



**Tourism Development, Rural Livelihoods and Land Use Conflicts Resolution at Tachila
Nature Reserve, NED, Botswana.**

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Unabo Tafa, declare that the work presented herein is my own except where acknowledged and that it has never been presented for an award for Masters of Philosophy in Natural Resources Management at the University of Botswana (Okavango Research Institute) or any institute of higher learning.

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APPROVAL

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DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to my late grandparents. To my maternal grandmother Mrs. Elinah Motlhapa Dambe, and to my paternal grandparents Mrs. Chiyapo Tshambani Tafa and Mr. Tshambani Tafa. It pains to mention that you raised me well but unfortunately, you departed before seeing the product of your grandson. Rest in Peace.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BNES	Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy
CBNRM	Community Based Natural Resource Management
DAHP	Department of Animal Health and Production
FGDs	Focus Group Discussions
HHs	HouseHolds
IMF	International Monetary Fund
KRST	Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust
MBLR	Market Based Land Reform
NED	North East District
NGOs	Non Governmental Organisations
PA	Protected Area
SET	Social Exchange Theory
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
TC	Tati Company
TLB	Tati Land Board
TNR	Tachila Nature Reserve
VDC	Village Development Committee
WSWB	Willing Seller Willing Buyer

ABSTRACT

Land acquisition by the Tati Concession Company in the North East District (NED) of Botswana during Botswana's colonial period (1885-1966) has created antagonism among the local people. The company (TC) demarcated land to white settlers and dispossessed the local people thus rendering them landless. TNR is found in the land owned by the TC and absentee landlords. In 2007, the governance structure of TNR was established. TNR is managed by a Board of Trustees (Tachila progress update, November 2012). The TNR project is developed on an area of approximately 81.93 square kilometers of freehold land. Local communities in the NED argue of having been dispossessed of their land during the Botswana's colonial period. The objective of this study therefore is to assess the role of tourism in achieving rural livelihoods, conservation and land use conflict resolution in the NED using Tachila Nature Reserve (TNR) as a case study. The study was carried out at Matshelagabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele villages. The study is informed by the social exchange theory (SET). The study used a mixed method approach which includes both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The questionnaire was the data collection tool used and techniques such as interviews and focus-group discussions were also used. Primary sources and secondary data sources were also used. Face-to-face interviews with household representatives and TNR stakeholders were conducted. Informal interviews were also conducted with key informants such as village leadership at Ditladi, Patayamatebele, and Matshelagabedi. Secondary data sources include both published and unpublished materials on tourism development, livelihoods and natural resource management. Results indicate that even though local communities derive insignificant benefits from tourism at TNR, the tourism industry has the potential to contribute to improved rural livelihoods and conflict resolution.

Results also indicate that households have negative perceptions towards TNR. This is because local people feel they have been excluded from the established nature reserve management, restricted from access to natural resources where the nature reserve is established, while subsequently there were no benefits from tourism at TNR. That is, local people do not derive significant benefits from the development of this nature reserve. Results also indicate that there are also no strategies to resolve the land conflict in the NED, hence land use conflicts continue in the area. Lack of strategies to solve land use conflicts result in tension and negative attitudes between TNR and the local people.

In conclusion, these results suggest that, if local communities do not receive benefits from tourism development they are unlikely to support conservation goals. If people do not enjoy and share profits from tourism development, they develop negative attitudes and resistance to such a development. If tourism development does not address urgent societal needs such as land use conflicts resolution, local communities find it unimportant to enjoy such a tourism product hence land use conflicts continue. The development of tourism competes with other land uses such as pastoral farming, arable farming, forest product use and can even accelerate land use conflicts with the neighboring communities.

Keywords: Tachila Nature Reserve, North East District, rural, livelihoods diversification, sustainable tourism, conflict resolution.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY.

1.0 Introduction

This chapter provides an introduction of this research study. It covers the background of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study and the structure of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the study

Historically, PAs were established with conservation and preservation of natural resources (wildlife, habitat, natural landscape, cultural heritage) as the main goal, but has evolved to accommodate tourism development (Bolaane, 2004; Child, 1970; Child, 2009; Campbell, 1973; Eagles, Mc Cool & Haynes, 2002). A protected area (PA) is defined as “an area dedicated primarily to the protection and enjoyment of natural or cultural heritage, to maintenance of biodiversity, and or to maintenance of ecological life-support services” (IUCN, 2001, p.15). During the creation of PAs, people were relocated outside the boundaries of some PAs. For example, in Africa, 500 people were forcibly relocated from the Nechasar National Park of Ethiopia in 2004 (Adams & Hutton, 2006), while in the early 1960s, San/Basarwa were removed from the Moremi Game reserve of Botswana for natural resource conservation (Bolaane, 2004). PAs depicts differences in their status, and these areas are conserved as national parks, game reserves, nature reserves, forest reserves, marine reserves, biosphere reserves, wilderness areas, or world heritage sites (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Eagles et al., 2002; IUCN, 2001).

The decline of the global wildlife resources has led to the creation of national parks and game reserves in the world (Cellabos-Lascurain, 1996). As a result, these have resulted in over 130

nations around the world establishing about 6900 major legally protected areas covering 5% of planet's land surface (McNeely, 1992). Marekia (1991) indicates that the idea of protected areas was transferred to the African continent, with no regard to geographic, cultural or economic aspects of the people of Africa thus leading to land use conflicts. Marekia (1991) further states that the areas where parks were established were not necessarily those that supported the largest variety or largest possible concentrations of wildlife. Rather, these areas were chosen on the colonialists' basis that they were unlikely to be required for other purposes.

The tourism industry can promote economic development and improve the lives of people in underdeveloped and developed areas. This perspective has viewed tourism as a creator of employment and an accumulator of investment capital. Mbaiwa and Darkoh (2006) also noted that the expansion of tourism has brought with it a variety of socio-economic benefits such as employment to the local people, revenue generation, the provision of social services and infrastructure developments. Several studies (e.g. Alue; O'Leary; Morrison, 1998) have recognized that the value of tourism-generated economic development has been tempered by cultural change, social stress and resource degradation.

With increased participation in tourism, there is a likelihood that conflicts from resources management will occur. Land use conflicts occur when there are conflicting views on land use policies, such as when an increasing population creates competitive demands for the use of the land, leading to a negative impact on other neighboring land uses. Sustainable tourism should, therefore, not be undertaken at the expense of the host communities while favouring tourists. Sustainable tourism implies that the tourism industry should be owned, controlled and managed

by the local people. The tourism industry should also meet the socio-cultural and economic needs of the people (McIntosh, 2004).

Despite numerous research studies (Lenao, 2014; Manatsha, 2014; Mbaiwa, 2008; Sebele, 2010) detailing the development of tourism, only one study (Manatsha, 2014) has been conducted in Tachila Nature Reserve, a new nature reserve established five kilometers east of central Francistown on an old Tati Company (TC) farm, Lady Mary. The farm is in the North East District (NED). There are long standing land issues to be addressed in the NED. “The district endured intense, extractive and institutionalized colonialism. The result was massive land expropriation by a colonial syndicate, later known as Tati Company (Manatsha, 2010)”. It is, therefore, very important to examine the potential contributions of Tachila Nature Reserve (TNR) has made to the local people. This study aims at assessing the contribution of tourism to land use conflict resolution, conservation and improved livelihoods of adjacent communities to TNR. The study is informed by the Social Exchange Theory (SET) which argues that people are likely to conserve resources and resolve conflicts if they benefit from resources around them. However research has not adequately established the benefits that accrue to local communities from TNR, local communities’ perceptions towards TNR and whether TNR can be used as a model to demonstrate how tourism development can help the people of the NED to benefit from the land they lost during the colonial era and resolve this long outstanding land use conflict scenario. It is from this background that questions such as: does the creation of TNR contribute to improved livelihoods, socio-economic aspect and land use conflict resolution with neighboring communities. The establishment work for TNR adopts the principles of CBNRM. In the Tachila Deed of trust the objectives are to: create employment opportunities, promote the

tourism industry in Botswana, any surplus funds arising from the reserve should be put towards development, encourage and facilitate scientific research, establish education centers with a comprehensive environmental education to children and adults in Botswana (TNR progress update, 2012). TNR trust which is a charitable organization responsible for the establishment and running of the reserve, has been granted land by TC on a 50 year lease period-renewable for an additional 49 years, for a nominal fee of P1 per annum. It is worth to note that the management and development plan for TNR indicates that the community participation is an integral part of any development, and the level of participation and involvement is usually dependent on the degree of understanding of the proposed project, especially in terms of ownership. TNR belongs to the community and its objectives are to create employment opportunities in the reserve operations, management and tourism ventures, promote tourism industry in Botswana, establish education centers, facilitate scientific research, institute conservation programs and preserve, re-introduce all forms of scarce endangered species in this area. The TNR project shall demonstrate the spirit of community involvement and some degree of ownership, as these shall sustain understanding and commitment to the project (TNR management and development plan, p.11). A board of trustees constitutes organs such as Tati Company, Tati siding development trust, the Ministry of Environment, Wild life and Tourism, Francistown City Council, North East District Council and community representatives from neighboring villages.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The development of tourism can have numerous benefits in the North East region, but it also presents challenges to local communities, planners, resource managers, development and the environment. In the NED there's is an academic gap relating to tourism development. There is very little literature on nature reserves and tourism in general. This makes it difficult for the people to learn about tourism and conservation of natural resources. The communities of NE are in need of economic advancement, but there is shortage of land. TNR is located between the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi, people living around this nature reserve are dependent on the reserve resources for their livelihoods. In 2007, TNR was developed to serve eco-tourism purposes. The nature reserve covers 8,200 hectares donated to a TNR trust. The TNR trust has been granted land by TC. This can be rightly argued that TC houses the mandate of TNR. In such a context of land shortage, the idea of leasing land to be used for the TNR project causes disturbance to the local people. The establishment of TNR further complicates the land issue as the NE district is characterized by land shortage. The land issue has limited their sources of subsistence and their scope of economic activities such as fuel-wood harvest, forest product harvest, pastoral farming as the people have been voicing to be given land occupied by TNR and TC. The people found in the NE have been dispossessed land by TC and this resulted in acute shortage of land for arable and pastoral farming. The dependence on livestock farming and crop growing has been affected by the development of tourism in the NE. In general tourism in NE region is sluggish in comparison to the Chobe district. Some known key challenges to tourism advancement in the area include low awareness of tourism and the land question dating back to the colonial era. In north-eastern Botswana, like in Zimbabwe,

South Africa and Namibia, Africans were dispossessed of their land (Manatsha, 2010). Most African protected areas were created by colonial administrators without taking into account the concerns and livelihoods of the local communities. In most cases the people were displaced or deprived of their traditional use rights of the resources, causing them to suffer economic hardships. “In a district where land shortage is a big concern, recently the Government of Botswana and the Tati Company established Tachila nature reserve to be used for “ecotourism” purposes”. TNR is being developed on private land, registered as a community tourism project to serve within the main objectives of ecotourism in a district that have a long standing land question dating to the colonial era. Local people in the NED have lamented that their land was taken and they do not have land for ploughing and grazing their livestock, the land in the NED was taken during colonialism by the Tati Concessions which later became known as the Tati Company (Manatsha, 2010).

Acute shortage of land in the NED is a product of colonialism and the rural poor demand land. The land question is likely to develop negative attitude towards the idea of reserving land for opening parks for wild animals and trees at the cost of people being landless. This, therefore, is likely to negatively impact on the support of the TNR project at the grassroots level. People in the NED have advocated for the repossession of the land owned by TC and absentee landlords. In 2007, TC and the government of Botswana established TNR as a tourism and conservation venture to benefit local people in the NED in terms of income generation and creation of employment opportunities. It is from this background that questions such as: “Does the creation of TNR address the issue of land shortage?” and “how is TNR contributing to rural livelihoods?” are being asked. The issue of land shortage versus the development of nature reserves has

renewed academic interest on the subject such as studies done by Boonzaaier (2012) and Mutanga (2015). Previous studies (Boggs, 2000; Darkoh & Mbaiwa, 2005) have focused on state-owned protected areas like Moremi Game Reserve and Chobe National Park and their contribution to conflict resolution, livelihoods and conservation. However, there are limited studies focusing on private nature reserves like TNR, Mokolodi Nature Reserve and Mashatu Nature Reserve. The focus of the current study will therefore contribute to filling this knowledge gap on private nature reserves. The objective of the study is to examine the contribution of the newly developed nature reserve to the local communities of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi villages, and how the nature reserve contributes to conflict resolution and promoting rural livelihoods.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to assess the contribution of tourism to land use conflict resolution, socio economic benefits and improved rural livelihoods at TNR in the NED, Botswana. Specific objectives include the following:

- (a) To assess the perceptions of the local communities towards Tachila Nature Reserve as an eco-tourism and conservation area.
- (b) To examine the socio-economic contribution of Tachila Nature Reserve to improved rural livelihoods of surrounding local communities.
- (c) To examine the role of tourism development in resolving land use conflicts between local communities and TNR.

