and then can become more effective in the process.

External influences such as economic, demographic, political, social, cultural, and environmental factors can each have impact. Even though sustainable development programmes are often designed to target a specific territory, influences from within the territory, outside the region and even to the international level, must all be considered. In addition to the process criteria, Mog (2004) pointed out numerous outcome-oriented criteria which emerge from a comprehensive review of papers extracted from published journals, books or research reports regarding issues of sustainability, rural development and the participatory approach used to assess the sustainable rural development. Table 2.1 shows the criteria for evaluating sustainable rural development.

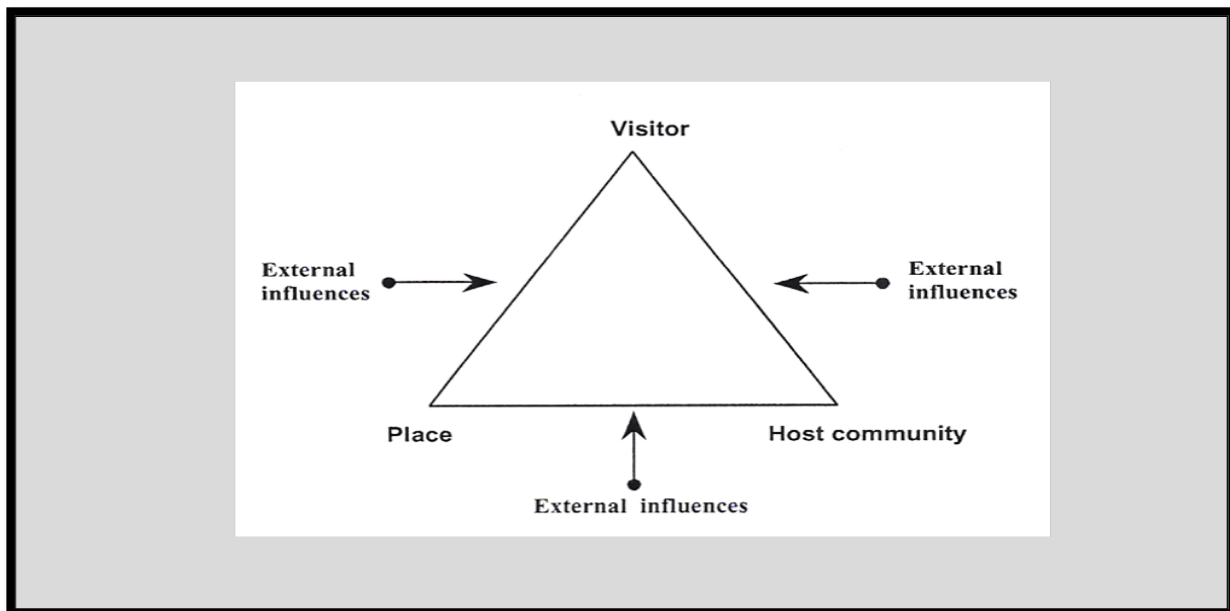
**Table 2.1: Outcome-oriented criteria for evaluating sustainable rural development**

<b>Economic aspect</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reduce inequality and improve intra and inter-temporal wealth;</li> <li>• Reduce poverty, quantitatively and qualitatively enhance income, employment and productivity, food security and livelihood opportunities while reducing involuntary landlessness;</li> </ul>
<b>Socio-political aspect</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate learning and knowledge sharing – to empower communities, e.g. participatory experimentation, technical assistance, etc.</li> <li>• Organise communities and mobilise local resources – material, human, financial, institutional, political and cultural – toward the achievement of project objectives;</li> </ul>
<b>Ecological aspect</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Maintain ecological integrity – by promoting the stability and healthy functions of balanced and bio-diverse (agro) ecosystems;</li> <li>• Protect air, water quality – prevent both point-source and non-point source-pollution, e.g. by minimising erosion, nutrients runoff and the application of inorganic agrochemicals.</li> </ul>

Source: Adapted from Mog, (2004:2144)

These criteria are all important, as there is no logical means to rank them, thus an alternative is to account for them all equally (Mog, 2004; Ioannides, 1992). In practical terms, it is almost impossible for any sustainable programme to satisfy every single criterion. Therefore, Mog (2004) suggests the evaluation of the degree of success of the sustainable development programmes should be undertaken with a consideration of the aims of the programme. For example, an environmental protection programme might not have positive outcomes in terms of the alleviation of poverty but it still can be considered as successful. By assessing the selected purpose-specific criteria of the programme, both in terms of the amount of positive change and the number of elements addressed, the effectiveness of the sustainable development programme can be better understood.

Aronsson, (2000) investigated sustainable tourism development, as a relationship that exists between the three components of the tourism-operating environment, namely, tourists, host community and destination environment (Figure 2.2). This relationship is both 'complex and dynamic', and can bring costs and benefits to the destination and the host community. Consequently, the long-term objective of sustainable tourism should be to maintain a 'harmonious balance' between these three components, whilst protecting the 'resource base'.



**Figure 2.2: Model for Sustainable Rural Tourism**

Source: Adapted from Aronsson (2000).

Different interpretations of sustainable tourism development have been offered according to the level of environmental concern given towards the tourism/environment system. These interpretations can be summarised into four major sustainable development positions (Hunter, 1997:860):

*Sustainable development through 'tourism imperative'*. Very weak interpretation heavily skewed towards the fostering, as well as the development of tourism, mainly concerned with satisfying the needs and desires of tourists and tourist operators.

*Sustainable development through a 'product-led tourism'*. A weak interpretation of sustainable development where the environmental side of tourism/environment system of destinations may well receive consideration, but is secondary to the primary need to develop new, and maintain existing, tourism products.

*Sustainable development through 'environment-led tourism'*. A strong position of sustainable development, where decisions are made which skew the tourism/environment system towards a paramount concern for the status of the environment.

Saarinen (2006:1126) also refers to the earliest discussions on the limit of growth in tourism as being related to the 'carrying capacity model and a search for the magical number, which cannot be overstepped without serious negative impacts on the resources available'.

*Sustainable development through 'neotenus tourism'*. A very strong position where sustainable development is predicated upon the belief that there are cases in which tourism should be actively and continuously discouraged on ecological grounds.

The idea of community involvement as a cornerstone of sustainable tourism is problematic (Richards and Hall, 2000). Communities are rarely homogeneous and thus will rarely take a single homogenous view on any issue. There is a need to develop mechanisms for arbitrating the conflicting views of tourism minorities, some of which may dominate the process to the exclusion of other citizens; sustainable tourism is thus about stakeholders whose interests have to be balanced (Richards and Hall, 2000). Swarbrooke (1999:76) notes that in some instances 'the community may wish to pursue policies that run counter to sustainable tourism; it cannot thus be assumed that community involvement will automatically ensure more sustainable forms of tourism'.

In brief, sustainable development embodies the notion of limitations, analogous to the concept of a destination area's carrying capacity for tourism activity. This refers to: 'the maximum use of any site without causing negative effects on the resources, reducing visitor satisfaction, or exerting adverse impact upon the society, economy and culture of the area' (Ryan, 2003:148). Since the interrelationship between local resources and tourism activities has been recognised as being dependent on the location, recognising the resources available in a place can lead to the understanding of the potential of tourism development. This facilitates the identification of compatible activities and a sensible allocation of resources to promote local sustainability (Tuson, 2000). In addition to this conceptual idea of place, there are several studies that illustrate the strong linkage between local resources and tourism development (Graburn, 2002; Hall and Page, 2000) and which promote the introduction of the 'integrated rural tourism' approach (IRT).

Nevertheless, 'local communities do not have automatic privileges over the ethical or sustainable aspects of tourism, nor do they necessarily have any intrinsic knowledge of the impacts and the scale of these impacts on the environment' (Saarinen, 2006:1133). The community-based rural development approach, like other traditions of sustainability, is currently challenged by globalisation and global environmental ethics (Holder, 1998). This approach involves a degree of devolution of responsibility to communities for managing their development, including the design and implementation of projects.

This requires that communities themselves have the capacity to assume responsibility as the extent to which community can shape their own development priorities within a project context defines the extent to which the project is applying a community-driven development approach. Arguably, these conditions if not implemented well may account for variants of globalisation by. A situation caused by just changing the cause, and perhaps even the effects of globalisation without changing the conditions on which globalisation thrives (see Ramutsindela, 2004). Thus, instead of local-scale, tourism-centric approaches, tourism as an activity needs to be centralised in discourses and practices referring to sustainable development. Without this, 'sustainable rural tourism development may remain almost meaningless jargon and a framework that can be used for multiple purposes, including political, economic, socio-cultural, and environmental, without any real reference to the holistic and ethical idea of sustainability' (see Hall and Lew, 1998).

## 2.2 INTEGRATED RURAL TOURISM

Owing to the objectives of improving the lives of local communities most affected by tourism initiatives, a recent surge in academic literature on sustainable tourism development has identified the need for community involvement in the planning and decision making process (Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2010; Simpson, 2007; Walpole and Thouless, 2005). Some of the positive aspects of community involvement had been identified as: 'possession, livelihood security, minimal leakages, efficient conflict resolution and improved conservation' (Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). While some of these purported benefits may appear to be simplistic in terms of their potential actualisation, they provide a good basis for the examination of the principles of community based-tourism as an offshoot of the sustainable tourism development paradigm.

Yet, within the argument regarding the developed and developing world divide, a high level of community involvement is difficult to put into practice in developing countries owing to prevailing socio-economic, geo-political and governmental constraints (Tosun, 2000). Additionally, there are several stakeholders in any tourism development initiative, including governmental, quasi-governmental, non-governmental, donor agencies, private sector and consumers. The need for an integration of and synergy between these stakeholders, with the community being at the centre of the development, is essential to any true sustainability initiative. While the concept of 'integration', together with the analogous concept of partnership, is used pervasively, it is clear that the concept is understood in a number of different ways. These include:

- economic integration – the integration of other economic sectors with tourism, particularly retailing and farming;
- social integration – the integration of tourism with other trends in the socio-economy, notably the drive for quality and concerns for environmental protection and sustainable development;
- policy integration – the integration of tourism with broader national and regional goals for economic growth, diversification and development (see also, Dredge, 2006);
- community integration – the integration of tourists into local communities as 'guests', such that they occupy the same way, and become embedded in the same value chains as members of the host society Saxena *et al.*, (2007:350).



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Various authors (Wahab and Pigram, 1997; Stabler, 1997), have also addressed ways of integrating economy and culture with tourism to achieve a functionally successful community, in both ecological and human terms. Various forms include:

1. spatial integration – *the integration of core tourist areas with areas where tourism is less well developed* (Weaver, 1998);
2. human resource integration – *the integration of working people into the economy as a means of combating social exclusion (by education and training for example) and gaining competitive advantage* (Mulvaney, Neill, Cleveland and Crouter, 2007);
3. institutional integration – *the integration of agencies into partnerships or other formal semi-permanent structures* (Vernon, Essex, Pinder and Curry (2005);
4. innovative integration – *the integration of new ideas and processes into the tourism 'product' to achieve growth or competitive advantage* (Macbeth, Carson and Northcote, 2004);
5. economic integration – *the integration of other economic sectors with tourism, particularly retailing and farming* (Veeck, Che and Veeck, 2006);
6. social integration – *the integration of tourism with other trends in the socio-economy, notably the driver for quality and concerns for environmental (particularly landscape) protection and sustainable development* (Kneafsey, 2001);
7. policy integration – *the integration of tourism with broader national and regional goals for economic growth, diversification and development* (Dredge, 2006);
8. temporal integration – *the integration of the past with current economic, social and cultural needs and requirements, especially through the commodification of heritage* (Ryan and Aicken, 2005); and
9. community integration – *the integration of tourists into local communities as 'guests', such that they occupy the same physical spaces, satisfy their existential and material needs in the same manner, and become embedded in the same value chains as members of the host society* (Oaks, 1999).

Recently, the importance of local participation and control has been recognised, with integration defined according to the percentage of local people employed, the type and degree of participation, the locus of decision-making power and ownership of resources in the local tourism sector (Stem *et al.*, 2003; Briedenhann, 2007; see also Mitchell and Eagles, 2001).

In the social science discipline, the concept of 'integrated rural tourism' was also developed as a method of encapsulating its multidimensional nature and the multiplicity of stakeholders (Cawley and Gillmor, 2007). According to Jenkins and Oliver (2003), the concept is linked into a normative conceptualisation of sustainability, often invoking that of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) of 1987 (Cawley and Gillmor, 2008), which relates to meeting the needs of the present generation through methods of resources use that do not compromise those of future generations.

The community-based perspective has also been adopted in terms of ecotourism through involvement of residents. Kiss (2004:232) explains the community-based ecotourism (CBET) approach from a perspective of conservation theory and practice as 'a form of community-based natural resources management (CBNRM), a popular choice of activities in an enterprise-based strategy for biodiversity conservation and a common element in integrated conservation and development projects'. Through practicing CBET, it could motivate the local community to reduce their harvesting, which can damage the landscape by helping them earn an additional income from ecotourism, which is based on the ecosystem resources. The term CBET illustrates the concept of compromises between different interest groups; from the perspective of effective land use and benefits to communities, it is a good approach, but in terms of pure protection, it is less effective (Kiss, 2004).

The basic objective of integrated rural tourism according to Cawley and Gillmor, (2008), is to promote environmental, economic, and socio-cultural sustainability in tourism and to empower local people, thereby contributing to the sustainability of the wider rural system. Saxena *et al.*, (2007:347) also define integrated rural tourism as 'tourism that is mainly sustained by social networks that explicitly link local actors for the purpose of jointly promoting and maintaining the economic, social, cultural, natural and human resources of the localities in which they occur'.

In their evaluation of previous research on rural tourism, Jenkins and Oliver (2003), state that there have been many approaches to the analysis and fuller comprehension of rural tourism as both an economic sector activity and a socio-cultural practice. Some of the previous key approaches in rural tourism are outlined in the Table 2.2:

**Table 2.2: Key Approaches in Rural Tourism**

Approach	Author(s)
Core/periphery approaches (being distant from core spheres of activity and lack power and influence and therefore carries social, political and economic implications)	Russo, 2005
Existential approaches (whereby tourists seek a transcendence from everyday life, or seek to reconstitute an (often mythical) sense of wholeness, authenticity and structure which has been undermined by modernity and globalisation)	Saxena <i>et al.</i> , 2007; MacCannell, 1989; Selwyn, 1996; Boniface, 1999
Economic approaches (consumer oriented, where tourism can be economically harmful, a stimulant or redistributive)	Tisdell, 2000
Community focused approach (whereby tourists intrusively seek authenticity and where tourism ranges from being culturally exploitative and destructive to having a 'de-segregation' role or to being a catalyst for the restoration or maintenance of traditions)	Scheyvens, 2002
Sustainability approaches (the concept of sustainable tourism is often somewhat incoherent (see full discussion in preceding section), given the lack of consensus over its meaning and development of indicators to monitor its progress)	Miller and Twining-Ward, 2005

Source: Adapted from Saxena *et al.*, (2007:349)

Yet, none of the approaches seems wholly satisfactory in the context of integrated rural tourism. Many of the above-mentioned approaches and efforts were often hampered by a 'one-size-fits-all' mentality, prescribing reforms from a centralised perspective, without regard for the territorially specific needs of a given population or community. In the end, the local people, those who are affected by the development, must be allowed to take the lead in directly, implementing, and evaluating the development process. Local ownership is the goal toward which all the other players must be working. Ideally, every development effort would take into account the perspectives of all actors, but in practice, of course, this is impossible.

Integrated development should thus be seen as a conceptual framework rather than as a policy constraint. Saxena *et al.*, (2007:349) further state that integrated rural tourism is not merely a tool to facilitate greater coordination among actors but also involves roles and responsibilities associated with both the implementation and the monitoring of tourism development strategies and resource management at the local and regional level. Each of the above-mentioned approaches tends to privilege one sector or discipline and hence one set of interactions and interests. However, the key feature of rural tourism is its pervasiveness in the lives of tourists, business and host communities alongside the associated duty of care on the part of stakeholders to use and manage resources sustainably (Saxena *et al.*, 2007:379).

In addition to contributing to the theoretical understanding of the tourism fraternity, Saarinen (2006:1135) further identified three traditions of sustainability in tourism studies as being: 'resource based, industry-based and community-based, all of which refer to carrying capacity to a greater or lesser degree'. These three traditions reflect the priority allocated to different stakeholders, with that of the community (which includes residents and organisations) receiving more attention in recent years. However, the real challenge is to balance the various priorities in an appropriate way as part of the process (Cawley and Gillmor, 2007). Tourism at its best can permeate, and be integrated with, local and regional economies in a complex manner, leading to direct income benefits for localities and wider developmental benefits based on association, synergy and participation (Jenkins and Oliver, 2003).

A key objective of promoting sustainability in tourism in under-developed rural regions is to support the economy and society in ways that protects rather than threatens the inherent characteristics of the local culture and the quality of the natural environment. The needs of wider industry may conflict with these priorities and thus should not be privileged. There is increasing acknowledgement also that the rural development process should empower local people to reduce unnecessary dependency on state agencies and to facilitate enterprising behaviour (Blackstock, 2005; Richard and Hall, 2000). Three features of resource use in particular emerge from the published literature in rural tourism as being conducive to integration: local resources and ownership (endogeneity), complementarities in methods of use, and a scale of activity that is appropriate to the context in which it takes place (Cawley and Gillmor, 2007).

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Local ownership and the sense of choice (collective agency) in how to employ resources in the pursuit of objectives should serve to maximise the retention of economic benefits within an area (Sight, Timothy and Dowling, 2003). A case in point, in Namibia, the CBNRM policy allow the local people significant discretion in how they allocate the land to cattle ranching, farming, or protecting wildlife with a view toward economic and environmental sustainability. Consequently, instead of largely unsustainable and economically tenuous agricultural activities, the conservancies complement their income for the local population from the tourist and trophy hunting. However, by contrast, external ownership of resources and external decisions remove that control from the local arena (Cawley and Gilmor, 2007). According to Garrod, Wornell and Youell, (2006); Hall and Page, (2000), tourism should be complementary to existing structures, if it is to compensate for economic decline, avoid social conflict and support existing policies for resource conservation.

The incredible growth and success of the tourism industry has prompted many academic publications spanning a number of disciplines (Tapela, 2001). For this reason, rural and other tourism planning efforts have become difficult in the face of a large amount of complex and varied information. Gunn (1994) suggests that a 'go it alone' approach to tourism will likely not produce the type of tourism products that modern society demands. This is the fundamental difference between the traditional economic approach of business creation and support (Dickman, 1992) in tourism and the community approach (Murphy, 1985) that describes 'community integration as a comprehensive approach to managing complex systems of stakeholders and resources'(Murphy, 2004; Gunn, 1994:317). The shortfall of many focused tourism development agendas has prompted the creation of a more comprehensive approach, referred to as Integrated Rural Tourism (IRT).

Working under the assumption that a well-integrated tourism product is more valuable than one poorly integrated (Saxena *et al.*, 2007) constructed the idea of IRT. Saxena *et al.*, (2007) further explain that IRT creates a means of thinking critically and comprehensively about the actors, resources and relationships involved in a notoriously fragmented industry. This is precisely what the Namibian Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) and its collaborators need to adopt.

Clark and Chabrek (2007) observe that IRT has the power to create a system analogous to Pareto's optimality where diverse stakeholders and resources come together to produce synergistic benefits for all, instead of trade-offs. This type of integration requires the construction of a holistic profile of tourism's range of consequences for a given area. This approach holds the promise of not only facilitating a greater coordination among multiple local and regional actors but also the roles and responsibilities associated with the implementation and monitoring of tourism development strategies and resource management (Cawley *et al.*, 2007; Saxena *et al.*, 2007). Some experts suggest that an IRT-based local development plan that is managed as an interwoven, dynamic value chain can help provide competitive advantage (Fadia, 2009; Figgis and Bushel, 2007).

Integrative Rural Tourism takes into account the whole picture accounting for the short and medium term requirements of stakeholder participation, community support and an appropriate scale for long term sustainability. The Integrated Rural Tourism system pioneered by Saxena and Chabrel (2007) is based on a group of seven criteria: Networking, Scale, Endogeneity, Sustainability, Embeddedness, Complementarities and Empowerment (Table, 2.3).

**Table 2.3: Seven Aspects of Rural Tourism Integration**

<b><u>Dimension</u></b>	<b><u>Description: core ideas</u></b>
<b><u>Stakeholder Collaboration</u></b> Networking	<i>The ability of people, business and agencies on the local scale and beyond to work together to plan, develop and manage tourism in rural settings</i>
<b><u>Community Participation</u></b> Embeddedness Empowerment Complementarities	<i>The role tourism plays in the politics, livelihoods, culture and way of life of the whole area and population as a local priority;</i> <i>The extent of political control over the tourism industry through full or joint ownership, law or planning; particularly control exercised at a local scale</i> <i>The degree to which tourism provides resources or facilities that benefits those who live locally in the rural area</i>
<b><u>Long-term Success</u></b> Sustainability Scale	<i>The extent to which tourism does not damage, but possibly enhances, the environmental and ecological resources of the area;</i> <i>The extent of tourism in rural area in terms of its distribution over time and geographically (bearing in mind any thresholds related to the area's carrying capacity)</i>

Source: Adapted from Saxena and Chabrel (2007:349)

Finally, it can be concluded that the notion of integration provides a means of thinking about ways of bringing diverse actors, networks and resources together more successfully to form networks of cooperation and collaboration (Saxena, 2008). Furthermore, the idea of integrated rural tourism should encourage a holistic conceptualisation of tourism, which in turn suggests a research methodology that seeks to engage with multiple actors and networks involved in its constitution. In respect of these emerging issues, Simpson (2009) suggests that the emphasis should focus on transforming the maximum benefits to the locality instead of over-emphasising the community involvement process. Thus, collaboration initiatives in tourism development can be led by government, not-for-profit organisations, the private sector or local communities, rather than be constrained by an over-emphasis on community participation.

### **2.2.1 Tourism policy in sustainable rural development**

A wide range of levels and types of tourism policies and plans are involved in the tourism development process. However, due to the expectation of economic benefits from tourism, policies in relation to rural tourism development predominantly focus on the stimulation of visitor numbers, such as strategies of marketing and the accessibility of visitors to the countryside (Butler, 1999). In respect of this, policy for rural tourism is underdeveloped (Butler, 1999). Inadequate tourism policy development and planning at the local government level resulted in tourism being developed and operated within the regional and national policy context (Choi, 2006:1282).

In order to achieve the goal of sustainable rural tourism development, the public sector needs to acknowledge the complexity of tourism policy development beyond the economic-centred concerns, as has been recognised in various studies (see Butler, 1999; Chang, 2011). The establishment of an institutional framework, which enables the policies and plans from different government sectors to be implemented in a collaborative approach, is required (Simpson, 2009). While there are few studies addressing the implementation of tourism policy in the real world context, Dodds' (2007) studies in Calvia, Spain, provide an insight into the implementation of and the barriers to sustainable tourism policy.

The study used surveys and interviews to obtain the public, private and NGO attitudes towards the effectiveness of sustainable tourism development policies. According to the results, the major obstacles included: 'a focus on short-term economic benefits rather than on long-term sustainable development and concern for social and environmental issues' (Dodds, 2007:319). In addition, Krutwaysho and Bramwell's (2010) study in tourism policy implementation in Ohyket, southern Thailand, provides a further insight into policy implementation with a specific consideration of the socio-cultural context.

The evaluation is based on key stakeholders' (from both government and tourist businesses) perceptions and beliefs. Three policies were investigated. Their findings confirmed the economic priority in policy implementation. This economic issue caused tension between groups with different interests, for example, violations of environmental regulations for pursuing business profits. The complex policy process was identified as another obstacle. The plans and projects required the approval from central government down to local government. This process is very slow and this results in perceptions that the effectiveness of policy implementation is sluggish and this was true of both the public and private sector interviewees (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010:683).

This suggests that a combination of integrated top-down and bottom-up perspectives on policy has the advantage of providing a fuller understanding in the evaluation of policy implementation. The reason is that, in practice, policy implementation involves specific and contingent interactions between actors, such as conflicts, negotiation and bargaining. Therefore, observing these can reflect the socio-economic, political, governance and cultural context in tourism policy implementations (Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010:689). In addition to policy and plans, the support from government is also considered influential in sustainable rural tourism development (Wilson, 2001; Briedenhann, 2007). Training and building the capacity of the local community and business is required, in order that local residents should have the right to determine how their area is developed.



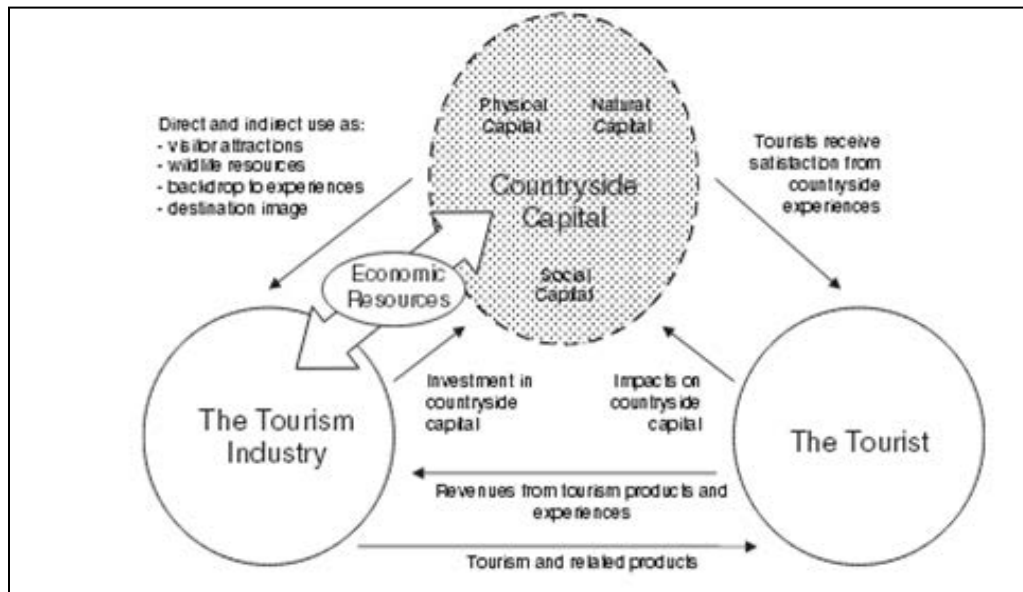
## 2.2.2 Place matters

Numerous studies stress the importance of ‘place’ to tourism development by emphasising the significant natural and socio-cultural resources inherent within areas (Inskeep, 1991; Saxena and Clark, 2007; Clark and Chabrel, 2007). The natural and human resources of a place are considered to be the foundation of tourism (McMinn, 1997). Their value to the promotion of tourism is noticed in the manner of the hospitality, friendliness and community atmosphere they create. These are seen as the nucleus of the tourism product (McMinn, 1997).

In the context of rural areas, Garrod, Wornell and Youell (2006), consider these resources as: ‘countryside capital, an asset of the rural tourism industry’. In simplified terms, this ‘capital’ refers to ‘the fabric of the countryside, its villages, and its market towns’(Garrod *et al.*, 2006:118). The interactions between countryside capital, the tourism industry and the tourists represent the context of rural tourism in an area.

A model suggested in Figure 2.3 shows a high inter-dependency between rural tourism and countryside capital through the use of resources and the impact of investment from tourism activities. This inter-dependency of tourism and countryside capital highlights the need to ensure the sustainability of these resources for further development. In order to achieve the goal of sustainable development, the balance between the environment and tourism development should be managed sensibly.

Butler (1999) emphasises the importance of identification and recognition of the characteristics of the particular place in the planning process, in order to arrange a suitable foundation for successful tourism development. For sustainable rural tourism development, the specific context of the locality, including the economic, environmental, social, and political components, must be involved (Butler, 1999). The recognition and allocation of local resources, as well as the concept of local control, are two critical issues in the notion of ‘place’ (Drumm, 1998).



**Figure 2.3: A Model of the interactions between rural and countryside capital**

Source: Adapted from Garrod, Wornell and Youell (2006:121)

By adopting local cultural resources, rural development can manifest itself through the local identity, which is produced by local community and territory (Ray, 1998). This cultural image and identity of a rural area integrates culture with the physical environment and preserves landscapes and retains local indigenous culture to form a sense of a place.

Using this image, rural areas have an advantage over urban areas when promoting tourism and other products related to the place, such as local food, handcrafts, historic sites, or traditional festivals (Ray, 1998). A case in point, Clark and Chabrel, (2007) consider local cuisine to play an important role in rural tourism because it can strongly link to the agrarian rural economy and represent it as a tangible product to appeal to the tourist experience. By this approach, local resources can be seen as part of the cultural economy, which localises economic control and contributes to direct benefits to the local communities.

### 2.2.3 Partnership, participation and collaboration

Partnership and collaboration are encouraged in tourism development, in addition to being in the spirit of sustainable development and a public right of people, in order to contribute a number of important benefits. The most frequently suggested benefits are the reduction of conflict, sharing information and resources for business use, as well as involving local voices in the tourism decision making process (Bramwell and Lane, 2011; Hall, 2008). Bramwell *et al.*, (2011) summarise some potential benefits of collaboration in tourism planning, which are illustrated in Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4: Potential benefits of collaboration and partnership in tourism planning**

- There may be involvement by a range of stakeholders, all of whom are affected by the multiple issues of tourism development and may be well placed to introduce change and improvement;
- Decision-making power and control may devolve change and improvement to the multiple stakeholders;
- The involvement of several stakeholders may increase the social acceptance of policies, so that implementation and enforcement may be easier to effect;
- More constructive and less adversarial attitudes might result as a consequence of working together;
- The parties who are directly affected by the issues may bring their knowledge, attitudes and other capacities to the policy-making process;
- A creative synergy may result for working together, perhaps leading to greater innovation and effectiveness;
- There may be greater recognition of the importance of non-economic issues and interests if they are included in the collaborative framework, and this may strengthen the range of tourism products available;
- There may be pooling of resources of stakeholders, which might lead to their more effective use;
- Non-tourism activities may be encouraged, leading to a broadening of the economic, employment and societal base of a given community or region.

Source: Adapted from Chang (2011:77)

As these potential benefits of participation in tourism have been gradually acknowledged by both the academic and public sectors, much research has examined the effectiveness of participation in tourism (Hunter and Green, 1995; Inskeep, 1991). However, recognising that the concept of participation originates in the developed world in democratic, social, economic and political contexts, the implications of this approach when there is less familiarity with practicing citizen's rights should be carefully adjusted to account for location-specific characteristics (Timothy, 2002; Tosun, 2000).

An empirical study by Ying and Zhou (2007:105) found out that there are two key concerns in community participation: 'lack of democratic awareness and insufficient abilities for rural residents to participate in planning; and that the crucial fact that 'making a living' is the main priority of people's concerns'. Rural residents would rather engage in activities which provide direct economic benefits than spend time in practicing their citizen's rights (Murphy, 2004). The idea of the close linkages between tourism and place was raised in many studies, as presented in the above discussion, with respect to the effect on the local community and the use of local resources.

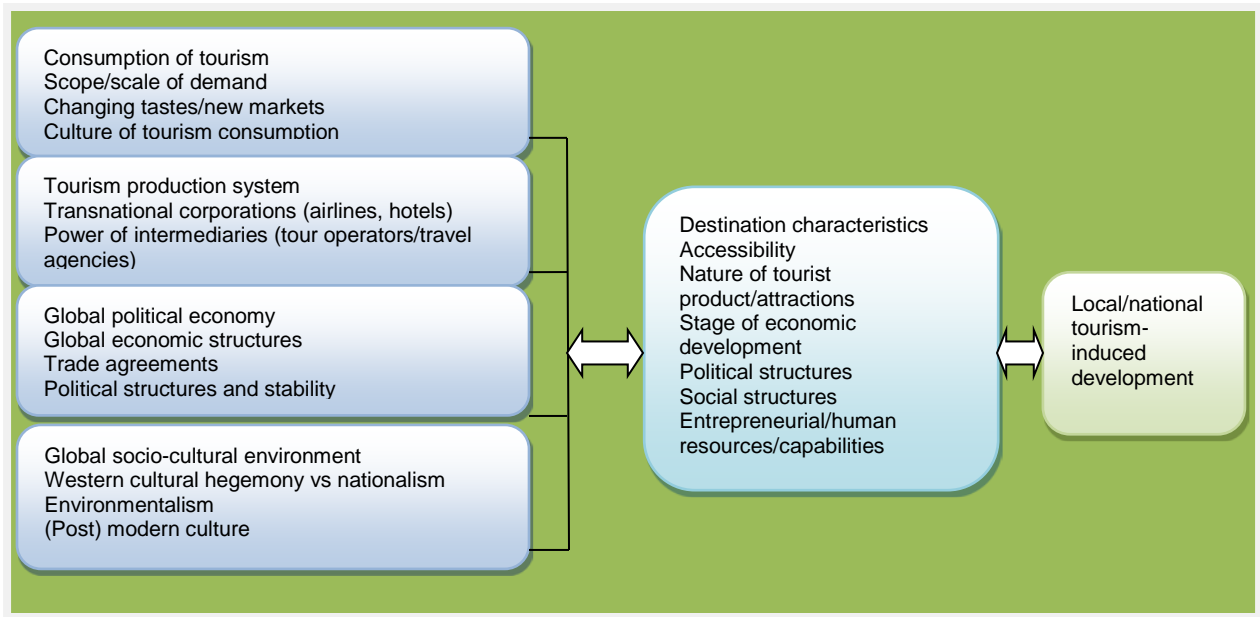
The seven characteristics that are identified as the key to successful promotion of Integrated Rural Tourism (IRT): 'an ethos of promoting multidimensional sustainability, the empowerment of local people, endogenous ownership and resource use, complementarities to other economic sectors and activities, an appropriate scale of development, networking among stakeholders, and embeddedness in local systems' (Cawley and Gillmor, 2007:319).

Emerging from these, two features are recommended by the authors as being crucial: diverse stakeholders and resources. In this respect, identification of stakeholders and resources, as well as stakeholder involvement, is essential for authorities in promoting sustainability in rural development. Cawley and Gillmor, (2007) further suggest that the changes of attitudes of stakeholders toward the utilisation of resources can be clearly reflected in the levels of sustainability in rural development due to tourism. Saxena, (2008), on the other hand, also stress the concept of networks, which encourages tourism stakeholders to jointly develop social, cultural, economic, and environmental resources.

## 2.3 TOURISM TRENDS WITHIN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

Tourism has emerged as a driver not only for economic progress but also for social development. The tourism sector has deep roots in national economies producing economic and employment benefits in related services, manufacturing and agriculture sector, thereby promoting economic diversification and strengthening developing country economies (UNCTAD, 2010). Even when strong linkages reduce economic leakage, structural leakage may still be significant in developing countries because a large share of international tourism expenditure never reach the national economy, but are rather retained by foreign airlines, tour operators, travel agencies and hotel chains (UNCTAD, 2010).

In developing countries, tourism has often been viewed as the pivot for small-scale enterprise and employment and therefore the uplifting of standards of living (Mill and Morrison, 1992; Murphy, 1985). A key area of debate has been the changing focus of tourism enterprises, from mass tourism to more specialised brands. The factors that influence tourism's potential development are summarised in Figure 2.4.



**Figure 2.4: Influences on tourism development**

Source: Adapted from Telfer and Sharpley, (2008:113)

There have been significant changes in the character of tourism over the past few decades. After the Second World War (1939-1945), with the rise of new modes of transportation, there was a marked increase in cheap ‘packaged’ mass tourism holidays (Opperman and Chon, 1997). From around 1980 tourism began to lose its mass, ‘packaged-tour’ character with markets becoming increasingly fragmented and diversified (Sharpley and Telfer, 2002).

Interest increased in alternative forms of travel in a ‘non-mass’ form (Gunn, 1994). Many of these trends have been directed to address economic gaps within society by providing opportunities for local community involvement and subsequent poverty alleviation. So, while mass tourism can account for the increasing number of international arrivals (WTO, 1994) other forms of tourism are clearly in evidence (Hall and Lew, 1988).

### **2.3.1 The diffusionist paradigm**

Diffusion is a process where economic growth spreads-out from one location to a number of others (Auty, 1995; Sarre, 1977; Rostow, 1990). Such spreading-out processes can be better implemented through development. Development is inevitable, *‘(it) occurs in development stages, and is diffused from the development core towards peripheral areas’* (Opperman and Chon, 1997:36). A pre-requisite of diffusion is the process of innovation, which does not have to be something new, but may exist in other areas, and can refer to tangible objects, like machines, or less tangible phenomena, like tourism (Sarre, 1997; Potter *et al.*, 1999). Diffusion in tourism has two sides.

Firstly, the demand side is concerned with how tourists are informed about the destination and decide to visit it. Usually the tourist products are not supplied directly to the public but intermediates control distribution. As a result, the second side is concerned with the ways that a destination develops the tourism industry. Supply side involves the institutions, for example, governmental or exogenous agencies that make decisions. Miossec (1977) further argued (see Figure 2.5) that diffusion happens in five phases (0, 1, 2, 3 and 4) from isolation with no development, to the creation of a pioneer resort together with the necessary transportation means for the accessibility of the resort, to a multiplication of resorts and further transportation links and finally to saturation through a distribution of resorts across the country.

Through these phases, changes in local attitudes occur that may lead to the complete acceptance of tourism, the adoption of planning controls or even the rejection of tourism (Pearce, 1989).

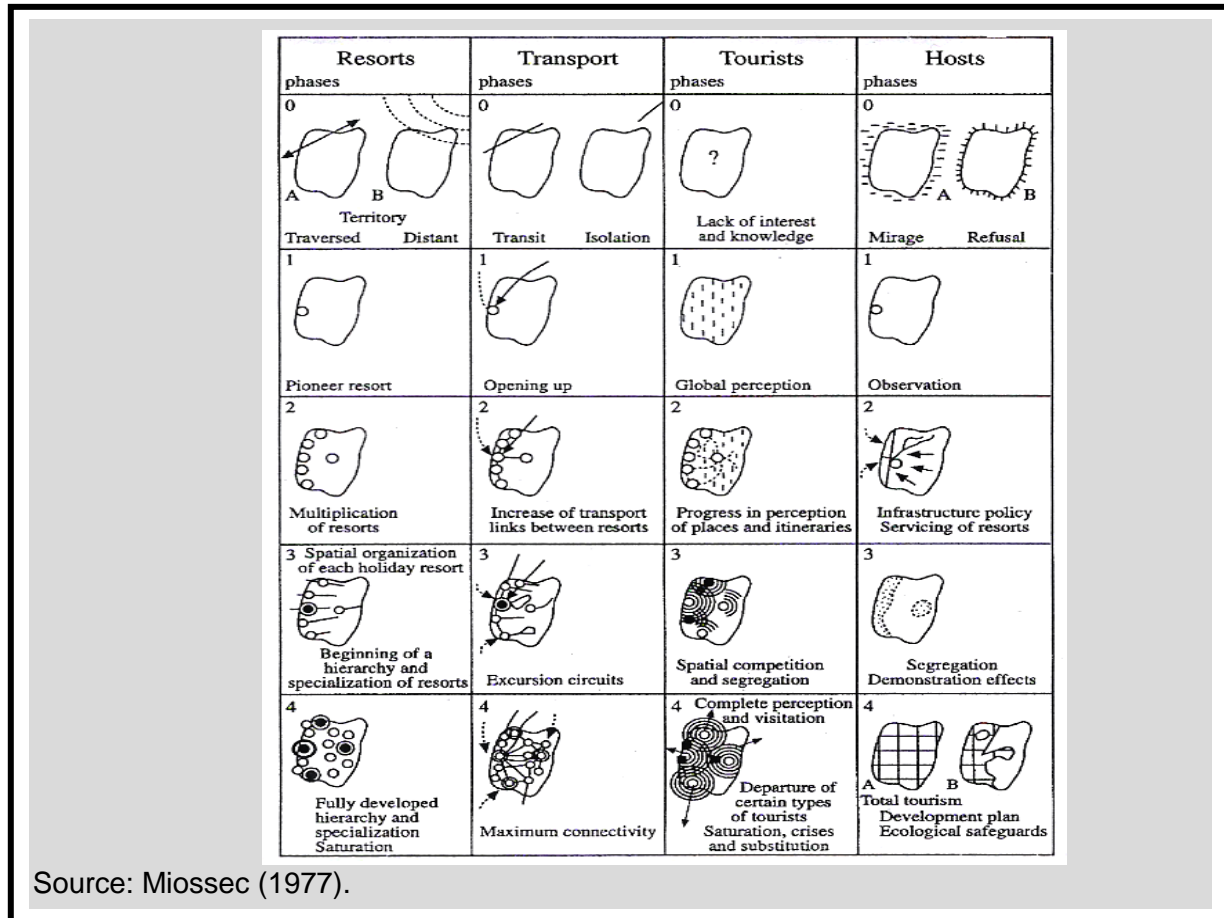


Figure 2.5: Tourism space dynamics

The process of diffusion from the development core to the periphery can be easily materialised through tourism, due to the increasing demand of modern tourists for new destinations. The expansion of the tourism industry implies greater likelihood of ‘trickle-down effects’ and the possibility of regional disparity adjustment. Tourism can result in a positive influence on tourist-receiving destinations, with benefits to individual welfare and collectively in terms of socio-economic development.

Since tourism expenditure results in linkages to other economic sectors, (for example, agriculture, handicrafts and building), and employment creation for locals, international tourism has been seen by governments of peripheral regions as an instrument for economic development, as emphasised by Christaller (1964, see also Potter *et al.*, 1999). Nevertheless, sometimes the results of the diffusion process are different. In some nations' diffusion, through tourism, has not led to significant economic development and improvement in individual welfare but has exacerbated regional inequalities, disparities between socio-economic classes and elitist entrenchment. In general terms, according to Brown (1998:229), 'within third world nations elitist entrenchment prevails and there are still enormous disparities between social and economic classes, as well as among regions, in their level of social welfare and economic development'.

As a result, diffusion does not immediately appear over the entire region. There are areas where diffusion occurs quickly, in others later, and in some never. In considering the reasons for this, Friedmann (1973:87) and Potter *et al.*, (1999:143) asserted that usually the core dominates the periphery in economic, political and innovative functions and therefore diffusion usually emerges first and is seen most in the core. At the same time, the periphery is not necessarily a homogenous entity, and therefore, parts of it may differ in their potential for development. Brown (1998:253) suggested that: 'periphery areas may be upward transitional because they are located in proximity to development impulses emanating from the core or because they are located between two core cities and thus constitute a development corridor'. Alternatively, there are periphery areas that are downward transitional because they are located far from the centres of economic activity. According to modernisation theory, developing societies pass through a series of development stages similar to those already experienced by many countries (Barnett, 1988; Harrison, 1988; Loeb and Paredes, 1991; Wall, 1997).

Development may be better achieved along Western lines and through movement from the 'traditional' agricultural society to a modern society (Clancy, 1999). Consequently, the diffusionist paradigm proposes that the only way to achieve development is through the elimination of the 'under-developed' characteristics and the acquisition of characteristics already adopted by the more-developed regions (Browett, 1980; Opperman and Chon, 1997).



However, Wall (1997:36) criticised the process of modernisation because: ‘it involves high levels of abstraction with limited discussion of the role of local involvement, that it suggests a unidirectional path which all must follow in order to develop, and that it smacks of western ethnocentrism as revealed in the First– and Third-World labels ascribed to parts of the globe. It has little to say about the importance of traditional values, and perhaps implies that the maintenance of tradition and modernisation may not be compatible goals.’

### **2.3.2 The dependency theory**

A reverse flow of selective migration from rural to urban areas causes greater regional inequalities. Successful growing areas attract more economic activity causing even greater disparity. This economic concentration in core areas is called backwash or polarisation (Klink, 1990). The core has a cumulative and growing advantage over the periphery. The gap between core and periphery depends on the relative rates of backwash and spread. For example, if backwash dominates there is an increasing gap; if spread dominates there is a decreasing gap.

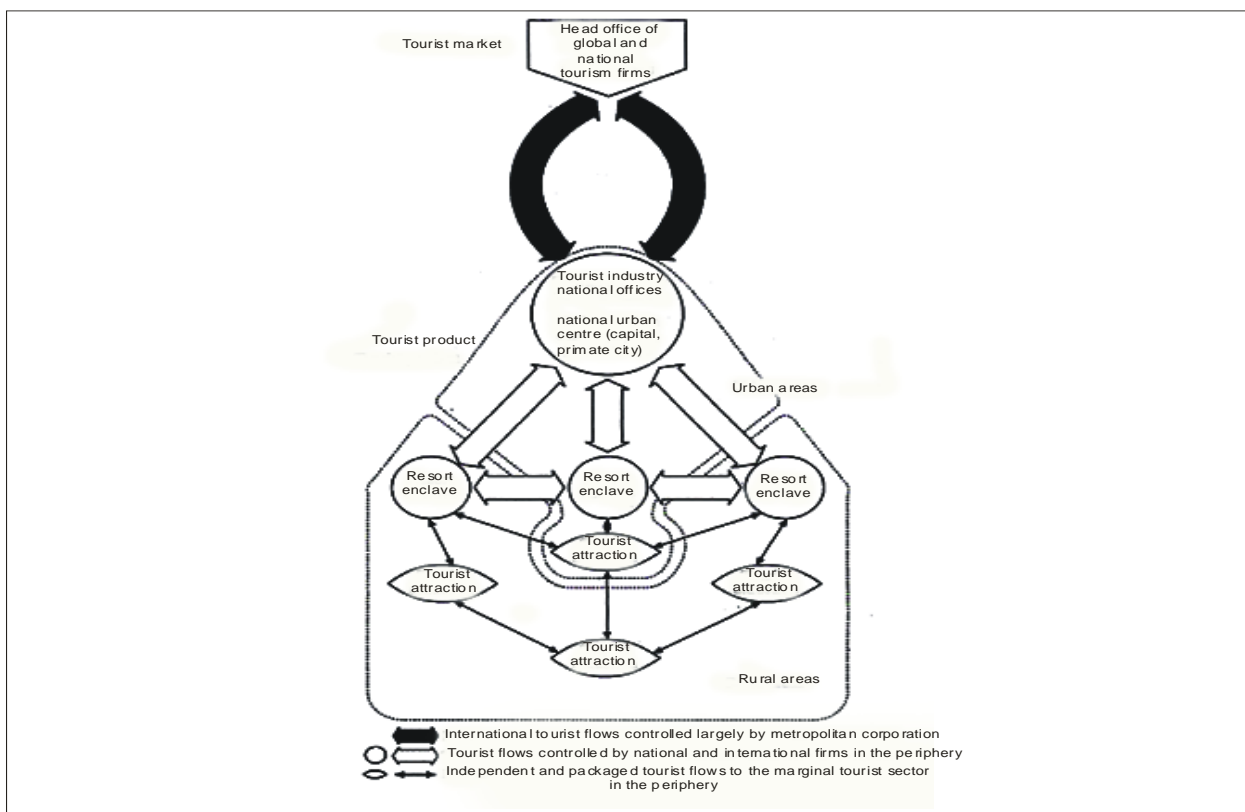
The diffusion of development from Western countries to under-developed peripheral regions brings changes in the form of modernisation of the economic structure through foreign investments and control, as well as reinforcement of élites as controllers of change. The dependency theory aims at ‘positioning itself on a scientific foundation and, at the time maintaining bridges with other platforms’ (Ahiakpor, 2009). Therefore, the diffusionist paradigm was criticised because it did not relate to those structural conditions which prevail in ‘contemporary under-developed regions’ (Browett, 1980; Opperman and Chon, 1997). As a result, according to several researchers (Britton, 1982; Erisman, 1983; Wilkinson, 1987), forms of ‘dependent development’ have emerged in many developing countries.

According to the notion of dependent development, while economic growth has occurred in some countries of the periphery, this has produced undesirable features that distinguish it from capitalist development in the core (Hunt, 1989; Potter *et al.*, 1999). The absence of sufficient capital, subsequent low investment and productivity, result in the periphery being trapped in a vicious circle of poverty (Myrdal, 1957; Potter *et al.*, 1999), with peripheral tourism controlled and exploited by ‘the industrial core regions’ (Keller, 1987; Potter *et al.*, 1999).

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As a result, tourism evolution in many developing countries matches patterns of neo-colonialism and economic dependency, through developing ‘tourism enclaves’, as described by Matthews (1977:21) and more recently Telfer and Sharpley, (2008). Britton (1982:331) illustrated this situation in his model of tourism in developing countries (Figure 2.6).

Tourism in developing countries is spatially concentrated and organised in the metropolitan economies, usually the capital city, where the ‘headquarters of metropolitan tourism corporations and associated non-tourism companies are located’ (Britton, 1982:183). Since metropolitan enterprises are actually located within the principle tourism markets they have direct contacts with tourists, dominate major facets of the industry such as technology, marketing product pricing and design, and therefore control the tourism flow chain (Britton, 1987; Wilkinson, 1987).



**Figure 2.6: Enclave model of tourism in developing countries**

Source: Adapted from Britton (1982:185).

In effect, the locus of control over the development process and local resources, shift from the people that are most affected by development, the host community, to the tourism-generating countries, with adverse effects on environment, society and economy (Hall and Page, 2000). Local people find themselves 'enmeshed in a globally intergraded system of resource use over which they cannot exercise control and become 'the targets of top-down decision-making by elitist bodies exogenous to the community' (Britton, 1982:355). The dependency paradigm in Britton's (1982) enclave model may be criticised for being directed towards only one segment of the tourism market, the package tour.

Consequently, it disregards the significance of individual and domestic tourists for the economy and welfare of a destination area. In addition, dependency theory neglects the importance of domestic institutions, particularly local and national governments and, consequently, those bodies influencing the industry's development process. It fails to formulate alternative prescriptions for tourism development in developing countries (Opperman and Chon, 1997) and ignores the fact that, in some cases, local firms within developing countries control major facets of their tourism industry, for example, accommodation establishments in Jamaica (Wilkinson, 1987) and the major airline of Fiji (Britton, 1982).

International tourism development often requires availability of infrastructure, financial and human capital as well as proximity to international airports. Companies located in the urban centres of developing countries are more likely to have the financial ability and political support to invest in the peripheral areas (Potter *et al.*, 1999). As a result, such companies control the industry of the periphery, reducing the economic benefits achievable in and by peripheral regions. This highlights the crucial role of communities and their ability to control tourism and also its associated benefits. Clearly, most communities currently do not dictate the terms or conditions on which tourism takes place in their home area. Yet, it is community members who must live with the direct consequences of tourism (Timothy, 2002). These consequences often include negative social and environmental impacts, even in situations where communities are benefiting economically from tourism. To ensure a strong likelihood of the economic, political, environmental and social benefits of tourism accruing to host communities, there needs to be full participation (Murphy, 1985; Reisinger and Turner, 2003; Rogerson, 2009).

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Full participation occur where communities supply the majority of goods and services to tourists, have considerable input into planning decisions and collectively manage common resources (Tosun, 2000; Timothy, 2002). The latter point is particularly relevant in situations where tourism is based on natural and cultural features. When tourism ventures are largely dependent on local cultural resources and are locally managed, communities participate with greater equity in the tourism process (Van Harssel, 1994).

Thus, access to information pertaining to the pros and cons of tourism and how it may impact on their lives is important for host communities, particularly in less developed countries where information flows are often poor. Some of the questions local communities may want to consider include the following:

- *what forms of tourism are desirable in our community?*
- *how can we ensure that the majority of benefits from tourism accrue locally?*
- *what measures need to be in place to ensure that tourism takes place in a controlled manner?*
- *how can we ensure that tourism does not undermine our culture, society or existing livelihood activities in this community?* (Singh, Theuns and Go, 1989; Sight, Timothy and Dowling, 2003; Hottola, 2009):

These questions refer to the idea of empowerment in community contexts. Empowerment is not an easily defined concept, yet it is a term that has been enthusiastically adopted by agencies with diverse social and political aims because it is both attractive and seen as politically correct (Scheyvens, 2002). Empowerment is 'a kind of action process that enhances awareness; strengthens capabilities, develop skills and achieve more participation, more equally and more influence (Richards and Hall, 2000). Empowerment should be a precursor to community involvement in tourism, as it is a means to determine and achieve socio-economic objectives. The local community need to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism they want to be developed in their respective communities and how the costs and benefits of tourism are to be shared among stakeholders (Singh *et al.*, 2003). It demonstrates multiple ways in which communities need to be empowered if they are to have at least some management control over tourism and secure maximum benefits from engaging in tourism initiatives (Singh *et al.*, 2003).

## 2.4 COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM

Community-based tourism (CBT) could be one way of creating a more sustainable rural tourism industry. As identified in the previous section, community participation is believed to be a key component in sustainable rural tourism development. It is also widely seen as 'public right' of citizens to make their own decisions on changes affecting their daily lives. Conservationist and development practitioners often incorporate community tourism into community conservation strategies that include integrated conservation and development projects alongside community-based natural resources management (Lapeyre, 2011; Dixey, 2008; Manyara and Jones, 2007; Blackstock, 2005).

Any community-based tourism initiative should at minimum have the support and participation of local people, as much of its economic benefit as possible should go to the people living at or near the destination and the act of tourism must protect local people's cultural identity and natural environment. It is suggested that community-based tourism is one way of delivering economic and social regeneration, while protecting local cultures against the rising tide of globalisation (Chang, 2011). The idea is that through better community involvement or direct community control in tourism planning and decision-making processes, the host communities are better able to cope with issues regarding the inequity in benefits distribution and the negative social impacts of tourism development on them (Murphy and Murphy, 2004).

The community-based perspective has also been adopted in eco-tourism, through the involvement of residents in several initiatives supported by organisations such as the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the World Bank (Kiss, 2004). Dixey (2008:324) further explains the community-based eco-tourism approach from a perspective of conservation theory and practice as 'a form of community-based natural resource management (CBNRM), a popular choice of activities in an enterprise-based strategy for biodiversity conservation and a common element in integrated conservation and development projects'. Through participating in community-based eco-tourism, the local community may be motivated to reduce harvesting which might damage the landscape and in turn help them earn money from eco-tourism, which is based on the preservation of ecosystem resources.

The term ‘community-based eco-tourism’ ‘illustrates the imperative for compromises between interest groups. From the perspective of effective land use and benefits to communities, it is a good approach but in terms of pure protection, it is less effective’ (Kiss (2003:241).

In Namibia, the role of community-based tourism has been highlighted in the national development policies. The tourism industry has been used as a medium for achieving economic and social goals at various levels (Saarinen, 2010; Lapeyre, 2011). The Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET) has initiated a community-based tourism policy, which explores ways that local communities can benefit from the tourism industry (NACSO, 2004). The policy has strong links to the Namibian community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programme and communal conservancy system (Suich, 2010; Long, 2004). The involvement of local people is expected to ensure that the benefits of tourism trickle down to the local level where tourist activities actually take place (Ashley, 2000).

Saarinen (2010) compared several communities in Namibia, in his research for the concept of local tourism awareness. The study notes that ‘it may not be necessary to involve the whole community in tourism management or ownership, as long as tourism development follows the principle of ‘transferring of benefits to a community regardless of location, instigation, size, and level of wealth, involvement, ownership or control’, (Saarinen, 2010:721). The concept suggested by Saarinen is broader than the interpretation of other forms of community-based tourism, in which four key stakeholders, government, private sector, non-governmental organisations and communities, were intended to be involved. However, as stated in other earlier studies, the community level benefits do not automatically follow the increasing numbers of tourists to local communities (Novelli and Gebhardt, 2007; Mbaiwa, 2008;).

## CHAPTER 3

### A SITUATIONAL ANALYSIS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL NAMIBIA

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#### 3.1 PUBLIC RESPONSIBILITY FOR TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Since independence in 1990, Namibia has managed to distinguish itself as a country with an enabling environment for development in general and for a community-based tourism enabling environment in particular. Key enablers include: peace and political stability, good governance, transport, developed information and communication technologies (ICTs) infrastructure, sound economic policies and community-based natural resource management (Jänis, 2009). Namibia also has good prospects for accelerating growth. Potential growth areas include: mining, fisheries, agriculture, tourism, services (for example, banking, transport and Information Communication and Technology (ITC), manufacturing and potentially oil and gas.

Despite an enabling environment and good growth prospects, the country has consistently had difficulties meeting its development goals and its performance targets. Poverty is endemic with close to 35 per cent of the population living on less than one US\$ per day, while nearly 56 per cent each live on less than two US\$ per day (Näher, 2006). Income inequalities are among the highest in the world, with a Gini coefficient of 0.70 (WEF, 2001). Namibia's low-middle income status alongside per capita income of US\$2,156 indicates severe inequalities (Marope, 2005). The national average unemployment rate is about 52 per cent. Unemployment is highest among the unskilled and youth (Novelli and Gebhardt, 2007). To better respond to these challenges, the government recently undertook to dramatically reform the national development strategy. The reform agenda is encapsulated in a long-term vision for national development – *Vision 2030*. A key aspiration of *Vision 2030* is to rapidly transform Namibia into a high-income and more equitable knowledge economy (Scholz, 2009).

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Broad goals of the reform are to: accelerate economic growth and social development, eradicate poverty and social inequality, reduce unemployment, especially youth unemployment, and curb the spread of HIV/AIDS. As a result, the Namibian government regarded tourism as a sector that makes a vital contribution to poverty alleviation. The National Poverty Strategy states that 'over the next decade, no other segment of the economy has as much potential to create jobs and generate income for Namibia's rural communities' than the tourism industry (National Planning Commission, 2008). This is because tourism has the potential to reach the most remote and rural locations for the development of its products and services.

Like many other developing countries, Namibia's tourism can be viewed from four perspectives (Cole: 630):

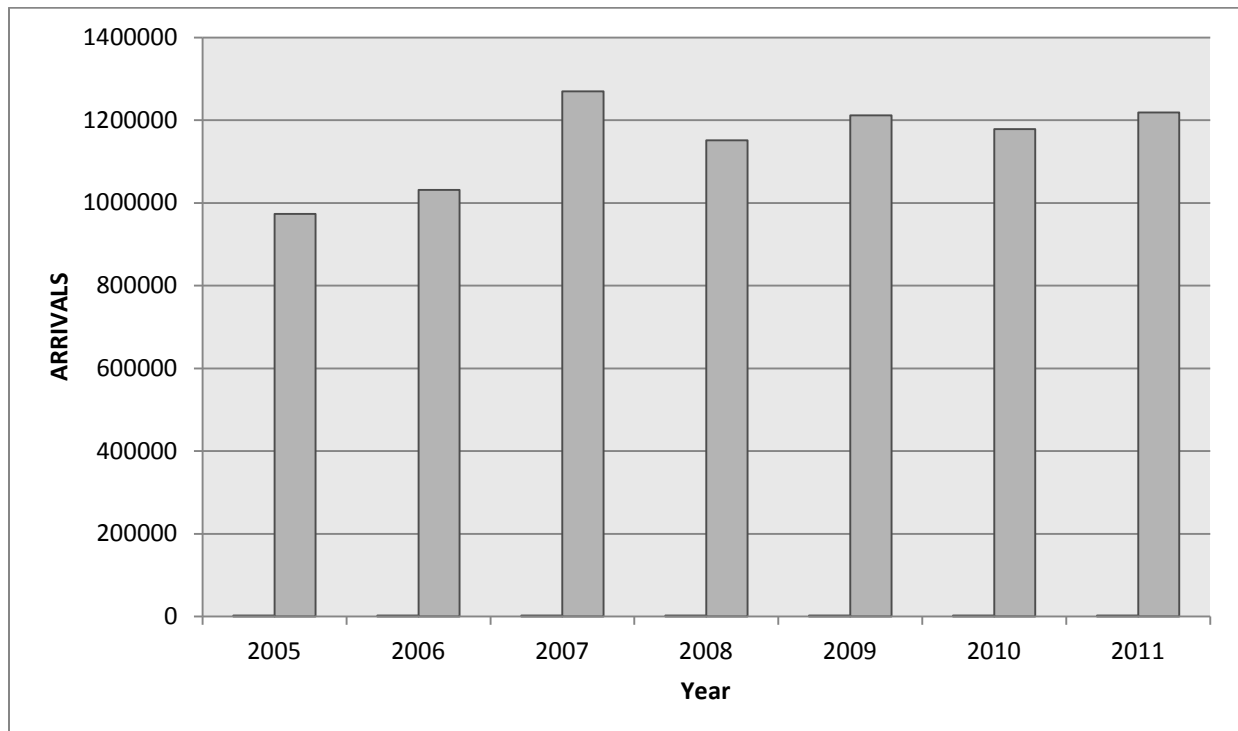
- economists generally see tourism as a route to macro-economic growth, and particularly a means of generating foreign exchange;
- for the private sector, tourism is a commercial activity, so the main concerns are product development, competitiveness and commercial returns;
- many conservationists now see tourism as a form of sustainable use of wild resources and as a way to enhance incentives for conservation;
- for rural people, and the development non-governmental organisations that support them, tourism is one component of rural development.

The interests of the Namibian government embrace all four perspectives above, with central ministries focusing on macro-economic objectives, the conservation and environment directorates on conservation incentives and the tourism directorate on the development of the industry in conjunction with the private sector. Ashley (2000:8) notes that, there has been growing interest in tourism's contribution to local development, which is now seen as a key element in each of the perspectives. Several non-governmental organisations (NGOs), working in conservation and development include tourism development in their work with communities (Dixey, 2008; see also Owen-Smith, 2010; Jones *et al.*, 2009).



### 3.2 AN OVERVIEW OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN NAMIBIA

After Independence in 1990 the Government of Namibia embarked upon a programme of economic development. It was realised that tourism could contribute significantly to the overall development of the country and in 1991 Cabinet declared tourism a priority sector (Jenkins, 2000). The main tourism products are wildlife and wilderness, dramatic scenery and lightly populated areas. Tourism enterprises are generally lodges, up-market safari-camps, campsites and the associated service enterprises. Tourism in communal areas, and particularly community involvement in tourism, was actively promoted during the 1990s, both by Government and NGOs (Ashley, 2000). In 2007, the tourism industry directly contributed 16.3 percent to GDP and 73,000 jobs representing 17.7 percent of total employment (World Travel and Tourism Council [WTTC], 2008). Despite the harsh economic conditions prevailing worldwide, the Namibian tourism industry in 2007 registered an impressive growth of 11 percent in the tourist arrival statistics (Figure 3.1).



**Figure 3.1: Number of tourist arrivals in Namibia**

Source: Adapted from NTB (2012:14).

Following the broad acceptance, by the international community, of tourism as a strategy for rural development in Namibia, especially its CBT component and its adoption by Government and NGOs, the profile of this approach has risen. Major donors have assisted in building community tourism, organization and programme development (Lapeyre, 2011). Within this highly supportive context, CBT projects have flourished in Namibia. In particular, three distinct forms of CBT were promoted and supported through donor funded programmes, namely:

- a) **community-based tourism enterprises (CBTEs)** owned and managed by the community as a group;
- b) **indigenous enterprises**, owned and managed by individuals coming from a rural community, and;
- c) **community-private sector joint ventures** where a rural community is commercially partnering with a private operator to own and run a tourism facility.

As a policy tool, CBT aims to ensure that members of the local communities hold a high degree of control over tourism activities and receive a significant portion of the benefits. In Namibia, the role of CBT has been highlighted in the national development policies and the tourism industry has been used as a medium for achieving economic and social goals at various levels (MET, 2007). As a case in point, legislative change in 1994 made it possible for communities in Namibia's rural communal areas to acquire limited common property rights to manage and use their wildlife resources (Barnes, 2008).

Thus, communities were enabled to register conservancies<sup>1</sup> through which they could take on rights and manage and use wildlife resources, with the assistance of NGOs and government. The primary motivation for CBNRM has been to give local landholders incentives to invest in their natural resources. With support from donors and government, communities in rural Namibia have established some 50 conservancies on large portions of communal lands. More details on Namibia's CBNRM are given by the Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organizations (NACSO, 2007) and Libanda *et al.*, (2007).

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<sup>1</sup>A conservancy is a territorial unit where resource management and utilization activities are undertaken by an organized group of people. To register as a conservancy the following criteria should be in place: *a defined membership; elected committee members; an agreed boundaries; a constitution including resource management strategy and a plan for equitable distribution of benefits.*

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This is in line with Telfer and Sharpley (2007) who believe that tourism should benefit the local residents of the places that tourists visit and are attracted to. Yet, in the regional policy context in southern Africa, tourism's role has also changed on the global scale; for example, it is linked to the goals of the United Nations Millennium Project (Saarinen, 2010). In this context, tourism could, and should, be used more as a tool for reducing poverty, ensuring environmental sustainability, developing a global partnership and empowering previously neglected communities and social groups. Community-based tourism has thus been given a central role (Scheyvens, 2002; Saarinen, 2010). While data exist on donor funding in conservation and rural development in communal lands in Namibia (Lapeyre, 2011; Novelli *et al.*, 2006), there are difficulties to specifically estimate funding in tourism projects *per se*. Figure 3.2 presents the major steps in the development of Namibia's CBT programme.

**1996:** Parliament passes the new conservancy legislation.

**1998:** The first communal area conservancy is gazetted on 16 February. Three more communal area conservancies are gazetted by mid-year. The national CBNRM coordinating body is launched to promote synergy and lesson sharing in the development and support of communal area conservancies. President San Nujoma officially launched the Namibian Communal Area Conservancy Programme in September. The innovative nature of the programme is recognized by WWF's 'Gift to The Earth' award.

**1999:** the second phase of LIFE Programme begins, to run for a further five years.

**2000:** the Namibia Association of CBNRM Support Organization (NACSO) is constituted in March. (The association was previously known as the CBNRM Association of Namibia).

**2004:** 31 communal area conservancies are registered, and more than 50 others are in the process of being formed. The national programme is supported by three major donors (LIFE Plus, the Integrated Community-Based Ecosystem Management (ICEMA) project funded by the Global Environment Facility and IRDNC activities in Kunene and Caprivi regions funded by WWF, UK).