1.4 Research Questions

The general question is what is the contribution of tourism development at TNR to land use conflict resolution, conservation and improvement of livelihoods of adjacent or neighboring communities? **Specific questions** are;

- (a) What are the perceptions of the local people towards Tachila as an eco-tourism destination and conservation area?
- (b) What is the socio-economic contribution of tourism development at Tachila Nature Reserve to the livelihoods of surrounding local people?
- (c) How is TNR contributing to land use conflict resolution with communities living adjacent to TNR?

1.5 Significance of the study

This study is considered significant for the following reasons:

- (a) It provides information on how game reserves managed in private lands such as TNR can use tourism to make a contribution to improved rural livelihoods.
- (b) How private game reserves like TNR can contribute to conservation.
- (c) How private game reserves can contribute to conflict resolution with adjacent communities.
- (d) It provides significant information that can guide similar/other studies in the related fields.
- (e) It provides useful information to policy makers such as Department of Wildlife & National Parks, Ministry of Environment, Wildlife & Tourism to guide in formulating appropriate initiatives in the development of Botswana's tourism.

1.6 Limitations of the study

This study has the following limitations:

- a) Tachila is a new project hence there is a great probability of inadequate secondary sources relevant to the study and study area. There are limited secondary sources on the development of tourism in the NED and private nature reserves.
- b) The managers of Tachila and other stakeholders were uncooperative since this research addresses issues of land. Land issues are sensitive and political, as a result, people avoid participating in studies of this nature.

1.7 Structure of the thesis

The thesis has five chapters. Chapter one introduces the thesis. It provides the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study and the limitations of the study. Chapter two provides a description of the review of the literature and the theoretical frame work. The literature review covers the global, regional and local perspectives in tourism development, rural livelihoods and conflict resolution. The chapter also notes the theoretical framework that informs the study, which is the SET. Chapter three covers the research design and methodology. Different methods that have been used in the study have been discussed in this chapter and also justification given on why such methods were used. Chapter four is an explanation of results and findings. The first objective discusses the perceptions of local people on the development of tourism at TNR, followed by the second objective which addresses the socio-economic contribution of TNR to

local livelihoods and “lastly” the third objective discusses strategies that have been developed to solve the conflict of land in the NED. The last chapter, Chapter five, covers the summary of chapters, the recommendations and the conclusion.

1.8 Summary

This case study examined the development of tourism at TNR, its contribution to improved rural livelihoods and land use conflicts resolution with the local people of the villages of Matshelagabedi, Patayamatebele and Ditladi. The study’s specific objectives are: to assess the perceptions of the local communities towards TNR, to examine the socio-economic contribution of TNR for improved rural livelihoods of surrounding communities and the role of tourism development in resolving land conflicts between local communities and TNR. The study is significant since it fills the gap in the study of tourism development more especially in the NED on how private nature reserves can be managed to make a contribution to improved rural livelihoods and land use conflict resolution. There are a few studies in the NED addressing issues of tourism development. Therefore, there is great probability of inadequate secondary sources relevant to the study and the study area. The next chapter, chapter two provides the global, regional and local perspectives in tourism development, rural livelihoods and conflict resolution at Tachila Nature Reserve.

CHAPTER 2

GLOBAL, REGIONAL AND LOCAL PERSPECTIVES' IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT, RURAL LIVELIHOODS AND CONFLICT RESOLUTION AT TACHILA NATURE RESERVE.

2.0 Introduction

This chapter defines key concepts and reviews the existing literature which seeks to address issues of protected areas and their contribution to livelihoods. The chapter also covers a global review of protected areas, followed by a regional focus on Africa, with a narrowed focus on Botswana and the North East District (NED). The chapter also provides a theoretical frame work informing the study that is, the social exchange theory (SET).

2.1 Definition of key Concepts

Tourism: Tourism is travel for recreation, leisure, religious, family, or business purposes, usually for a limited duration. Tourism is commonly associated with international travel, but may also refer to travel to another place within the same country (WTO, 1995). In this study tourism is defined as the business of providing services for people who are travelling for their holiday. These people may either be international travelers or local.

Perception: Perception refers to the process by which people select, organise, interpret, and respond to information from the world around them (Webster, 2015). It is the selection and organisation of environmental stimuli to provide meaningful experiences for the perceiver. This study defines perception as a particular way of understanding or thinking about some information concerning the environment in which communities live.

Social Exchange Theory: Is a psychological and sociological perspective that explains social exchanges between people in the society (Ap, 1992). People evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange obtained from a comparison of costs and benefits. This study used the SET as a tool to measure against benefits and costs of an exchange between communities and the development of tourism. The study refers to SET as an evaluation of interrelationship among people's perception of costs and benefits towards the development of TNR.

Livelihoods: Livelihoods comprise people, their capabilities and their means of living, including food, income and assets (Chambers, 1992). In the study livelihoods refer to all activities that communities do in order to earn any form of money in order to live.

Conflict resolution: Conflict resolution refers to a way two or more parties try to find a peaceful solution to a disagreement between or among them (Fisher, 1995). It is otherwise known as reconciliation. It is conceptualized as the methods and processes involved in facilitating the peaceful ending of conflict and retribution (Fisher, 1995). The study defines conflict resolution as an act of solving a problem or disagreement.

Household: A household refer to those who dwell under the same roof and compose a family (Webster, 1998). In the study household is used to refer to a social unit comprised of those living together in the same dwelling. The members of a household are related by blood or law, and they constitute a family together with nonrelatives such as servants.

Rural: Refers to the characteristics of the country side or the people who live there (Ricketts, 1998). In the study rural is used to refer to isolated areas of an open country with low population density, small population and community involved predominantly into primary activities such as farming and production of raw materials.

2.2 Literature Review

2.2.1 Review of protected areas

Scholarly works on tourism development and CBNRM have generally focused on communal land where local inhabitants (who are often assumed to be “native” to the area) have the right to use, but not title nor exclusive individual rights of access to land or the resources it provides, (Hulme & Murphree , 2001). Furthermore, scholars often assume that decision making that leads to effective common-pool resource management incorporates the interests of most members of the affected community, but the nature of decision making in commonly recognized examples of CBNRM varies considerably. For example, in Zimbabwe’s Communal Areas Management Program for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE), one of the earliest examples of wildlife-focused CBNRM in Southern Africa, decision-making authority for wildlife management and the use of wildlife-related income ranged from elected regional or local government officials to traditional community leaders and to village communities residing in communal areas where wildlife occurred (Hulme & Murphree, 2001).

Conservation areas comprised of multiple private landholdings have previously not been considered in the context of CBNRM. This is a gap in the CBNRM literature. The people who own private nature reserves are referred to as land owners and the term neighboring community refers to native inhabitants of communal lands that border private nature reserves. Most of the

land owners are absentee members who visit their properties more or less frequently (Kreuter, 2009). Although “private landowner communities” and “neighboring communities” may differ with respect to prevailing land tenure (private versus communal land) and proportion of permanently resident members, both groups have common local interests. Kreuter et al. (2009) did a study on private nature reserves within the Great Limpopo Trans-frontier Conservation Area with respect to principles for successful CBNRM. Their study was based mainly on information obtained from published literature and from unpublished reports provided by private nature reserves in South Africa and Zimbabwe. They found that “No systematic research has been conducted on the comparative characteristics of private nature reserves in Southern Africa”. The literature on private nature reserves is limited and previous scholars have invited other researchers to direct their future works on the development of private nature reserves.

The development of private nature reserves in southern Africa has followed a fairly consistent path, as exemplified by developments in South Africa. The period from 1850 to 1950 was termed “century of extermination,” during which European settlers and their livestock moved into the interior of African countries (Adams & McShane, 1992). These incursions, supported by racially discriminatory government policies, resulted in native people evicted from their traditional land base (Magome & Murombedzi, 2003). White settlement also led to the decimation of wildlife to make way for domestic livestock (Peel et al., 2004), while the rinderpest epidemic in southern Africa during the 1890s resulted in further precipitous declines in wildlife populations. Subsequent conservation efforts during the 20th century led to reversals of wildlife declines and ultimately to population sizes that could support consumptive use options, such as safari hunting and game meat production, in addition to non-consumptive tourism (Peel, 2005).

A key driver of the development of vibrant wildlife industries in South Africa and Zimbabwe in the 1980s and 1990s was legislative change that allowed private landowners to utilize and manage wildlife on their land without government permits. These changes, together with the declining profitability of agricultural production and the growth in international interest in southern Africa as a tourist destination, created economic incentives for landowners to increase wildlife in their land. Many ranchers in drier areas converted their primary land use entirely to game ranching. For example, in South Africa's northern Limpopo Province, where livestock production was traditionally the primary land use, game ranching was reported to be the main activity on 29% of the land by 1998 (Van der Waal and Dekker, 2000). Of an estimated 55,000 private farms and ranches in South Africa, there approximately 5,000 game ranches and over 4,000 mixed game and livestock ranches, which jointly cover about 170,000 km² (Palmer et al., 2006). This area of private land supporting wildlife comprises about 14% of South Africa's land area, compared to 6.3% declared as formal conservation areas. "A researcher on land issues Manatsha (2008) indicates that in the NED, 42.9 % of land is freehold, 56% is tribal while state land is only 0.5% (Republic of Botswana, 2003, p. 1)." Only a few fraction of the people found in NE own freehold land. "Freehold land is concentrated in the hands of the few: the Tati Company, absentee landlords, and some elite Batswana and foreigners (Manatsha, 2008)".

Local communities are known as the key stakeholders in leisure and tourism management. Considering the importance of residents who have a key role in tourism, many studies have been conducted by researchers in developed countries about local community perceptions towards tourism. Among them are (Lankford & Haward, 1994; Hernandez et al., 1996; Schroeder, 1996; Ryan & Montgomery, 1994; Nicholas, 2007; Williams & Lawson, 2001). Their studies have

found that if people benefit from tourism they will support conservation and if people do not derive significant benefits they are likely not to support the development of tourism. This study will focus on Tachila Nature Reserve in North East District as one of the conservation areas in the region found on private land but established to serve eco-tourism purposes.

Independently owned nature reserves are proliferating across the developing world. Nevertheless, the conservation community knows nothing about them. Ecotourism is shown to be the primary means through which reserves survive financially. An important trend in conservation is toward community based tourism. Community-based conservation incorporates a variety of bottom-up approaches in which the locus of control lies with local people rather than a federal government (Western, Wright, & Strum, 1994). The unifying theme across the diversity of community based conservation approaches is that benefits, power, and decision-making lie in the hands of local residents.

According to Liu & Wall (2006, p. 159), “in the developing world, tourism is usually implemented through a top-down planning approach”. The planning and implementation process of tourism is often lead by the government, business and sometimes NGOs. In instances where tourism is being pursued as a rural development strategy, this dispensation presents challenges as it may lead to the type of development that is at odds with the local communities’ capacity (Liu, 2006) and aspirations (Mbaiwa, 2005b). However it is widely accepted that tourism planning and implementation should be an all-inclusive process that infuses perspectives of different stakeholders and, more so, reflects interests and aspirations of local communities (Saarinen, 2014; Hiwasaki, 2006). As Edgell (2006, p. 87) puts it, “whatever the case, no tourism product

should be developed or marketed without the involvement and support of the local residents. If they are not included in the beginning, do not expect them to help at a later date”.

The development of tourism should demonstrate the possibility of including the local people in the planning process. Inskip (1994) indicated that the core of Community Based Tourism (CBT), is the desire to harness the tourism potential to bring about development to the rural areas and their inhabitants, thus ensuring acceptability of tourism development among the local communities. It is assumed that CBT has the potential to facilitate community development process, thus promoting a bottom-up approach to the planning and implementation process (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011). Therefore CBT development has been advanced as an empowerment tool for rural communities. It is believed that CBT development have an in-built potential to facilitate transfer of power to the local communities’, thus enabling them to shape their own future in the development of tourism within their locales.

Local communities are often recognized as a key stakeholder in tourism. Unfortunately the level of resident participation varies in different countries. Compared with many developed countries, local residents in many third world countries do not have the opportunity to share in the decision making process of tourism development (Andereck, 2005). Their views are rarely heard and opportunities to nurture their low budget entrepreneurial tourism businesses are frequently exploited by the bigger external investors.