**2007:** 50 communal area conservancies are registered and 20-30 are under development.

**2008:** the LIFE project ends in April, but the CBNRM programme continues with government and other donor support.

**2008/9 - 2011/12:** USA Government Millennium Challenge Corporation largely invested in CBT: an estimated US\$85 million.

**Figure 3.2: Major steps in the development of the Namibian CBT**

Source: Adapted from Jones *et al.*, (2009:145)

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The actual tourism policy has been under development since 1995. The first comprehensive draft was circulated for stakeholders in 2005 and the most recent draft was completed in 2007 (Jänis, 2009). Both drafts state that the policy aims to provide long-term National Development Plans 2001/2-2005/6 and 2007/8-2011/12. However, the earlier draft from 2005 is more explicit about how tourism can contribute to the development objectives, and therefore, any reference to 'tourism policy' in the following sections refers to the 2005 version (NTB, 2012).

Interestingly, the 2007 draft is more focused on tourism as a viable and competitive economic sector and has less emphasis on the role of tourism in national development priorities. By logical extension, it can be argued that, as the 2007 draft was prepared by an external consultant provided by the European Union (EU), it can be questioned whether this change in emphasis reflects the views of the Namibian Government or the consultant. Similarly, an interesting shift took place between the two drafts in terms of discussion of future tourism strategy. The 2005 draft highlights the importance of preparing a national tourism strategy and action plan to articulate the practical implementation of the policy (MET, 2007). However, the 2007 draft proposes a national tourism growth strategy that implies a clear emphasis on a growth-focused neo-liberal approach as adopted by the Namibian Government (Jauch, 2001; MET, 2007).

Furthermore, the 2005 draft discusses the challenges and opportunities of CBT as a means of distributing the benefits of tourism, whereas the 2007 draft omits CBT and mentions only the need for partnerships between the private sector and local communities in order to distribute the benefits (Jänis, 2009). In general tourism in Namibia, is considered to have major potential for employment and income generation in the country, and the role of community-based tourism and community-based natural resource management with tourism development elements in particular are highlighted by national policy (Saarinen, 2010). Yet, as generally acknowledged, tourism is a highly polarized activity with impacts on space and time not evenly distributed.

### 3.3 THE EVOLUTION OF COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM IN NAMIBIA

In the report commissioned by Overseas Development Institute (ODI), Ashley and Haysom (2008), observed that the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET)'s vision of Community-based Tourism (CBT) is in many ways different from what is found in the literature. MET is interested in a large scale, ambitious and implementable approach to rural tourism development. For this reason, CBT in Namibia has been conceptualized in its widest sense to mean, 'tourism that occurs at a local level and seeks to benefit local communities in its impact' (Ashley, 2000:16).

It is the intention of this study to frame the emerging Namibian CBT concept within the context of the rural tourism literature, test the readiness of a pilot community to embrace such policy and to inform the discussion of a comprehensive means for its implementation. The Namibian MET's concept of CBT needs to be further clarified in order to ensure successful and equitable development action. The definition arrived at above, is open to considerable interpretation. If it is implemented without specification, it would likely lead to the opposite of the goal for which it was intended, which was poverty reduction.

It has been shown in the literature that in its natural, unregulated state, the tourism industry will often resist community participation in decision making, as planners perceive this will increase costs and put pressure on profits (Blackstock, 2005). However, Blackstock (2005:42) observed that 'most communities are heterogeneous, stratified and struggle with internal power relations'. The true nature of communities is in stark contrast to the often romantic and appealing notion that communities are apt to create marketable tourism products presented in the typically positive literature surrounding CBT development (Manyara and Jones, 2007). Yet, ensuring community involvement and benefit is not an easy task. Four suggests four potential shortfalls of the concept of CBT are (Blackstock, 2005:40):

- a) communities are presented as homogenous blocks;*
- b) CBT often focuses more on the long-term success of tourism than resident empowerment;*
- c) external constraints are often ignored;*
- d) CBT garners resident approval through encouraging acceptance instead of asking for input*

These constraints can lead to a loss of control for communities in the face of large tourism companies and government agendas. Pigram (1990) suggests that tourism destinations are rarely created communally and that real power and decision making usually happens outside community control and influence. This is the difficult reality complicating the effective involvement of communities. When the concept of regional tourism is typically constructed through the imagination of an entrepreneur, firm, NGO, donor agency or government body, how can a community assume, sense, or claim ownership? This also raises another question. Do isolated rural communities have enough information to conceptualize a viable tourism product?

Rural tourism studies on both CBT and Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) suggest that in order to be successful, a local tourism initiative must seek to unlock opportunities for the poor at all levels and scales of operation. This may be accomplished through the development of awareness, unity and power in order to overcome considerable obstacles. These obstacles can be globalism, literacy, sector skills, capital, and government control (Manyara *et al.*, 2007:630; see also Binns and Nell, 2002; Mitchell *et al.*, 2001; Ashley and Jones, 2001).

Community-based tourism is defined as an activity which ‘through increased intensities or participation, can provide widespread economic and other benefits and decision-making power to communities’(Tribe, 2006:365). Theoretically, community participation in tourism ranges from manipulation and passive participation, to solely consultation and tokenism, and then to highest degrees of partnership and citizen control (Tosun, 2000; Lapeyre, 2011).

In addition, a several degrees of community involvement can be pooled together in a single CBT label: apart from a few local tourism jobs created by private projects and partnerships with the private sector, ‘CBT’ also encompasses indigenous individual enterprises as well as genuine community ownership and operation of the tourism activities (Lapeyre, 2011). In general, CBT aims to ensure that members of local communities have ownership of, or at least a high degree of control over, the tourism activities, practices and socio-cultural and natural resources that are used in tourism development (Scheyvens, 2007). Telfer *et al.*, (2007:640) state that CBT has two major goals.

First, it should respect local cultures, identities, traditions and heritage. Second, it should be socially sustainable, which means shared socio-economic benefits, participation in tourism operations and the local control of development. This control can be based on participatory planning, collaborative management, land and other resource leasing systems, (joint) ownership or their combinations (Jenkins, 2000). Reflection on Namibia's experience with CBT and the Torra Conservancy reveals an evolution of community-based tourism institutions covering 30 years. Local communities in rural Namibia have for long been deprived of any kind of property right to land and resources. Indeed, the colonial legacy of Namibia resulted in the persistence of a dual land tenure system. While white settlers acquired private ownership rights to land, African populations in communal lands were deprived of those rights to land and other resources (Massyn, 2007; Lapeyre, 2010).

Although rural communities inhabiting in communal lands had some usufruct rights, the South African government retained ultimate control over who used the land (Long, 2004). In particular, the colonial State kept full decision-making power over commercial and hunting rights in communal lands and captured most of revenue from photographic tourism and hunting activities. By contrast, in 1975, commercial farmers on private lands gained additional ownership rights over certain natural resources (game species) and thus could exclusively use available resources and fully benefit from both consumptive (hunting) and non-consumptive (photographic) tourism (see also Owen-Smith, 2010).

At independence in 1990, the new Namibian Government inherited a highly skewed land distribution (Massyn, 2007). During the same period, freehold (private ownership) lands comprised 44 percent of lands, protected areas 15 per cent and communal areas, where most of the people lived, comprised 41 percent of lands (Fuller *et al.*, 2006). Consequently, the majority of rural inhabitants stayed in a limited and overcrowded portion of arid land, natural resources were depleted, thereby threatening environmental sustainability. Currently the pattern of poverty in Namibia mirrors the unequal distribution of land. Furthermore, uneven allocation of land and resources commonly led to underdevelopment and poverty among rural communities (Ashley and Maxwell, 2001).

In this context, redistributing land through land reform and devolving rights over resources became the highest Government priority to redress past inequalities and to try to reconcile conservation and development. In tracing the history of land tenure in Namibia, this study reviewed two key pieces of legislations: the Nature Conservation Amendment Act of 1996 (GRN, 1996), which devolved certain resource rights to local communities organised in the form of communal conservancies, and the more recent Communal Land Reform Act of 2002 (GRN, 2002) which renovated the administration of land in communal areas. These reforms .have undoubtedly improved the general environment for tourism development in the communal areas by granting local residents valuable commercial rights and creating a framework for modernised land allocation (see also Massyn, 2007). Hence, the 1995 Policy on Wildlife Management, Utilization, and Tourism in Communal Areas clearly intended to 'amend the Nature Conservation Ordinance of 1975 so that the same principles that govern right to wildlife utilization on commercial land are extended to communal land' (Lapeyre, 2010:758).

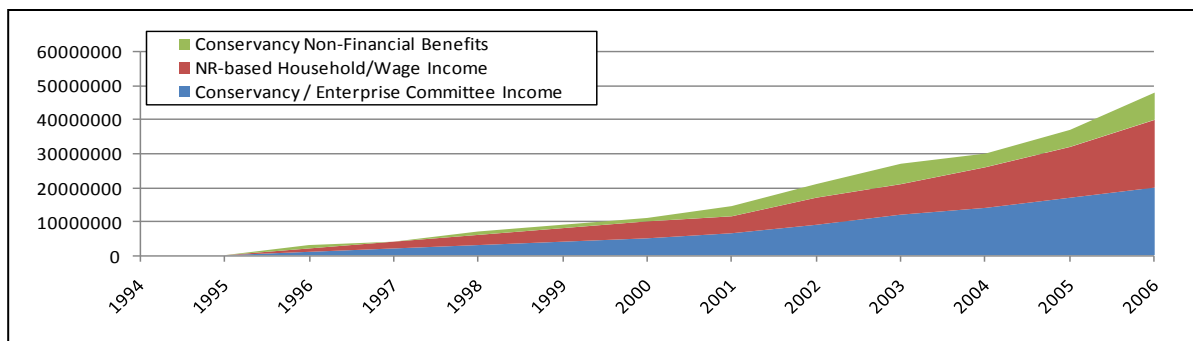
The policy stated that (1) the right to utilize and benefit from wildlife on communal land should be devolved to a rural community that forms a conservancy, (2) each conservancy should have the right to utilize wildlife within the boundaries of the conservancy to the benefit of the community, once quotas have been set, (3) the conservancy should be able to enter into a business arrangement with private companies, and (4) the conservancy would also have the right to establish tourism facilities (Jones, 2004).

On the basis of the general premises of CBT, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET, 2005) initiated the CBT policy, which aims to explore ways that local communities can benefit from the tourism industry (NACSO, 2007; Saarinen, 2010). The policy has strong links to the Namibian community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programme and communal conservancy system (CCS) (Long, 2004). The key issues in the Namibian CBT policy are related to the previously raised questions of participation and empowerment: 'how to integrate local communities in tourism planning and how to ensure a sufficient level of power and control in the decision-making process concerning the use of natural and cultural resources in tourism' (Lapeyre, 2011:307; MET, 2005b; Ashley, 2000). Clearly, the legal framework aims at involving rural communities in tourism at three levels.



First, communities must be involved in the design and planning of tourism on their lands. Second, communities must take part in the operation and management of tourism activities, either through community facilities or through commercial partnerships with the private sector. Finally, communities must capture benefits (revenues) from the operation of tourism activities on their land (Lapeyre, 2011).

On the basis of past experiences driven from CBT initiatives elsewhere, there is recognition that certain elements are critical to the success or failure of a CBT programme (Binns *et al.*, 2002). An outline of the critical elements of success for CBT shows that each initiative has its own unique set of factors, such that there are no blueprints or replicable models for programme analysis. While there is not much to be gained through testing ‘models’, the identified critical elements for success or failure can provide useful insights in assessing the potential or the effectiveness of CBT initiatives (Jones and Murphree, 2004) (Figure 3.3).



**Figure 3.3: Namibia CBT programme benefits 1994-2006**

Source: Adapted from LIFE (2007)

One of the objectives of the study is to assess the relative degree to which the local community has had control in the process of CBT programme formulation and implementation. The literature suggests that an incremental degree of political participation by the local community in the successive stages of a CBT initiative is essential in enhancing the potential for success of the initiative (For examples, see Tosun 2000, 2002). A prime factor in this regard is the extent to which a community actively participates in the definition of the CBT process at the initial stages.

However, scholars like Becker (2009:93) have asserted that active participation becomes possible when the local community has full control over the CBT initiative. The present study upholds the view by Saarinen *et al.*, (2009:63) that, because of the multiple jurisdictions in CBT, it is unrealistic to assume that any one level can alone exert control over natural resource management. Since CBT is a highly institutionalised process (Novelli *et al.*, 2008:64), communities require a considerable degree of claim-making power in order to maintain their stake in environmental governance and the benefit stream.

Such claim-making power is secured at governmental level through the implementation of CBT policy, supported by the strengthening of appropriate community authorities through legislation and appropriate institutional protocol. Saarinen (2010:716) also points out that local community need to achieve 'similar levels of understanding and knowledge' as other stakeholders in order to participate fully in the tourism development process. Recently, the importance of local tourism awareness has also been highlighted in tourism policy documents in southern Africa (Blackstock, 2005).

Two elements could explain the lack of significant economic impact from CBT in Namibia. First, rural communities and supporting NGOs have limited capacity in tourism project management. Second, CBT is only marginally integrated in the very competitive tourism value chain (Lapeyre, 2011). Communities are new entrants in the tourism sector with little or no previous experience (Kiss, 2004; Simpson, 2009). As a result, most communities have limited knowledge about the tourism sector and limited skills in tourism management and operation (Tosun, 2000). Despite valuable training efforts by the Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association (NACOBTA), communities in Namibia still have poor awareness about, and knowledge of, the tourism market.

In this context, while necessary and highly laudable, NGOs' support to CBT fails to efficiently resolve such issues as the limited capacity within a single particular community. Indeed, most NGOs and donors involved in the development of CBT in Namibia are specialized and focused on biodiversity conservation and rural development programmes rather than on tourism as a business, management and marketing. This eventually leads Simpson (2008:187) to note that development agencies and NGOs lack industry knowledge and are 'notoriously ill-equipped to deal with product quality requirements and the promotion of tourism initiatives'.

In Namibia, the NACOBTA and other implementing field NGOs staffed with community-focused workers with little or no knowledge of the international and Namibian Tourism sector, have limited capacity and lack an appropriate business orientation and the financial skills needed in tourism (Hirsch, 1978). As a result, some projects have been developed in remote and marginal areas out of tourism routes and now reveal themselves as unsustainable and dependent on external funding (Rapley, 2002).

Tourism regulators and developers in Namibia are beginning to recognize the potential for rural tourism development and are seeking information about what the path to success might look like. It is important now to help coordinate a comprehensive vision of what type of rural tourism development approach holds the most potential to both involve and benefit local communities. This type of approach will assist and empower local communities in 'pulling themselves up by their bootstraps' through tourism, as Binns and Nell (2005:235) observed in South Africa.

Since the early history of the national parks, tourism has played an important and contributed to the establishment of these nature conservation areas. The idea of the establishment of the first national park in the world, the Yellowstone, was to preserve the scenic beauty and protect the natural wonders, so that these could be enjoyed by people. The exclusion of outsiders and their harmful activities was also considered as an essential for the protection of heritage (Veeck *et al.*, 2006).

Following the North American model, many national parks were established in developing countries mainly to protect large mammals because these animals were valued by the tourists from the industrialised countries. National Parks are very important for the development of tourism industry to the developing countries. Tourism was expected to create employment opportunities and income for the local people, but it is highly questionable whether these benefits really occurred.

### **3.4 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT THROUGH COMMUNITY-BASED NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (CBNRM)**

Looking from the ‘development first’ viewpoint, the future of community-based tourism (CBT) becomes a particularly relevant topic in southern Africa. Towards the end of the 1990s, conclusions and decisions were made in regards to the continuation of CBT enterprises. The idealistic, and perhaps to some degree unrealistic, expectations of CBT in Namibian tourism policies are well described by Saarinen and Niskala (2009).

According to the MET (2005), tourism is increasingly used as a mechanism for the achievement of many societal and economic goals in Namibia. In general, tourism is considered to have major potential for employment and income generation and the role of community-based natural resource management with tourism development is highlighted in government policies (MET, 2005, 2007; Lapeyre, 2010; Saarinen *et al.*, 2009).

The reforms providing for the creation of community conservancies in Namibia were motivated by a combination of contextual factors. These include: the conservation gains witnessed on private ranges in the 1970s and 1980s following the transfer of authority over wildlife to private landowners; the promise of community-based programmes initiated in the early 1980s in northwest Namibia by a local conservation organisation (Owen-Smith, 2010); and emerging lessons from Zimbabwe’s Communal Areas Management Programmes For Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) programme (Jones *et al.*, 2004). In 1996, Namibia amended its wildlife laws to provide for the creation of community conservancies (MET, 2005). Community conservancies grant communities broad usufruct rights over common game species and conditional rights over rarer species.

Since 1998, over fifty four conservancies have been established, with about 17 percent of Namibia’s total land area now falling under their jurisdiction (NASCO, 2007). It is true that the rights granted to communities are conditional and fall short of full ownership of wildlife – for example, the determination of hunting quotas is still largely the responsibility of central government officials (Ngoitiko, Sinandei, Meitaya and Nelson, 2010). But the extent of devolution is relatively robust (Jones, 2004; Long, 2004).

For example, community conservancies are administered by locally elected management committees, retain 100 percent of the revenue earned from tourism joint ventures and tourist hunting concessions and determine their own investment partners. Although wildlife user rights are revocable, they are not term-limited (Binns and Nel, 2002; Figgis and Bushell, 2007).

Namibia’s conservancy programme is regarded as one of the most innovative and effective community conservation and development initiatives in the world (Lapeyre, 2011). This programme, which had its beginning in the early 1980s, has evolved through a number of phases, growing from an embryonic community game guard project in northwest Namibia into a full blown, national rights- based communal conservancy movement, covering more than 20 percent of Namibia’s surface (Figure 3.4).

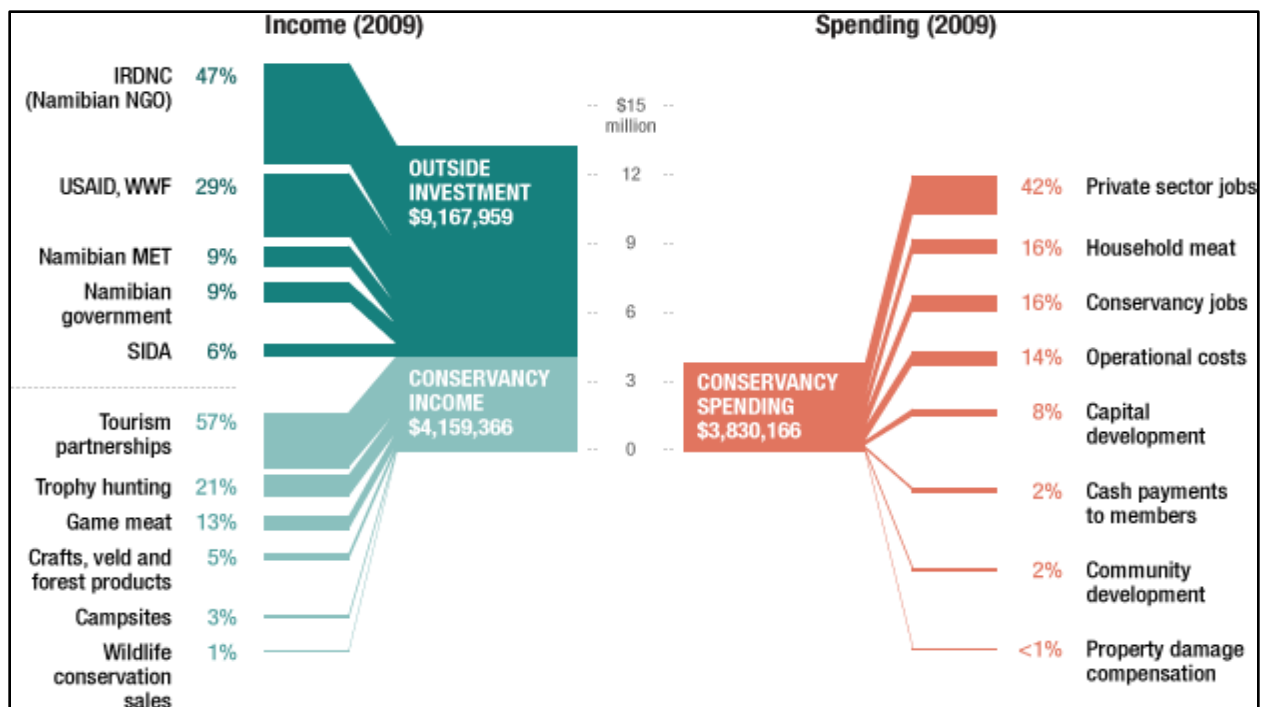


Figure 3.4: Conservancy income and expenditure

Source: NACSO (2010:12)

The four key elements of the conceptual foundation of the CBNRM programme are sustainable use as a conservation paradigm, economic instrumentalism, devolutionist and collective proprietorship (Jones and Murphree, 2004).

These derive from the idea that the main threat to wild habitats and natural resources in Africa is not overuse but the conversion of land for agriculture and livestock (Hall, 2008). Biodiversity conservation therefore depends on the provision of effective incentives for landholders to adopt sustainable land uses (for example, uses that do not lead to environmental degradation and loss of biodiversity).

In the design of the Namibian initiative, lessons were drawn from the experience of the CAMPFIRE programme in Zimbabwe: the importance of economic incentives, the necessity that authority should be devolved to the lowest possible unit of management and that all income generated should go directly to communities instead of being shared with various levels of government (Jones and Weaver, 2009). Experience in Zimbabwe showed that where rural communities received income directly related to the use and management of wildlife and perceived that the benefits of wildlife exceeded the costs; they were conserving their wildlife and its habitat (Novelli *et al.*, 2007).

Finally, while it is easy to track the income being generated at the conservancy level, it is more difficult to measure the impact this is having at household level, partly because Namibian conservancies, in contrast to communities involved in CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe, have rarely opted for cash pay-outs (or 'dividends') to residents. Namibian conservancies have generally opted for job creation and 'social projects' such as adding a classroom to a school, soup kitchens for the elderly and so on (Jones and Weaver, 2009). In such circumstances it is necessary to look for other indicators of impact, such as the overall satisfaction of residents with the conservancy.

### **3.4.1 Community participation in tourism**

According to Steiner and Rihoy (2005) the underlying hypothesis of the Southern African CBNRM programmes is that 'for a community to manage its resource base sustainably it must receive direct benefits arising from its use. The benefits must exceed the perceived costs of managing the resource and must be secure over time' (Novelli *et al.*, 2007; Stronza, 2007; Telfer and Sharpley, 2008). Fabricius and Koch (2004:94) further highlighted that the underlying philosophy behind the programme was the sustainable use of natural resources.

This could both enhance conservation efforts and provide economic benefits to local communities, with tourism becoming ‘a new land use in communal areas’ (Murphy, 1985) and contributing to poverty reduction. Furthermore, the importance of tourism is clearly acknowledged by the Namibian government in the National Development Plan (NDP) and in the National Poverty Reduction Action Programme (NPRAP) 2001-2005 (National Planning Commission, 2005), with Action 26 of the latter assigning MET the role of assisting rural and disadvantaged communities to setup CBT projects, such as business and joint-ventures, to facilitate training and enable capacity building. Furthermore, on the basis of the general premises of CBT, the Namibian MET (2005) has initiated the CBT policy, which aims to explore ways that local communities can benefit from the tourism industry (NACSO, 2007: Saarinen *et al.*, 2009). The policy has strong links to the Namibian community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programme and communal conservancy system (Long, 2004).

Community participation in tourism can take a number of different forms in terms of types of enterprises (for example, accommodation, tour guiding, consumptive and non-consumptive safaris, craft, etc), level of involvement (possibly from mere employment to ownership or joint-venture operation with private investors) and nature of participation (individual – for example, small bed and breakfast or collective – for example community guiding at heritage sites) (Murphy, 1985). Between 1992 and 1998 many so-called community-based tourism enterprises (CBTEs) were started in the north-west and north-east regions, predominantly in places that were already visited by more adventurous travellers.

These enterprises largely consisted of basic campsites where nominal fees were supposed to create some benefits for the larger community (Ashley *et al.*, 2005). In 1998, the Namibia Community-Based Tourism Association (NACOBTA), an NGO which at the time represented 42 existing and planned CBTEs, commissioned a survey which highlighted that the tourism product offered by the majority of CBTEs was of poor quality and poorly maintained. Also, community members were unreliable workers and did not respect the privacy of tourists (Wide Awake Leisure Management, 1999).

### **3.5 IMPACTS OF COMMUNITY-BASED TOURISM IN LOCAL DEVELOPMENT**

#### **3.5.1 Economic impact of tourism**

The positive effects of tourism expenditure have encouraged many developing countries to actively promote this invisible component of the balance of payments (Long, 2004; Wahab and Pigram, 1997). In addition to tourism's potential effect on the balance of payments, the major argument for supporting tourism is its favourable impact on employment generation (Ashley *et al.*, 2005; Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Large-scale unemployment in many countries and the acknowledgement of the tourism industry as a labour-intensive industry, 'in an age of great technological advancement and declining relative demand for labour' (Brown, 1998:8), have led governments and policy makers to assess the role of tourism as an employment generator in a new light (Butler, 1999; Hall and Page, 2000).

Another aspect of tourism employment highlights a relationship between family ownership and the scale of the enterprise. The smaller the size of the establishment, the more likely it is to be family-run and vice versa. As Kontogeorgopoulos (1998:337) found in Samui, Thailand, small and medium sized accommodation establishments usually have higher numbers of family owners, management and employees, and since most of them are locally-based, they call upon a higher proportion of local labour compared to the larger establishments. Very often, the tourism industry has been criticised for creating labour shortages because of a tendency to concentrate tourist facilities in certain places (de Kadt, 1979; Haralambopoulos and Pizam, 1996). Indeed, tourism can generate employment for migrants/immigrants and expatriate labour (Tsartas, 1989; Cukie-Snow and Wall, 1993), working for lower wages than locals (Lever, 1987; Lazaridis and Wickens, 1999).

Moreover, it is evident that in developing countries, foreigners or non-locals usually hold managerial jobs. Tourism jobs have also been criticised for being largely seasonal, part-time, low paid and low-status or a combination of all four (Diammond, 1977; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Goodall, 1987; Johnson and Thomas, 1990; Pigram, 1990; Cukier and Wall, 1995; Sinclair, 1998).



However, on the other hand, tourism has been characterised in many regions and countries by a single main season and a period of the year when hotels and other facilities remain closed or operate at reduced potential (Ball, 1988). This seasonal nature of tourism creates fluctuations in the levels of local and regional employment (Tsartas, 1989), meaning that workers involved in tourism usually have to find other employment or even remain unemployed during the off-season (Baron, 1975; Spartidis, 1976; Hawkes, 1986).

### 3.5.2 Leakages/Linkages

During the initial stage of tourism development, tourism offers the opportunity for the use of locally produced building materials and equipment in the construction of tourist facilities and the manufacturing of furnishings. Later, tourist demand has the potential to stimulate and strengthen local agriculture and fishing and those sectors associated with them (Cox, and Bowen, 1995; Telfer and Wall, 1996), as well as supporting other sectors, such as retailing, manufacturing, wholesaling, transport, handicrafts and services.

Nevertheless, when a country has to import many of the commodities needed to meet tourists' consumption, locally-earned income flows to producers outside the region to purchase these imports (Cox *et al.*, 1995; Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). This leakage depends on the ability of the destination economy to supply the goods and services that the tourist industry demands (Archer and Cooper, 1998; Gould, 1994). Jenkins (1994:74) remarks that the growing volume of leakages out of the tourism sector often reflects the state of under-development of a particular country or island and its inability to take advantage of inter-sectoral linkages to provide the inputs necessary to the tourism sector.

This is evident in Third World countries including Namibia that have to import many goods and services in order to meet tourist demand, meaning that financial returns from tourist expenditure are limited (Rajjote, 1987; Kontogeorgopoulos, 1998). Apart from the size of the economy, leakage is also affected by the structure of ownership and control in the tourism industry. There is evidence to suggest that the larger the hotel the larger the propensity to import, primarily because larger hotels are more likely to be foreign-owned and because they can find cheaper products from other regions/countries.

Moreover, in countries where migrant workers do not permanently reside in the area, a proportion of wages and salaries fail to generate further economic activity. Money tends to leak out to the system, as migrant workers usually remit large percentages of their income abroad (Archer and Fletcher, 1996; Komilis, 1994). Leakages also occur when foreign companies repatriate their profits, when governments exempt customs duties or taxes on foreign-owned companies as investment incentives and when governments spend foreign exchange abroad for services, such as publicity, promotion, and personnel training. In addition, in cases where home-produced goods are more expensive than imported ones, the leakages are higher, as it would be uneconomical for a buyer to give preference to locally produced goods (Archer *et al.*, 1996). Additionally, there are cases where the native population starts to demand foreign goods and services as a result of contact with and observation of tourists (Firat, 1989; Gould, 1994).

### 3.5.3 Environmental impacts of tourism

In previous decades, developers and governments often neglected the importance of environmental issues. More recently they have realised that tourism and the environment are inseparable and attempts are therefore made to ensure environmental preservation (Archer *et al.*, 1998). However, with the expansion of tourism, the threats to environmental resources have become more serious. Modern tourists are becoming more discerning, seeking a high-quality physical and cultural environment and are willing to pay a premium price (Romeril, 1985a; Inskeep, 1987; Hunter and Green, 1995).

Tourism can be an important means to encourage and help to pay for conservation of the man-made environment. Historic sites, monuments and buildings can be major tourist attractions and tourism itself frequently stimulates their protection, conservation, and renovation for the benefit of the local community and beyond (Buhalis *et al.*, 1995; Hunter *et al.*, 1995). Many existing attractions would never have survived without tourists' contributions through admissions fees. Many buildings and sites have been completely renovated and transformed into new tourist facilities.

Similarly, the natural environment has benefited from tourism in a variety of ways. Money generated by tourism can contribute to cleaning up the environment through the control of air, water, litter and other environmental aesthetics. Tourists attracted by natural resources pay for the development and operation of national parks and the conservation of natural areas. Many countries, for example, Kenya, Tanzania and Rwanda, have established huge national parks for the conservation of wildlife (Davidson and Maitland, 1997; Lindberg, 1989; Russel, Martin and Ferrance, 1996).

Entry fees and levies by national parks, museums, zoos and archaeological sites are received by governments, to cover the expenses of their preservation. Many researchers have acknowledged the positive impacts of tourism on the man-made environment. Travis (1982); Kendal and Var (1984); Holder (1988); Papadopoulos (1988) and Archer *et al.*, (1998) report the following positive impacts which enhance residents' living: more and better leisure, recreational opportunities, shopping and health facilities, greater recognition of the importance of saving historical buildings, improved communication systems and transportation.

Despite the negative impacts of tourism development on the environment, it is claimed the damage caused by tourists and tourism development is not as harmful as the import of industrial development (WTO, 1993). For instance, Archer (1998) confirmed that water contamination is caused not only by the discharge of inadequately treated sewage but also by industrial waste, sedimentation from agricultural erosion and contamination from fertilisers and pesticides. Similarly, Mathieson *et al.*, (1982:459); Berno (1999:659) pointed out that tourism does not involve the movement of large quantities of raw materials and manufactured goods, or the transformation of one into the other, but involves only the movement of people and consequently it pollutes the environment less than most other industries.

#### **3.5.4 Social impacts of tourism**

Nowadays, governments have realised that by opening their countries to tourists they are offering not only natural and man-made features of the environment, in exchange for income and employment, but also the culture and hospitality of their people.

When international tourism is of any significance in a country, it becomes an agent of change that brings irreversible consequences for social structure, values and traditions (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996; Murphy, 1985; Jenkins, 1994). As a consequence, the majority of social impact studies concentrated on the host-guest relationship (Gould, 1994). Kinnaird and Hall (1994:137) remarked: 'many of the social and economic processes are a result of the movement of large numbers of people from one place to another, carrying with them different sets of motivations, preconceptions and desires to 'find something new'.

Host/guest relations involve at least some exchange of social and economic values. The extent to which these exchanges take place and their degree of symmetry depends on the nature and context of interaction between host and guest'. Pearce Moscardo and Ross, (1996:93) identified a great diversity of actors involved in host-guest relations. De Kadt (1979:50) and Gould (1994:55) paid attention to the encounters between residents and tourists that occur:

- where the tourist is purchasing goods or services from the host;
- where the tourist and host find themselves side by side, for example, on a sandy beach or at a night-club performance; and
- where the two parties come face to face with the object of exchanging information and ideas.

Few authors highlight the positive aspects of tourist-host interactions. Mings (1998:35); Var and Ap (1998:47) present tourism as an important mechanism for improved international understanding between host and tourists. For example, residents of Marmaris, Turkey, argue that meeting tourists from all over the world are a valuable educational experience and that tourists contribute toward international peace and understanding (Var *et al.*, 1998). Kaiser and Helber (1978:115) and Mings (1998:38) argue that tourism can contribute to the development of understanding between people, as well as raising living standards better than any other economic force. In addition, tourism helps to build a sense of national identity (Boissevain, 1996), through incidents where tourists endeavour to adopt local ways of life or learn something of the native language which can lead to greater mutual respect between tourist and host community because of differences in languages, religious values, behavioural patterns and customs (WTO, 1993).

Many studies have stated that tourism is a vehicle for injecting enthusiasm and an economic boost into cultural activities, such as dances, music and theatre and supports the preservation and sometimes revitalisation of handicrafts, native art, folklore, local fairs and festivals (Brownrigg and Greig, 1976; Adam *et al.*, 2001; Long, 2004; Gould, 1994). For example, in Malta, tourism has revived dying indigenous art and crafts, such as lace making and filigree (Boissevain, 1996). On the other hand, the literature expresses the view that tourism is responsible for cultural pollution with many tourists concerned more about the exotic rather than the authentic.

For many tourists, the lack of authenticity of cultural events does not matter. Consequently host communities, in order to provide the maximum possible variety in entertainment, remodel their cultural activities (Prasad, 1987). Tourist demand for insights into local culture may be unimportant for some residents as long as tourists are paying. For example, in Torremolinos in Spain the old authentic culture has been overtaken by British-style pubs and fish and chip shops (Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996).

Where there are a large number of tourists, human relations become commercialised (Andronicos, 1979; Adam *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, tourism is blamed for the erosion of hospitality and friendliness of the locals, as reported in Vietnam by Wall (1997:38). Overcrowding by tourists irritates residents and makes them resentful of tourism. In Malta, tourists in search of authentic cultures, cross 'thresholds and boundaries' and occasionally penetrate private domestic places causing disturbance to the locals (Boissevain, 1996).

As tourism grows, the supply of services and goods is not sufficient to meet the increased demand and very often a disparity exists between the spending power of tourists and the host population (Pearce, 1989). Consequently, the cost of land, goods and services increases in tourist areas and residents may have to pay higher prices. Mass tourism is a force which 'destroys uncomprehendingly and unintentionally' not only cultural values but also social customs (Turner and Ash, 1975; Gould, 1994). Tourists' ostentatious consumption and behaviour patterns lead to local residents, particularly younger people, adopting aspects of tourist behaviour and lifestyles; the so-called 'demonstration effect' (McElroy and de Albuquerque, 1986; Peppelenbosch and Temelman, 1989; Lockhart, 1997).

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Greenwood (1978:107) notes that young Basques have come to adopt a style of life similar to that of the middle-class tourists they have seen. However, Davidson and Maitland (1997:45) claim that it is notoriously difficult to disentangle the demonstration effect of tourism from other forces of change, such as advertising and mass media. Additional negative impacts of tourism on society include crime (Prideaux, 1995; Lankford, 1996; Pizam *et al.*, 1996); drunkenness (Singh, Timothy and Dowling, 2003), narcotics (Sarre, 1977); sexual immorality (Wickens, 1997); prostitution (Singh *et al.*, 1989; Hall, 1995; Muroi and Sasaki, 1997) and gambling (Perdue, Long and Kang, 1995).

## CHAPTER 4

### JUSTIFICATION OF DATA AND METHOD APPLICATION

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#### 4.1 JUSTIFICATION OF DATA APPLICATION

This study utilised thematic interviews to understand and deepen the views expressed in the survey results. This kind of approach is often evident in the case study context where sources of evidence may come from documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and physical artefact (Yin, 2004). In-depth and semi-structured interviews were used to explore the experiences of participants and the meanings they attribute to these experiences. This method creates an enabling approach to address descriptive or explanatory questions with an aim to produce a first-hand understanding of people and events (Cooper and Schlinder, 2003). Through understanding the perceptions of key stakeholders, the interaction between them, such as negotiations, cooperation, conflicts or other activities, are able to be reflected within the socio-cultural context of the place (see Krutwaysho and Bramwell, 2010). These methods were used in order to contribute to the ultimate goal of reorienting future development practice in similar context and to unravel the complexities experienced by rural communities in tourism development.

#### 4.2 JUSTIFICATION OF METHOD APPLICATION

The basis of rural tourism lies in its importance in the lives of local stakeholders and their capacity to manage it. A dynamic and multidimensional approach is therefore necessary in order to produce the kind of baseline contextual data needed to begin a realistic and appropriate conversation about the feasibility of CBT development in Namibia. As the essence of the research design, the methodology chosen is an instrument employed to obtain and analyse relevant data (Thomas, 2006).

Once a research topic is chosen and stated, the next step is to review related studies in order to identify relationships among the variables. Thus, this presents a need to translate the topic into one or more clearly defined, specific questions or problems that are amenable to research. The approach taken in this research design is qualitative in nature (even though some quantitative techniques such as bar graphs and charts were applied during the data analysis phases). The idea behind making use of a qualitative research method was to get in-depth perspectives (through face-to-face interviews) from the specific participants in order to establish their meanings, actions and context and to accurately represent the perceptions of the participants. The study supports Neuman's assessment that 'qualitative researchers use a language of cases and context, examine social processes and cases in their social context, and look for interpretation or creation of meaning in specific settings' (2003:146).

Yet, it was noted that a weakness in a single data-collection method can be avoided by adopting a second method, which is strong in the area where the first method may be weak (Decrop, 1999). Thus, triangulation was used in this instance to refer to multi-method approach in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods are combined to provide more complete set of findings. Given this strength, this study employs this technique to crosscheck the credibility of the data, to enrich understanding and to achieve objectivity, reliability and validity in both techniques (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).

In the social science discipline, qualitative methods are broadly used and are widely gaining great acceptance (Decrop, 1999). Evidence also indicates that in travel and tourism research, anthropologist and sociologists have been turning to qualitative approaches (Decrop, 1999; Esterberg, 2000; Ritchie *et al.*, 2005). However, this is not the case for researchers from economy, geography, psychology or marketing (Punch, 1998). Decrop (1999:158) notes that 'the majority of tourism marketing research has relied on structured surveys and quantification'. The subordinate and exploratory nature of qualitative research is explicitly recognized: qualitative techniques are used to provide information for developing further quantitative research. Decrop (1999) further observed that qualitative methods are often used elsewhere as a forerunner to quantitative techniques.



Thus, by logical extension, it can be argued that ‘triangulation’ can increase the dependability and credibility of a study. Triangulation means ‘looking at the same phenomenon from more than one source of data’ (Decrop, 1999). Information from different angles can be used to corroborate, elaborate or illuminate the research problem. Thus, it limits personal and methodological biases and enhances a study’s generalizability.

Methods can also be triangulated combining both quantitative and qualitative techniques; for examples, interviews, a survey and observation. However, despite these obvious advantages, triangulation can also pose problems. For example, it might be challenging to combine these different sources and types of data and to compare qualitative and quantitative data. Ryan (1995) for example, queries the applicability of the triangulation approach in social research by stating that the approach is reliance on a false sense of scientificness and exactness.

Given this weakness, McKercher (2000:144) suggests that the term multi-method would be better still, allowing the researcher to claim ‘new insights beyond the respective walls of individual methodological or data approaches. In this study, triangulation or multi-method approach has been used in the data collection process.

Two major points underscore the development of the research methodology: the integration of participation methods and a sequential refining of the research focus (Stake, 2006). The assumption that local communities knew little of tourism products required a commitment to an understanding of residents’ perceptions of their own ‘community tourism destiny. In reference to the qualitative research approach by Clark and Chabrel (2007) that sought to gain an understanding of the experiences and ways in which integrated rural tourism (IRT) operates in practice, such methodology has been adapted, in the present study, to fit the limitations of an embryonic rural tourism industry in Namibia.

#### 4.3 SAMPLING DESIGN AND SAMPLE SIZE

In order to achieve representativeness, the first stage in sampling is to identify the relevant population which includes all relevant units and to assemble it in such a way as to be representative of the population from which it is taken. In order to achieve this, extensive background research was conducted to identify all pertinent members of the actor groups. Respondents comprise of individual Torra Conservancy members and individual businesses operating in the tourism industry in the study area were selected. Cooper *et al.*, (2001) further state various reasons for sampling as being greater speed of data collection, lower cost, and greater accuracy of results and availability of population elements (see Table 4.1).

A sample of 574 was selected for the quantitative part of the study. A combination of systematic and stratified random sampling approaches was used for sample selection. This was essential in order to obtain true representativeness and to allow for comparisons to be made. Moreover, to obtain information on the process of tourism development in the study area, it was essential to speak to community members directly involved in contributing to the planning and development of tourism. It was determined that the snowball technique was the most appropriate sampling technique to be adopted. Snowball sampling is the most appropriate for members of a population who are difficult to locate (Babbie, and Mouton, 2001).

According to NACSO (2010), the 2010 CBNRM Conservancy Report revealed that the population of the area in which Torra Conservancy is located has approximately 1200 inhabitants. However, notwithstanding, this study observes that the actual population size could well be far higher, since there is considerable difficulty attached to contacting population counts in informal settlements (see Ramchander, 2004). The population of Torra Conservancy members is estimated at between 450 people. However, there is no official figure available for the number of people living in and around the main tourism hubs. With assistance of a statistician, this study decided to approximate a 0.1% sampling minimum for the study area as a whole.

#### **4.4 DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES**

Given that the research was conducted by means of a case-study approach, it was possible to use interviews and questionnaires to maximise the richness of the discussions and data collection. In order to gather information on community's perceptions of tourism impacts on livelihoods 547 households' surveys (consisting the qualitative component of the study) together with personal interviews and participant observation (consisting the qualitative component of the study) were carried out in the study area over a two months period.

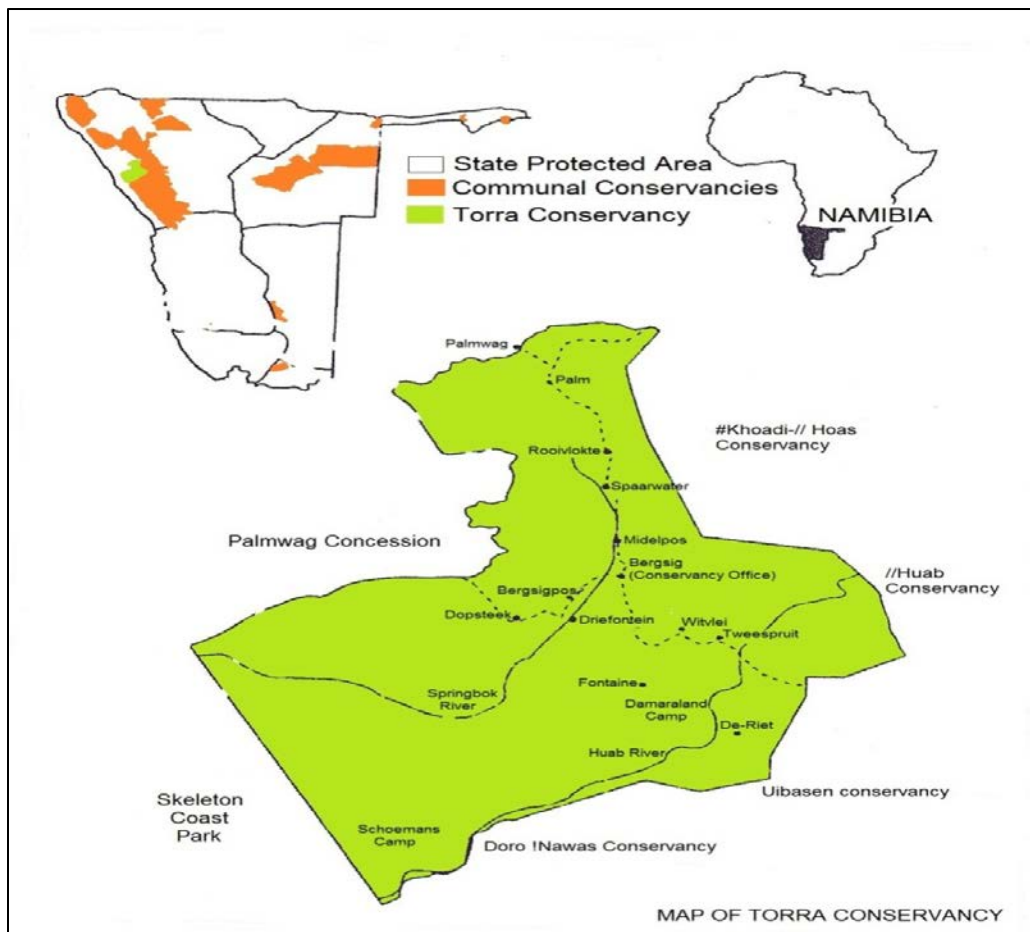
Five fieldworkers were trained by the researcher on approaching the respondents to elicit their participation and monitoring the completion of questionnaires. The researcher assumed a supervisory role in monitoring the fieldworkers occasionally. Questionnaires were distributed to each of the selected households. The structured personal interviews were conducted by the researcher.

##### **4.4.1 Site selection process**

Choosing an appropriate study region to implement the research methodology was an important consideration. Stake (2006:451) and Yin, (2003:5) point out that the selection of a case should not only provide some typicality but a 'learning toward those cases that seem to offer opportunity to learn'. As the research intention of this study is to clearly examine the role of tourism in rural development, the case selected for the research should represent rurality and have potential for tourism development.

As a pilot conservancy, the location needed to have the necessary resources and environment to host a successful CBT programme. Preliminary research indicated that of the priority areas currently in the MET's tourism plan, Torra Conservancy was the most likely candidate for research. This was due to the rich natural, cultural, and historical resources of the area, its strategic location and the lack of current large-scale commercial tourism. Aside from employment in conservation or ecotourism, the principle livelihood activities include small and large stock farming (cattle, goats and sheep), small-scale vegetable gardens, wage labour and some absentee wage earners.

The conservancy is premised on conserving an impressive wildlife assemblage endemic to the spectacular and remote arid wild-lands of the Kunene region. The wildlife includes elephant, black rhino, springbok, mountain zebra, giraffe, oryx, kudu, black-faced impala, lion, cheetah, leopard and other endemic species. The Torra conservancy was chosen because of its relatively long history as a rural tourism destination and where features of integration are present, which further allowed for examining the attitudes and behaviours shaped by direct experiences rather than by anticipation (Lauren *et al.*, 2009). The Conservancy in north-western Namibia was gazetted in 1998. The conservancy has received numerous international recognitions for its successful approach to community based conservation (Hoole and Berkes, 2010).



**Figure 4.1: Map of Torra Conservancy**

Source: Adapted from NACSO (2010:42)

Torra Conservancy encompasses 352,200 hectares of semi-desert and sparse savannah, with annual rainfall of less than 100mm/year. The population of approximately 1200 people of multiple origins is dispersed in small pastoral villages around the area (NACSO, 2010). The Damara-Nama groups have lived in the region for many years but were historically resettled from other parts of Namibia. The Riemvasmaakers' tribe were relocated here from South Africa during the 1970s (Lendelvo, Munyebvu and Suich, 2012). There are also a small number of Ovaherero and Owambo residents. About 450 people are members of the Conservancy which indicates that a clear majority of adult population is involved with the conservancy (NACSO, 2010).

However, there is no other statistical information from the site than the overall population. In its initial stages, the Conservancy was given logistical, financial and technical support by a local non-governmental organisation. In 2000, however, it became the first conservancy to take over its own running costs, including salaries, vehicle maintenance and office management (Lauren and Kull, 2009). The Ministry of Environment and Tourism – in conjunction with local non-governmental organisations and using local labour – undertakes wildlife surveys, but the Conservancy makes decisions on hunting quotas. Torra has a well-developed management plan and has eliminated commercial poaching. It is undoubtedly a 'flagship conservancy' (Long, 2004; Baker, 2009; Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisation [NACSO], 2010).

The conservancy has become a national role model for others since being gazetted in June 1998. The key source of income that complements these livestock-based livelihoods is a tourism joint-venture partnership with a private tour operator, Wilderness Safaris (Mosimane, 2000; Hooler and Berker, 2010). The aforementioned tourism joint venture agreement stipulates rights and duties of both parties (Torra Conservancy and Wilderness Safaris). The conservancy is contractually compelled to control tourism activities, as well to exclude other tour operators and private individuals from operating tourism facilities within the exclusive area. On the other hand, the private company is bound to pay lease fees, maintain and improve the lodge infrastructure and similarly abide by both an environmental and an empowerment plan.

The empowerment plan includes binding commitments on staff recruitment, training and procurement of local goods and services from conservancy members. In order to enforce such contractual obligations and monitor the relationship, a Joint Management Committee (JMC) was established, consisting of three representatives of each partner. The chosen case study site (Torra Conservancy) had fulfilled two main criteria such as: community-based and/or high level community participation in tourism activities; established for conservation purpose in accordance with the CBNRM policy. Applying the criteria listed above, this study chose to work with the Torra Conservancy as it also offered the greatest potential for the study, as tourism destination on both medium and sustainable scale.

#### 4.4.2 Data characteristics and data collection protocol

Due the fact that previous research concerning the development of tourism in the study area was extremely limited, thus the best approach for the present study was to ask the selected respondents directly about changes engendered by the development of tourism. Data about socio-economic and cultural impacts of tourism were collected during two field research phases in 2010 and 2011. General background data about tourism development and planning, institutional arrangements and conservancy history were also collected in early April, 2009. 149 household surveys was received from adult family members considered as a community resident (defined as 'any household member 18 years or older that lived in the Torra Conservancy for a least six months or more) and from 41 travel industry that had operated tourism activities in the rural areas of Namibia for at least two years or more (Table 4.1).

**Table 4.1: Units approached and response received**

Type	Units Approached	Response Received	Response Rate
Tourism business operating in communal conservancy localities	124	41	33%
Individual Torra conservancy members	450	149	33%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>574</b>	<b>190</b>	<b>33%</b>

This concerned tourism history and awareness, community unity, extent and sharing of decision-making power, tourism planning and development and satisfaction levels.

The surveys were developed based on samples from the Clark and Chabrel (2007) study for each of the two actor groups and were administered to the representative samples outlined earlier. Each survey included a certain amount of questions to profile the respondents.

Most of the questions in the survey were closed-ended. In this way, as Cawley and Gillmor, (2007) noted, the measurement of tourism integration can be negotiated among diverse stakeholders and unique localities. The surveys were based on example surveys from the Clark *et al.*, (2007) study and were tested on a representative local sample group and adjusted to local conditions before they were applied in the study area. Survey content was based on the seven dimensions of tourism integration outlined by Clark and Chabrel, (2007), which are defined in the literature section of this study.

#### **4.4.3 Description of instruments**

The afore-mentioned dimensions of tourism were not used in the actual questions as local actors would likely not understand some of the terminologies used in this study. The concepts were built into the questions in plain terms. Each question was assigned to one of the seven dimensions and was organised into a theoretical typology that could later be systematically followed by the researcher.

The researcher could then standardize and categorize the different dimensions of tourism integration across actor groups, to determine the strengths and limitations of a multi-dimensional tourism development area. The goal was to establish the status of the general issues expressed in the literature through the perception of tourism development in the study area. Interview data were major elements shaping the survey instrument.

In order to have responses that were easily quantifiable, the questionnaires used a Likert Scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). To develop the questionnaires, the research questions from the literature review were used. Such questions were then expanded to cover other relevant issues as per the topic under investigation. In particular, issues related to tourism planning and development were based largely on earlier work by Andriotis (2000); Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, (2007); Scanlon *et al.*, (2009).

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The following issues were considered before developing the questionnaires, as proposed by Oppenheim (1992:101):

- *instruments of data collection* (for example, interviews, postal questionnaires, observation);
- *method of approach to respondents* (for example, length, duration and purpose of the research);
- *build-up of question sequences* (for example, scales involved in the questions);
- *order of questions* (for example, sequence based on logical flow process);
- *type of questions* (for example, closed, open).

Two different questionnaires were designed, one for each survey, in a way to make them easy for respondents to understand. The two questionnaires included some identical or similar questions, worded appropriately for their respective concerns, in order to compare and examine differences and similarities in attitudes between the groups. Copies of the two questionnaires are attached in Appendix A and B. An analysis of the content of each questionnaire follows:

The local community's questionnaire consisted of five sections:

*Section A:* Biographical Information, related to length of residence, employment information, and influence of tourism on respondents' family;

*Section B:* Social Impacts, related to whether tourism will encourage an increase in socio-cultural pride for the inhabitants along the tourist routes;

*Section C:* Physical/Environmental Impacts, related to whether the development of tourism has generally improved the environmental appearance of the area;

*Section D:* Cultural Impacts, this section consisted of five attitudinal questions based on statements to which respondents were asked to respond using a five-point Likert scale of options; from strongly agree to strongly disagree; and

*Section E:* Socio-Economic Impacts, focused on the actual economic benefit of tourism at the local level.



The travel industry questionnaire consisted of three sections:

*Section A:* Personal information, related to length of operation, number of enterprises in Namibia;

*Section B:* information on enterprise, such as business profile, ownership characteristics, economic performance, extent of dependency on tourism, employment structure;

*Section C:* General attitudes; this last section included statements dealing with the impacts of tourism and development options.

Other questions dealt with the satisfaction of respondents with the actions of the public sector for the development of tourism, their desire for further development and the future strategies and measures for promotion and development that needed to be undertaken by the public sector.

For analysis purpose, the respondents were asked to rank their responses to the questions according to the Likert scale format. Coding in quantitative analysis may differ from qualitative coding in that the raw data is turned into numerical representations to allow statistical analysis to be conducted on the aggregated data (Veal, 2011). These responses were then turned into a series of numbers for capture and for further statistical analysis. The data was checked and cleaned by examining the coded data for any incorrectly assigned codes and correcting any errors by reviewing the original data.

#### **4.4.4 Pilot test process**

In an attempt to validate the data collection techniques, to check comprehensibility and whether the answers received would provide the information sought, a pilot survey took place in March 2008. Pilot test is conducted to detect weakness in design and implementation (Cooper *et al.*, 2003). This should draw subjects from the target population and simulate the procedures and protocols that have been designated for data collection. The pilot test procedure used to pre-test the two questionnaires which were used in non-probability sampling process applications.

A total of 10 people participated in the pre-testing process. This process ensured the clarity of the questions from interviewer side and measure required time to complete the questionnaire in addition assist the degree of information collected accuracy. Respondents were asked not only to answer the questions but also to highlight issues that were not understandable or questions that they considered necessary but had not been included in the questionnaire.

After the pilot survey, several amendments were made, including altering question wording, shortening the length of the questionnaire by omitting some questions, changing questions and altering the order of questions to provide a more logical flow. The final visit to the study area was in September 2010. The main purpose of this short final visit was to secure feedback on the interpretations and to clarify issues which had emerged when analysing the previously collected data. This helped to improve data validity and the credibility of the research outcomes.

#### **4.4.5 Primary data sources**

Following preliminary fieldtrips in October 2009, the first phase was undertaken in March and April 2010 both in Windhoek and in Bergsig respectively. The data that was collected in this phase were largely descriptive and explored the definitions of community based natural resource management (CBNRM) community based tourism (CBT) and rural development. Based on an interview schedule, participants were guided through themes relevant to the study. Open-ended questions were asked and the respondents were given ample freedom to elaborate as much as possible on their experiences and perspectives. This was to gather in-depth information about the process of tourism development on the Torra Conservancy area. The interviews established a deep understanding of how tourism is perceived and developed in the rural setting and its current effects on the lives of local communities.

The key informative participants for this phase were those considered to be 'influential, prominent, and/or well-informed individuals in an organisation or community and they were selected for interviews on the basis of their expertise in areas relevant to the study. The main aim of the interviews was to accumulate rich qualitative data concerning respondent's experiences and opinions on specific topics. The interviewees were requested to read and sign an interview consent form.

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Thereafter, the interviews were held on face-to-face and were recorded on a digital voice recorder. After a basic explanation of the topic, a set of questions were followed in the manner of a guided conversation.

The respondents were informed of the University of Pretoria's Research Ethics' Requirements. The questions in this phase assisted the researcher to promote discussion with the participants as well as elaborate on specific topics (Cooper *et al.*, 2003). Qualitative questions were asked in a particular way and had to be grounded in a qualitative argument.

The content revolved around the following themes:

- the effects of tourism development on rural development;
- the tourism development models (For example, Community-based Tourism and Ecotourism); and
- the critical elements that attract potential investors to rural and remote destinations.

In utilising purposive sampling for the qualitative component of the research, the researcher decides when enough participants or units have been sampled. This occurs when there is redundancy with regard to data. It should be noted that in the Torra Conservancy, as there is such a small population, many local people take on second jobs, sit on committees and have involved in several different organisations. Thus, some respondents could be classed as representatives of a Travel Industry and as Torra Conservancy members. In this study this was achieved after conducting 65 personal interviews. The appointments for the interviews were arranged via the telephone. A follow up request and detailed information on the research was e-mailed if required. On average, each interview lasted between 30 to 45 minutes.

Question development was guided by existing literature and the study's research questions and objectives and was designed to capture responses about general background information on the conservancy, the different stages of tourism development process, the role of tourism in the village and the future of tourism in the areas. Probes were built into the interview guide to ensure in-depth responses were captured in case participants did not expand on their responses. The impacts of tourism at the case study site were identified.

Secondary data on tourism policy, planning, rural development and community-based natural resource management were also gathered. The findings from this stage created a better understanding of the subject matter and the local situation which informed the contextualisation of the quantitative surveys undertaken in the second phase of the research.

Repeat visits to the study area were made during the second phase in March and April 2011. Interviews with both the Travel Industry and the Torra Conservancy representatives were held in April and May 2010. All the interviews were conducted on a face-to-face interviewing approach. The value of face-to-face interviewing lies in the depth of information and the detail that can be obtained, which far exceeds the information secured from telephone interviews (Cooper *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore, this provided an opportunity to form an overall picture of tourism development in the study area. However, interviews are one-way of participation technique, without any opportunity for community groups to debate with others. To overcome this drawback, Yuksel, Bramwell and Yuksel (1999:352), suggest that interview findings can be used as a basis for interactive negotiations between community groups in workshops or meetings.

Other limitation include that interviews are more expensive and time-consuming (compare for example, to postal or paper-based surveys), and often there is difficulty of obtaining cooperation from potential interviewers. Besides this, Yuksel *et al.*, (1999:357) report that because interview techniques does not involve direct dialogue (for example, business sector with decision-making) some community group members may consider that their opinions may be ignored by decision-makers.

However, because of the interviews' paramount advantages compared to other research methods, and the fact that most surveys of tourist enterprises and residents undertaken in Namibia (see Long, 2004; Saarinen, 2010) have used personal interviews as the only data collection technique to achieve acceptable response rates, they were preferred to collect the required information. Methods can be triangulated combining both quantitative and qualitative techniques; for example, interviews, as survey and observation (Veal, 2011). Based on the findings of the preliminary research, a follow-up-stage of the research was more quantitative and was based on tourism's impact survey (socio-economic and environmental).

Moreover, direct observation method is adopted in the present study to obtain relevant information about the case study site, by letting the researcher immerse himself to gain an understanding of the site in terms of its socio-economic background and the geographical characteristics. The direct observation method can also contribute to the interpretation in later analysis. Participant-observation often entails the researcher becoming resident in a community for several months and observing the normal daily lives of its members (Ritchie and Spencer, 1994). These techniques aid in understanding relatively complex situations and to capture data from individuals who could not normally express their views, such as women and youth (especially in the case of rural settings where the African culture of male-dominated decision-making process still prevails).

The ways in which the participant-observation technique was applied were as follows:

- attending the Annual General Meeting (AGM) and other community planning meetings;
- general discussion with women and youth about their activities and attitudes towards tourism; and
- taking part in local festivals.

Additionally, photographs were taken during the field work to keep a visual record of the scenes that the author has observed and to help the reader to understand the atmosphere of the case study sites, beyond what words can express. Finally, other important aspects observed included the web of social relationships and interactions of the conservancy members and their keen interest in obtaining benefits from tourism activities, while practicing rigorous biodiversity conservation principles.

#### **4.4.6 Secondary data sources**

Secondary data were collected to provide a context to the case study site. As a result, information was collected which related to the Torra conservancy, community-based tourism, community-based natural resource management, rural development and to the wider context of Namibia. The secondary data were collected with a combination of manual and electronic searches from various sources database and institutions. Stakeholders were also asked during the interview on any relevant documentation relevant to the research.

The type of secondary data collected was mainly from policy documents, journal articles, reports, research discussion papers and books. The secondary data were analysed to provide theoretical and general background information, facts and figures relating to tourism development in Namibia. Furthermore, data were also analysed to identify key issues, gaps and subsequently to define what actions could be deemed appropriate to investigate what was already being done towards the promotion of tourism development in the rural areas of Namibia.

For the present study, various sources were used to provide information on the components of tourism planning and development and their implementation in the case of Namibia. In summary, the material used was sourced via:

- The libraries of the University of Pretoria, University of Namibia, University of Dar es Salaam, Polytechnic of Namibia, for the collection of information from books and periodicals;
- The online library services of the University of Pretoria and the Polytechnic of Namibia's e-library and e-books services which were used to access books from other academic institutions;
- Databases such as Emerald, IngentaConnect, Infotrac, EBSCO Host, SABINET (SA ePublications), Science Direct, Proquest and Blackwell-Synergy which were used to access journal articles and local and international theses and dissertations;
- Key words (for example, local development, community-based tourism, tourism planning, and integrative rural tourism) which were searched in a variety of databases.

A review of documentation and archival records included local spatial planning documents and official reports from key government authorities, grey literature and newspapers or articles covering tourism activities. Overall, the nature and substance of the enquiries from the research framework provides a way to build a comprehensive understanding of tourism in local development. It also strengthens capacity to meet the main objectives of the study and gain deeper insights into specific patterns of tourism and local development as reported in empirical studies.

The study built on previous investigations in the Torra conservancy (Ashley, 2000; Long, 2002; Lauren and Kull, 2009; Jones, 2010; Ndlovu, Nyakunu and Kavita, 2011), using a theoretically informed analysis to elucidate the complex link between socio-economic benefits and biodiversity conservation. The conceptual framework (Chapter 2 and 3) helped shaped the methodology to the extent that the final deliverables, the positing of an integrative tourism development framework for rural areas, could be achieved (Chapter 6).

#### **4.4.7 Data cleaning and verification**

In this study, data from both the travel industry and community representatives were analysed using Ritchie and Spencer's (1994) framework for qualitative data as a basis. The method has been used in a tourism context by Miller (2001), who summarises the stages as: familiarisation to gain an overview of the research; identifying a thematic framework; indexing the materials using the framework; and charting the data through the use of headings and subheadings. Utilising this method the frequency with which specific words or themes appear is counted to enable the researcher to build up a definition of community-based tourism (Strivastava and Thomson, 2009).

The written documentation is also analysed for content to inform the researcher of the costs and benefits of tourism at the research site and to identify what was being done to promote desired integrative tourism planning and development framework. In reporting results from both the qualitative and quantitative results, the researcher has excluded names and other key details which might reveal the informant's identities.

Out of respect for study participants and recognition of the sensitive nature of the information they shared, the present study treated confidentiality with the most utmost importance. The researcher chose to use pseudonyms, trying to avoid any names that corresponded to other people in the community.

## 4.5 RELIABILITY, CONTEXTUAL AND DATA VALIDITY

For quantitative studies, there are two major issues to be considered to ensure that the measures developed are reasonably good. These issues are validity and reliability.

### 4.5.1 Validity

Validity is the extent to which the collected data actually reflect the phenomenon under investigation. According to Veal (2011:302), 'tourism research presents numerous difficulties in ensuring validity for the reason that it deals with people's attitudes and behaviour'. The researcher is reliant on individual responses, mainly through the use of questionnaires, and there is no control over responses (for example, misunderstandings and indeed truthfulness). Since these instruments have many deficiencies and attitudinal surveys can be an unstable reflection of attitudes (for example, changes over a short time or by exogenous variables), the data obtained can never be as certain as the data obtained in the natural sciences (Pizam *et al.*, 1994; Veal, 2011). Many approaches have been proposed for assessing validity (Nachmias *et al.*, 1976; Punch, 2006), although none is perfect.

*Construct validity*: this method evaluates how well a measure conforms to theoretical expectations. From the research findings it is clear that the adopted instruments assessed the theoretical constructs of the literature review satisfactorily and therefore one can assume that the research has achieved construct validity. For example, the results of the factor and cluster analysis can ascertain construct validity, since by the use of these two techniques, many aspects of the theory became apparent, such as the significance of the economic benefits and the concern for environmental and social costs.

In this study, it was ensured that all the questions were answered and in cases where respondents had difficulties in understanding certain questions (specifically in the case of open-ended questions), clarifications were made. Dummy questions during the pilot study, provided cautionary information to the researcher on the degree of error in responses to such questions and tested all aspects of the survey.



This included familiarisation with the respondents, and alerted the researcher to key characteristics, idiosyncrasies or sensitivities of the respondents groups. There was also a tendency by some respondents to try and answer how they thought their peers would respond, rather than how they personally would respond. In such cases, the importance of holding the interviews face-to-face is emphasised, as the researcher had to ensure the questions were controlled and answered appropriately. Also, this could not have been done with self-completion questionnaires.

Finally, establishing validity for this study required establishing both reliability and accuracy (for example, that the ratings represent what they are supposed to represent). The degree of validity of an instrument is determined through the application of logic or statistical procedures. A measurement procedure is valid to the degree that it measures what it proposes to measure (Veal, 2011). Validity is concerned with different aspects of the measurement process. Each of these types uses logic, statistical verification or both to determine the degree of validity and has special value under certain conditions.