Studies done in China, Lai (2003) on private reserves’ indicates that for conservation to effectively achieve the goals of reserve establishment, reserve management needs to build partnerships with the community living within or nearby nature reserves and to address their

needs for forest resources for their livelihoods. Co-management approaches have been developed to integrate natural resources conservation and the subsistence and development of local communities. In China, since the beginning of the 1990s, co-management has been accepted by research institutes and adopted by government agencies responsible for natural resource management as a preferred approach to the management of nature reserves. Its underlying premise is that to conserve forest resources and manage nature reserves effectively, it is essential to give sufficient consideration to the needs of the people living within and around the forest or reserve (Western and Wright, 1994). The reserve management should benefit local people and satisfy their needs and related resources. In a study done in Wenshan State Nature Reserve the villagers living around the reserve earned their income mainly by harvesting timber and bamboo from the collective forests and nature reserve and selling them in the markets, especially in the autumn and winter. After the introduction of the logging ban in 1998, the villagers living around the reserve lost their sources of income and were reduced to a life of extreme poverty. Most of the villagers did not earn money to buy food and clothing or to pay school fees, with some children having to interrupt their schooling as a result (Lai, 2003).

Many researchers (Blank, 1989; Mansfield, 1992) called for greater local participation in the third world tourism sector to permit a more equitable distribution of costs and benefits. A larger proportion of the local population should benefit from tourism, rather than merely bearing the burden of its costs. In many third world countries, a more appropriately planned tourism development process is needed which would spread both costs and benefits more equitably as well as be more sensitive to the social and cultural aspects.

In a study by Mthembu (2012) done in Bergville KwaZulu-Natal indicated that tourism has benefits especially in terms of employment. Notably, scholars like (Ashley, 2002; Chachage , 2003; Luvanga & Shitundu, 2003; Roe, Ashley, Page & Meyer, 2004; Udovc & Perpar, 2007; Bowel & Weinz, 2008) emphasize this contention in their writings with more precision. However, most of the jobs created are for the outsiders which benefit a small group of people in the village. Tourism has not created enough economic benefits for local people, but it can help trigger the economy in the region. Pizam (1978) examined the negative impacts of tourism on the social sphere and, as a result, numerous research projects have been produced focusing on this dimension. Researchers tend to ignore the effects of tourism on the host community.

Residents' evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange, that is, evaluate it in terms of expected benefits or costs obtained in return for the services they supply (Ap,1992). A study conducted in Myanmar (Burma) indicates that protected areas (PAs) are essential for the long term conservation of biodiversity (Dasmann, 1984; Machlis & Tichnell, 1985; Zube 1986; Brandon & Wells, 1992; Newmark et al.,1993; Fiallo & Jacobson, 1995; Furze *et al.*, 1996) and a positive public attitude is a key indicator of the success of a PA (Struhsaker *et al.* 2005). However, the relationship between people and the PA is often contentious, as PA establishment often entails resettling or depriving people of access to resources upon which they have depended for generations (Western & Pearl, 1989; West & Brechin, 1991). Understanding residents' attitudes is key to improving the people- parks relationship because it can provide guidance for policy and management decisions (Parry & Campbell, 1992; Hill, 1998; Weladji *et al.*, 2003) and a baseline for assessing the success of future activities (Gilingham & Lee 1999; Weladji *et al.*, 2003).

Despite the success of the PAs, scholars (Roe, Ashley, Page & Meyer, 2004) have concentrated much on negative impacts and perceptions of PAs, followed much by the conflicts arising from forest and wildlife conservation. A focus on conflicts to explain people's attitudes undervalues or misses the positive perception that people hold. More attention should be given to understanding how important the role of conservation benefits may be in PA-people relationships and how they might be integrated into management strategies to improve the PA-people relationship (Norton, 1989; Infield, 2001; Kuriyan, 2002). A study conducted in Trentino-Italy (Brida, Osti & Faccioli, 2011) demonstrates that new conservation strategies contributed to negative conservation attitudes among local residents towards protected areas. Strategies, which involved the enforcement of strict rules regarding access and natural use, have focused on keeping local residents from not being involved. As a result, these strategies usually lead people to harbor negative perceptions towards conservation initiatives within the boundaries of the protected areas (Weladji, Moe & Vedeld, 2003; Vodouhe *et al.*, 2010).

Local people cannot be expected to provide support for protected areas if the costs of doing so outweigh the benefits (Kiss, 1990; Western & Wright, 1994). If the existence of protected areas and its wildlife have negative impacts on the local livelihood, the communities can develop resistance to such areas (Murphree, 1996). Conover (2002) notes that people may be afraid to walk within their home areas across the protected area because they fear dangerous animals such as snakes, elephants, lions etc. This causes to suffer from lack of security and thus a reduction in quality of their lives. Madhusudan (1992), in southern India, showed that the assertion of state control over natural resources led to severe conflicts with the local populations attempting to maintain their customary rights to resources.

A study in Colorado conducted by Purdue (1990) shows that tourism development was positively related to the perceived positive or negative impacts of tourism. Madrigal (1993) found that residents from two Arizona communities with positive perceptions of tourism believed that they personally could influence tourism decisions and that tourism related businesses did not have too much political influence on decision making in their city. Getz (1994), in a study conducted in Scotland, found that the increased negative attitudes toward tourism development suggested that residents believed benefits have declined or not matched expectations.

2.2.2 Protected areas, wildlife management and conservation in Africa

During the late 19th century and much of the 20th century, efforts to protect bio-diversity in Africa emphasized the designation of protected areas (Adams & McShane, 1992). For example, the Kruger National Park, was created in 1902 (Mabunda et al., 2003). The emphasis on protected areas began to shift during the 1970s with the recognition that islands of protection are inadequate for maintaining spatially heterogeneous biodiversity (Bell, 1984). Together with the growing interest in the commercial potential of wildlife, this recognition led to legislation in Zimbabwe and South Africa that devolved management authority for wildlife on private land from central government to landowners. Increasingly, it also became apparent that, in the long run, wildlife could not be effectively conserved in protected areas or on private land without the support of the neighboring communities (Simmons & Kreuter, 1989; Kreuter & Simmons, 1994). Since many native communities were evicted by colonial governments from their ancestral lands when protected areas were proclaimed, native people generally viewed wildlife as a threat (Magome & Murombezi, 2003). To address such antipathy, government agencies and non-

governmental organization(NGOs) joined forces in the 1980s and 1990s to develop community-based wildlife programs aimed at providing benefits to affected communities (Hulme & Murphree, 2001; Murombedzi, 2003; Balian & Mashinya, 2008).

The introduction of PAs and conservation areas in Africa came with the increasing interest of foreign lords who had the passion to rule and govern African states. This was the time of colonial penetration into the African continent. Rodney (1972) and Darkoh (1996b) further explains that colonialism and modernization in Africa alienated African societies from the natural resources upon which they had previously based their livelihood under a system of collective rights. Collett (1987) discussed the advent of colonialism in Kenya and states that colonialism in Kenya divided Masailand into wilderness areas for wildlife and separated agricultural areas for both Europeans and Africans. Mbanefo and de Boerr (1994) say the same situation occurred in Zimbabwe, Chenje and Johnson (1994) state that the whole of Southern Africa became affected, and the local populations were denied access to wildlife areas. This scenario led to the development of negative perceptions and attitudes towards wildlife conservation by the local people. This was the beginning of human-wildlife conflict, a common theme expressed by Collett (1987), Grove (1987), Lindsay (1987) and Marekia (1991) about Kenya; Moganane and Walker (1995) about Botswana; Chenje and Johnson (1994) about Southern Africa.

The indigenous people and the government clashed when wildlife resources were declared state property under the colonial legislation, making it illegal for rural people to make any use of the resources in their areas (Mbaiwa, 1999). While previous studies (Chambers, Conway, 1992), not only those conducted in Botswana, but Africa as a whole, indicate that colonialism did affect

natural resource management, they do not show the role of these protected areas and their contribution to rural livelihoods. Most studies (Lepp, 2007; Madulu, 2004; Mubangizi, 2003) done in Africa focused their interests on the economic impacts of tourism that tend to favour government policies and programmes and neglect other aspects of socio- cultural and land use conflict resolution. The majority of the local people around protected areas have negative feelings about state policies and conservation programmes. The alienation of grazing land for the exclusive use of wildlife and tourists has had a direct impact on the pastoralist communities, and prompted them to raise questions about African wildlife policy as it leads to a human-wildlife conflict. According to Irandu (2003), the local communities living near and around the national parks and game reserves are first to pay the price for wildlife conservation through the destruction of their property, death and/or injuries caused by wild animals. This is especially the case in the large national parks and game reserves in Kenya. Researchers (Mbaiwa, 2007; Sebele, 2010) in Africa and particularly in Botswana have not fully explored the role of tourism development in nature reserves and its contribution to improved livelihoods and conflict resolution. The available studies focused much on state owned game reserves and national parks, hence the need for research on private nature reserves.

Studies conducted in South Africa (Boonzaaier, 2012) revealed that local people surrounding Masebe Nature Reserve are not much interested in the conservation of wildlife but they want to accrue tangible benefits from the reserve. Communities adjacent to conservation areas call for revenue sharing programmes as they can play an important role in improving local attitudes towards conservation. When actors do not share goals for the conservation of resources and are not equally powerful, they become reluctant to conserve. Studies have also indicated that village

headmen (mantona) who are members of the management committee are reluctant to attend meetings, which may be interpreted as an indication of the degree of interest (or lack thereof) by locals to become involved as a direct result of the top-down approach used in the management of the reserve (Boonzaaier, 2012). If village leaders do not become involved, it is unrealistic to expect ordinary villagers to be involved. The study on Masebe Nature Reserve has indicated that local communities expressed their dissatisfaction with the management and government top-down approach which neither recognizes them nor involves them in any decision making.

In one tourism study by Mutanga (2015), indicates that the creation of protected areas forced the relocation of local communities from their original areas of residency, depriving them of access to resources in the protected areas such as meat, grazing areas and firewood. This deprivation seems to have disconnected local communities from the adjacent protected areas. Much of African conservation protected areas have a long history of being dominated by coercive conservation policies that have later become known as fortress conservation (Mutanga, 2015). These policies exclude local communities' participation and have often caused negative relationships between protected areas and local communities, resulting in conflicts and problems such as increased illegal hunting, habitat encroachment and destruction, violence, and poverty among indigenous communities. Local people adjacent to four protected areas in Zimbabwe have developed negative perceptions and this background continues to influence the communities' perception of wildlife conservation and tourism to date (Mutanga, 2015).

Studies in Zimbabwe by Murphree (1993) and Mwenya *et al.* (1991), in South Africa Prosser (1996) and in Namibia Ashley (1995) and Rihoy (1995) have shown that local people tend to

support the wise use of natural resources such as wildlife in their local environment if they derive socio-economic benefits from them. Rihoy (1995, p. 15) states "...for a community to manage its resource base sustainably it must receive direct benefits arising from its use. These benefits must exceed the perceived costs of managing the resource and must be secure over time." Mbaiwa (1999) further indicates that socio-economic benefits from tourism may foster individuals and communities living in natural resource areas to maintain a positive perception towards protected areas and to maintain a sustainable ecological base.

Forceful eviction of the indigenous people from the protected areas and criminalization of their practices perpetrated on grounds of safeguarding the ecological integrity (Bonner, 1993) had fermented hatred and local resentment toward conservation policies (IIED, 1994; Machlis, 1989; Neumann, 1992; Wells & Brandon 1992; Western, 1984). In addition to opportunity costs of land and related resources, local communities also bear other disproportionate costs through crop damage, livestock depredation and wildlife-related accidents (Archabald & Naughton-Treves, 2001; De Boer & Baquete, 1993). The above challenges have prompted a consensus that the ecological reasons alone are insufficient in ensuring the survival of protected areas (Baldus et al., 2003; Barrows & Fabricus, 2002; Hackel, 1999; Western, 2001). Public acceptance is critical to the success of conservation objectives (Stankey & Shindler, 2006).

2.2.3 Wildlife Management in conservation areas in Botswana.

A number of studies (Mbaiwa, 2005; Bolaane; 2004, Adams & McShane, 1992; Taylor, 2002) have been conducted in Botswana on tourism but they tend to concentrate on environmental change, the creation of game reserves and national parks and their management and they have

neglected the role of tourism development in nature reserves and its impacts on rural livelihoods. This has created a missing link in the study of tourism development more especially nature reserves found on private land.