#### **4.5.2 Reliability**

Reliability means the degree to which the results obtained will be the same from one occasion to another (Goffman, 1975). It can be distinguished from validity, because validity is concerned with whether the interference with the consistency of the results. If a measure is valid, then it is also reliable, although if a measure is reliable it does not imply that it is valid also, because somebody can measure reliably something other than that s/he intends to measure (Veal, 2011).

Although in the natural sciences, reliability is easy to control, in the social sciences, most of the times this is not possible because they deal with human beings in ever-changing social situations (Crouch, 2004). Therefore, Clark, Riley, Wilkie and Wood (1998) suggest that social scientists, including those in tourism, should be very careful when they make general statements based on empirical research, for the reason that any findings are related only to the subject involved and at the time and place that the research was undertaken.

The transferability of a study is to seek theoretical generalisation. Transferability (external validity or generalisation) refers to whether the findings of the study ‘can be transferred to another similar context or situation and still preserve the particularised meanings, interpretations, inference’s from the completed studies’ in order to extend knowledge use (Miles and Humerman, 1994; Leininger, 1994:97). It was a constant concern of the present study to give a full specification of the methodological choices and procedures followed in the research design.

This was in order to help others designing similar studies to determine the extent of transferability to the development of their studies, and permit adequate comparison. In this study, validity was achieved by increasing the sample size and by choosing an undisruptive environment for the interviews. As a result, triangulation, used to test credibility, is a means of assessing dependability.

Furthermore, to attest dependability, attention was paid to the process followed in this research and attempts were made to ensure that the process was clear, systematic and well documented. The present study intends to provide a theoretical generalisation in terms of a comprehensive integrative rural tourism research approach for future tourism and rural development investigations.

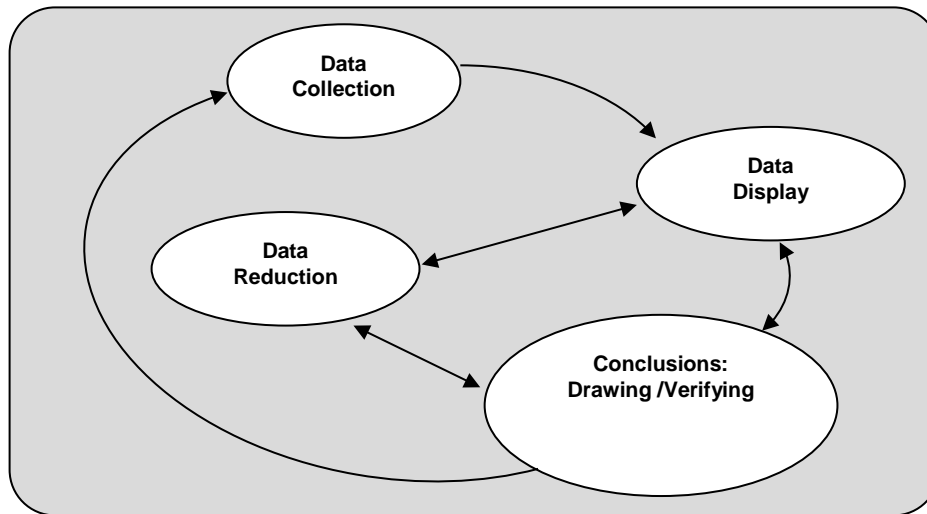
## 4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis entails the analysis of data collection in order to generate useful information. The process involves developing summaries, looking for patterns, applying statistical techniques and reducing data to manageable size (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). Babbie and Mouton (2001:234) states that the most general guide to analysing qualitative data involves looking for similarities and dissimilarities and the focus must be on those patterns of interactions and events that are generally common to what is under study. This type of analysis formed the core of analysing the qualitative data collected during this study. Different themes were identified, and the data was then classified into themes and categories.

The simultaneous process of data collection and analysis contributes to *'building on the strengths of qualitative methods as an inductive method for building theory and interpretations from the perspective of the people being studied'* (Andriotis, 2000:196). Qualitative data analysis is the conceptual interpretation of the dataset as a whole, using specific analytic strategies to convert the raw data into a logical description and explanation of the phenomenon under study (Altinay and Paraskevas, 2008; Bryman, 2008).

This requires making own interpretations and highlighting patterns grounded in the data in a way that can be recognized and understood by the readers of the research. Tesch (1990) for instance, identified 26 different approaches to qualitative analysis. This variety and diversity of qualitative approaches means that there is no single methodological framework for the analysis of qualitative data and the approach followed by each researcher depends on the purpose of the research (Punch, 1998).

Additionally, showing the processes underpinning the research is necessary in terms of the accountability of qualitative research (Cawley, 2007). In this study, 'transcendental realism', proposed by Miles and Huberman (1994) was adopted for the analysis of open-ended questions. According to this approach, after the collection of data, the components of data analysis apply, as seen below in Figure 4.2.



**Figure 4.2: Data collection process**

Source: Miles and Huberman (1994:59)

In the fieldwork process, field notes were taken and these were reviewed immediately after each day of fieldwork. The purpose of the review was to help the researcher to gain a clear understanding of the case study, to provide feedback on the topic schedules and to adjust the interview questions and to form the basis for the second, more quantitative phase of data collection. Transcription was undertaken after the fieldwork was conducted. In addition to the semi-structured interviews, a ‘*vox pop*’ survey was undertaken in order to obtain the voice of the local residents and a field diary was kept for recording direct observations, for further interpretation. With regards to developing the definitions of community-based tourism, community-based natural resource management and rural development, data were analysed as shown in Figure 4.3. As can be seen here, the three sources of information were drawn together to produce the definitions.

Furthermore, the application and transformation of qualitative to quantitative data owes some impetus to the development of software programmes that allow qualitative researchers to process a large volume of qualitative data (Driscoll, 2007). This study also adopted NVivo2 to transform individual responses to the open-ended survey and interview questions into a series of coded response categories that were, in turn quantified as binary codes and integrated into the associated survey responses.

<b>Definitions</b>			
	<b>Community-based tourism</b>	<b>Community-based natural resources management</b>	<b>Rural development</b>
	<b>Sources used</b>	<b>Sourced used</b>	<b>Sourced used</b>
	<b>Torra conservancy</b>	<b>Torra conservancy/NGOs</b>	<b>Government/Travel industry / Torra</b>
<b>Method used</b>	Semi-structured interviews (Torra Committee Members)	Semi-structured interviews (Torra Committee Members and IRDNC field staff ; General areas of discussion were raised during interview, including tourism impact and rural development initiatives	Semi-structured interviews (Government officials and Torra Committee Members) Respondents asked directly to list key characteristics of community-based tourism Comparison between two informative groups
<b>Means of analysis</b>	Thematic framework for qualitative data (see Ritchie and Spencer, 1994)	Thematic framework for qualitative data (see Ritchie and Spencer, 1994)	Word or thematic frequency (see Esterberg, 2002)
<b>Analysis looks for convergence between Torra conservancy representatives, government, NGOs' and Travel industry</b>			

**Figure 4.3: Summary of data collection and analysis for Phase 1 (definitions)**

In both the above cases data from the industry representatives were analysed using Ritchie and Spencer's framework for quantitative data as a basis.

For the analysis of qualitative data, the first step included reading through the interviews a number of times to obtain a strong familiarity of the data. Reflections on the overall meaning were recorded. Then the next step involved identifying and recording reoccurring similarities or themes that emerged from the data. The method has been used in a tourism context by Miller (2001) who summarises the stages as: familiarisation with the overview of the research; identify a thematic framework; indexing the materials using the framework and charting the data through the use of headings and sub-headings. The travel industry responses were analysed using content analysis.

Using this method the frequency with which specific words or themes appear were counted (Esterberg, 2002) to enable the researcher to build up a definition of community-based tourism. The written documentation was also analysed for content to inform the researcher of the impact of tourism development at the case study site and to identify what was being done to promote integrative approach to tourism planning and development. From this initial phase of research actions representing integrative rural tourism were identified. These actions were chosen because they represented a range of contexts: economic, social, environmental and cultural. Yet, though they are based in issues emerging from the case study site, these action have implications for tourism in Namibia.

Having collected the quantitative data, the next step was to analyse data. All responses from the survey questionnaires were assigned numeric codes and subsequently inputted into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) that includes bi-variant, muti-variant and regression analysis. For this study, the quantitative data analysis was done with the assistance of the Department of Statistics of the University of Pretoria, using SPSS. To ensure the integrity of the data and wholesomeness of the questionnaire, an accuracy check was carried out both on input and once after; some corrections were indeed made.

Quantitative analyses include descriptive statistics, chi-square tests and linear regression to determine potential relationships between participation, benefits distribution and conservation perspectives and practices. The chi-square test is commonly used to determine if there is a significant difference between expected frequencies and observed frequencies (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Each section of the questionnaire was analysed separately, with a final part of the analysis drawing the Sections B, C and D together.

As can be seen, for Section B (Social impact), key variables were first identified, based on statistical significance; these variables were then explored further and the respondent's own words were used to explore reported influences and constraints on tourism impacts. Data were tested to the 0.05 level of significance. The interpretations made from both qualitative and quantitative data analysis will be discussed at length in the next chapter.

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The mean number of social impact actions for each of the key variables was also calculated showing the overall level of compliance with the tourism impact actions for each of the different variables. For Section C, D and E each scenario was compared with each other based on the scored scale of 1 to 5 and also on which messages overall would be the most and least likely to influence behaviour towards tourism development. For both sections the analytical framework is discussed in further detail alongside the findings in Chapter 5 and 6.

Consequently, the study examined relationship between responses on perspective-oriented statements through chi-square tests. These tests determine if two variables are independent, with significant values indicating there is an association between the variables. Although the tests do not reveal the predictive ability of different variables, they do give a general sense of patterns and associations. The statistical techniques used can be summarised in three categories: univariate, bivariate and multivariate. The question was to choose which statistical method to use within each technique. To take this decision, the type of data is the main factor. There are three major types of data (Nachmias and Nachmias, 1976; Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991):

- *Nominal* (or categorical): places the items in distinctive categories that imply no specific order (for example, gender);
- *Ordinal*: ranks the items in order without quantifying precisely how much difference there is between the categories (for example, quality rankings);
- *Interval*: rank the items in numerical order and specify precise differences between the variables (for example, age).

The study also identifies differences within the case study site by varying demographic and employment status (for example, according to socio-economic status, age and educational level) and differences observed between those receiving benefit from tourism and those that does not. Quantitative analysis includes descriptive statistics, chi-square tests, and linear regression to determine potential relationships between involvement, distribution of tourism benefits, and conservation perspectives. After identifying the types of data, an analysis of the statistical techniques used follows: univariate, bivariate and multivariate techniques.

#### 4.3.4.1 Univariate techniques

The first step in analysing the data is to identify what data look like by examining each variable separately (Baker, 1998). The frequency distribution of a variable is used to identify how the data are distributed across the categories<sup>2i</sup>; the *mean* (or average value) and the *median* measures of central tendency describe the centre, middle, or most typical value in the sample (SPSS, 1997); the *range* to measure the distance between highest and lowest point in a set of cases; and the *standard deviation* the square root of the variance, to measure 'how much dispersion (or spread) there is in the distribution of values in a sample' (Baker, 1988:397).

Where Likert-Scale negative statements were used, the results were reversed coded. This means that all positive views are in the 1 to 3 end of the scale and the all the negative views in the 3 to 5 end of the scale. Univariate techniques revealed an interesting pattern of responses. However, they were not enough to explain different attitudes of respondents and development patterns.

#### 4.3.4.2 Bivariate techniques

The next step was the examination of relationship patterns between two variables through the use of bivariate techniques. These techniques are based on the notion that observations can be placed in several categories simultaneously (Nachmias *et al.*, 1976), in tables known as cross-tabulations or contingency tables. The rows in the tables represent the categories of one variable and the columns the categories of the other.

Widely known test for comparing frequency distributions of two variables is the chi square ( $\chi^2$ ). The  $\chi^2$  test compares the observed and expected frequencies in each category and examines the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ), assuming that the variables are independent of each other (Singleton *et al.*, 1993).

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<sup>2</sup>Because the sample size of the travel industry survey was small (41 respondents), it was seen as more appropriate for the frequency distribution tables to be expressed in terms of the number of respondents/responses rather than as percentages. However, there were times where for comparison reasons, percentages were used.



The level of probability for rejecting the null hypothesis for all tests was based on the significant level of 0.05, where the results would have occurred by chance only 5 times out of 100. The main limitation faced in the use of the  $\chi^2$  test is that in order to use this test, no more than 20 percent of cells should have an expected frequency of less than 5, and only one should contain an expected frequency of less than 1. In any case where that happens, two solutions were possible: the collapsing of some categories or the use of Fisher's exact test for independence in a  $2 \times 2$  table. If neither of these were applicable, the  $\chi^2$  test was used for descriptive reasons, although its validity is questioned.

T-tests were applied to compare variability of responses based on average (means) calculated for one dependent variable and one independent variable divided into two subgroups. When the independent variable was divided into three or more subgroups *one way Analysis of Variance* (ANOVA) was applied.

The purpose of the t-test and ANOVA is to test the hypothesis that population means are equal. When the hypothesis is rejected, one mean (or more in ANOVA) is different from the other(s) and there is statistical significance. In the t-test, the difference in the variance of two subgroups is provided by Levine's test for equality of variances, for example, a type of one-way ANOVA (Bryman and Cramer, 1997).

The larger the value of the t-test and the F-ratio, the greater the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis of independence (Levin, 1977:149). The t-test and ANOVA are interpreted with reference to the number of degrees of freedom (df). Degrees of freedom technically refer to the freedom of variation among a set of scores (Levin, 1977). In the t-test, degrees of freedom depend on the sample size and determine the shape of the sampling distribution of differences. If there is a sample of N scores, then N-1 are free to vary, after any one is fixed in value (Levin, 1977).

The same applied to ANOVA, although ANOVA has a second degree of freedom that varies with the number of subgroups. Specifically, if there are  $\psi$  groups, then degrees of freedom is  $\psi - 1$ .

#### 4.3.4.3 Multivariate techniques

The univariate and bivariate analysis proved useful. However, for the residents' survey, it was found that they could not give a clear explanation of what was needed at this stage, since the association between two variables was not substantial enough to show any causal inferences (Nachmias and Nashmias, 1976). In an attempt to explore the data further and identify any relationships among three or more variables simultaneously, it was decided to re-analyse the data using more complex analytical techniques, namely multivariate statistics. Multivariate statistics were not applied to the travel industry's analysis because the sample size and the nature of questionnaires did not allow it. Before any multivariate analysis takes place, it should be noted that in the three multivariate methods used, missing values were handled using the list-wise option, where cases with missing values are omitted from analysis. The following multivariate techniques were used:

##### *Factor analysis*

Factor analysis offers two applications. First, it can examine the correlations between the variables and second, the correlations between the correspondents. In the present study, factor analysis was used to examine the correlations between variables. Three clusters were found in this study. To group individual respondents, cluster analysis was found to be more appropriate, as it is a commonly accepted method for many researchers. The reason for this is that factor analysis when used to examine correlations between respondents presents computational difficulties.

The primary purpose of factor analysis is to examine interrelationships between a large numbers of (measurable) variables by condensing them into a smaller set of components (factors) with a minimum loss of information (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 1997). Each factor contains 'variables correlated with one another, but largely independent of other variables or subsets'(Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 1997). Factor analysis involves the following six steps: selecting and measuring a set of variables, preparing a correlation matrix, extracting a set of factors from the correlation matrix, determining the number of factors, rotating the factors to increase interpretability and interpretation of the results (Field, 2010).

Two main types of factor analysis exist: the common factor analysis that analyses only the common (covariance) and seeks to identify underlying dimensions (known as common factors), and the principal component analysis where the total variance is analysed and the original set of variables is reduced into a smaller set of composite variables (called 'principle components') (Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 1997). In the present study, common factor analysis was chosen (instead of principal component analysis) for the following evident advantages:

- it is clearly useful to separate out common and unique variance since unique variance contains no information concerning relationships between factors; and
- in common factor analysis, the factors are constructed rather than real. Thus, a factor may account for the correlations among variables without being completely defined by them. This makes them of some theoretical interest (Kline, 1994:244).

Before using factor analysis (as well as cluster analysis) three tests were used to check if the data were appropriate. The *Cronbach Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) Coefficient* is the most accepted method for testing the reliability of a scale (Ryan, 1995). Cronbach  $\alpha$  tests reliability by measuring the correlations that exist for each possible way of splitting a set of items in half (Ryan1995:254). This coefficient varies from 0 to 1, and researchers seek values greater than 0.6 for satisfactory internal reliability (Malhotra, 1996). In the present study Cronbach  $\alpha$  *Coefficient* for both surveys was 0.711 for both Torra community and travel industry respondents, showing that the scale was reliable.

The *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO)* test was also used to check the appropriateness of the factor model. This test compares "*the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients with the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficient*" (Malhotra, 1996: p.649). It takes the following values: 0.90+ = marvellous; 0.80+ = meritorious; 0.70+ = middling; 0.60+ = mediocre; 0.50+ = miserable; and below 0.50 = unacceptable (Kaiser and Rice, 1974). According to Kline (1994:124), for good factor analysis, values above 0.60 are required. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy in the present study had a large enough value 0.706, indicating that both the number of variables and the sample size are appropriate for factor analysis.

Apart from the sample size and number of variables, it is important for some of the variables to be correlated. If the correlations between the variables are small, factor analysis will not be appropriate. Therefore, *Barlett's test for sphericity (BTS)* was used to examine the hypothesis that the variables are uncorrelated in the population. This test is based on a  $\chi^2$  transformation of the determinant of the correlation matrix (Malhotra, 1996). The results of BTS were 784.693, (df = 171, p = 0.000 rounded to 3 decimal places, for example, less than 0.0005) not accepted.

On the assumption that the scale is reliable, the factor model is appropriate and relationships exist within the variables, factor analysis was intended to identify associations of residents' perceptions. There are mainly three orthogonal rotation methods: *Quartimax*, *Varimax*, and *Equimax*. In this study, *Varimax* was used because it minimises the number of variables that have high loadings on a factor and therefore the interpretability of the factors is easier (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, 1997). Because of its distinctive advantages, it is the most commonly used method in factor analysis.

Another decision to be taken with Factor Analysis is to identify which factor loading is worth considering. Factor loadings are the correlation of a variable with each other respective factor (Bailey, 1987). Loadings above  $\pm 0.30$  are considered moderate,  $\pm 0.40$  important and above  $\pm 0.50$  very significant (Diamantopoulos *et al.*, 1997). However, the number of variables under investigation determines the significance of loadings and therefore these should be adjusted according to the size of the sample (Bryman, 1997).

In the factor model, loadings of an absolute value of  $\pm 0.40$  or more were considered in order to load highly enough and because it was appropriate for the number of variables and sample size. For the naming and interpretation of factors, higher loadings have influenced the name or label selected.

In addition, for the analysis, although all the variables were examined for a particular factor, greater emphasis was placed on the variables with higher loadings. Communalities range from 0 to 1, with 0 showing that the common factors explain none of the variance of the variable and 1 that they explain all the variance (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, 1997).

Factor analysis was also adopted in order to describe, if possible, the covariance relationships among many variables in terms of a few underlying, but unobservable, random quantities called factors. The factor analysis model assumes that there are  $m$  underlying factors ( $m < p$ )  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m$  and each observed variables is a linear function of these factors together with a residual variate, so that:

$$x_j = a_{j1}f_1 + a_{j2}f_2 + \dots + a_{jm}f_m + e_j, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

where  $a_{j1}, a_{j2}, \dots, a_{jm}$  are called *factor loadings* for example,  $a_{jk}$  is loading of  $j^{\text{th}}$  variable on  $k^{\text{th}}$  factor.  $e_j$  's are called *specific factors*.

The proportion of the variance of the  $j^{\text{th}}$  variable contributed by the  $m$  common factors is called the  $j^{\text{th}}$  *communality* and the proportion due to the specific factors is called the *uniqueness*, or *specific variance* (Ritchie *et al.*, 2005). Finally, in reporting results from both qualitative and quantitative results, the names and other key details which might reveal the informant's identity were excluded. With high regard to confidentiality, the study chose to use pseudonyms for both surveys, in an attempt to avoid any names that corresponded to other individuals in the community. The study avoided providing a biography of each respondent in the qualitative interviews; as such information might reveal the interviewee's identity.

#### 4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

The present study followed the procedure that is normally used to seek permission to conduct research within an organisation, in this case the Torra Conservancy. A key ethical concern in this research is the confidentiality of the interviewees. As has been explained in the previous sections of this chapter, the names of interviewees and their specific positions in the institutions or businesses are protected.

In the following chapters, when opinions are quoted in the paragraphs, these quotations will be presented in capital letters, for example, *interviewee A*, instead of directly identifying the interviewee. The study also followed appropriate University of Pretoria procedures' to apply for ethical clearance of research through the University's Ethics Committee. A covering letter was used to introduce the questionnaire to the respondents (Appendix D).

# CHAPTER 5

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### 5.1 SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF TORRA CONSERVANCY RESIDENTS

The research sample for the quantitative component of the study comprised 149 households; identified through simple random sampling in the Torra Conservancy areas (see Table 5.1).

**Table 5.1: Characteristics of Torra Conservancy's residents**

	N	Sample %	Census 2011 %
<b><u>Gender:</u></b>			
Male	57	38	48
Female	92	62	52
<b><u>Age</u></b>			
18-24 years	21	14	13
25-34 years	52	36	35
35-44 years	31	21	23
45-54 years	27	18	17
55+ years	15	10	12
<b><u>Education Status</u></b>			
No formal schooling	11	7	No Information
Primary	47	32	
Grade 12	72	48	
Diploma/Degree	18	12	
<b><u>Employment Status</u></b>			
Employed	39	26	No Information
Unemployed	108	73	
<b><u>Length of Residence</u></b>			
0 years	3	2	No Information
1-5 years	33	22	
6-15 years	48	32	
More than 15 years	65	44	
Overall for the total sample, there was no missing data			

Table 5.1 presented the socio-demographic characteristics of the local residents who participated in the survey. It is important to be cautious up on interpretation of the data as there was no or limited official records to cross check the data. The analysis of semi-structured interviews, survey questionnaires and secondary data sources revealed two main themes, with a varying number of sub-themes for each. The themes are: (1) impact of policy on tourism development, (2) attitudes towards tourism development. Both qualitative and quantitative findings are presented and grouped into sections based around these two thematic areas. All data are statistically significant to at least the 0.05 level unless otherwise stated.

**Gender:** as indicated in Table 5.1 female constituted about 62% and male about 38% those participated in the interview, when it is compared with the national census population female and male population 2011 it was about 52% and 48%. Being low percentage of male in the sample it has not have any link in the study; just coincidence, availability and willingness of participations.

**Age:** The majority (36%) of residents under the category of 25-34 age groups, followed by 21 percent (age group 35-44). The group above 55 years old had the lowest proportion of participation in the sample (10%) (see Table 5.1). There is a difficulty in making comparisons, because the census has an age group of 16-19, although the questionnaire was addressed to residents of 18 years or above. However, it can be said that the younger age segments are slightly over represented and the older slightly under represented, possibly as older aged Namibians do not respond to interviews and younger populations have a higher interest in tourism.

**Educational background:** The survey enquired further with regards to the highest level of education achieved (see Table 5.1). Approximately one half having primary and upper secondary schooling, 7% with on any form of formal schooling, and 31.5% had only primary schooling. The majority of respondents had secondary school, with 48.3% having attained a high school education and only 12.1% achieved tertiary qualification. The results revealed that some members received on-the-job training in areas such as waitressing and housekeeping. Respondents anonymously agreed that training helped them to increase the probability of employment, but not starting or owning tourism business.

**Employment:** Only 26 percent of respondents were employed (see Table 5.1); among the employed, 18 percent were engaged in the tourism industry. In general employment status 5% were employed in agriculture while the remaining 3% were employed in other service sectors.

In addition to this finding of this study revealed that majority of females participating in tourism development, further supporting the national development objectives and priorities in the rural natural resources sector.

This focuses on enhancing building human resources and institutional capacity, reducing income inequalities, increasing the protection of vulnerable groups and improving women's participation in planning and promoting livelihood opportunities under NDP2 (Republic of Namibia, 2005). Furthermore, the Namibian Country Report to the World Food Summit in 2002 (Republic of Namibia, 2005) suggests that CBNRM should be pursued as a means to promote improved food security and gender inequality.

**Length of residence:** the largest single concentration of individuals (44%) had lived all their life in the area. On the other hand, 32 percent had lived in the area for 15 years or less and 22 percent less than one year. The major reasons mentioned for moving to the area included: family (45%), employment/business (40%) and in-migration (15%). It is evident that the tourism industry attracted more in-migrants compared to other sectors. This variable was used in order to determine whether the length of residence may have any significant different in respondents' attitude towards tourism development in the study area.



## 5.2 BUSINESS ACTIVITIES, PRODUCTS AND FORMS OF OWNERSHIP IN THE STUDY AREA

Figure 5.1 presents the major activities/products available in the study areas, the available products in the study area are 29 in total. Out of this total it is dominated by the eco-lodge activity which is accounted for 34%, followed by camping site about 21%, in third and fourth places were tour operation and Bed and Breakfast (B&B). Whereas, the remaining accounted for less than 7% (see Figure 5.1).

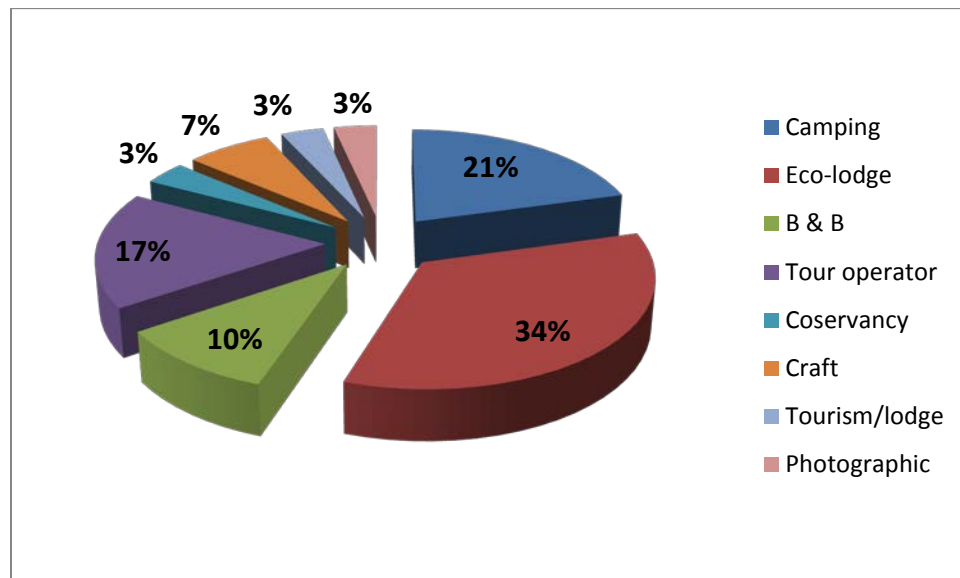
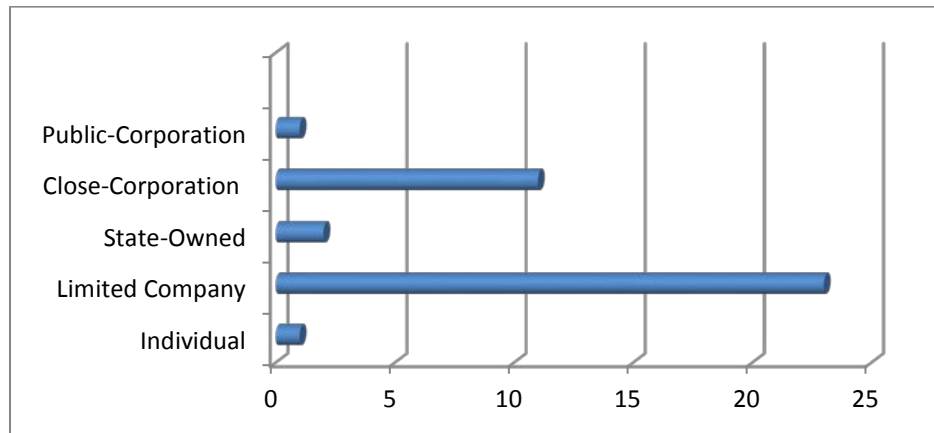


Figure 5.1: Type of activities/products in the study area

In terms of business forms in the study area listed as follows: Individual ownership (N=1), Limited Company (N=23), State-Owned (N=2), Close corporation (N=11), and Public corporation (N=1 (see Figure 5.2).



**Figure 5.2: Forms of ownership in the study area**

Type, size and ownership of enterprises are often closely interrelated. Therefore, owners/managers were asked to indicate the type of their enterprises' ownership in order to see if variations in type or size of enterprises present differences in their ownership.

### 5.2.1 Enterprise year of foundation

To investigate the maturity of the Torra Conservancy's tourism industry the business survey asked respondents to indicate the start-up year of their enterprise. The first enterprises used in the sample had a wide range of start-up years, with the first tourism enterprise having been established in 1998. From 1998 to 2000, only five percent of travel industry organisations came into existence in the area. As a result, the development of the tourism industry in the area under concern before 2000 was slow, whereas it expanded rapidly between the years 2001 to 2005.

The establishment of new enterprises after 2002 can be attributed to the Joint Venture Initiative (between the local community and the private sector) introduced by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism (MET). Undoubtedly, some joint venture initiatives in the area appear to have even older and perhaps a more mature tourism industry, compared to other conservancies in Namibia.

This was not unexpected since, as already noted, the existence of abundant wildlife species, unique landscape and the hospitable community of Torra helped to play a leading role in the development of the areas' tourism industry. On average the enterprises have been in business for 9 years (Mean = 9.22).

### **5.2.3 Source of capital**

It is evident that for the expansion of the tourism industry a significant role is played by the public sector through the provision of incentives (enabling policy) for the establishment of tourist enterprises. To identify if the sector has provided financial help to the establishment of tourist enterprises in Torra (for example, through loans), respondents from the business sector were asked to indicate the source(s) of capital used by their enterprises for setting up.

More than one third of the entrepreneurs were reliant on more than one source of capital in setting up their establishments. These sources included: personal and family savings (65% of N=41), bank lending (15% of N=41) and inheritance (20% of N=41). The predominance of private capital used by entrepreneurs in setting up their business is a further indication of the relatively low conditions of entry into some types of enterprises in the tourism industry alongside a lack of financial support from the public sector.

### 5.3 IMPACT OF POLICY FRAMEWORK ON TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN RURAL NAMIBIA

This section assesses the opinion of community members' respondents as to what they considered to be the significant impact of tourism at local level.

**Table 5.2: Respondents Average ranking (scale 1 to 5) to different component of impact by local residents**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
<b>I. Cultural impact</b>			
1. Tourists interest in culture has resulted in strengthening of cultural pride	149	4.02	.962
2. Tourist show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people	149	3.84	1.085
3. Tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity of the population	149	4.07	.973
<b>II. Environmental impact</b>			
4. Current tourism development has led to more litter in the area	149	2.56	1.301
5. The development of tourism has generally improved the environmental appearance of the area	149	4.19	.968
6. Residents are satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning is currently taking place	149	3.99	1.027
<b>III. Social impact</b>			
7. Local people alter their behaviour in an attempt to copy the style of tourists	148	2.69	1.293
8. Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value	148	3.27	1.238
9. Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals	148	2.66	1.308
<b>IV. Impact of commercialization due to tourism</b>			
10. Tourism development increases the development of facilities for residents	149	3.56	1.141
11. There are better infrastructures due to tourism development	149	3.74	1.188
12. Locals are banned from using tourist facilities in the area	148	2.78	1.388

As previous studies have indicated (Buckley, 2010; Hottola, 2009; Moscardo, 2008), this study revealed that local communities praise tourism because it encourages more cultural events and activities by the locals and brings about improvement in infrastructure facilities (11% and 29% respectively of residents agreed or strongly agreed).

Equally, 16 percent of respondents stated that the impact of tourism was neutral on their family, although 26 percent accepted tourism as advantageous and a further 32 percent very advantageous.

Ratings on the impact of tourism on social impact were more evenly distributed across the scale. 29 percent of residents agreed that money from tourism is of benefit to the whole community, 11 percent suggested that their standard of living has increased because of tourism spending, although 26 percent chose the scale and close to half disagreed that tourism benefited a small group of people.

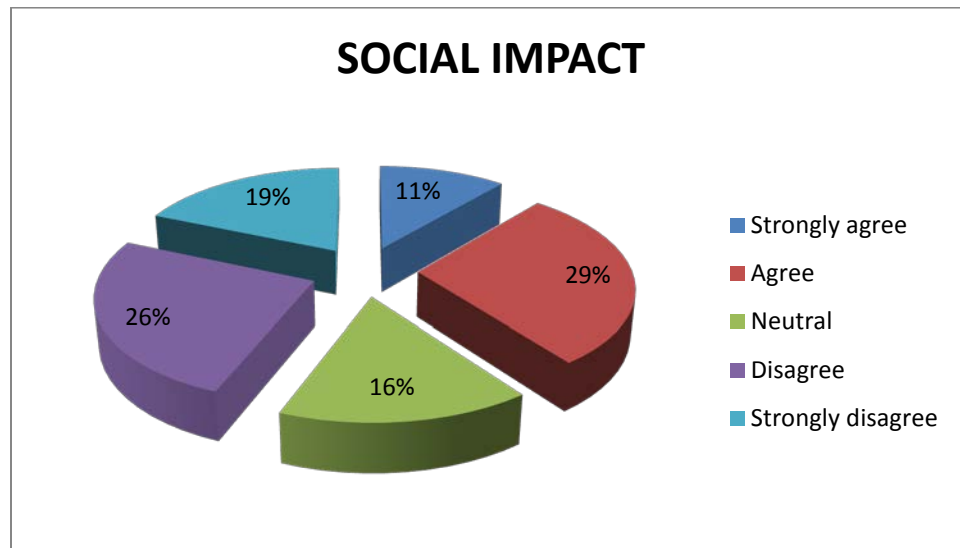
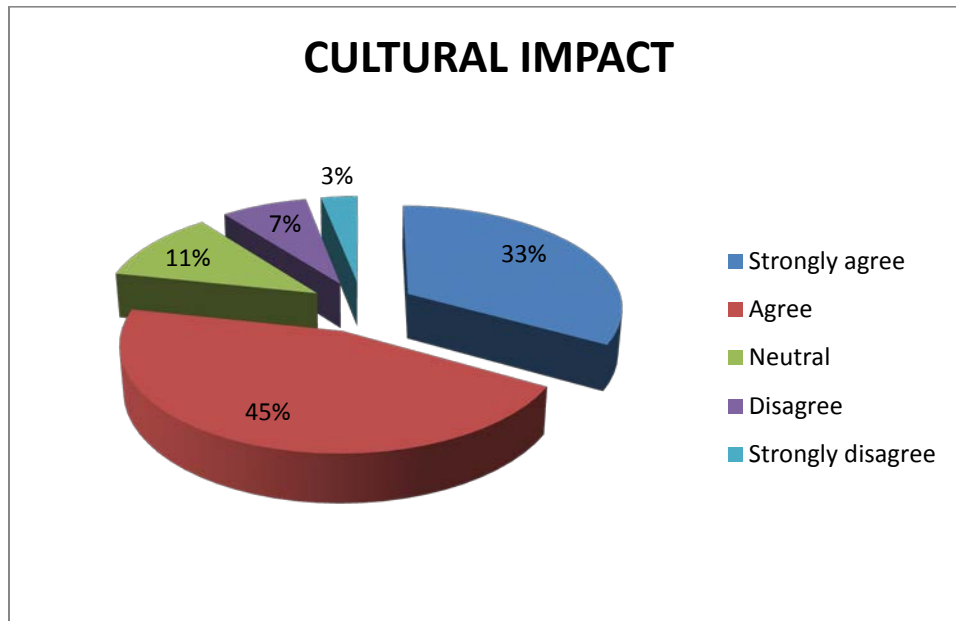


Figure 5.3: Social impact

One major cultural change that the people have observed is a reinvigoration of their traditional art form such as dancing, singing, craftwork and needlework. The responses to various questionnaire statements indicated that before the joint-venture with Wilderness Safaris, certain aspects of the culture of the Conservancy members was not taking on an important role in their lives.



**Figure 5.4: Cultural impact**

With the introduction of tourism to the area, some aspects of the culture of the Conservancy members have become more important, as the tourists have a large interest in seeing and experiencing such cultural traditions. It was also apparent, however, that the cultures specific to some ethnic groups are being expressed and revived more than others. Respondents that were interviewed did not seem spiteful about the inequality but rather seemed disappointed if they did not have the capacity to represent their culture to tourists as effectively. Another important change that emerged was how the local people viewed their culture.

The Conservancy members did not always have the economic freedom to outwardly express their culture and were more focused on day to day activities such as farming. Now the Conservancy members have seen a revival in cultural pride along with financial support for the tourism joint-venture. They now recognise that their culture defines them and their traditions are now seen as a large part of their lives. The culture has also been strengthening through their traditional festivals and other important events that were previously neglected. However, it was noted that one negative issue that can potentially occur when tourism is introduced to a rural area is cultural commercialization, such as, sacred places and/or events might be compromised or over-exposed for the sake of money (For example, see Saarinen and Niskala, 2009) . This can cause local people to adapt their cultures to suit the tourist market.

Regarding the economic impact statements, more than 34 percent of residents expressed favourable opinions on the impacts of tourism on the Namibian economy, on their region’s economy, income and employment. There is a major perception among residents that tourism is a definite economic asset for the region’s welfare. Therefore, the standard deviations on these statements are moderate, indicating a consensus of residents’ opinions on the positive influence of economic impacts.

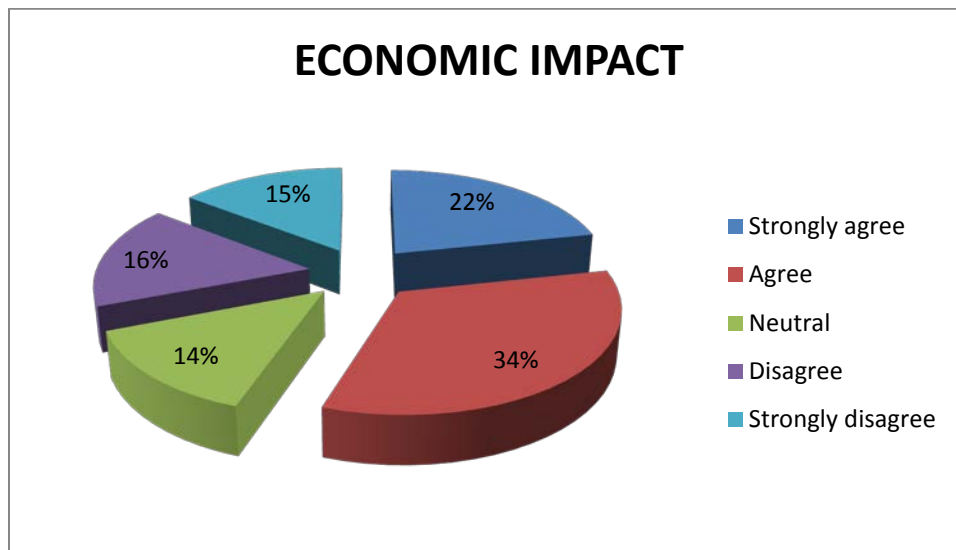
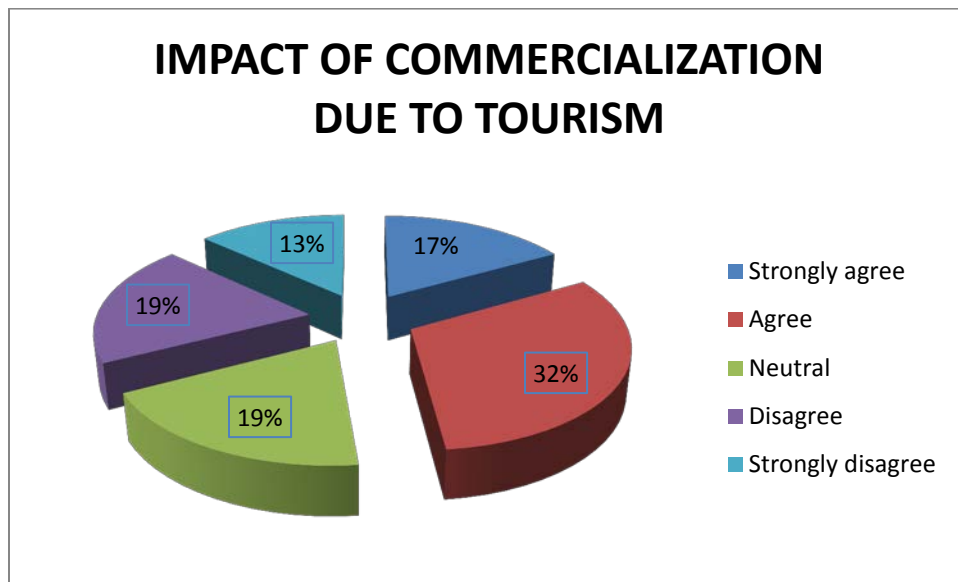


Figure 5.5: Economic impact

Similarly, a significant percentage (22%) of residents strongly agreed that tourism attracts more spending in the region. As might be anticipated, responses to the parallel statement tourism attracts more investments in the region gave similar results (34% agreed). Tourism was criticised for the increased prices of many goods and services (41% agreed). 14 percent were neutral that non-residents should be allowed to develop tourism attractions. Regarding the statement that most of the money earned from tourism is reaped by companies outside the region, many responses (41%) were split between ‘advantageous’ and ‘disadvantageous’, with 46 percent of responses on the middle of the scale, suggesting that they are open to a number of opinions. Next, 85 percent of residents expressed their disagreement in the case of no government incentives for tourism development. Finally, significant agreement (47%) was expressed with the statement that ‘tourism in the area benefits visitors more than the locals’.

One negative issue that can potentially occur when tourism is introduced to rural areas is cultural commercialisation. This can cause local people to adapt their cultures to suit the tourist market. Throughout the questionnaires, this problem was addressed and respondents were asked specifically if they believed this was happening to their culture.



**Figure 5.6: Impact of commercialization due to tourism**

The results obtained indicated that the Conservancy members are divided on this question, as 32% agreed and 17% strongly agree while 19% disagree and 13% strongly disagree that this was happening to their culture, with the remaining 19% answering neutral. Additionally, no operational stands or shops where tourists could purchase cultural items from the local people were observed, aside from a few roadside stands, so it was not possible to determine through observation the extent of cultural commercialisation.

The influx of tourists into the area has also stimulated an acceptance of outsiders and tourists within the conservancy. A level of hospitality towards outsiders was obvious. The two types of respondents were selected to achieve a fair representation of perceptions of socio-cultural impacts and to allow comparisons to be made. To accomplish this, measures of central tendency and spread (mean and standard deviation) were performed on the data.



The strength of the mean and standard deviation are that, unlike some other measures, they are calculated on the basis of data value collection. A higher value for mean indicates a stronger level of agreement with socio-cultural impact statements.

One strongly supported statement was that ‘the development of tourism has generally improved the environmental appearance of the area’. 34 percent of respondents praised tourism for providing an incentive for the restoration of natural environment.

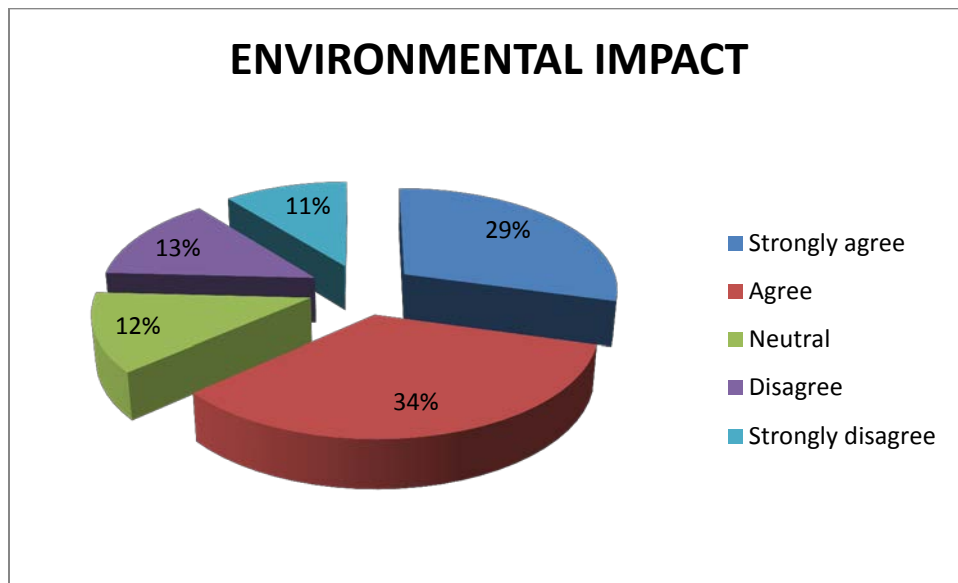


Figure 5.7: Environmental impact

Equally, there was a general consensus about the manner in which current tourism development is taking place. When asked about whether they would support an increased in the number of tourists visiting the area, 29 percent responded positively, while only 11 percent viewed such an increase negatively.

The rate of tourism development is important to consider since it has an influence on the level of support residents hold towards tourism development (Hall and Page, 2000). Yet, it is common for those destinations which witness rapid, uncontrolled tourism growth to also experience higher negative economic, social and environmental impacts.

### 5.3.1 Tourism dimensions

An interesting finding that emerged from the semi-structured interviews, but also from simply assessing the backgrounds of the interview participants. These results provide a snapshot of the value added by seven pre-determined dimensions of tourism in a rural locality. This provides a rich insight into the perceptions of key stakeholder groups in the local tourism setting. The data also helps to construct a unique broad context for the key issues in tourism, making possible a thorough discussion about the state of tourism integration. A summary of stakeholder group responses by integration dimension is presented in Table 5.3. In order to illustrate the differences between respondents' judgements and perception, a more detailed description of results, with examples, for each integration dimension will be included in the bellow section.

It is interesting to note that endogeneity was perceived to be the most important by each stakeholder group individually and collectively and that the appropriateness of scale was assigned the lowest value collectively and individually. In more developed areas, externalities resulting from tourism expansion and conflicts over resource usage seem to affect groups that have a lower vested interest in tourism.

**Table 5.3: Means regarding the perceived level of value added by integration dimension**

	Networking	Scale	Endogeneity	Sustainability	Embeddedness	Complementarities	Empowerment
<b>Travel Industry</b>	2.87	3.66	3.93	4.00	4.13	3.90	4.17
<b>Community</b>	2.06	3.74	3.51	4.00	4.02	3.49	3.91
<b>Ranking</b>	7	6	5	3	1	4	2

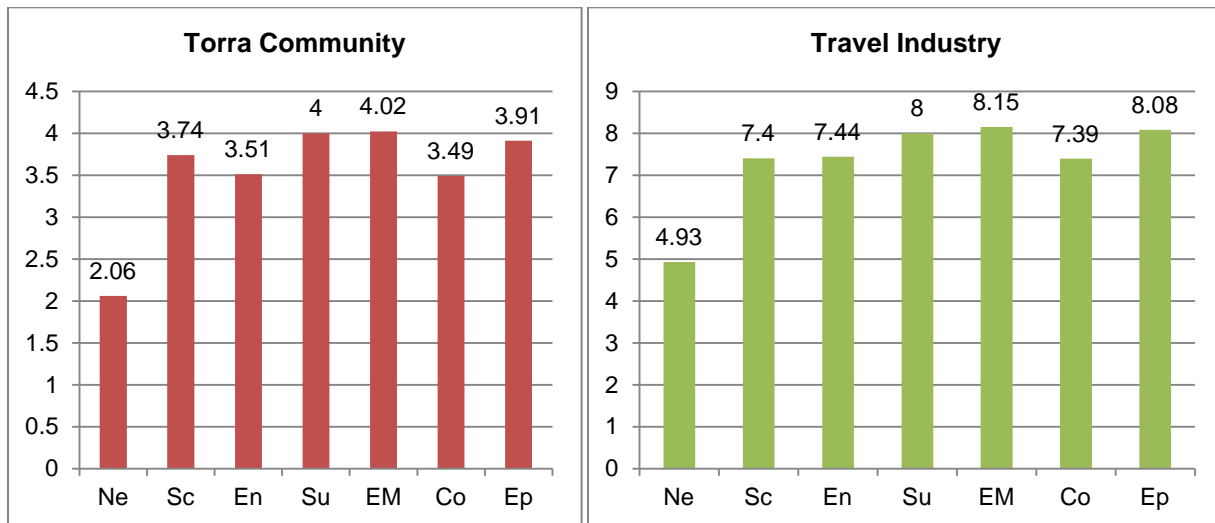
Scoring used to produce means was based on a scale of 0-4 - where 0 is low and 4 is high

Embeddedness was perceived to be the most important dimension by each informative group. It seems that in the Torra area, industry and community members were the most positive. This may be due in part to their relative separation from the business of tourism. This is in line with a similar study performed in Namibia where the most positive perceptions on tourism came from industry and local residents (Scanlon *et al.*, 2009).

Once this group is identified they must be capacitated to employ resources in such a way to maximize local benefit and then be supported and regulated to preserve quality of life for the locality. One of the goals held by the Torra Conservancy in establishing a tourism development portfolio through a number of tourism joint ventures (JVs) is to uplift the area economically and improve the standard of living for residents of the Conservancy. This would be a truly tangible benefit of empowerment.

This similarity is most likely explained by the maturity of the rural tourism destination. In more developed areas, externalities resulting from tourism expansion and conflicts over resource utilization seem to affect groups that have a lower vested interest in tourism. An inspection of the rankings in Figure 5.87 indicates possible financial and cultural barriers in the lower-valued dimensions.

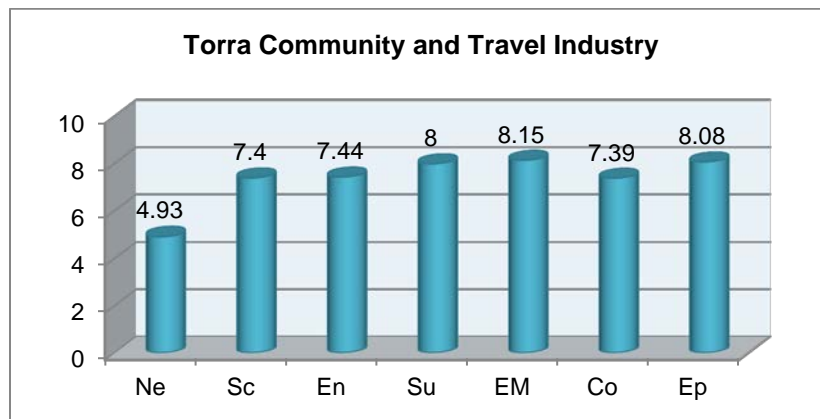
Networking and scale issues in the interviews were nearly always connected to finances as well as, to a certain degree, empowerment. Locals and travel industry members in lower socio-economic classes were less confident in their ability to own and be successful in a tourism enterprise.



Ranked value-added means for each stakeholder group. Ne = Networking, Sc = Scale, En = Endogeneity, Su = Sustainability, Em = Embeddedness, Co = Complementarity, Ep = Empowerment. Scoring used to produce means was based on a scale of 0-4.

**Figure 5.8: Value-added means**

Both respondent groups were intrigued by outsiders and were proud that others valued their natural resources. They also were hopeful for future economic benefit from tourism. It is likely, through these relationships, that they have gained an appreciation for resources and were more aware and appreciative of progress that had been made. They may also have been inclined to be more positive in their responses because they had more evidence at their disposal and may be more accustomed to promoting tourism development and advocating for the area's potential.



Ranked value-added means for each stakeholder group. Ne = Networking, Sc = Scale, En = Endogeneity, Su = Sustainability, Em = Embeddedness, Co = Complementarity, Ep = Empowerment. Scoring used to produce means was based on a scale of 0-4.

**Figure 5.9 Summary of value-added for all actor groups by dimension**

Cultural issues tied to distrust of political and market entities likely played a role in the lower valuation of networking. Positive valuation was strongest in endogeneity, complementarity and embeddedness which find their value in rich natural, historic and wildlife resources of the area as well as the hospitable nature of the people. It is important to note that all of these resources preceded modern rural tourism development. Respondents differed in the assessment of each of the dimensions of tourism. These differences were expected and are the key to unlocking a deeper understanding of community dynamics. The concept of tourism integration assessment that the present study utilised was chosen in order to dissect the inter-related and potentially complicated interworking of the tourism development process.

A better understanding of local tourism dynamics can help guide decision making to maximise local cooperation and mutual benefit. Each of the seven dimensions of tourism integration will be explored in detail using illustrative examples from the large textual results of the survey.

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One major cultural change that the people have observed is a reinvigoration of their traditional art form such as dancing, singing, craftwork and needlework. The responses to various questionnaire statements indicated that before the joint-venture with Wilderness Safaris, certain aspects of the culture of the Conservancy members was not taking on an important role in their lives.

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## 5.4 ATTITUDES TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

For the tourism development of a destination, a vital role is played by the residents who live in area, the enterprises that provide facilities and services and the government authorities that make planning and development decisions on tourism. In order to respond to the third objective of this study (to determine how a destination can affect and/or be affected by tourism development), this section will explore the findings of the surveys dealing with the outputs and outcomes of the development and planning process in order to see if tourism development in the Torra Conservancy area has brought benefits and/or costs to the local community.

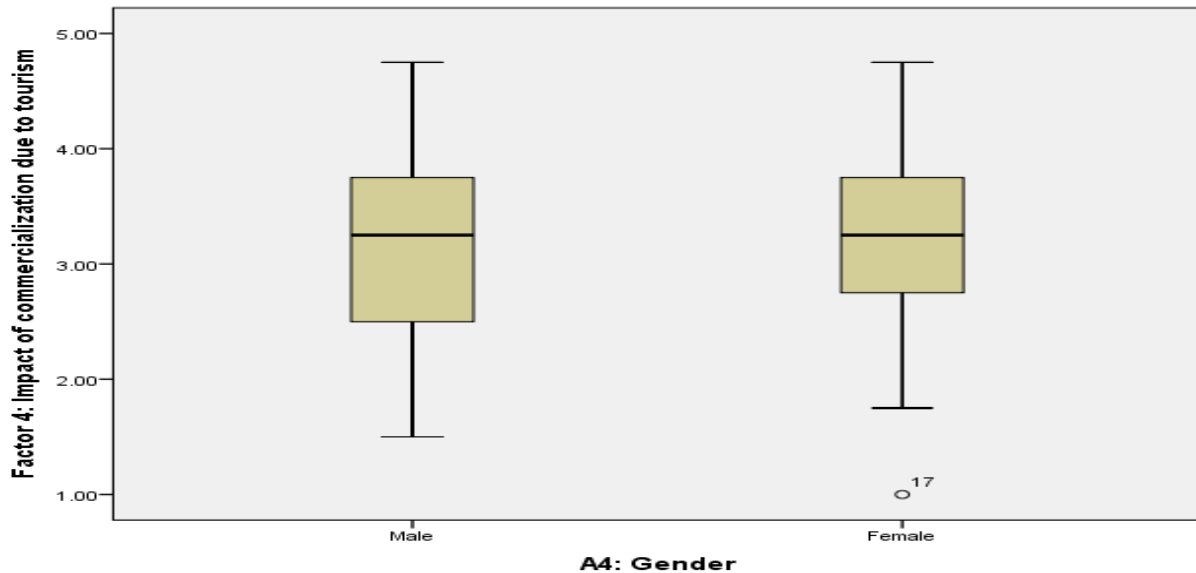
By better understanding the local community's views concerning tourism, it is hoped to determine the extent to which they support tourism development and specify the forms of tourism expansion most favoured by the community. As statistical measures of association in this section, the t-test and ANOVA (*One way Analysis of Variance*) were used.

### 5.5.3 Single explanatory factors of residents' attitudes

Many studies have stated that groups are not necessarily homogenous, and that attitudes towards tourism development may vary. Therefore one-way ANOVA and t-tests were used to identify significant differences between the four groups (single factors) and the Likert type scale statements. However, in the results of the ANOVA and t-tests, few statistical differences were evident as residents displayed quite a high degree of similarity in their choices. Nevertheless, some groups presented some differences.

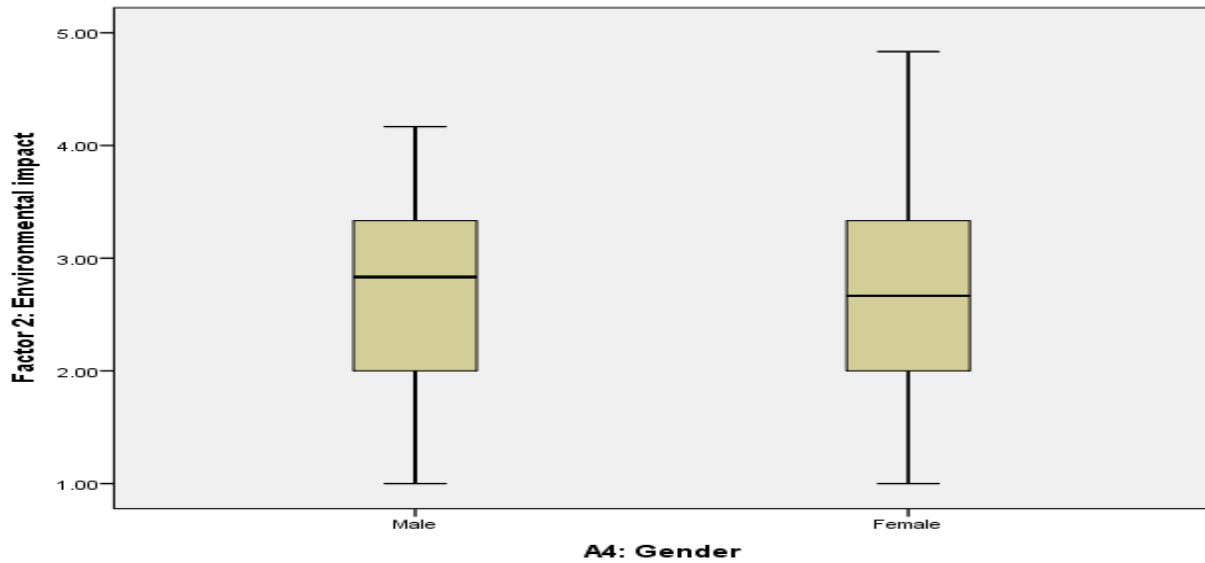
Among the four socio-demographic variables used, education and employment reliance on tourism were the best discriminators of attitudes towards tourism development. Almost 64 percent of the highly educated agreed that tourism only benefits a small group of people in the region, although the proportions from low and medium educated groups were less than 50 percent. For the impacts of tourism on the regional economy, the majority (65%) of the less educated perceived tourism as advantageous, although the proportion of medium and highly-educated, who perceived tourism as advantageous was lower (38% and 43% respectively).

On the other hand, less-educated residents were less positive about the impacts of tourism on the Namibian economy, with 51 percent considering them to be advantageous. Finally, 60 percent of the highly-educated expressed the opinion that the proces of products and services have increased because of tourism.



**Figure 5.10: Gendered responses on the development of tourism**

Gender was significant as an explanatory variable of attitude only for four statements. For example, 90 percent of females agreed that because of tourism, prices of many goods and services increased, although the percentage was 77 percent for male.



**Figure 5.11: Gendered response on the environmental impact**

Females were more likely to have negative views regarding the impacts of tourism on the environment, with 60 percent finding them disadvantageous, compared to 45% males. Overall, of the factors with significant relationships to gender, females were more negative in terms of attitudes to tourists compared to males.

Age was not a significant discriminator, with the exception of three statements. The vast majority (71%) of the younger residents found the impact of tourism neutral for their families, although 52 percent of older and 63 percent of middle-aged residents viewed them as advantageous or very advantageous.

For the impacts of tourism on the environment, 50 percent of the older residents viewed them as advantageous or very advantageous, although young and middle-aged residents were more negative (68% and 63% respectively viewed them as disadvantageous or very disadvantageous).

Besides, approximately 95 percent of middle-aged and older residents agreed that the authorities should encourage tourists to visit the area.



Length of residence was a discriminator only for two statements. For example, 41 percent of newcomers viewed tourism as advantageous for their region's economy and 46 percent of life-long residents perceived it as advantages. Regarding the statement, 'tourism provides an incentive for the conservation of natural resources', 45 percent of life-long residents agreed and a further 25 percent disagreed, compared to such people, the proportion of newcomers who agreed was lower (35%) and who disagreed was higher (34%).

Income was not a factor influencing opinions except for one statement. While 66 percent of the high-income group disagreed that tourism created more jobs for foreigners than locals, the percentage for the lower-income group who felt this was lower (42%). Overall, the two most important discriminators of attitudes towards tourism development were education and employment reliance on tourism. For the remaining single factors (gender, age, length of residence and income), only weak associations were found (see Table 5.6 and 5.7).

#### **5.5.4 Important factors for residents attitudes**

To identify interrelationships among the variables and discover underlying patterns without sacrificing the data's original integrity, further analysis of residents' perceptions was undertaken using factor analysis. The results are shown in Table 5.6. Column 1 reports the allocation of the 8 items<sup>3</sup>. The next three columns report the four factors and the loading for each item. The three factors accounted for 47.90 percent of the variance in the data.

The factor solution used has extracted the factors in their order of importance, with the largest and best combinations first, and then proceeding to smaller. Factor 1 accounts for the most of the variance (22.7%), whereas the second accounts for 16.9% and the third for 8.3%.

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<sup>3</sup>As already mentioned, six items failed to meet the criterion of  $\pm 0.40$  loading and one factor had only two items, and were excluded from the factor analysis.

A description of each factor is given in the Table 5.4.

**Table 5.4: Factor analysis results**

	Component		
	1	2	3
D16.4: Tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people	.867		
D16.5: Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population	.818		
D16.1: Tourists interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of cultural pride	.736		
D16.6: Tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity of the population	.616		
C13.4 Current tourism development has led to more litter in the area		.818	.331
B11.5: Tourism has increased pollution problems		.737	
B11.2: Tourism development increases the development of facilities for residents			.759
C13.3: Residents are satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning is currently taking place	.395		.633
Eigenvalue	3.634	2.703	1.327
Percentage of variance explained	22.712	16.893	8.292

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

**Factor 1:** The four items allocated to this factor have very high loadings compared to all other factors, ranging from .867 to .616, and indicating a high interrelationship of the items. As this factor reflects the importance of tourism for the region's cultural integrity, it was labelled *supporting local culture and identity*.

It is obvious that all variables are positively related to each other, suggesting that there is a consensus on role of, and effect on, culture in the development of tourism in the area. This was not unexpected since the literature consistently shows satisfaction with the socio-cultural benefits derived from tourism expansion, something that has made governments, developers and residents view tourism as a panacea for their destination's socio-cultural problems.

**Factor 2:** Although the economic benefits and the cultural and built dimension account for the largest amount of variance, it does not mean that the other factors are unimportant, since the second item in this group has the second highest overall loading. Both items are primarily statements dealing with the environment. Thus, this factor was labelled *environmental problem*. In this factor one can see that two of the variables are positively related to each other indicate agreement with the statement 'residents are satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning is currently taking place'.

As a result, residents who expressed their satisfaction with the overall positive impacts of tourism on the environment and social life, expressed, ‘tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to improve the environmental appearance of the area’. Another issue to note is the least significant variable found in this factor dealt with the impacts of tourism on social life and showed that residents related environmental impacts with social ones.

**Factor 3:** Since this factor incorporates statements dealing with the positive effects of tourism on culture and infrastructure, it was labelled *tool for development*. It was evident that residents did not favour tourism only for its economic benefits, but also for the incentives it provides for the restoration of historical buildings, the encouragement of a variety of cultural activities by locals and the increase in infrastructure for local people, items easily associated with the improvement of the destination’s image. In brief, sustainable rural tourism has economic, environmental, socio-cultural and experiential goals.

To examine whether sustainable rural tourism goals could be regrouped to help determine the main goals of intergrative tourism, exploratory factor analysis was performed. To determine the appropriateness of a factor analysis, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity were performed (Table 5.5). The value of KMO was 0.706, which was sufficient for further analysis.

**Table 5.5: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett’s test**

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.706
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	784.693
df	171	
Sig.	Less than .0005	

The factor analysis shows that the three most important issues for the residents of the Torra conservancy were the impacts of tourism on the economy, culture and environment, overall benefits and the development options to be followed by developers and planners. Nevertheless, it is essential to note that the addition of other variables could change the outcomes of the factor analysis. Other actions proposed included: cultural activities/restoration of traditional buildings, training/education, better control of tourist enterprises, lengthening of the tourism season and attraction of new markets (see Table 5.6).

**Table 5.6: Action for further tourism development**

	Torra Community (N = 149) %	Travel Industry (N = 41) %
More and beter infrastructure	83	73
Protection of the environment	80	68
Better planning/co-ordination	79	59
Cultural activities	76	54
Community economic benefit	76	68
<b>Average (mean)</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>64</b>

**Note:** responses do not add up to 100%, due to multiple answers.

Industry role players were more concerned with the improvement of services than residents. Similarly, it may be the case that owners/managers involved in tourism are more aware of the deficiencies of the tourism product. At first sight it might be supposed that people not 'involved' in the industry might be more aware of some of its problems. However, this may not be the case, since in the travel industry survey included a question asking for changes and improvements to be undertaken by the public sector towards tourism promotion; perhaps, industry officials thought that they had covered this topic earlier and did not want to repeat themselves.

The vast majority of respondents supported further tourism development, in particular, more infrastructural, environmentally-friendly and recreational facilities, better provision of services, protection of the environment, better quality, well-organised tourist enterprises and the attraction of better standard. Some opinions were expressed about the elimination of tourism development (from 13% of industry and 20% of residents). Three issues were mentioned: firstly, an overwhelming percentage of industry officials (82% of respondents) reported that the area is already saturated and/or well developed, although the figure among residents was much lower (31%) of responses.