The history of national parks and reserves in Botswana has focused on conservation of biodiversity with a greater concern for the local people living on the periphery of the areas (Campbell, 1973; Child, 1970). Local farmers experience the cost in terms of competition on forage between wildlife and livestock (Moleele & Maina, 2003). The creation of PAs alienated or distanced resident communities living closer to national parks from access to resources (Boyd & Timothy, 2001; Mayoral-Phililips, 2002). In some instances, the local people have been forcibly relocated outside parks for conservation purposes (Bolaane, 2004; Child, 2004). In general, and in other countries, local communities who live adjacent to PAs have not been allowed in or invited to participate in park-based tourism and conservation activities (Himoonde, 2007; Meskell, 2005; Nelson, 2004). Lack of participation and involvement of local communities in decision making and management of resources in PAs have caused conflicts between the park management and local communities (Bauer, 2003; Brandon, 2007; Himoonde, 2007; Parry & Campbell, 1992; Roe & Hollands, 2004).

The history of negative attitudes of local people towards conservation especially wildlife in Botswana began during the British Colonial rule of the country (1885-1966). The centralization of wildlife resources and the establishment of protected areas resulted in the displacement of local communities from their homelands and denial of access to resource use in parks (Adams & McShane, 1992; Bolaane, 2004). For example when Moremi Game Reserve was established in

1963, several San (Basarwa) communities like in Khwai, Mababe and Gudigwa villages were relocated from their homeland (Bolaane, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2005; Taylor, 2002). The centralization of wildlife resources and the establishment of protected areas resulted in negative attitudes of resident communities towards wildlife conservation (Mordi, 1991; Moganane & Walker, 1995; Mbaiwa, 2005). Mbaiwa (1999) also notes that tourism development is often found to be conflicting with other land use activities. This leads to land use conflicts between tourism and residents of the neighbouring villages. In his study, Mbaiwa found out that In Etsha 6 households noted that fences from Department of Animal Health and Production (DAHP) affect livestock farming particularly in regard of access to grazing and watering points. At Shorobe great concern was expressed that the Southern Buffalo Fence reduced grazing area and caused livestock congestion which further caused destruction of crops by livestock, mainly cattle. In Tubu and Gunitsoga the fences were viewed as an obstruction to the use of nearby water sources.

Several research studies (Bolaane, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2005; Taylor, 2002) have been done even though they looked at game reserves and parks. The work of Mbaiwa and Stronza (2010) focused on big game reserves and national parks with less focus on nature reserves. The work of Campbell (1995) focused on archaeological information that explains wildlife distribution, totems, and hunting patterns in Botswana. The study does not expand and explain how these wild animals contributed to livelihoods of the communities. Campbell (1995) further developed his (1980) work by briefly discussing traditional attitudes and wildlife decline from the Stone Age period to more recent times in the country. His work does not mention anything on the benefits to the local communities from these wild animals.

Moganane and Walker (1995) stated that national parks and game reserves in Botswana have been established in the hunting grounds of the local people, who now find themselves living in the fringes of such areas and are ironically denied access into such wildlife areas. Their study focused on woodlands, veld products and wildlife resources. This study was too general and important aspects of wildlife utilisation were overlooked. Moganane and Walker do not provide information on how local communities can be involved in wildlife management in protected areas and the benefits brought by the conservation of wild animals to the local residents.

Sebele (2010) discussed the benefits and challenges of communities adjacent to the Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (KRST). Community based tourism at KRST is a very important source of employment for local communities promoting rural development. However Sebele (2010) argues that the communities were also unhappy because they have lost a number of valuable natural resources, now found and located within the KRST; the most important being their communal land. The community believes that it incurred more costs than benefits hence costs far outweigh benefits. Studies on CBNRM (Mbaiwa, 2004; Murphree, 1999; Stone, 2006) have shown that the sustainability of projects whose costs outweigh benefits is small as such projects have a higher risk of failure. This is so because communities prefer to support projects with more socio-economic benefits than costs. Community participation is often regarded as one of the most essential tools if tourism is to make a substantial contribution to the national development of a country (Lea, 1988). It is evident that for community based tourism to bring more benefits for locals, more interaction is needed between them and the Trust management.

2.2.4 Wildlife Management in North East District

In the NED there is very little literature on tourism. This is because the NED has very few tourist resorts and tourism is a new concept in this district. Dating back to the colonial administration and systems that were very intense in the NED, historians conducted studies focusing on the Tati Company and land alienation and the scramble that ensued as the local communities struggled to reclaim their lost land. Such studies (Tapela, 1976; Woto, 1976; Mupindu, 1983; Manatsha, 2008; Schapera, 1943) addressed the land in question in the NED. Werbner's (1969) study focused on Tati Company and how the conflicts emerged with the traditional leaders. These studies relied on archival sources and oral interviews and did not go on to find the perceptions and attitudes of people. Thorough review of literature has revealed that there is one study done in the NED detailing tourism. Manatsha (2014) conducted a study on "The politics of Tachila Nature Reserve in the North East District, Botswana: A Historical Perspective.

His study examined community attitudes towards Tachila Nature Reserve. "Manatsha (2014) argues that TNR is not a complete community based tourism project with regard to the principles of CBNRM. The local people do not benefit as it is supposed to be with community based tourism projects. The local people interpret TNR as a project serving very few individuals".

Tourism can bring benefits to the local people as demonstrated in the literature review. The potential contribution of private game reserves' tourism initiatives to local communities has not been adequately explored. Other areas not adequately explored include contribution of private game reserves to land use conflict resolution and livelihoods. This study will, therefore, fill this gap of knowledge on private reserves and contribution to tourism. Local communities play a

major role in the success and support for tourism, but if the local people do not see the benefits of tourism development they are unlikely to support it from the grassroots level. Eco-tourism at TNR is a new development and the committee implementing the development should actively engage the community and allow them full participation and involvement. The committee should also engage public consultation to explain the benefits of TNR to the local people and how this may help contribute towards resolving existing land issues between the local people and the Tati Company. In the NED people want land, therefore, reserving land for wildlife conservation is rightly viewed by the landless communities as unfortunate and unjust practice (Manatsha, 2010).

2.2.5 Summary of the Literature Review

The literature review has shown that in the tourism literature issues of protected areas particularly nature reserves in developing countries have not been adequately addressed. Most studies (Lepp, 2007; Madulu, 2004; Mubangizi, 2003) done in Africa focused their interests on the economic impacts of tourism. This neglected the perceptions of local people towards tourism development. In Botswana too, several studies have been done (Mbaiwa, 2005; Bolaane, 2004; Adams and McShane, 1992; Taylor, 2002) but they tend to concentrate on environmental change, the creation of game reserves and national parks and their management and they have neglected the role of tourism development in nature reserves and its impacts on rural livelihoods. In the NED there is little literature relating to tourism. An expert scholar on land issues Manatsha (2014) did a study on the “politics of Tachila Nature Reserve”. The study is the first addressing the development of tourism in the NED.

2.3 The Social Exchange Theory (SET)

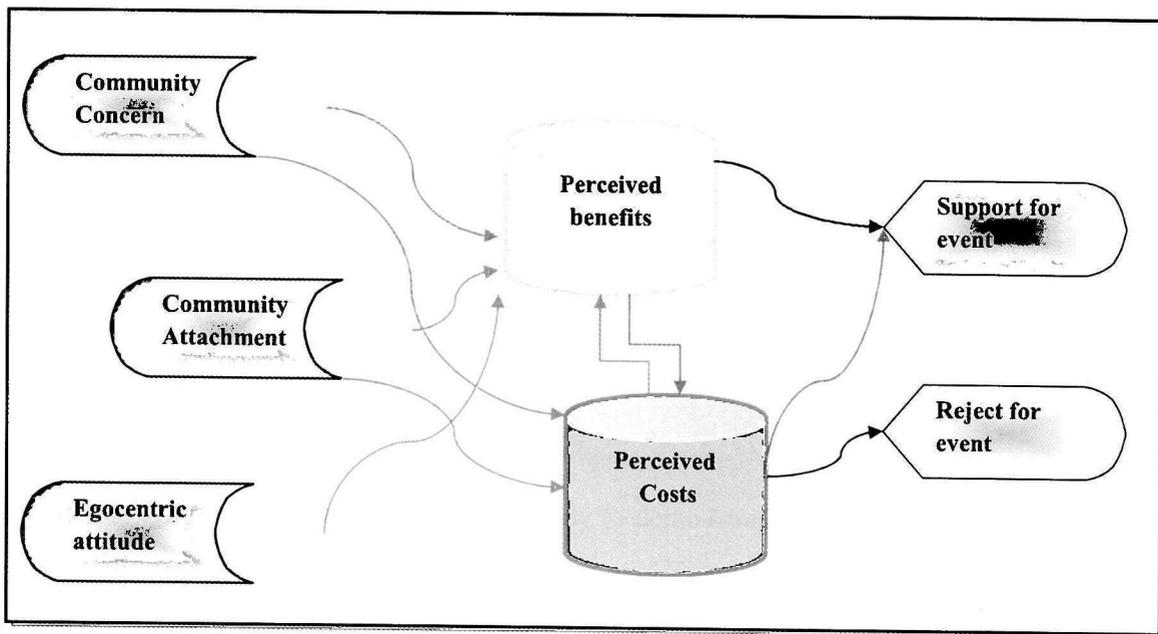
This study is informed by the Social Exchange Theory (SET). The theory was first introduced by a sociologist called George Homans in 1958. The SET is a psychological and sociological perspective that explains social change and stability as a process of negotiated exchanges between parties (Thibaut, 1959). The SET has its origins from the field of economics, psychology and sociology. The theory features many of its main assumptions found in rationale choice theory and structuralism. The SET has also been used in the study of business involving transactions and simple exchange. Homans (1958) defined social exchange as the exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons. Many researchers (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976) have used the SET in the field of sociology. Psychologists such as (Thibaut, 1959; Harold, 2008; Kelley, 1959) have also used the SET in their studies and Levi-strauss in the field of anthropology. According to Homans (1958) the SET major propositions are success, stimulus and deprivation satiation proposition. The success proposition states that when one finds that they are rewarded for their actions they tend to repeat the action. The second proposition which is the stimulus proposition states that the more often a particular stimulus has resulted in a reward in the past, the more likely it is that a person will respond to it. The last proposition states that the more often in the recent past a person has received a particular reward, the less valuable any further unit of that reward becomes. It is from these propositions that the SET model assumes that rewards and costs drive relationships (Homan, 1958). Both parties in a social exchange take responsibility for each other and depend on each other thus forming a system of a relational life.

Blau (1964) indicated that human beings evaluate relationships in terms of costs and benefits. This is also further supported by Homans (1958) who indicates that costs are the elements of a relational life that have negative value to a person and rewards are the elements of a relationship that have positive value. People calculate the overall worth of a particular relationship by subtracting its costs from the rewards it provides (Jones, 1976). The worth of a relationship influences its outcome, or whether people will continue with a relationship or terminate it. Positive relationships are expected to endure, whereas negative relationships will probably terminate. Human beings are reward seeking creatures and always avoid punishment.

The SET has been widely accepted and used in many disciplines including the field of tourism. In tourism studies the SET was developed by Ap (1992) in response to overcome the limitations provided by other theories used in tourism studies to study the relationships between tourism development and perceptions of local people. Such theories are the play theory, compensation theory and conflict theory (Bystrzanowski, 1989), attribution theory (Pearce, 1989), dependency theory (Preister, 1989). Other studies done in tourism have used the Sustainable livelihood framework (SLF) to study and explain perceptions. The framework originated from livelihood ideas of the 1980s and 1990s, and was later improved and modified for analyses of household livelihoods in developing countries (Scoones, 1998; Ellis, 2000; Ellis & Biggs, 2001). This study appreciates the existence of the sustainable livelihood framework but it does not use the framework because of its limitations. The SLF does not cater for changes over time (Ellis, 2000). It is non-historic because it takes current household access to resources as given, without looking at the origins and possible causes of current access conditions (Small, 2007). Ap (1992) explains that this wide range of models lacked comparability and thus of a framework able to give a

common explanatory basis. According to Ap (1992) an exchange of resources takes place during an interpersonal situation, only if certain conditions are met. In developing and attracting tourism to a community, the goal is to achieve outcomes that obtain best balance of benefits and costs for both residents and tourism actors. Residents evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange, that is, evaluate it in terms of expected benefits or costs obtained in return for the service they supply. Community members or residents seek tourism development for their community in order to satisfy their economic, social, and psychological needs and improve the community's well being. Ap (1992) further explains that all human relationships are formed through the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives. Comparison is an important component of social exchange and provides the standard against which all relationships are judged. From a tourism perspective, social exchange theory proposes that individuals attitudes towards tourism and their subsequent level of support for its development will be influenced by their evaluations on the outcomes of tourism for themselves and their communities (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, and Vogt, 2005). As such, social exchange theory has provided a conceptual base for the examination of the inter-relationships among perceptions of costs, and benefits, positive and negative impacts, and support for tourism (Choi & Murray, 2010; Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010a; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2010b; & Perdue et al., 1990). SET is concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between parties in an interaction situation where the objects offered for exchange has value, are measurable, and there is a mutual dispensation of rewards and costs between actors (Ap, 1992; Madrigal, 1995). Ap contends that the advantage of using social exchange theory is that it can accommodate explanation of both positive and negative perceptions, and can examine relationships at the individual or collective level.

The principle of the Social Exchange theory (SET) has been adopted widely by tourism researchers since the 1990s (Purdue et al., 1987; Madrigal, 1993; Getz, 1994; Hernandez et al., 1996; McGehee & Andereck, 2004; Andereck et al., 2005). Hernandez et al. (1996) in a study of Isabela, Puerto Rico, took a neutral approach, speculating that residents' ambivalence towards future development resulted from uncertainty regarding the terms of the exchange. An individual that perceives benefits from an exchange is likely to evaluate it positively, one that perceives costs is likely to evaluate it negatively. Figure 1 shows the Social Exchange Theory.



Source (Adapted from Custory & Kendall, 2006, p. 607)

Figure 1: (The Social Exchange Theory)

2.3.1 Limitations of the SET

Zafirovski (2005) has identified the following as the weaknesses of the SET. One of the weaknesses of the SET is that the theory neglects culture context and variations of cultures. The social exchange theory is based on a reward concept, but all cultures are different and in some cultures they may not seek a reward for a relationship. Moreover the theory involves the relationship between economic and social exchange. Economic and behaviorist models tend to reduce social exchange to a set of market-like exchanges of material objects driven by extrinsic motivations like gain, even when it declaratively distinguishes between the two. For example, this reduction is implicit in the claim that exchange theory is well suited for grasping material or extrinsic exchange (Stolte et al., 2001) and this subsumes that the SET is directly influenced by material accumulation or the pursuit of material resources (wealth). Because of the theory being too rooted in the economic approach of costs and rewards it under-values the social approach. The theory encourages or promotes an individualistic society or a reward seeking society.

2.3.2 Justification of the theory

The Social Exchange theory is used in this study to demonstrate why residents would perceive tourism impacts to be negative or positive and their position in the support for tourism development. The advantage of using social exchange theory is that it can accommodate explanation of both positive and negative perceptions, and can examine relationships at the individual or collective level as compared to other models which lack a common comparability and a theoretical framework that is able to give a clear common explanation.

The SET helps to understand the cost and rewards of relationships and also helps people to predict how to keep and sustain relationships. In the tourism perspective the SET helps to understand that if there is need for a development then it should benefit the local people to maintain the relationship. Humans appreciate when something is done for them and they in turn want to do something because of their need to reciprocate.

2.3.3 Summary of theoretical framework

The literature on tourism studies has shown that there are gaps created by using other models such as the play theory, compensation theory, and the sustainable livelihood framework in addressing tourism and its contribution to livelihoods. Therefore, the SET was used in this study to overcome the weaknesses of early investigations since it accounts for the variations in the perceptions of residents towards the development of tourism and it also provides a theoretical frame work that is easy to understand when dealing with perceptions of residents. Researches involving the study of perceptions require the use of a variety of data collection methods and techniques. The next chapter, chapter three explains the research design and methods used in the study.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The chapter covers the design of the research and the methods that were used to collect the data. The study sites are also discussed in this chapter. The chapter further discusses the sampling procedure. Data management and analysis also forms part of this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

This is a descriptive study carried out using cross sectional descriptive case studies of the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. A cross sectional survey suits this study since it can be repeated to measure changes over time in the characteristics that were studied. Case studies are common in social sciences (Chimbari et al., 2011). A case may be for example, a patient, a health care or a village. The study, as indicated above, uses the three villages. A case study may cover the socio-economic characteristics of people, such as age, education, marital status, number of children, income or the behavior of people and the knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and opinions that may help to explain the behavior and events that occurred in the population.

3.3 Study Area

3.3.1 Tachila Nature Reserve

The study was conducted in North Eastern Botswana, using Tachila Nature Reserve and its neighboring villages as case studies (Figure 2). The distance from TNR to Matshelagabedi is 12 km, TNR to Ditladi is 10 km and TNR and Patayamatebele is 18 km. The reserve is situated 5km east of the city of Francistown (Figure 2). Tachila Nature Reserve includes Lady Mary

Farm and part of the Sam Estates Farm, situated between the Tati River to the east and the main A1 road to the west (Francistown-Gaborone road). Its close proximity to the city of Francistown and the main north/south road (Francistown-Gaborone) means it is easily accessible. Recently developed waterworks (Mambo) provide a permanent flow of water into the Tati River bordering the land, which not only provides an essential supply of water for wildlife, but also a permanent wetland habitat that attracts many additional wildlife species.

The area is generally flat, with undulating topography to the north and some hills scattered throughout. In the early 1900's it is said that one of the favorite past times of residents of Francistown used to take trips to Lady Mary to view Elephants and other wild game that frequented the farm (Van Waarden, 1999). In the past, people from the villages of Matshelagabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele used to fetch water from the Tati river, harvested forest products, hunted and grazed their livestock in the area currently occupied by TNR. The TNR model is established to serve eco-tourism purposes and it is found on the land owned by TC, managed by "local communities" and Tati Company (TC) on private land. Figure 2 shows TNR and study villages.

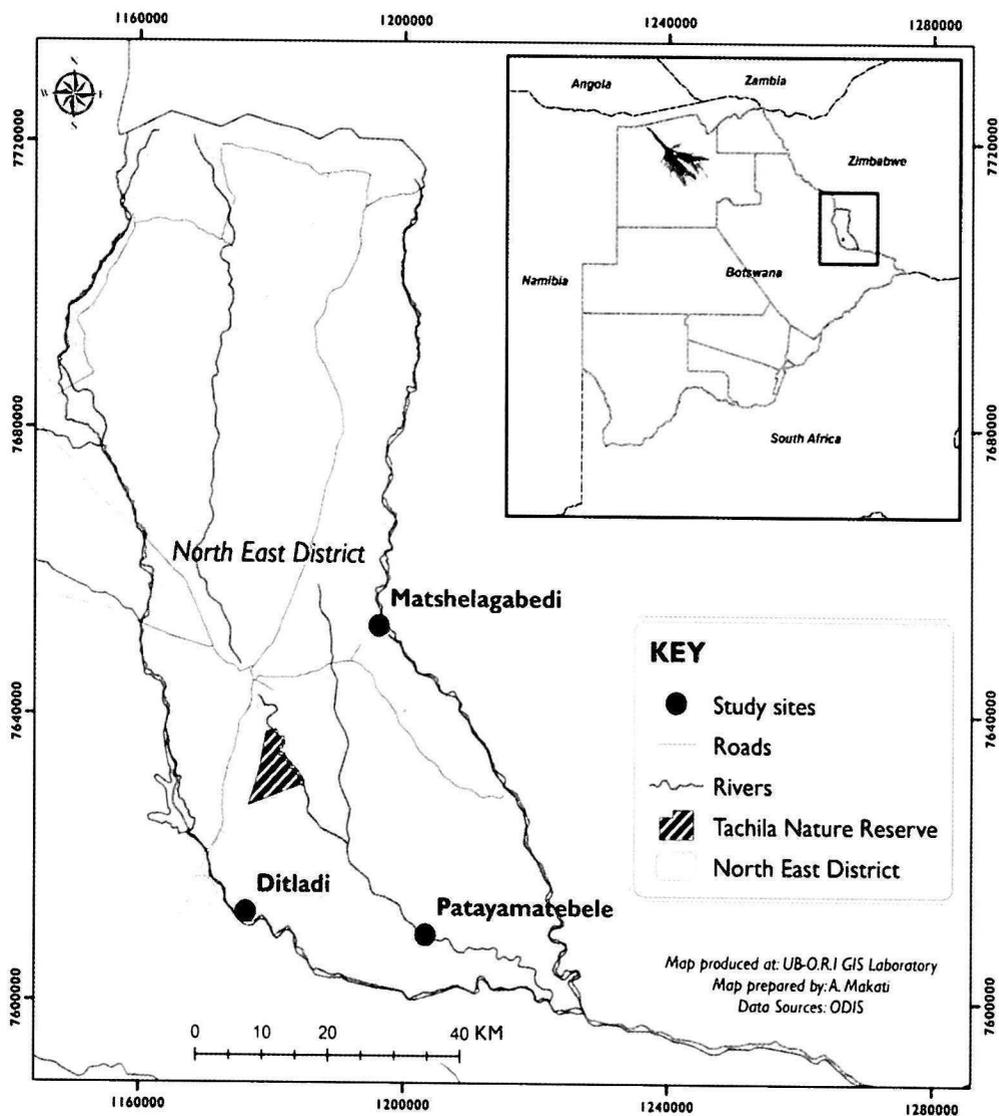


Figure 2: Map of Tachila Nature Reserve and study villages (Source:GIS Lab ORI)

TNR was used in the study because it is the first tourism development in the NED to offer eco-tourism purposes in line with the Botswana national eco-tourism strategy. The TNR case study is a new study in the NED since tourism is a new concept in the district. The case study is used to assess how nature reserves developed on private land can contribute to improved livelihoods, land use conflict resolution and socio-economic contribution to the local people. Interestingly,

the land where TNR is found has a long outstanding land question dating back to the colonial era. In the NED, local people argue of having been displaced from their land and therefore rendered landless. The land where TNR is established is characterized by land politics. Therefore, issues of land use conflicts versus eco-tourism are currently very appealing to study in the current literature. This provides the justification why TNR was used for this study.

3.3.2 Study Sites villages

The study was conducted in the villages of Matshelagabedi, Patayamatebele and Ditladi (Figure 2). Local people of the study villages have direct experience or they know about the nature reserve because of their proximity to the reserve. Both of the villages are accessible by road and this makes the villages a good study area. The villages are part of the sites surrounding TNR and in pre-historic times people from the study areas used the area which is presently occupied by TNR as their grazing land, hunting grounds and also for viewing wild animals and birds which frequently visited this area. The people from the study villages live mainly in huts made of mud and grass and most of the building materials especially thatching materials are obtained from Tachila Nature Reserve. The three villages around Tachila Nature Reserve were sampled from among 9 villages found close to the reserve. The three villages were purposively sampled from a list of villages neighboring the nature reserve looking at their age at the time of establishment of Tachila. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) purposive sampling provides the characteristics of what may comprise the final sample. The characteristics considered are gender, age and area of residence. The researcher used area of residency to select the villages very close to TNR, and the villages selected are rural villages, the villages are not too big as compared to other villages such as Matsiloje, Tati Siding and Tonota so as to be able to study rural livelihoods. Matsiloje as

one of the villages close to TNR has been greatly influenced by the Tati Nickel Mines which have led to the village having adopted an urban way of life. Tonota and Tati- Siding have grown big and serve as administrative centers in the NED hence an alteration in studying rural livelihoods. Age of the three villages has been used to give a balanced study with the oldest village, middle and a recently established village. This would help to show variation in terms of longevity in respect to some aspects such as differences in attitudes based on duration of the village and history. A description of these villages is provided below.

3.3.3 Patayamatebele

Patayamatebele is a small village of about 349 people (statistics Botswana, 2001). The village is 18 km southeast of TNR. The people belong to various ethnic groups such as the Bangwato, Basarwa, Bakhurutshe, Bakalaka and Babirwa. Patayamatebele lies between the Shashe and Tati rivers. The village was officially gazetted in 2007 and first established in 1989. The main economic activities in Patayamatebele are farming and gathering wild berries. The cattle in the area were destroyed due to foot-and –mouth disease in the 2002/2003 period. Residents of Patayamatebele used the area currently occupied by TNR as their hunting grounds. They also fetched water in the Tati river which passes through the reserve. Their livestock also used the area for grazing. Patayamatebele is a middle aged village. The village is very small and the population is also small. Patayamatebele is a rural poor village with little developments. Most of the people are unemployed and their main human activities are gathering forest products, pastoral farming and also subsistence arable farming.

3.3.4 Matshelagabedi

The village of Matshelagabedi is about 12 kilometers northeast of TNR (Figure 2). There are about 2,871 people in the village of Matshelagabedi (Statistics Botswana, 2011). The people of Matshelagabedi belong to various ethnic groups such as Bakhurutshe, Bakalaka, Basarwa and Bangwato. The people of Matshelagabedi are employed in various economic sectors such as agriculture, mining and quarrying, manufacturing, water and electricity, construction, wholesale, transport and communication, business services, health services, education, and domestic services (Statistics Botswana, 2011). The village used the area now occupied by TNR as grazing land, a place where they used to harvest thatch grass and other veld products and also their hunting grounds. Some of the founders of Matshelagabedi first settled where it is now TNR before they were relocated by the Tati Company during the colonial period. Matshelagabedi is a relatively very old village. In a personal communication with one elder of this village, he indicated that the village was established in 1971.