This may be attributes to the fact that industry officials spend a lot of their time in places where there is high concentration of tourism activity, the areas where tourism business is located, whereas many of residents live in areas with lower tourist activity. As a result, industry officials may be more aware for the extent of the overdevelopment problem than residents.

Secondly, a high proportion of residents (46% of responses) suggested that further tourism development would lead to destruction of the society/culture. This suggests that residents paid more attention to the socio-cultural effects of tourism than the business sector. Both groups suggested that more tourism development might further pollute the environment (approximately 18% of responses).

In summary, from the above responses it is evident that residents expressed higher concern over the negative effects of tourism on society and/or culture, compared to industry officials whose major reason for the restriction of tourism development was an already well developed tourism industry. The provision of infrastructure was the main step that according to 40% of industry officials should be attended in planning tourism development. Other actions included: the provision of better quality services (10%) and environmental protection and management (9%), to reduce adverse problems, such as traffic congestion, noise pollution, aesthetic degradation, and overdevelopment.

Other action mentioned was the control and modernisation of tourism enterprises (8%), so as to provide better facilities and services and to attract higher quality tourists. Six per cent of industry officials asked for the maintenance of the Namibian tradition and/or culture that are considered among the country's competitive advantages. There was a call for lengthening the tourism season, as well as the attraction of better quality tourists (5%). Better education/training of all involved in Namibia's tourism industry is needed to address the problems faced by the tourism industry, according to five per cent of industry officials.

From the above statement, it is clear that the local community is important for the success of the area's tourism development and therefore there is a need to incorporate the local community's needs and desires in the development and planning process. Although one might consider that the conceptual task of proposing planning strategies would be difficult for many respondents, it is noteworthy that the response rates to this question for both the Torra community and travel industry officials were very high. This may be attributed to the interest of both community groups in tourism. The above analysis of both the Torra community and the travel industry's views of tourism have revealed that, despite some negative aspects, the overall impacts are generally felt to be positive and promising for the future.

The local community appreciates the value of the tourism industry for their conservancy's welfare and that tourism is important to the local economy and, it seems, the capacity to absorb tourism has not yet been reached. Many respondents welcomed and increase in the number of tourists, although most qualified their desire to see more tourists with the rider that it should be accomplished by extending the season and attracting higher spending/better quality tourists. Generally, there was an acceptance of further tourism development, although some concern was expressed about the negative impacts of tourism, mainly on the environment. Dissatisfaction was identified with the actions of those not receiving benefits from tourism, mainly through employment. When the respondents were asked to outline their own planning proposals for tourism development, a considerable number formulated proposals for the optimisation of the tourism sector including the improvement of infrastructure and facilities enhancement for the provision of services, environmental protection and respect for culture.

Further proposals included: more and better promotional activities, to provide better information and particularly to upgrade the image of Namibia, the exploitation of new areas of the tourist market, and calls for the public sector to become organised and responsible, as well as less bureaucratic. Among the benefits of tourism development cited by the local community respondents, economic advantages dominate the perceptions of the study groups, including employment creation, support of the local economy and generation of income for locals and government. The social impacts of tourism were considered beneficial by the majority of respondents although a minority mentioned disadvantages related to the weakening of social values and the commercialisation of relationships between the local population and incoming tourists. Additionally, the impacts of tourism on the environment were seen more negative, although industry respondents were more eager for the attraction of tourists outside the season and the encouragement of higher spending tourists.

Finally, respondents exhibited a great deal of confidence regarding the ability of the conservancy to become a more successful tourism destination, but voiced a need for investment in infrastructure and recreational facilities for greater tourism satisfaction with emphasis given to the environmental protection of the conservancy. Thus, in order to create additional facilities without causing any environmental degradation, conscious and integrated planning is necessary.

## **5.5 TOWARDS FORMULATING AN INTEGRATIVE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT FRAMEWORK**

Considering the preceding findings, a framework for tourism development should include the following aspects:

### **5.5.1 Networking**

Networking is a measure of how effectively stakeholders work together to support tourism (Auty, 1995). Many local respondents understood networking in the most basic sense of communication by word of mouth or by other means. Networking received the most uniform valuation between stakeholder groups and collectively represented the middle ground in terms of value added. Examples from the text indicate a sense of sufficiency in networking activities among most travel industry stakeholders. However, networking deficiency relating to services for the tourists was typically only cited by the local residents themselves.

Networking among all the actor groups was relatively weak and was mainly informal. The majority of the actor groups described networking as informal activities like advertising, word of mouth and ad hoc information sharing sessions. As might be expected, tourism institutions have the most extensive networks including both regional, national and international connections and relationships. Travel industry respondents gave the impression that they may be unsure about how to develop networking and promotion activities that will translate into profit. Most community members and even travel industry members were not only unaware of the tourism policies that aims to promote networking activities but were unaware such policies existed. This is particularly disturbing given the relatively small number of stakeholders and the interest institutions had expressed in cooperation.

It is clear that there are weaknesses in the current system of networking in the Torra area. A resolution to the networking issue is paramount as research suggests that networking is a key to stakeholder satisfaction (see Petersen, 2010). The more involved stakeholders are with each other through networking activities, the more satisfied they will be with change and development.

Stakeholder satisfaction has also shown a strong correlation with return on investment (Easteling, 2004). Yet, some researchers such as Tosun (2000); Schyvens (2003), argues that in developing countries, IRT is likely to remain small without a more systematically gradual approach of laying strong foundations through capacity building to develop the expertise needed to improve networking and reduce dependency on foreign expatriates.

Thus, it is important to note that this type of improvement in networking is not always successful. Clark *et al.*, (2007:375), in their study on ‘measuring integrated rural tourism’, using a similar methodology, found that the rhetoric of networking benefits do not automatically translate into real assets on the ground and that many tourism stakeholders often find it time consuming and problematic. Evidence from the surveys indicates that networking is not well understood in the Torra conservancy area. If locals are to benefit from a CBT product, communication and networking activities must be forged at the local level, especially relating to information and services for the travel industry themselves.

### **5.5.2 Scale**

Scale has to do with how tourism fits the carrying capacity of the area (see for example, Saxena *et al.*, 2007). Scale was the biggest problem identified by respondents. It was the collective second lowest valued dimension of the seven with travel industry valuing it the lowest. Scale weaknesses in the survey were most commonly linked to infrastructure and the lack of variety in entertainment options. Although nearly all the respondents had noticed a significant increase in tourism during the past few years, many were concerned whether or not the area had the capacity to host more tourists.

Community members seemed to have the clearest view of scale impediments. Issues with scale were not unexpected results. As was pointed out in the literature review section, rural tourism research has shown that rural tourist are typically lured to a region by unique natural and cultural features but that when they arrive they often experience unexpected restrictions of accessibility, infrastructure and information (see Mitchell and Reid, 2000).



Scale weaknesses are particularly evident in developing countries where, as opposed to rural tourism development in developed countries, the expansion of tourism into rural areas requires large amounts of investment in infrastructure (Binns and Nel, 2002; Petersen, 2010). The removal of these barriers is not likely to occur without considerable intervention by government and private sector support (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Ribeiro and Marques, 2002; Sharpley, 2002; Blackstock, 2005; Manyara and Jones, 2007). The majority of residents, including travel industry owners are in line with Tosun *et al.*, (1998) and their observation that local communities are ‘imprisoned by the basic need to merely survive’.

Despite the difficulty of the scale circumstances, the small scale and up market tourism in the Torra conservancy area is still considered an asset. Small-up-market tourism is the essence of true rural tourism and is still usually the most desirable (Cawley, 2008). However, this does not mean that improvements in infrastructure cannot be complementary to rural tourism. In the Torra conservancy, development that is complementary to the scale of resources in the area can be part of tourism offerings and the natural growth stages successful rural tourism.

### **5.5.3 Endogeneity**

Endogeneity relates to the uniqueness of tourism resources and the competitive advantage they provide (Clancy, 1999). Endogeneity is typically a key strength of successful rural tourism and was by far the most valued dimension. In fact, only the travel industry really strayed from the common consensus on the value of endogeneity. This was mainly due to that fact that many businesses expressed ideas about the future of tourism growth that included commercial-type attractions.

These types of attractions are not in line with the endogenous resources of the area. They included scenic flights, artificial waterholes and commercial hunting which are not traditionally parts of either the Torra or Namibian’s culture. Large commercial and culturally foreign attractions are far away from what the tourists said they came to experience. Local and foreign tourists alike felt attached to the area and its hospitable people and were particularly impressed by the simplicity of life and the traditional roles of families. They touted the beauty of nature and the lack of commercial exploitation.

In contrast to artificial attractions, travel industry respondents suggested a situation where tourists could mingle with locals and share in events and festivals unique to the culture and history of the area, showcasing local food and agricultural activities. The experiences and expectations given by the travel industry respondents indicated that they believed that rural tourists are ‘lured to a new destination by its unique natural and cultural features’.

This is an important fact fitting well with the Namibian Ministry of Environment and Tourism’s (MET) idea of CBT development in the rural areas. It is clear from the interviews that although some ambitious owners may be looking a bit beyond this, in general most stakeholders recognise and value the fact that resources are based upon authentic local and natural resources.

#### **5.5.4 Sustainability**

Sustainability in the present study was understood mainly from an environmental and ecological perspective. In this context, sustainability had by far the most diverse responses among actor groups. Responses about sustainability were typically negative except in the community interviews where most residents were accustomed to their surroundings and found them to be in an acceptable condition. The variation in responses among actor groups is likely a function of education, culture and empowerment.

Both informative groups seem to have a similar view of sustainability as it concerns the preservation of natural and historical tourism sites. For example, 80 percent of both respondents were aware on the concept and principles of ecotourism. Saxena *et al.*, (2007) suggest that residents and stakeholders become more active in environmental and other issues when they are better educated and have more choice and accountability. Other studies reveal that as these groups feel more empowered they tend to be more concerned with their natural and cultural heritage and begin appreciating those resources more and in turn appreciation leads to better stewardship (Petersen, 2010; Getz, 2004). Despite the good intentions of these initiatives, experts suggest that environmental protection that is approached in an ad hoc, donor-assisted way may be more concerned with short-term output rather than the long-term commitments needed to turn sustainability from wishful thinking to reality (see Tosun, 2006).

The environmental movement in the present study is small and there is a danger that if environmental issues are not addressed in tandem with scale and infrastructural concerns, increasing demand on already poor public services and resources may endanger the sustainability of both the tourism industry and the environment (Easterling, 2004).

### **5.5.5 Embeddedness**

Embeddedness is a unique valuation that is essentially the intersection of endogeneity and complementarity in that it is concerned with the importance of tourism in the culture and life of the area (Andriotis, 2000). Embeddedness was valued first overall with little variation between stakeholder groups. Community members valued it the highest which is encouraging as embeddedness is a community-based virtue that lends well to rural tourism development. This may be explained by the response of many community members indicating that tourism played a significant role in the Torra conservancy area. The embedded role tourism seems to play in the community's life is important and encouraging.

In Easterling's (2004) study about residents' perspective in tourism development, it was asserted that the way in which travellers are treated by the host community is one of the most important factors for a rural destination and is an important measure of pleasure and enjoyment. This tendency and opportunity for residents to take a direct and personal interest in visitors should be built upon. If community participation is a real priority and is encouraged properly in these early stages of development, it will play a critical role in the integration of tourism, creating intangible tourism resources that can lead to a strong competitive advantage (Tosun, 2000).

### **5.5.6 Complementarities**

Complementarity is a measure that deals mainly with how much benefit the local community experiences from tourism (Andriotis, 2000). Interestingly, complementarity was valued highest overall, representing a high level of local buy-in. As a measure, community members believed they received more value from tourism than the travel industry did.

Evidence from the survey suggests that the higher valuation among residents comes from a realization of non-monetary benefits. At this exploratory stage of tourism development, the scale of tourism seems to be acceptable to local residents and they are seeing a positive outcome. In this dimension particularly, it was clear that as Easterling (2004) observed, the more involved and knowledgeable residents were the more positive they were about tourism. Less knowledgeable residents only recognized the financial benefits derived less personal benefit. Developers need to be cautious at the early stages and be sensitive to local attitudes by including the community in planning.

In this way, as tourism grows, residents will be more likely to appropriately weigh the cost versus the benefit of tourism and maintain their optimistic views (For example, see Easterling, 2004; Petersen, 2010). The process of maintaining local benefit is better understood than it was in the past. Whereas it was traditionally assumed that economic growth from tourism would filter down to all of society, there is a consensus among modern rural development policy experts that in order to ensure complementarities of tourism growth, measures must be centred on poverty reduction (Telfer, 2009; Tosun, 2000). Complementarities is especially important in this situation as achieving local benefit is the main purpose for the MET's interest in CBT. Experts agree that participation of local residents should focus on educational mechanisms that garner participation from various social groups. These efforts need to be deliberated and take into account the long-term interest of society and their values right from the beginning so that this support will help offset the tendency of more mature tourist activities and operators to edge out less experienced and undercapitalized local businesses (Scheyvens, 2003). As tourism develops, community participation will be vital to ensure the community benefits when the destination becomes more defined (Murphy, 2004).

### **5.5.7 Empowerment and community involvement**

The notion of empowerment is perhaps the most important factor for the success of local tourism development (Cole, 2006). Empowerment is considered to be vital to encouraging a constituency for conservation and support for protected areas. The Namibian Government places a strong emphasis on effective, grassroots empowerment at the community level, by proving opportunities for community-based initiatives and individuals (see Fearnhead, 2007).

For the purpose of community-based natural resource management programme, economic empowerment comprised three principles elements: shareholding, employment (affirmative action and training), and the economic empowerment through the development of small, medium and micro-enterprises.

Community-based tourism is one of the main impacts of tourism development in the Torra Conservancy. Sustainable development through trophy hunting, craft sales, live game sales and joint venture tourism enterprises advocates for the fairness in the distribution of costs, benefits, decision-making and joint management by all used groups. One of the aspects that make the Torra Conservancy a successful business model is the devolution that made local community to gain ownership over resources and the benefit process. Devolution addresses the poverty of access to power and decision-making. The adoption and implementation of CBNRM programme has increased formal employment opportunities in several villages in the Torra Conservancy (Table 5.7).

**Table 5.7: Tourism related employment at Torra Conservancy 2013**

Hunting	Eco lodge(s)	Conservation
6 full-time	36 full-time	20 full-time staff
12 part-time	4 Service Contracts (for laundry services)	8 part-time staff
	2 security services	2 Lion/Rhino ranges
	6 casual staff (seasonal staff)	2 part-time field guards

Source: Wilderness Safaris (2014)

Employment of host population in tourism is a key factor in achieving sustainable tourism development. Also, this is because employment creates conditions that can reduce poverty (see Tosun, 2006). In the Torra Conservancy area, employment in the tourism is influenced mostly by the degree of linkages the industry has with other sectors of the economy, notably agriculture, the craft industry and the wildlife sector. As such community participation in the cost, benefit and decision-making and management of tourism development in the Torra Conservancy is critical in achieving sustainable rural development. This is therefore in line with Tosun's (2006) principles of sustainable tourism must make local people gain self-esteem and freedom from want, ignorance and squalor.

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While empowerment is concerned with the ability of local people to influence the development process and underscores the importance of their involvement, evidence from the field indicate that empowerment is however, one of the most problematic for the Torra conservancy area. Local residents were the less impressed with empowerment than tourist industry representatives. The influence of a very powerful local leader is not uncommon in transition economies and especially in very rural, frontier-type areas like the north-west of Namibia.

After the fall of apartheid in 1990, there was a vacuum of leadership as the former hierarchical system broke down. All over Namibia, but especially in the peripheral areas, an informal type of social structure grew out of the necessity to meet basic societal needs. This situation confirms Tosun's (2000) assertion that community control is not the default social system but that there is an inherent tendency for local elites to usurp power and alienate residents.

Because of this, it is often argued that although controlling and monopolistic governments are not optimal, decentralization is risky because locals may not be able to shoulder the authority and responsibility of development and that their inefficient use of this power may expose them to the exploitation of (often foreign) interested individuals and groups (Blacstock, 2005; Tosun, 2000). Community involvement even in developed countries is problematic so the difficulty is even more apparent in developing countries like Namibia where community participation in planning is not a social norm. Blackstock (2005) suggests that the main shortfalls of CBT are tied to misunderstandings about the concept of community involvement. Gunn (1994), also points out those communities are made up of diverse groups who need to be empowered through actual involvement in tourism rather than just being encouraged and convinced about why they should accept change.

The responses given by local actor groups in the Torra conservancy suggest that tourism is still in the very early stages of development where most of the local businesses are still locally owned and operated. This is a unique position that if exploited early on, may allow locals to form their own integrated plan for development through group entrepreneurship (see Gunn, 1994). In the case study area, it is evident that the local communities are not fully empowered to own and manage tourism businesses.

If developers include locals early in the planning process, problems of unmet expectations, excessive foreign dependency and power relations will give way to stronger plans and better implementation (Blackstock, 2005; Easterling, 2004). Mitchell and Eagles, (2001:24) suggest that the development of such a coalition is most likely to be built around a local agent who has trust and stature in the community and has the general well-being of society at heart. Tosun (2000) further suggests that this local champion might not be an individual but could be an NGO as they are typically closer to the people and their motivations are often in the interest of the poor.

The idea of a national CBNRM support structure emerged in the early 1990s through the work of the CBNRM partners, the Ministry of Environment and Tourism and the national NGOs. The objective was 'to promote activities that demonstrate that sustainably managed natural resources can result in social development and economic growth and in suitable partnership between local communities, private sector and government' through:

- A natural resource management and conservation programme – *it promotes wise and sustainable management of natural resources, and encourages biodiversity conservation by creating the necessary conditions for sustainable use;*
- A rural development programme – *it seeks to devolve rights and responsibilities over wildlife and tourism to rural communities, thereby creating opportunities for enterprise development and income generation; and*
- An empowerment and capacity building programme – *it encourages and assists communities and their local institutions to develop the skills and experience to sustainably develop and pro-actively pilot their own future* (NACSO, 2010).

As evident in the findings of this study, this has certainly been demonstrated and the programme has been successfully mainstreamed into national development, representing one of CBNRM's major, overriding achievement. CBNRM and the conservancy programme are now an integral part of Namibia's Millennium Development Goals, Rural Development, Rural Poverty Reduction, Vision 2030, and National Development Plans.

The conservancy movement has been a great success, and there are now 79 registered conservancies in Namibia, and several in the process of registration. The Namibia's community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) programme has mainly focused on social benefits from wildlife and the cultural and aesthetic values, which partly reflects the interests of local communities.

The programme aims at providing welfare, increasing economic growth and empowerment of people in the communal areas. It also tries to encourage community commitments to wildlife and biodiversity conservation and sustainable management of natural resources. So far, the programme has promoted enterprises, such as campsites, traditional villages and craft-centres for tourists (Ashley, 2000).

Namibia has adopted four approaches towards the implementation of community-based tourism initiatives. The first approach is a private tourism concession on communal land, usually a luxury game-viewing lodge or tented camps which employ local people and pay revenue to the State. The second approach is private luxury lodge which voluntarily shares revenue with a local community. This revenue is generated by charging an extra bed night levy per tourist at the lodge and the levy is then paid to the local community.

The third approach is a luxury lodge established as a joint venture between an outside investor and local community with each receiving profit shares. In this approach the local community provide, access to wildlife, natural beauty, cultural activities, crafts, labour, and natural building material, while the private investor provide the development capital, operations and marketing. The two parties enter in a contractual agreement which stipulate conditions on three main aspects: '*empowerment, financial, and environment*'. The fourth approach is a locally-controlled community enterprise, as a community campsite, craft centre or demonstration traditional village. Each of the four approaches makes some contribution towards the community-based tourism development objectives and the choice of the optimal approach depends on the existing conditions of the target area and on the chosen perspective. If increased cash income and other economic benefits are the prime objective in community-based tourism development, the private lodges (the first approach) would be given priority because they provide significant income through employment and wages.



However, only a few people earn wages and there is no collectively earned income for the whole community. A joint venture lodge would not only pay wages for local people but also generate more revenues for the community fund than any other approach. Community enterprises would also generate some income for a community fund but less than a joint venture (Ashley, 2000; Ndlovu *et al.*, 2011).

If broad social development, including skill and institutional development as well as empowerment and local control over resources, is emphasised more than economic growth, the joint venture and community enterprises have the greatest potential. The chosen approach should generate enough benefits to be widely distributed across the community and perceived as depended on natural resource conservation. The joint venture approach would contribute to natural resource conservation because it strengthens resource-management institutions and empower local people. The emergence of joint ventures and revenue-sharing enterprises will depend on the success of the conservancy model.

Conservancies would also need some support and assistance from the nongovernmental organisations (NGO's), donors and government agencies to establish such ventures. Conservancy would give more control and power to local people over tourism development because they had resource rights and could negotiate the terms of concession rights with private investors. Communities may then sub-lease (cede) tourism concession rights to private investors and hunting rights to safari operators and earn income from hunting concession fees. Conservation in conservancies would increase the natural resource base, which further increase their earnings. Another way for the communities to gain control over land is to apply for a Right of Leasehold through the formal procedure (For example, see Jones and Weaver, 2009).

Although tourism in prime tourism areas may generate substantial incomes per household per year, this study discovered that in areas with medium tourism potential the average tourism income per household could make a substantial contribution to household incomes but not substitute them. It is possible to make a switch from agriculture to tourism in some prime tourism areas, but in other areas tourism may only be a useful complement to agricultural income.

Tourism will not be a substitute way of life because of the cultural importance of livestock in communal areas of Namibia. Because tourism is not strongly affected by drought cycles, so it may relieve the losses caused by droughts. Tourism has potentials for increasing the community incomes available for rural development, whereas agricultural incomes are often insufficient for such purposes. There is no single ideal approach of tourism which should be promoted on communal land. The appropriate approach will always depend on local situation and conditions. Private and community enterprises may complement each other and an appropriate combination of enterprises is better than just one specific approach. Notwithstanding, competition for prime resources may also hinder community development and should be taken into account in the tourism planning process.

Namibia's 1996 Nature Conservation Amendment Act provides for rights over wildlife and tourism to be given to residents of 'communal lands' (land set aside before Independence as 'homelands' for the use of 'native' populations). Within communal lands, which are technically state-owned, traditional authorities have jurisdiction over land rights and residents have usufruct rights to farm or graze. In order to gain rights to wildlife under the 1996 Act, residents must form community-level resource management institutions called 'conservancies'.

They must define membership, set physical boundaries, elect leaders, agree on a plan for benefit distribution and adopt a formal constitution (MET, 2007). Conservancies can then manage wildlife and regulate tourism, including setting hunting quotas or entering into profit-sharing agreements with tourism companies (Jauch, 2001; MET, 2007; Schilcher, 2008). Torra Conservancy has a management committee of five men and one woman and employs five community game guards, a field officer, community activist and receptionist operating out of a conservancy office. In its initial stages, the Conservancy was given logistical, financial and technical support by a local non-governmental organisation. In 2000, however, it became the first conservancy to take over its own running costs, including salaries, vehicle maintenance and office management (Lauren *et al.*, 2009). The Ministry of Environment and Tourism – in conjunction with local non-governmental organisations and using local labour – undertakes wildlife surveys but the Conservancy makes decisions on hunting quotas.

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It conducts annual wildlife counting and monitoring and earns wildlife-based revenues from a joint-venture lodge, trophy hunting, live sales of springbok, as well as hunting for own consumption. Torra has a well-developed management plan and has eliminated commercial poaching. It is undoubtedly a 'flagship conservancy' (Long, 2004; Backer, 2009; Namibian Association of CBNRM Support Organisation (NACSO, 2010).

By time of writing this thesis, Torra conservancy spent approximately N\$1.2 million on providing benefits between 1998 and 2003. Most Torra respondents state that: they received meat and cash, while a portion gained employment or other benefits (Figure 3.4). Cash has been distributed once: a N\$630 dividend was paid to adult members in 2003 (Becker, 2009). This payment – about a month's wage – coincided with the beginning of the school year and its associated expenses. Meat is distributed twice annually after community hunts (residents are employed to hunt, prepare and distribute meat) and occasionally following trophy hunting. A truck drives to all villages and distribution is done under everyone's watchful eyes. Each member receives a sizeable share of meat, amounting to nearly a month's protein intake (Lauren *et al.*, 2009) and elderly members have received Christmas packages including food, blankets, socks, wallets, hats, handbags and scarves (NACSO, 2010).

Beyond direct employment and cash benefits from tourism enterprises, other benefits are recognized as part of Torra's success. These include livelihood benefits such as fencing to protect livestock and crops from wildlife predation and foraging. Secure community water boreholes, supply of diesel fuel for community water pumps, secure access to grazing areas and water for livestock are also all funded by the conservancy.

The people of Torra conservation area generally see community-based tourism as a good idea. Informal interviews with Conservancy members as well as household interviews indicated that people of the area think community-based tourism and should be encouraged. Involvement in decision-making in community-based tourism is one of the major social benefits for local communities in tourism development in the Torra conservation area. Previously, the decision-making process was centralised by government and major decisions in tourism were taken based on demands of operators who are mostly outsiders (Mbaiwa, 2008).

The need to adhere to the principles of sustainable development, especially social equity issues, where all stakeholders are involved in programmes that affect their lives, resulted in the inclusion of local communities in tourism management in the area. Social equity advocates for the fairness and equal access to resources by all user groups. Among other issues, it aims at ensuring equity in the distribution of decision-making and management of resources (Angelson, Fjeldstad and Radhid-Sumaila, 1994).

Murphree (1993:12) in his five principles of sustainable nature resource management notes that the unit of proprietorship (for example, who decides) should be the unit of production, management and benefits. Local communities that manage the natural resources should form the local management institution. As CBNRM aims at ultimately returning custody of natural resources to local communities, the formation of Community-based Organisations (CBO) in the Torra Conservation Area, therefore, offers them the opportunity to take decisions in tourism development in their local environment.

Other direct benefits include a stock-loss compensation scheme, funds to assist members with funerals and superannuation for retired employees. The Conservancy has also purchased a vehicle for the emergency transportation of residents to medical facilities, developed a vegetable garden, funded school renovations and supported the running of a kindergarten (NACSO, 2010). Employment is an additional benefit for one-third of respondents. Permanent and casual jobs are offered by the Conservancy (office, game guards and hunters).

The joint venture ecotourism lodge, the Damaraland Camp operated by Wilderness Safaris, a South African tour company, under a partnership agreement with Torra Conservancy, is the dominant revenue-generating enterprise, providing annual land rent revenue, monthly bed levy revenue and thirty four (34) full-time jobs for Torra conservancy members (Long, 2004) and also enters into contracts with individuals for laundry services, vegetable production and firewood collection. How benefits are calculated and distributed is the responsibility of the Conservancy committee, based on community input at the Annual General Meeting (AGM). Committee members are elected by ballot for 3-year terms.

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These are especially considering that these are rural remote villages in which large populations comprise mostly under-educated and unemployed youth and elderly people. Thus, CBNRM is the most important economic activity that provides formal employment opportunities in these villages. The fact that there is no industrial development or manufacturing in the Torra Conservancy area, tourism has become a major employment sector in the area, hence contributing to the goals of sustainable tourism through local employment and poverty reduction.

They each have a position such as chair or secretary, or a portfolio such as meat distribution or predation and meet at least quarterly (they are remunerated but it is not a full-time job). The chairperson is elected by the committees with community approval (in the past, the person with highest number of votes was automatically the chairperson).

Members are empowered to stand up and voice their concerns and to influence the direction of community conservation. The committee reports to the community on activities, finances and decisions made; the full membership in turn reflects on annual activities, debates and approves decisions, amends the constitution if necessary, elects committee members and can even remove the committee through a vote of no confidence (Long, 2004; NACSO, 2010). Hidden, or informal, political dynamics no doubt complicate the functioning of these formal institutions. Such dynamics, however, were not directly assessed in this study, nor did they emerge as considerations during the interviews or during the observation of the AGM.

There are opportunity costs of living with tourism enterprises like Damaraland Camp, such as tourist traffic through communities and grazing areas. However, the benefits are reported to have offset such costs (Long, 2004). Indirect benefits arising from the development and operations of the conservancy such as capacity building in natural resources and financial management have also been realized by the Torra Conservancy membership (Long, 2004).

## CHAPTER 6

### CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study has aimed to gain a better understanding of rural tourism planning practice and to apply this understanding into an integrative framework for improving the manner in which tourism is planned in rural Namibia. In order to obtain a theoretical understanding on this topic, integrative tourism development model was proposed which involved several key factors in planning sustainable rural tourism development. In order to achieve this purpose, the following objectives were formulated:

- examine the impact of policy framework on tourism development in rural Namibia;
- assess the level to which local communities have had control in the community-based tourism (CBT) in terms of rights, empowerment and economic benefits;
- examine the impact of tourism development in the study area; and
- to integrate these perspectives towards an integrative tourism development approach based on the findings of this study.

A literature review was undertaken to ascertain what previous research had been conducted in this field and to study the various theories relating to tourism planning and local development. From the literature, the concept of integrative tourism planning was thoroughly analysed and the constructs that form the framework for measuring community involvement and benefit were identified. A mix methods study was carried out to identify any further constructs not covered in the literature.

From the results, several conclusions and recommendations are drawn and applied to the conceptual model. The limitations of the study are presented against which the results and the interpretation thereof should be circumspectly viewed, and recommendations for further investigation in this important area of study are made.

## 6.1 MAIN FINDINGS DRAWN FROM THE RESULTS

As noted in this research, due to the interdependence of various stakeholders and the multifaceted nature of tourism, understanding integrative tourism planning in rural areas is a complex task. In order to overcome this difficulty, this research suggests an investigative approach, which considers policy, partnership, and place as three key components of planning sustainable tourism and local development. Based on this, the present study has examined tourism development in the Torra Conservancy, to obtain the necessary empirical evidence to provide an anchor for the development of an integrative model for community participation. These could include:

- economic integration – *the integration of other economic sectors with tourism, particularly retailing and farming;*
- social integration – *the integration of tourism with other trends in the socio-economy, notably the drive for quality and concerns for environmental protection and sustainable development;*
- policy integration – *the integration of tourism with broader national and regional goals for economic growth, diversification and development (see also, Dredge, 2006);*
- community integration – *the integration of tourists into local communities as ‘guests’, such that they occupy the same way, and become embedded in the same value chains as members of the host society Saxena et al., (2007:350).*

The findings show that current tourism development in the study area has generally facilitated local development and appears to contribute to sustainable development. The positive outcomes of tourism development that have been found in the fieldwork include providing the motivation for wildlife conservation and improved livelihoods though generating job opportunities which in turn have contributed to improving local sustainability from a social-cultural and economic perspective. Since the formation of the conservancy, a variety of new income has become available. The value of these has raised spectacularly over the years, for example, from about N\$300, 000 in 1998 to over N\$3 million in 2007 and 2008. About two-thirds of all income has been earned from tourism – largely in own use hunting and the sale of meat and live game have made up most of the remaining income.

About 25 people are usually employed at the lodge, more than 20 of whom are local residents of Torra Conservancy. Also, two local women now hold managerial positions. The conservancy has signed a new agreement with the Wilderness Safaris that has secured them a shareholding in the tourism business. This will provide the community with a share in profits in addition to a continued annual income based on turnover. From the environmental perspective, in order to promote tourism, government and residents have both contributed to improving the quality of the environment.

Because of these positive effects of tourism, all groups of key respondents expressed the view that they perceived current tourism development as improving local development. Several barriers to achieving sustainable rural tourism development also emerged during the investigation. These included the lack of an integrative local development framework, the need for tourism facilities, the provision of tourism services, the equitable distribution of benefits, and the threats of natural hazards.

The examination on policy, partnership and place provides an understanding of and suggestions for how current rural community-based tourism can overcome these barriers and improve the level of local development. Tourism-related policies and planning in Namibia show a strong central government influence on local tourism development. At one level, this appears to indicate a high level of interest of central government in promoting community-based tourism.

At another level, it affects the collaboration approach between central government, donor agencies, the private sector actors and the local communities (recipients), which only appear to facilitate temporary partnerships and the effectiveness of these dependent on the threshold size of private operators. Moreover, it was found that the dependence on central government directives limits innovation and cannot contribute to building distinctive identities of place due to the strong control from the centre (for example, the issue of land tenure and the duration of operation).



Another aspect with the current CBNRM and community-based tourism policy framework is that it often leads to completion over the rights, revenue and resource that conservancies bring to the local arena. However, the evidence presented in this study indicates that conservancies present an attractive institutional option for local residents to manage renewable natural resources and to gain income from sustainable utilisation.

In respect of the second element, partnership particularly between the tourism businesses themselves, this appears to be genuinely cooperative and positively impacts on commercial success and local development. The role of regional government in partnerships and collaborative arrangements, however, was found to be weak because of scarcity of financial and human resources. This indicates a need for regional governments to be aware of their responsibilities in developing local tourism, particularly with respect to promoting sustainable local development. The investigation on place suggests the need for local tourism planning which sensibly allocates investment and indicates the limits of development of place. The findings from the perspective of place show that both the use of natural resources and the investment in place are crucial to sustainable tourism development, particularly from a local economic stand point.