3.3.5 Ditladi

Ditladi is situated 10 km east of TNR (Figure 2). The population of Ditladi is about 1,344 (Statistics Botswana, 2011) and the main activity being arable farming and pastoral farming and some people temporarily employed in Ipelegeng projects. The village has long used the area currently occupied by TNR as grazing land and also for hunting. Ditladi is a newly developed village but older than TNR. A village elder indicated that Ditladi was established as a small rural settlement in the early 1970s and people regarded the settlement as a cattle-post until in 1990 when the village was officially gazzetted. Even to date Ditladi is still a very small village with low developments.

3.4 Methods

3.4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods that detail how the research was carried out. It covers the data collection methods used, the sampling procedure, the population of the study and the data analysis.

The study used both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Qualitative methods were used to collect data that could not be subjected to statistical tests. This includes policies, community opinions, activities and ways through which these activities will be implemented (Struwig & Stead, 2004). On the other hand, quantitative design was used in areas where the data collected was capable of being subjected to statistical analysis. This data was presented in the form of graphs, tables, averages and other statistical presentations.

3.4.2 Data Collection Methods

Data collection requires tools and techniques. The data collected assisted in the resolution of the problem being investigated. Data can be collected from questionnaires, observations, experiments, interviews, documents, photographs and film (Struwig & Stead, 2001). Gill, Stewart, Treasure, and Chadwick (2008) also stated that there are a variety of methods of data collection used in research, including observations, textual or visual analysis (e.g. from books or videos) and interviews (individual or group). Data can be numeric or non-numeric form. Data can also be in the form of non-verbal data (questionnaire) or verbal data (interview). A data collection tool is an apparatus or instrument used in the data collection process to collect information. An example could be a questionnaire (Chimbari et al., 2011). Data collection tools cannot be separated from data collection techniques. The techniques refer to the methods in

which data is collected (Chimbari et al., 2011). These are the methods used to facilitate the collection of the information from the respondents. The study used the following methods of data collection;

3.4.2.1 Interviews

Interviews are a set of pre-set questions. The purpose of research interview is to explore the views, experiences, beliefs and or motivations of individuals on specific matters. Qualitative methods such as interviews are believed to provide a ‘deeper’ understanding of social phenomena than would be obtained from purely quantitative methods, such as questionnaires. Interviews are, therefore, most appropriate where little is already known about the study phenomenon or where detailed insights are required from individual participants. There are also particularly appropriate for exploring sensitive topics, where participants may not want to talk about such issues in a group environment. Gill et al. (2008, p.291) state that there are three fundamental types of research interviews: structured, semi structured and unstructured. “Structured interviews are, essentially, verbally administered questionnaires, in which lists of predetermined questions are asked, with little or no variation and with no scope for follow up questions to responses that warrant further elaboration. Consequently, they are relatively quick and easy to administer and may be of particular use if clarification of certain questions are required or if there are likely to be literacy or numeracy problems with the respondents. However, by their very nature, they only allow for limited participant responses and are, therefore, of little use if ‘depth’ is required. Conversely, unstructured interviews do not reflect any preconceived theories or ideas and are performed with little or no organisation. Such an interview may simply start with an opening question such as ‘Can you tell anything you know about Tachila?’ and will then progress based, primarily, upon the initial response. Unstructured

interviews are usually very time-consuming (often lasting several hours) and can be difficult to manage, and to participate in, as the lack of predetermined interview questions provides little guidance on what to talk about (which many participants find confusing and unhelpful). Their use is, therefore, generally only considered where significant 'depth' is required, or where virtually nothing is known about the subject area (or a different perspective of a known subject area is required). Semi-structured interviews consists of several key questions that help to define the areas to be explored, but also allows the interviewer or interviewee to diverge in order to pursue an idea or response in more detail. The flexibility of this approach, particularly compared to structured interviews, also allows for the discovery or elaboration of information that is important to participants but may not have previously been thought of as pertinent by the research team. Berg (1995) classified interviews into three common types. These types are the standardised interview, semi standardised interview and the unstandardised interview. Welman and Kruger (2001) have also classified interviews into three types being the structured interview, the unstructured interview and the semi structured interview. The study used both structured interviews and unstructured interviews. In structured interview which is also called the closed interview, the interviewer designed questions known as an interview guide and administered the questions to the respondent face to face and recorded the responses. The interviewee was only restricted to the questions from the interviewer with very little freedom to deviate from it (Welman and Kruger, 2001). Unstructured interviews were also conducted with the respondents. This type of interviews helped the researcher in exploring more important responses and formulates penetrating questions to generate further investigation. Unstructured interviews, also called open ended interviews, allow the interviewer to use probes with a view to clearing up vague responses, or to ask for elaboration on incomplete answers (Cannel and Kahn, 1986).

Open ended questions allowed the respondents to answer very freely hence they permitted an unlimited number of responses while closed ended questions offered respondents with pre determined options or responses from which the respondents had to choose the best answer that best expresses or is close to his or her viewpoint. The questions were in English and were taken to the selected respondents to fill. In cases where the respondent could not read and write the researcher read out the questionnaire and ask the respondent to answer and the researcher filled the answer given. In cases where the respondent did not understand English, the question was interpreted to Setswana or Ikalanga. Majority of the people in the villages of Matshelegabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele are the Bakalanga and Ikalanga is their first language, therefore, most people speak Ikalanga and Setswana is an official language used in Botswana. According to Chimbari et al (2011), self-administered questionnaires are cheap approach to data collection. They also involve large sample sizes and covering large geographic areas. The questionnaires were used to collect information on the perceptions of people towards the development of tourism at TNR. These mainly collected qualitative data. The questionnaires were given to household's heads. Household heads are people who are over 18 years of age and take decisions in their families. Households' heads are also responsible for providing for the family needs, and addressing matters concerning the general welfare of the family. An individual who is 18 years and above is legible to vote and considered mature in Botswana.

Interviews were conducted with the Reserve staff to get their views about the contribution of the reserve to the livelihoods and the involvement of the people in the reserve planning and decision making. Also in the study villages interviews were also conducted with the local people. These were face to face interviews. The researcher developed a questionnaire that was used as an

interview guide. The advantage of a face to face interview is that it allows the researcher to probe in-depth issues. This method is also suitable for both the illiterate and the literate respondents and it also permits for clarification. Face to face interviews have also proved to have a high response rate as compared to other methods of data collection (Chimbari *et al.*, 2011).

3.4.2.2 Observation

The benefits or problems arising from the Nature Reserve were observed. This technique is commonly employed in qualitative field research and involves systematically selecting, watching, recording the behaviour and the characteristics of living things, objects or phenomena. The researcher used the observer as participant technique to get the information from the respondents on the contribution of TNR to the local people. The researcher identified himself as a researcher and entered the nature reserve periodically for a duration of over six months to conduct the observations. During the time of the visits the researcher interviewed the management of TNR. This was to get information on the socio-economic contribution of TNR to the livelihoods of people and also the interviews conducted during observation gathered information on the strategies put in place to resolve land conflicts with the local communities. Observation usually involves one-visit interviews. This gives additional and more accurate information on behaviour of people than interviews or questionnaires (Chimbari *et al.*, 2011).

3.4.2.3 Focus Group Discussions

Focus group discussions are used to collect information when doing research. In focus groups data are generated by the participants in the research, who collectively communicate on a given theme (Vicsek, 2006). A focus group is a group discussion on a particular topic organised for

research purposes (Gill et al., 2008, p.293). This discussion is guided, monitored and recorded by a researcher. Focus groups are used for generating information on collective views, and the meanings that lie behind those views. They are also rich in generating a rich understanding of participants' experiences and beliefs. It is important that the group and composition of focus groups are considered. The composition of a focus group needs great care to get the best quality of discussion. Group composition and group mix will always impact on the data, according to such things such as the mix of ages, sexes and social professional statuses of the participants. Interaction is key to a successful focus group. Group size is also another important consideration in focus group research. A total of two (2) focus group discussions were conducted in each village under study. The discussants were also categorised according to their ages. The other group consisted of people aged 18 to 39, the youth while the other group consisted of people aged 40 to 85, elderly participants. Elders' participants' education level ranged from non-formal education to high school level, while the youths ranged from lower middle school to senior high school. A total of 16 females and 14 males participated in the focus groups. Each focus group had 5 participants and was composed of people of similar socio-economic backgrounds so as to limit bias and to ensure free deliberations of the discussants. In terms of socio-economic activities, all elders were subsistence farmers who practice both arable and pastoral farming and none of them have formal employment, however, some were retirees from government employment. Youth participants were mostly unemployed except for the six (6) who were tertiary school students. Focus groups were identified by means of purposive sampling. Village Chiefs and village development committee (VDC) chairpersons were key in helping to identify participants who participated in focus groups. Following initial purposive sampling, the technique of snowballing was used. Snowballing involves asking respondents to suggest

additional people who may be of interest to the research (Patton, 1990a). The participants showed certain characteristics that the researcher is interested in (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). In purposive sampling the researcher also relied on experience and previous findings to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample obtained was regarded as being representative of the relevant population (Welman and Kruger, 2001). Focus groups were used mainly to collect only qualitative data. The interviewer suggested the general theme of the discussion and posed further questions as these came up in the spontaneous development of the interaction between interviewer and research participant (Welman and Kruger, 2001). Chimbari *et al.* (2011) also mentioned the use of FGD when he writes that this method is commonly used by social researchers to obtain in-depth information on perceptions and ideas of people. It is used to gather information from all the people, but from a group of people who are most likely to provide valuable in-depth information because they are primarily the most concerned with the topic under investigation. Group members talk freely and spontaneously about a certain topic. FGD's strength is that it allows for discussion and this gives the ability to gather data quickly and at a relatively low cost. The criteria for using focus groups include: As a standalone method, for research relating to group norms, meanings and processes, in a multi-method design, to explore a topic or collect group language or narratives to be used in later stages, to clarify, extend, qualify or challenge data collected through other methods and to feedback results to research participants (Gill *et al.*, 2008). The data obtained from focus groups was analysed by means of systematic coding through content analysis.

3.4.2.4 Document study

The study used secondary data from Tati Land Board (TLB) on land use conflict from the colonial period, colonial documents on land issues in the NED, various dissertations done in the NED, research projects, newspapers, university libraries, District tourism departments, tourism statistics, Department of Forestry and Conservation, National Forestry Authority and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), policy documents, journal papers, theses and dissertations regarding the development of tourism and its contribution to the livelihoods. Chimbari *et al.* (2011) mentioned the use of document study by indicating that a large amount of data is usually collected by others. The advantage of using existing data is that data collection is quick, easy and inexpensive. The type of data that was collected by the use of document study was both qualitative data on tourism development and quantitative data about the study population.

3.5 Sampling Procedure

The collection of data is one of the most important phases in any research. Data is collected from a population or from a sample. The population is studied to tell the researcher something that the researcher wishes to investigate. Chimbari *et al.* (2011) describes sampling as the process of selecting a number of study units from a defined study population. A sample is, therefore, a selected part or subset of the study population from which the actual data is collected. The sampling procedure is discussed below.

3.6 Household Sampling

In conducting research, it is impossible to consult all the people more especially in large populations. The population is the study object, which may comprise individuals, groups, organizations, human subjects and events, or the conditions to which they are exposed (Welman

and Kruger, 2001). The size of the population is indicated by N. From the population (N), a sample (n) was drawn and used in the study. A list of all the sampling units in the population was drawn and this is called a sample frame. From the list a sample (n) was drawn by using the Taro Yamane Formula (1967). A total sample of 292 households was found from the results obtained from the application of the Taro Yamane Formula.

The equation provided is suitable for this study because it is used in research when the population is unknown or the research covers a large population. This formula allows for the level of precision or sampling of error at 0.05 to determine sample size. Taro Yamane (1967) formula is calculated as follows:

$$*n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

Where;

n= Sample size

N=Population Size

e=Level of precision or Sampling Error

Therefore, the sample size of households was calculated as follows (Table 1); N=Total population of Households.