This might be because although natural resources can provide attractions for tourism development, in order for local communities to profit from tourism, it is important to invest in tourism products and services. On the other hand, in terms of the effects of tourism on place, as mentioned previously, most of the stakeholders perceived tourism as contributing more positive outcomes than the negative ones. The supportive attitudes towards tourism development from local communities and the absence of integrative tourism planning framework, highlight a concern that the economic priority may take over in future development. Meanwhile there are still doubts about the positive outcomes of tourism in terms of sustaining local development, and the extent to which it can tackle the scale of current rural problems, such as the decreasing population, or agricultural decline. The contributions of tourism to local and rural development remained limited overall.

From a theoretical perspective, a strong interrelationship between the factors of policy, partnership and place in tourism development has also appeared throughout these discussions. For example, tourism policy affects tourism development approaches, the patterns of tourism partnership, and even the iconic images of the place. Meanwhile, in order to promote sustainable local development, several forms of partnership are required, including business networking, community involvement and public-private sector collaboration.

In addition, policy and planning also need to ensure a balance between the use of local resources and future development. The influential correlations between policy, partnership and place that emerged from the empirical findings evidently support the integrated tourism concept proposed by this research. Furthermore, the 3 Ps (policy, partnership and place) concept has provided an investigative approach for future studies to understand the correlation between tourism and sustainable local development.

#### **6.1.1 Summary of the results from the tourism development and planning process**

The investigation of the tourism development and planning process has contributed to a better understanding of tourism development and planning in the rural areas of Namibia. It is evident that the growth of tourism in Namibia has been a blessing for the rural and remote regions and is communities. Benefits attributed to tourism development include employment and income generation, public sector revenue and infrastructure.

Additionally, tradition, culture and arts are maintained for tourist consumption. The social interaction between tourists and local community members enhances awareness and interest in international understanding and mutual friendship, for example (see Cole, 2006:2142). Tourist demand also often results in the preservation of historical and cultural monuments and the conservation of natural resources. Despite the afore-mentioned benefits, tourism also has undesirable effects. Unlike many other industries, the tourism industry is involved in the transportation of people rather than commercial goods. Tourism requires the customer (tourist) to visit the product (the host community). As mentioned in the literature (see, Berno, 1999:671) 'this physical presence of the 'customer' creates a unique set of socio-cultural consequences missing from other export industries'. People are attracted by the destination's resources.

Although many developing countries promote tourism for its positive effects, they ignore the facts that the tourism industry should be developed according to the capabilities of each destination (Wilson, 2001). Communities have certain limits. Growth beyond these limits can exceed the acceptability threshold of the local community and may lead to an anti-tourism attitude towards unsuspecting tourists. This can have a major influence on the future success of a destination, since community attitudes are one of the most essential determinants of visitor satisfaction and repeat visitation (Swarbrooke, 1999). In rural Namibia, the uncontrolled expansion of the tourism supply has often resulted in a deterioration of the rural image (Lapeyre, 2010), to the extent that rural areas now attracts low-spending tourists, highly concentrated in space and time and organised by foreign tour operators (Novelli and Gebhardt, 2007). As a result, proportion of the population in Torra has migrated to Bergsig, the main village close to the main road, where the shops, schools clinics and lodges (serviced by trucks) are located and where there are tourism jobs.

The problem of tourist concentration in space and time is that it causes considerable congestion at peak times, often at places of outstanding beauty or sensitive in ecological terms (Andriotis, 2000). In areas where foreign developers control tourist activity, conflicts between the host population and tourism development may occur (Baud-Bovy, 1982). Although the population of many remote destinations receive limited benefits from tourism expansion, due to the external control of the main facets of their tourism industry, the Torra community still retains significant control of many means of production in the local economy, although there is dependency on foreign tour operators.

In order to identify the positive and negative outcomes of tourism development for host communities, knowledge of the notions and preferences of the population living and operating within a tourism community is required (Pearce *et al.*, 1996). This is because the perceptions of the host community towards tourism and tourists are important in that they determine the level and type of welcome visitors are likely to receive, and generally affect the quality of the destination's product (Swarbrooke, 1993). Therefore, Boyer (2005:56) asserted that measuring and monitoring public attitudes can provide useful information to help the mitigation of problems before they become intolerable.

Similarly, Tribe (2006:369) states: ‘no longer can it be assumed that the residents of a tourism destination/region will automatically accept all (or any) forms of tourism development that the industry proposes or attempts to impose’. Given the importance of community opinions, views and desires for the acceptability of tourism and tourists, the survey of the three groups (local residents, government and travel industry) at the heart of the present study was undertaken in 2010.

Among the three study groups, the travel industry and the government have traditionally been involved in tourism development, while residents were required to live with the outcomes of tourism development and planning, based on the decisions taken by the other two groups. By studying the perceptions of each group of tourism development, attempt was made to identify the acceptability of tourism, in order for guidelines to be provided for the future tourism development of the area. Although subject to limitations, mainly a small budget and limited time, the present study revealed the preferences of the community.

### **6.1.2 Community involvement in the development and planning process**

Tribe (2006:372) suggests that the involvement of the local community in the development process is a prerequisite for sustainability. Residents’ acceptance of tourism development is considered important for a destination’s long-term success in tourism, since if tourists are greeted with hostility their numbers will decline (Boyer, 2005). As Cawley and Gillmor (2008:317) indicate, ‘local government and tourism promoters should lay particular emphasis on the findings that if people feel they have access to the planning/public review process and that their concerns are being considered, they will support tourism’.

A comparison of reality with the results of the primary research finds that acceptability of the local population of the industry is high (with limited exceptions), but there were signs of only limited involvement of the local population in decision-making. Therefore, attempts should be made to ensure that the aspirations of the locals for their community and its future development are integrated into the determination of development objectives, policies and plans.

Through greater involvement, it is assumed that the local population can gain more benefits, the quality of services provided to tourists can be improved and adverse socio-cultural impacts can be minimised. A systematic analysis of local opinions and perceptions can play a vital role in tourism policy formulation. Only through a continuous dialogue between community groups, about tourism costs and benefits and the desired future strategies of tourism development, can a consensus on development policies and programmes be assured in the long run. Similarly, the private sector and the local population should understand that the government may be obliged to prevent development which will bring economic benefits in the short term in order to achieve sustainability in the long-term. Bearing in mind the limitations of community participation such as the increased costs and delays in plan implementation that extensive consultation will bring about, as well as the multiple structures of the Namibian Government.

A number of key lessons have emerged:

- Conservancies should be capacitated to develop their own vision and plans for integrated rural development (not just wildlife and tourism) through which service provision should be coordinated;
- Conservancies in Namibia have found it difficult to deal with the issue of benefit distribution and in some cases, income from tourism and trophy hunting has sat in the bank without being distributed as a dividend to households. This may be caused by a loosely representative group of people who have to try and satisfy the needs of diverse groups and interests within the community;
- The proprietorship given to Namibia communal area conservancies is limited and conditional and most of management decision (for example, when to harvest, how to harvest, off-take levels, species to be harvested, type of tourism to be developed) are still taken by government.
- Currently, in Namibia the financial benefits from wildlife and tourism to households remains low, costs of living with living with wildlife remain high and community proprietorship over wildlife remains weak;
- Finally, a lack of secure land tenure means that communities cannot easily raise capital loans themselves based on their land as partners in tourism joint ventures where rights to the land are not secure and the investment risk is therefore high.

### **6.1.3 Tourism linked to community integration**

The community survey and the investigation of the tourism development and planning process undertaken in the present study have shown that although some problems exist, the local population has expressed positive attitudes towards tourism development. The results indicate that socio-cultural and economic components of tourism will be related and proportional to the degree of community integration. That is, one community characterised as highly integrated in its local tourism industry may experience significant and positive socio-economic differences when compared to another community with a low degree of integration in tourism.

Specifically, greater perceived and actual socio-economic benefits directly correspond to greater levels of community participation and control in the provision of local tourism services and product. Participation in the local tourism industry may be defined by numbers of people equitably involved (for example, balanced and non-discriminatory), and the general public degree of influence in decision-making processes.

In general, the integrated community should also have a significant degree of local control in the provision of tourism services and products. However, this control may be negatively affected by external forces such as regional competition, travel agents and suppliers of materials. Internally, increased individualism and consumerism in previously isolated communities may erode community harmony and be responsible for diminished control of the local tourism scenario.

This study also found that greater community integration, tourism planning and management enhances local socioeconomic benefits. Economic benefits include direct and indirect employment, revenues, ownership and profitability. The kind of employment and degree of influence within the local tourism scenario is as important as the distribution of economic benefits. Social benefits include positive perceptions and attitudes towards the local tourism industry, as well as changes in traditional lifestyles. Greater integration in tourism may decrease potential impacts, since the community would conceivably have direct control in setting the terms and conditions for tourism development.

Notwithstanding, it was found that integration elements – awareness raising and equitable sharing of benefits – may be congenitally easier to achieve in communities characterised by a long tradition of solidarity. This research has also demonstrated that influential local (and often non-local) dominant interest groups may circumvent overall community needs or wishes, while providing a semblance or veneer of consensual decision-making. Perceptions, with some views possibly being sacrificed for the sake of solidarity with marginalised community members such as women, may be difficult yet critical to attain, especially if equitable sharing of power and other benefits are desired. This research has also shown the importance of encouraging community integration at the onset of tourism development, perhaps by the support of local tourism champions working closely with residents in creating a community designed and delivered product.

Since the local community perceives that there is limited control of the industry, which relatively speaking is true, then in order to avoid the mistakes of the past, the development of new destinations should not be based only on economic considerations but on environmental and cultural conservation and continuous and unprejudiced control. Only then, will these investments be environmentally-friendly, directed to the attraction of alternative and cultural forms of tourism and inspired by the local culture and architectural tradition.

It is essential to note that none of the aforementioned recommendations is sufficient alone. The Namibian rural tourism industry has many opportunities for expansion, but also faces serious problems. There is a need to draw up a plan for rural tourism development, backed by the whole community in order to achieve the optimisation of benefits, maximise the efficient use of available funds and minimise costs. It is imperative for this plan to clarify the goals, strategies, means and bodies of implementation. Tourism is a dynamic activity and does not function in a vacuum, but in an environment, where at any time, conflicting interests and changing circumstances can deflect the development process (WTO, 1994). Thus, continuous monitoring and reassessment of international, national and domestic factors affecting tourism development in rural Namibia are necessary. However, limited funding, current tourism policy, bureaucratic and organisational difficulties and centralised administration leave few hopes for the implementation of many of the above recommendation.

## 6.2 STUDY CONTRIBUTION

By extending the existing integrated tourism concepts, this study seek to contribute to the literature in identifying the policy, planning and implementation concepts of integrated tourism framework. This model enables research to analyse and interpret the complex causes and effects between these factors (policy, planning and implementation) in promoting sustainable community-based tourism and local development initiatives. In this regard this research contributes to the literature from both empirical and theoretical perspectives.

One of the aspects that make the Torra Conservancy a successful business model is the devolution that made local community to gain ownership over resources and the benefit process. Devolution addresses the poverty of access to power and decision-making. On the basis of these findings, policy makers and planners should support the momentum towards community-based approaches and seek to empower representative local institutions that are both legitimate and accountable to their members and that have adequate capacity and durable structures for good governance.

The integrative approach enables research to analyse and interpret the complex causes and effects between these key factors in promoting sustainable community-based tourism and local development. The intended benefit of this approach is that it may help address a concern in the literature that 'inadequate participation of stakeholders in policy decisions, lack of knowledge of stakeholders, attitudes and preferences and difficulties in quantifying economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism have been at the epicentre of most tourism development conflicts. The notion of integrated tourism planning and development is centred on the local-global nexus, however, tourism studies often address the issue from a destination perspective (Saarinen, 2006: Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram, 2011).



## **6.3 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATION**

### **6.3.1 Limitations**

A serious problem in Namibia which is directly related to public policy is the fact that it does not collect statistical data about rural tourism. Therefore, one cannot safely judge whether a policy is successful or not, unless there is some way to compare a past and a future situation. Although the researcher made efforts to get as many participants as possible, the fact that this research was designed and implemented based on voluntary participation; the researcher had very limited control on who chose to partake in the study and who not. Above all, some of the expected respondents might not have adequate time or the required knowledge to respond fully to the questionnaires. This study zoomed in at a particular point in time and continuous research thereafter would be of utmost importance. Actually, there is a need to conduct short-term studies on every aspect of tourism development in the remote-rural areas of Namibia to ultimately establish a tourism research base line.

This generates a challenge to this research regarding the evaluation of tourism outcomes and the impact on local development. The perceived, successful, sustainable community-based tourism may not be successful in contributing to sustainable local development at a higher spatial level, such as a global scale. Given that data collection was obtained from a single, local-destination area, the danger in generalising, reflecting or linking these findings to a higher level, nationally or globally, is a key limitation of this thesis.

### **6.3.2 Delimitation**

For the purpose of this study the concept of integrative tourism development framework is defined according to Jenkins & Oliver (2001), 'tourism that is explicitly linked to the economic, social, cultural, natural and human resources of the localities in which it takes place'. The main aim of this study is to develop an integrative tourism development framework for local communities in Namibia.

Through a thorough review of literature, no study appears to have identified whether local communities are satisfied with the image created of themselves and their culture. Thus, it is not the intention of this study to design a tourism development plan for Namibia, but merely to outline key aspects that should be taken into consideration when integrative tourism development is formulated. Furthermore, the purpose here is to make the reader aware of the role and contribution of tourism in local and regional development from the local community's perspective as identified in existing literature, and then to relate it to the present study rather than being an attempt to measure the actual effects. The host community consists of residents, tourism professionals, employees, planners and tourism entrepreneurs exclusively in the rural areas of Namibia.

#### **6.4 RESEARCH IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH**

This research has potential implications for tourism and rural development policy formulations in rural Namibia. Based on the examination of various tourism-related policy and planning mechanisms conducted as part of this research, it was found that sector-specific policies in Namibia have been well developed in terms of promoting community-based tourism and that development was rather than being planned and informed absolutely by a policy.

However, there is a need to establish a better coordination mechanism at an organisational level and policy levels, particularly between the central and local level, to clarify the responsibilities, to increase the effectiveness of policy implementation, and to enhance the operation of tourism partnerships. Additionally, once tourism has been considered as a main development focus of a place, there is a need for the establishment of long-term planning, which identifies local resources and indicates the limits of development, taking into consideration the needs of community-based tourism and the principle of local development.

As such, tourism would be seen as a tool for rural development in which integrated rural development approach can provide a useful framework for implementing the elements recognising the need for sustainability, but also the complex nature of rural areas, local communities and their desires in the contemporary pressure of globalisation.

Although the ITR is still a theoretical option in many developing countries, further studies are thus proposed with practical planning cases in order to realise rural development in Namibia. By adopting the IRT framework, it is hoped that, current and evolving rural tourism initiatives and programmes could potentially represent a value-based policy and planning tool, depending on the intrinsic nature of the rural settings in the respective developing world.

The use of quantitative approach well as the analysis of the perceptions of the key stakeholders towards their partnership helped the present study to provide an interpretation that can reflect the socio-cultural and political context. Continued observation of the study area is suggested, as it is advisable to explore their further development, especially when the partnerships are about to enter the next phase of collaboration and particularly with regard to the impacts of the soaring level of tourism development in the area.

## **6.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

Despite some negative consequences arising from the unplanned evolution of tourism in Namibia, the country has many unspoiled landscapes and abundant wildlife, perhaps among the last in the southern Africa. Many areas have remained untouched by tourism expansion. The prediction is that tourism activities will expand further. Although the diffusion of tourism activity to more areas of the country will further increase the economic benefits, there will be further exploitation of resources and a subsequent increase in negative environmental and social impacts. In order to avoid or at least minimise potential problems from tourism expansion in the Torra Conservancy area, there is a need for careful planning, financing, and policy implementation, as well as incorporation of the local community perceptions into the development and planning process in order to ensure host acceptability of further tourism development.

The methodology used in this thesis can be thought of as a process for reinforcing positive outcomes and solving problems through the investigation of the reality of community perceptions. The process used was comprehensive and integrated and proceeds from the investigation of the tourism development and planning process to specific strategies and recommendations.

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In this sense, it is extremely difficult to make generalised universally-accepted proposals for tourist destinations. What is certain is the significance of the tourism industry for Namibia and the citizens. Also, it is important to note that, if a new paradigm of rural development is to emerge, it will be one in which agriculture takes its place along with host of other actual and potential rural and non-rural interest groups that are important to the construction of viable rural livelihoods, without undue preference being given to farming as the solution to rural poverty. It is, in this sense, evident that the cross-sectorial and multi-occupational diversity of rural livelihoods may need to become the cornerstone of rural development policy if efforts to reduce rural poverty are to be effective in the future.

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## **APPENDIX A**

### **QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LOCAL COMMUNITIES**

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**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TORRA COMMUNITY**

Please fill or mark the appropriate space.

**SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

For office use only

1	Respondent number				V1	<input type="text"/>
2	Region: _____				V2	<input type="text"/>
3	Employment terms:	1 Employed <input type="text"/>	2 Unemployed <input type="text"/>		V3	<input type="text"/>
4	Gender:	1 Male <input type="text"/>	2 Female <input type="text"/>		V4	<input type="text"/>
5	Age: _____ years				V5	<input type="text"/>
6	Highest Qualification				V6	<input type="text"/>
	1 No formal schooling	<input type="text"/>				
	2 Primary schooling	<input type="text"/>				
	3 Grade 12	<input type="text"/>				
	4 Diploma/Degree	<input type="text"/>				
	5 Other (specify)	<input type="text"/>				
7	Years of residence in the area: _____ years				V7	<input type="text"/>

**SECTION B: SOCIAL IMPACTS**

		1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
8	Tourism will encourage an increase in socio-cultural pride for the inhabitants along the tourist route.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	V8
9	If you <b>agree</b> in 8 above, do you think that (please answer each question):						
	1. The current level of tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of local residents.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	V9.1
	2. Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	V9.2
	3. The benefits of local community from tourism outweigh the negatives.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	V9.3
	4. The current level of community tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers.	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	V9.4

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						For office use only	
10	If you <b>disagree</b> in 8 above, do you think that (please answer each question)::						
		1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
	1. Further growth in tourism will result in overcrowding of amenities by tourists.						V10.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2. An increase in tourists will result in resentment between residents and tourists.						V10.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3. The community should take steps to restrict tourism development.						V10.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community.						V10.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
	5. Community tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour.						V10.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11	Please indicate to which extent each of the following statements is a true reflection of your experience of the tourism industry in the area?						
	1. Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value.						V11.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2. Tourism development increases the development of facilities for residents.						V11.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3. Locals are banned from using tourist facilities in the area.						V11.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals.						V11.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
	5. Tourism has increased pollution problems in the area.						V11.5 <input type="checkbox"/>
	6. Government should restrict further development of tourism in the area.						V11.6 <input type="checkbox"/>
	7. Traditional African culture in the area is being commercialised (sold) for sake of tourists.						V11.7 <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>SECTION C: PHYSICAL/ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS</b>							
12	The development of tourism has generally improved the environmental appearance of the area.						V12 <input type="checkbox"/>
13	Please evaluate the following:						
	1. Tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to improve the environmental appearance of the area.						V13.1 <input type="checkbox"/>
	2. There are better infrastructures due to tourism development.						V13.2 <input type="checkbox"/>
	3. Residents are satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning is currently taking place.						V13.3 <input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Current tourism development has led to more litter in the area.						V13.4 <input type="checkbox"/>
<b>SECTION D: CULTURAL IMPACTS</b>							
14	Are you familiar with the concept ecotourism? 1 Yes <input type="checkbox"/> 2 No <input type="checkbox"/> 3 Uncertain <input type="checkbox"/>						V14 <input type="checkbox"/>
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	
15	Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect for one another's culture).						V15 <input type="checkbox"/>



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16	Please indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with each one of the following statements:									V16.1	
	1. Tourist interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of cultural pride.									V16.2	
	2. Local people alter their behaviour in an attempt to copy the style of tourists.									V16.3	
	3. Interaction with tourists has led to a deterioration of local languages.									V16.4	
	4. Tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people.									V16.5	
	5. Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population.									V16.6	
	6. Tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity of the population.										
17	How important/unimportant are the following aspects of tourism in the area?										
		Not important at all	Unimportant	Neutral	Important	Very important					
	1. The number of tourists on community tours should increase significantly.									V17.1	
	2. Tourism will gradually result in an increase in land rates and taxes.									V17.2	
	3. Residents have been consulted and made aware of the tourism development plan for the area.									V17.3	
	4. Meeting tourists promotes respect for one another's culture.									V17.4	
	5. Local residents oppose the presence of tourists in the area.									V17.5	
	6. Local culture is being renewed as a result of tourism.									V17.6	
18	<b>Please evaluate the following statement:</b> Community life has become disrupted as a result of the development of tourism in the area.									V18	
	1 True		2 Not true		3 Uncertain						

<b>SECTION E: SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS</b>		<b>For office use only</b>					
		1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
19	Please indicate to which extent you agree or disagree with following statements:						
	1. Only a small minority of residents benefit economically from tourism.						V19.1
	2. Income generating opportunities created by tourism development are evenly distributed across the community.						V19.2
	3. By increasing jobs and generating income, tourism promotes an increase in the social wellbeing of residents.						V19.3
	4. The development of tourism in the area benefits visitors more than the locals.						V19.4
		1 Never	2 Rarely	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Very often	
20	How frequently do you see the following happening as a result of tourism development in the area?						

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1. Tourism has led to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism.								V20.1	
2. In addition to payment of tour operators for tour costs, tourists make donations for the benefit of the local community.								V20.2	
3. Tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for residents.								V20.3	
4. Tourism holds great promise for residents' economic future.								V20.4	
5. Tourism has already improved the economy of the area.								V20.5	
6. Residents have been adequately consulted about the development of tourism in the area.								V20.6	
7. It is easier for young people to benefit from tourism.								V20.7	

**Thank you for your time and attention in completing the Questionnaire.**

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## **APPENDIX B**

### **QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TRAVEL INDUSTRY**

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**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TRAVEL INDUSTRY**

Please fill or mark the appropriate space.

**SECTION A – BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION**

- 1 Enterprise number \_\_\_\_\_
- 2 Type of Enterprise: \_\_\_\_\_
- 3 Years of existence: \_\_\_\_\_ years
- 4 Under what type of ownership is the enterprise?

1. Individual	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Limited Company	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. State owned	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Close cooperation	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Other (specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

- 5 Number of enterprises in Namibia: \_\_\_\_\_

**SECTION B: GENERAL INFORMATION**

- 6 Would you like to see more development of Namibia as tourist destination?
- 7 If you **agree** in 6 above, do you think that (please answer each question):

	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
1. The current level of tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of local residents.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V7.1
2. Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V7.2
3. The benefits of local community from tourism outweigh the negatives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V7.3
4. The current level of community tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	V7.4

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V1

V2

V3

V4

V5

V6

V7.1

V7.2

V7.3

V7.4

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8	If you <b>disagree</b> in 6 above, do you think that (please answer each question)::						
		1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
	1. Further growth in tourism will result in overcrowding of amenities by tourists.					V8.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
	2. An increase in tourists will result in resentment between residents and tourists.					V8.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
	3. The community should take steps to restrict tourism development.					V8.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community.					V8.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
	5. Tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour.					V8.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Please indicate to which extent each of the following statements is a true reflection of your experience of the tourism industry in Namibia?						
	1. Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value.					V9.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
	2. Tourism development increases the development of facilities for residents.					V9.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
	3. Locals are banned from using tourist facilities.					V9.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals.					V9.4	<input type="checkbox"/>
	5. Tourism has increased pollution problems.					V9.5	<input type="checkbox"/>
	6. Government should restrict further development of tourism.					V9.6	<input type="checkbox"/>
	7. Traditional African culture is being commercialised (sold) for sake of tourists.					V9.7	<input type="checkbox"/>
<b>SECTION C: PHYSICAL/ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS</b>							
10	The development of tourism has generally improved the environmental appearance of the area.					V10	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Please evaluate the following:						
	1. Tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to improve the environmental appearance of the area.					V11.1	<input type="checkbox"/>
	2. There are better infrastructures due to tourism development.					V11.2	<input type="checkbox"/>
	3. Residents are satisfied with the manner in which tourism development and planning is currently taking place.					V11.3	<input type="checkbox"/>
	4. Current tourism development has led to more litter in the area.					V11.4	<input type="checkbox"/>

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<b>SECTION D: CULTURAL IMPACTS</b>							
12	Are you familiar with the concept ecotourism?						
	1 Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>	2 No	<input type="checkbox"/>	3 Uncertain	<input type="checkbox"/>	V12
					Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral
					Agree	Strongly agree	
13	Meeting tourists promotes respect for one another's culture.					V13	<input type="checkbox"/>



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1. Tourism has led to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism.						<b>V18.1</b>
2. In addition to payment of tour operators for tour costs, tourists make donations for the benefit of the local community.						<b>V18.2</b>
3. Tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for residents.						<b>V18.3</b>
4. Tourism holds great promise for residents' economic future.						<b>V18.4</b>
5. Tourism has already improved the economy of the area.						<b>V18.5</b>
6. Residents have been adequately consulted about the development of tourism in the area.						<b>V18.6</b>
7. It is easier for young people to benefit from tourism.						<b>V18.7</b>

**Thank you for your time and attention in completing the Questionnaire.**

## **APPENDIX C**

### **TOPIC SCHEDULES**



## INTERVIEW GUIDE I

These topic schedules were designed according to the three main groups of research questions that were devised for this research. Four different topic schedules were produced for interviewing the four different types of actors, for example, government, community organisations, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGO) and business owners/managers.

### 1. INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR GOVERNMENT AUTHORITIES

#### Introduction:

- Give a brief introduction of the study and explained as to why the questions will be asked;
- Declared that the interview will be used for the PhD study and that the information given will be treated confidential;
- Request permission to record the interview

#### The role of your institution in relation to tourism development

- What affairs are you responsible for in relation to tourism development (for example, tourism policy formulation, etc.)?

#### Views on tourism policy

- Do you think that the current tourism policy has a clear vision for tourism development?
- In your view, what are the barriers of current policy in terms of sustainable tourism and local development?
- In your view, what can be done or improve current policy in terms of contributing to sustainable tourism and local development?

#### Views on collaboration and networking

- What mechanisms are used by your office to collaborate with other key stakeholders in the development of tourism?
- What could be done to improve the mechanisms?

#### Views on environmental impacts

- What is your view on tourism impacts (positive and/or negative) on the destination area?
- Do you think that the current policy can limit negative impacts and manage the quality of the destination area effectively?

#### Views on tourism industry

- Do you think current tourism development in rural areas is sustainable? Why?
- What could be done to improve the sustainability of tourism and destination development?

#### Final thoughts

- Is there anything else you wish to add?

- END OF INTERVIEW -

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### 2. INTERVIEW GUIDE II (TOURISM BUSINESSES)

#### Introduction:

- Give a brief introduction of the study and explained as to why the questions will be asked;
- Declared that the interview will be used for the PhD study and that the information given will be treated confidential;
- Request permission to record the interview

#### The role of your business in rural Namibia

- How long have you run your business in rural Namibia?
- Which characteristics (for example, natural resources or cultural factors...) of this destination made you decide to run a business in rural Namibia?
- What is your view on the seven integrated dimensions (Networking; Scale; Endogeneity; Embeddedness; Complementarities; Empowerment)?
- 

#### Views on tourism policy

- Do you get support from the government for your business? In what way? (Subsidies/ tax reduction, marketing)?
- Does the current policy affect or relate to you? In what way? Does it benefit or limit your business? (control)
- Have you participated in any form of decision-making process? In what way?
- Was your participation effective?
- In terms of policy what do you think can be done to improve the sustainability of tourism and development?

#### Views on collaboration and networking

- Are local residents in your business? In what way? (partnership)
- Does your business cooperate with other businesses / tour agents? In what way?
- Do you feel these partnerships (with other businesses/tour agents...) help your business grow?
- What could be done (and by whom) to help build a supportive network?
- Do you think that tourism development benefits the destination? In what way?

#### Views on environmental impacts

- What are the characteristics of a destination (for example, natural resources/cultural/atmosphere) in terms of tourism development?
- Can these characteristics attract tourism development? Or limit tourism development? What are the barriers to tourism development?
- What kind of tourism impacts does your business have?
- In your view, the current tourism development sustainable? Why?
- What do you think can be done to improve the sustainability of tourism and local development?

#### Final thoughts

- Is there anything else you wish to add?

- END OF INTERVIEW -

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### 3. INTERVIEW GUIDE III (LOCAL COMMUNITY ORGANISATIONS AND/OR NGOs)

#### **Introduction:**

- Give a brief introduction of the study and explained as to why the questions will be asked;
- Declared that the interview will be used for the PhD study and that the information given will be treated confidential;
- Request permission to record the interview

#### **Establishing a community organisation**

- How long have this conservancy organisation been established?
- In general, what does the community organisation do? Who are members of this organisation? From where? Number of people?
- What is your view on the seven integrated dimensions (Networking; Scale; Endogeneity; Embeddedness; Complementarities; Empowerment)?

#### **Views on tourism policy**

##### ***Capacity building***

- Do you get support from the government in relation to tourism? In what way? (Finances/skill/ subsidy on infrastructure improvement, marketing)? Is the support effective?

##### ***Participation***

- Have you participated in any form of decision-making process in relation to tourism? In what way? Was your participation effective? In what way? What sort of benefits emerge from this partnership?
- In terms of policy, what do you think can be done to improve the sustainability of local development?

#### **Views on collaboration and networking**

- Does this community organisation engage in any form of tourism related activities or business? In what way? (partnership)
- For what reason has this community started to engage in tourism related activities or businesses? In what way? Since when? Do you feel this partnership contributes to tourism development?
- What could be done (and by whom) to help build a supportive network?

#### **Views on environmental impacts**

- What are the characteristics of a destination (for example, natural resources/cultural/atmosphere) in terms of tourism development?
- Do you think these characteristics attract tourism development? Or limit tourism development?
- What are your views on tourism impacts (positive and/or negative) on the destination?
- Do you think that the current policies or strategies can limit negative impacts and manage the quality of the destination?
- In your view, is the current tourism development sustainable? Why?
- Do you think that tourism development bring benefits to local communities? In what way? (for example, local economic development?)
- What do think government authorities can do to improve the sustainability of tourism and local development?

#### **Final thoughts**

Is there anything else you wish to add?

- **END OF INTERVIEW** -

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## **APPENDIX D**

### **LETTERS OF APPROVAL**

### 13. APPROVAL OF APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE

**RESEARCHER/APPLICANT:**

I, as researcher/applicant undertake to **archive the research data** for a minimum period of ten (10) years.

Name in capital letters: ...ERLING KAVITA.....

Signature:  ..... Date: <sup>20 November 2009</sup> 20 November 2009.....

**STUDY SUPERVISOR:**

I am of the opinion that the proposed research project is ethically acceptable

Ethical implications  No ethical implications

Name in capital letters: *G.D.H. Wilson* .....

Signature:  ..... Date: *11/02/2010* .....

**CHAIR: DEPARTMENTAL RESEARCH COMMITTEE**

Name in capital letters: *G.D.H. Wilson* .....

Signature:  ..... Date: *11/02/2010* .....

**HEAD OF DEPARTMENT:**

Name in capital letters: *E.T. HEATH* .....

Signature:  ..... Date: *11/2/2010* .....

**CHAIR: FACULTY RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**

Name in capital letters: .....

Signature: ..... Date: .....



# TORRA CONSERVANCY

P.O. Box 462, Bergsig, Khorixas, Kunene, Namibia

Tel/Fax: +264 (0)67-697063 • Cell: +264 (0) 813 345 308

E-mail:torraconservancy@gmail.com

August 21, 2009

Research Committee  
University of Pretoria  
South Africa

To Whom It May Concern:

This letter serves to testify that the Torra Conservancy (north-west of Namibia), grand consent to Mr. Erling Kavita to conduct research in the area for his PhD in Tourism Management at the University of Pretoria on "Local perception of tourism as a development tool in Namibia.

For further information, please do not hesitate to contact the conservancy at the above-mentioned address.

Regards,

Emil Roman  
Manager: Torra Conservancy



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FACULTY OF ECONOMIC AND MANAGEMENT SCIENCES  
STUDENT ADMINISTRATION

19 October 2012

Mr E Kavita  
Polytechnic of Namibia  
Private Bag 13388  
Windhoek

Dear Mr Kavita ,

**SUBJECT: THESIS**

I have pleasure in informing you that the following subject has been approved:

**SUBJECT:** Towards an integrative tourism development framework for local communities in Namibia

EBW08/06 Attached please find a checklist (**EBW 08/06**) and Notice to Submit (**EBW 11/07**).  
EBW11/07

Your enrolment as a student must be renewed annually until you have complied with all the requirements for the degree, preferably during the official period of enrolment but before **28 February**. You will only be entitled to the guidance of your supervisor if annual proof of registration can be submitted.

Kind regards

For **Prof E Loots**  
**DEAN**