Table 1: Household sample size

Matshelagabedi	Patayamatebele	Ditladi
N=267	N=51	N=112
$\frac{267}{1+267(0.05)^2}$	$\frac{51}{1+51(0.05)^2}$	$\frac{112}{1+112(0.05)^2}$
=160	=45	=87

Therefore, the total sample size for this study is=160+45+87=292

3.7 Respondents Sampling

To sample the respondents all the households in each study village were counted. Each household was given a consecutive number (e.g., 001, 002, 003 and so on) so that the total number of the households in each village was known and also had a number identification. For the village of Matshelagabedi 267 households were found, 51 in Patayamatebele and 112 in Ditladi. Simple random sampling was then used to select the desired number of household units from the total number of the households in each study village. In simple random sampling each member of the population has the same chance of being included in the sample and each sample of a particular size has the same probability of being chosen (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). After counting all the units of analysis in the sampling frame and giving them consecutive numbers, a table of random numbers was developed. For each village the numbers were listed in a table of random numbers showing no order, irrespective of whether an individual proceeded along its columns or its rows. This means that if an individual starts at any given number, there is no way of predicting the next number whether it is the one to the left or to the right of it, or the one above or below it (Welman and Kruger, 2001). Thereafter a pencil was used to make a mark on the table and selecting the number closest to the pencil mark. From the pencil mark a decision was made whether to select numbers on a row or column. Numbers were noted down until a collection of numbers was made equal to the size of the desired sample in each village. This collection represented the numbers of the households in each village, and from this collection of numbers, households used in the study were sampled.

From the households sampled the researcher interviewed the household representative. This was someone 18 years of age and above and concerned with decision making. Where the household head was not available, their spouses, sons, daughters or relatives of at least 18 years of age

staying with them were interviewed instead. A total of 160 survey interviews were conducted in Matshelagabedi, 45 in Patayamatebele and 87 in Ditladi.

3.8 Sampling of Key Informants

The key informant technique is an ethnographic research method which was originally used in the field of cultural anthropology and is now being used more widely in other branches of social science investigation (Marshall, 1996). A key informant is an expert source of information. Most members of any community or society do not know some of the things happening around their communities and their meanings. Key informants, as a result of their personal skills, or position within a society, are able to provide more information and a deeper insight into what is going on around them. Burgess (1989) calls such individuals “natural observers”, Sjoberg & Nett (1968) describe such individuals as “strategic informants”. All key informants are regarded as extraordinary by those around them and usually, but not invariably, occupy a position of responsibility and influence. The principle advantage of the key informant technique relate to the quality of data that can be obtained in a relatively short period of time. To obtain the same amount of information and insight from in-depth interviews with other members of a community can be prohibitively time consuming and expensive (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The potential weakness of the key informant approach is that informants are unlikely to represent, or even understand, the majority view of those individual in their community and any difference in status between informant and researcher can result in an uncomfortable interaction. The identification of key informants may be in error because some societies may attract people who wish to improve their status but do not have the necessary skills of a true key informant. Tremblay (1989) has explained that in selecting the key informants certain criteria’s should be considered such as: role in community, knowledge about the information desired, willingness to

communicate knowledge, communicability (able to communicate knowledge in a manner that is intelligible) and impartiality (should be objective and unbiased).

Purposive sampling was used to select key informants. Elman and Kruger (2001) explains that in this sampling researchers rely on their experience, ingenuity and or previous research findings to deliberately obtain units of analysis in such a manner that the sample they obtain may be regarded as being representative of the relevant population. These were the community leaders such as village Chief, village Committee members, village Councilor, Member of Parliament for the district, village advisors (elders) and the local communities. One Chief from each of the three villages was interviewed. The Table 2 shows the number of key informants used in the study from the three villages.

Table 2: Total number of key informants

Village	Village Chief, Chief Advisors, Ward head men	Village Development Committee Members	Village Elders	Total
Matshelagabedi	1	3	3	7
Patayamatebele	1	1	3	5
Ditladi	2	2	2	6
Total	4	6	8	18

Village elders were selected using purposive sampling. This is the method of sampling in which individuals are selected because they possess certain characteristics that the researcher is interested in (Welman and Kruger, 2001). The respondents were selected using age and those above 70 years were considered. Struwig and Stead (2001) have also mentioned that in purposive sampling the characteristics of what may comprise the final sample are considered e.g. gender, age, area of residence, etc. In the study the respondents above 70 years were considered as

village elders and they have knowledge of the development of TNR. Three (3) respondents from each village were selected.

3.9 Data Management and Analysis

Qualitative data was analyzed thematically using content analysis and descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics is concerned with the description and summarisation of the data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis (Welman & Kruger, 2003). The data was grouped and presented in the form of tables, graphical distribution and also described mean averages and variances. Thematic analysis involves data reduction into themes and patterns to be reported. Themes are identified by bringing together components or fragments of ideas or experiences, which often are meaningless when viewed alone (Leininger, 1985). In thematic analysis, themes that emerge from the informants stories are pieced together to form a comprehensive picture of their collective experience (Aronson, 1994). As a result, qualitative data from households, key informants interviews and focused group discussion were summarised into specific themes and patterns of resident perceptions towards the development of TNR.

Firstly, the phenomenon to be analysed was defined. In this study, this phenomenon was the perceptions of people towards tourism development, rural livelihoods and land use conflict resolution at TNR. Secondly, the researcher identified appropriate media and interviewees to be used in the study through a variety of sampling methods. A description of the way in which the units of analysis are to be analysed was developed. This is called coding. In coding the number of times (frequencies) of recurring themes considered as indicative of some response to the study objectives were recorded. The statistical analysis of the data obtained consists of determining the frequencies or percentages of occurrence of the chosen content. A special

application of systematic observation occurs in the content analysis of personal documents and mass media material (Welman & Kruger, 2001). This observation also applies to open ended questions and the contents of unstructured interviews. A data master sheet was developed and data was cleaned, edited and coded. Qualitative data was collected through open ended questions in self administered questionnaires, face-to-face interviews, focus group discussions and observation through fieldwork. The collection of qualitative data included opinions of respondents, reasons for their action or certain behaviour, description of certain perceptions and description of certain procedures from households involved the production and interpretation of frequencies and tables that describe the data. Responses collected through open ended questionnaires were then categorised and coded into specific themes. The contents of these sources were examined systematically to record the relative incidence (frequencies) of themes and of the ways in which themes are portrayed. Quotations of some key informants and focus group discussions were used to give the final report a deep and well supported analysis. These were presented in a descriptive form.

Quantitative data was analysed using computer packages of SPSS and Excel. This was done by organising and coding data to identify variables that were to be analysed. Coding helps to decide the different code values. Once the data have been coded it can be read into a computer and the analysis proceeds. For example, the number of people that “strongly agrees” on a likert scale questionnaire item concerning the development of TNR can be determined after the data had been coded. Quantitative data involves the production and interpretation of descriptive and inferential statistics. Statistical tests such as t-test and one way ANOVA were performed to compare the mean averages between groups. T-test was used to evaluate the differences in means between two groups. The *p*-value reported with a t-test represents the probability of error

involved in accepting the research hypothesis about the existence of a difference in the means. Assumptions were tested and the t-statistic assumes normality of the group distributions or variance. (Welman & Kruger, 2001) ANOVA was also used to determine whether groups or treatments differed statistically with regard to the group mean scores from one dependent variable. Age (independent variable) was grouped into three categories and the influence of age on perception assessed.

3.10 Quality control

Quality control, reliability and validity was done before, during and after data collection to ensure that the data collected is free of bias and to ensure that there is no information that is missed. Quality control was done through coding, editing and asking probing questions. Before data collection the researcher first reviewed literature which is intended to ensure that the study does not duplicate other studies and also to help the researcher get a better understanding of the problem to be studied.

3.11 Summary

The chapter has provided the methods that have been used to collect data for this study. It has also shown the sampling procedure, research design, study area, methods and the population of the study and how the data was analysed. It is important to determine the suitable methods appropriate to the study in order to have reliable and valid information. Qualitative data mainly use descriptive statistics such as average, mean, mode, standard deviation and thematic analysis. Thematic analysis involves data reduction into themes done by bringing together components or fragments of ideas. Themes that emerge from the informants stories are pieced together to give a

meaningful report of the area under investigation. Most of the researches from social science use thematic analysis. Quantitative data uses statistics techniques such as IBM SPSS. Depending on what type of data the researcher want to analyse statistical techniques such as t- tests, ANOVA, MANOVA, chi-square, regression, correlation can be applied to give the results which will then be interpreted by the researcher. Once the results are obtained the researchers interprets and discuss the results. The next chapter, chapter four provides the results and discussion.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the results and discussion of the study. The study was conducted to assess the contribution of tourism to land-use conflicts resolution, socio-economic benefits and improved rural livelihoods at TNR in the NED. Specifically, the study; (1) assessed perceptions of the local communities towards TNR as an ecotourism and conservation area, (2) examined the socio-economic contribution of TNR to improved rural livelihoods of surrounding local communities, and (3) examined the role of tourism development in resolving land conflicts between local communities and TNR. The chapter starts by presenting the socio-economic demographics of the respondents and then present the results of each objective, at the same time discussing them.

4.2 Socio-Demographic Variables

4.2.1 Percentage of Respondents

The study sample size was 292 households. Questionnaires were distributed and administered to the respondents. From the three villages of Matshelagabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele, two hundred and seventy people (270) responded to the questionnaires thus making the response rate 92%. Twenty two (22) respondents (8%) did not respond to the questionnaires. The composition and number of the responded questionnaires is fair enough to answer the objectives and questions of this study.

4.2.2 Distribution of respondents by Sex

The majority of the respondents (68%, n =184) were male. Ten (10) respondents are the managers for the nature reserve and do not stay in the study villages used in the study but rather they stay in Francistown. From the managers of TNR nine are males and one is female. The managers are part of the decision makers and they coordinate activities taking place in TNR and therefore have information regarding the development of TNR. The dominance of men in the communities studied increases the land use conflicts because it is usually men who are involved in heading livestock for grazing, hunting and fire wood collection just to mention a few. The difference in the ratio sex could also be mainly that men are household heads and women in these communities are still not empowered enough.

4.2.3 Age of respondents

Results show that the majority of the respondents were of the age group 36-40 years with 26% (n=70), followed by age 31-35 with 24% (n=64), then 41-45(14%, n=37), 51-52 with 7% (n=18) and greater than 65 with 6% (n=16), then from 26 to 30 with 6% (n=16), then 46-50 with 5% (n=13) and 56 to 60 with 5% (n=13), less than 26 with 3% (n=8), from 61-65 with 2% (n=5) and above 70 with 4% (n=10). The distribution of age is fair enough to answer the objectives of the study since it includes a wide range of age categories. This, therefore, helps to provide the research with information that is reliable. Knowledge on current issues and societal issues is high among the active mature group of 36-40 and 31-35 years of age. It is these groups that are often engaged in a lot of activities which include differentiated activities to earn income. These groups are also so ambitious with very high expectations and demand that drives them to be highly attentive to societal issues and new forms of innovations.

4.2.4 Education of respondents

Results indicated that majority of the respondents had Junour Secondary Certificate (27%, n=72), followed by form five certificate with (22%, n=59) then Junior Certificate but did not finish with (16%, n=43), then Primary Leaving Certificate with (13%, n=35), then primary school but did not finish with (11%, n=29) never went to school with (7%, n=18), informal education with (3%, n=8) and other qualifications with (2%, n=5). The population used in the study is dominated by people with low levels of education and such people depend so much on natural resources such as pasture for grazing their livestock, fuel wood, timber, medicine, herbs, edible plants e.t.c., for their survival. This, therefore, increases attention between the benefits and costs of the nature reserve to the local communities. Figure 3 shows educational qualifications of respondents.

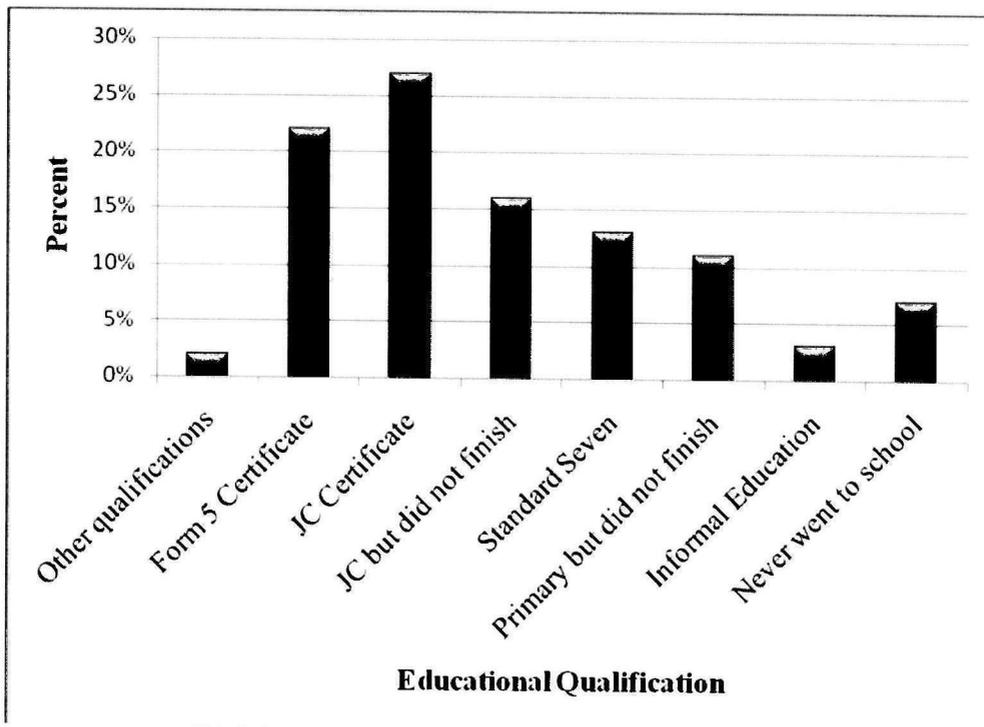


Figure 3: Educational Qualification

4.3 Perceptions

This section discusses the results of the study and findings based on the perceptions of local people towards the development of TNR as an ecotourism and conservation area. The section first discusses local communities' perceptions towards development of tourism at TNR followed by the perceptions of the people towards ecotourism and then the perceptions of local people towards conservation.

(a) Local communities towards the development of tourism at TNR

The majority (87%, n = 234) of the households at the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi strongly agree that the nature reserve is a liability to the local people and they have negative perceptions towards the development of tourism at TNR (Table 3). The people have indicated lack of support for tourism development at TNR which indicates negative perception when they were asked if they supported tourism development at TNR. Only a few (11%, n =29) had positive perceptions towards TNR who indicated “yes” to the question, “Do you support tourism development at TNR?” Even though residents who perceive positive benefits from tourism is small, the local people indicated that TNR can bring conservation education to the people more especially school going children. They also indicated that if the nature reserve is properly managed it can bring employment benefits. Moreover residents also mentioned that the idea of developing nature reserves can also bring conservation of forests and wild animals. Researchers on tourism have identified that local residents perceive tourism positively due to its propensity to create jobs, generate income, and provide social services and infrastructure in local communities (Andereck et al., 2005; Dyer et al., 2007; Jurowski, 1994; Jurowski et al., 1997; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Murphy, 1985; Sikaraya et al., 2002; Mc Gehee &

Andereck, 2004). Other studies have found that, when resident communities were dependent on tourism economically, they tended to hold strong support for its development (Andereck et al., 2005; Ap, 1992; Banks, 2003; Belsie & Hoy, 1980; Carmichael, 2006; Jurowski, 1994; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Lepp, 2004; 2007; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2008). TNR can benefit local people, and if people are involved in the planning and management of the nature reserve they will support the development and also perceive positive benefits. Studies (Cordes & Ibrahim, 1999; Cole, 2006; Dyer et al., 2007; Lepp, 2004; Walpole & Goodwin, 2001) have indicated that when residents were involved in the tourism industry or recreation activity they tended to show more support for additional tourism development. Also residents' who showed positive environmental behaviors expressed support of tourism (Jurowski et al., 1997; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Perdue et al., 1990). However, local people with negative perceptions and attitudes about tourism showed less support for its development (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006; Banks, 2003; Kuvan & Kuvan, 2005; Teye, Sonmez, & Sikaraya, 2002; Wilson et al., 2001).

The study results have indicated that the nature reserve has not benefited the local people since its gazettment. The local people want to be left to freely access the resources such as forest harvest, land for cultivation and grazing and fuel wood from the reserve. A total of 11% had a positive attitude towards TNR while (3%, n=7) were neutral. "Manatsha (2014) in his study indicated that in the NED local people want land, he further explained that the idea of reserving chunks of land for wildlife conservation is viewed by the land-starved local communities as unfortunate and arrogance". This partly makes TNR not acceptable to the local communities, who are supposed to be beneficiaries. With respect to negative opinions about the reserve, most

residents (69%, n = 186) first attributed their dislike to the naming of the nature reserve. “The local people view the name ‘Tachila’ as insensitive (Manatsha, 2014)”. The people of the three villages of study did not understand what the nature reserve’s name implied too. A study on the “politics of TNR” has also revealed that the people found the naming of TNR ill conceived. “Manatsha (2010) argues that in Ikalanga language, “Tachila” means “we will survive”. Therefore the local people don’t understand how they will survive from TNR”.

Table 3: Perceptions of households towards the development of TNR

Village	Total No of respondents	Negative Perception		Positive Perception		Neutral	
		Number of Respondets	% of Respondets	Number of Respondets	% of Respondets	Number of Respondets	% of Respondets
Ditladi	80	72	90%	7	8.7%	1	1%
Patayamatebele	40	31	68.8%	6	13%	3	6.6%
Matshelagabedi	150	131	81.8%	16	10%	3	1%
Total	270	234	87%	29	11%	7	3%

Key informants (Chiefs) in all the three villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi indicated that the development of TNR came as a surprise to them when most of the residents wanted land which was taken by the Tati Company. The key informants also indicated that there were no proper consultative meetings held in the villages. The results suggest that the idea of establishing this reserve was conceived by few elites, and local communities were informed about the decision. A report (management plan of TNR) states that a management committee was appointed by the board of trustees and it only includes prominent experts in various fields of relevance to the reserve affairs (TNR Management and Development Plan, 2005).

Most of the households (90%, n = 243) indicated that TNR is not community owned and it belongs to the executives of TC. Some households (87%, n =234) have noted that the nature reserve serves the interest of foreigners since the board members are not the local people. Results indicate that the local people do not know how they relate to the reserve. TNR board of trustees' members are influential individuals. An interview with the manager at TNR has indicated that the criteria used to be a member of the board of trustees was by voluntarism and most of the people who volunteered are business people. This gives some local communities an impression that it is 'owned' by a few elite. In an interview with the village Chief in Patayamatebele he said, "The owners of TNR came here only once, to market their nature reserve and ask for our support. The Chief continued to explain that since the people who came to the village to recruit them to support their nature reserve nothing was never heard again from the people except a lion that came and killed their livestock". The residents of Patayamatebele know Tachila to be an area that protects lions and release them to kill their livestock (personal communication, Chief Dick Moring , 23rdMay 2015). These results, therefore, indicate that the people in the study have negative attitudes towards TNR which in essence might be difficult to address issues of land use conflicts and conservation.

Results on perceptions of households towards TNR were also determined using benefits that local people get from the development of TNR. Most of the people (87%, n=234) of the people have negative attitudes towards the development of tourism at TNR. The villagers said that what they need is land for ploughing and grazing. In an interview in Patayamatebele, villagers insisted that their way of life has been limited. They indicated that their grazing area has now been fenced and their livestock do not have access to the grazing area. The people also mentioned that

they don't have fields to grow crops. In a meeting that was held on the Politics of Land in the NED, Maganu (2008) was quoted in Manatsha's (2014) work and explained that the meeting was full of heightened tempers and emotions. Thus:

“At one point it appeared nothing could be done to temper the fury of the villagers as they accused the [delegation] of trampling upon their rights. The villagers said government had promised to give them land after it bought 15 hectares from Tati Company....There was the rub: the people had mistaken [the delegation] for ‘Disingenuous government People’. They complained that government was not giving them land. Instead it is opening parks for wild animals and trees (Maganu, 2008. *pp.* 10-11)”.

(b) Perceptions of local people towards Ecotourism

Results indicate that people (87%, n=234) have negative perceptions towards the development of ecotourism at TNR (Figure 4). This is because communities do not benefit from the development of TNR as it is supposed to be with ecotourism projects. Ecotourism development should be a community project run and managed by the local people and in return benefit them. The implementation of ecotourism at TNR is something else. There is no community involvement and no community participation. Chen (2006), in a study done in Chinghai Biosphere Mountain reserve in China, has also found that local people held negative attitudes toward forest reserves. The study shows that 60.4% of the people had negative attitudes and attributed their dislike of the reserve to income loss due to strict forest use rules, crop damage by wild pigs, the restriction on killing wild animals viewed as pests, inequitable distribution of mountain resources and their potential benefits, and inadequate attention to community development after the ban on the

collecting mountain resources was established. Figure 4 shows the perception of local people towards ecotourism at TNR.

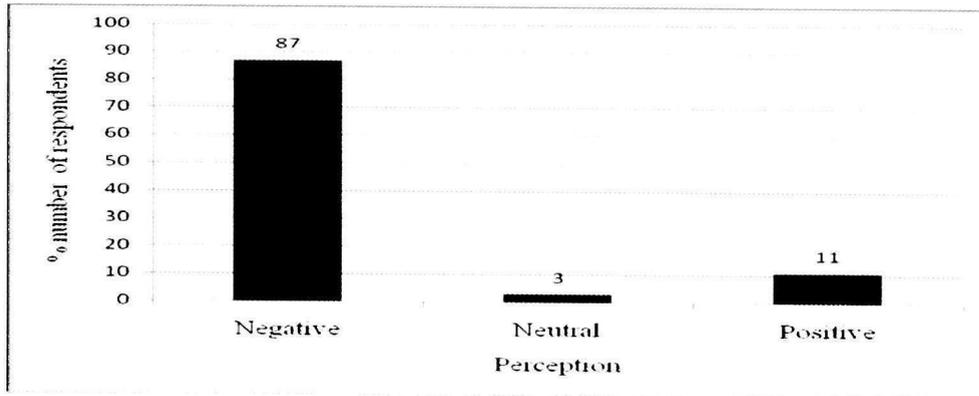


Figure 4: Households' perception towards ecotourism at TNR

The results have shown that if the development of tourism does not bring benefits to the local people, the communities are unlikely to support ecotourism initiatives. There is urgent need for the management of TNR and the government to show a clear documentation and commitment to implement a plan that can also benefit the local people as TNR is supposed to be an ecotourism project.

The negative perceptions that people have date back to the colonial era. The evolution of the protected areas system in Africa has its roots in the hunting ethos and natural history studies that were popular at the end of the 18th century and the beginning of the 19th century in the Western World (Beinart, 1994). As a result of these concerns, pressure groups mostly comprising of colonial governments, Aristocrats, Sports hunters and leading land lords in the colonies began to advocate for game preservation (Mackenzie, 1988). The interest and concern of the local African people were not considered in the establishment of these protected areas. Mackenzie (1998) further rightly argues that foreign interest and not the interest of the African people influenced the legislation for wildlife management and protected areas in particular. In many incidences, the

creation of these protected areas deprived local people of resources that they have been accessing for a long time for both their cultural and economic values (Barrow & Murphree, 2001). The increasing human population and the result in pressure on the land resources increase the conflict between protected areas, managers and the neighbouring communities hence the local people develop negative perceptions as the study demonstrates.

A one way between groups analysis of variance was conducted to further explore the impact of age levels on support for tourism development at TNR. Participants were divided into three groups according to their age (group 1: 18-35 ; group 2: 36-55 years; group 3: 56 years and above). There was no statistical significance at $p < .05$ level in the scores for the three age groups. $F(2, 267) = .276, p = .759$. The mean score for group 1 ($m = 1.52, SD = .975$) did not differ with group 2 ($m = 1.56, SD = 1.079$) and also for group 3 ($m = 1.42, SD = .988$). The results indicate that support for tourism development at TNR is not associated with age. The results also imply that the study population ages do not influence perceptions towards TNR, the people hold negative perceptions regardless of their age.

(c) Perceptions of local people towards Conservation

Results indicate that residents of Ditladi, Matshelagabedi and Patayamatebele hold negative perceptions towards conservation at TNR. The local people have developed hatred towards TC which they claim took their land during colonialism. This attitude continues to influence the perceptions of people in NED. The colonial stigma they hold against TC affects the TNR project in a negative manner. It is hard to forget the sad memories that people of the NED experienced during their land struggle with the TC. For instance in a study on the creation of a landless state

(Manatsha, 2010) states that in Matshelagabedi an elderly man accused the government of being lenient with Tati Company, which oppressed and stole their land.

The negative views about Tati Company make it impossible for residents to support conservation at TNR. “In a study by Manatsha (2010) he interviewed the property manager for Tati Company. The manager pointed out that people still have ‘colonial stigma’ about the company”. This is due to the shortage of land in the NED. Results of this study has also found that failure to generate income by TNR make people develop negative perceptions towards TNR. An interview with the manager at TNR indicated that TNR lacks funding and it is on its downward slope.

A research scholar in the NED when writing about “The Historical and Politico-Cultural significance of Nswazwi Mall in Francistown”, (Manatsha, 2012) argues that the “Tati Company takes community initiatives seriously. The TC owns a mall, officially opened in 2005 in Francistown”. The TC and TNR offices are found on this mall. This is a good way of appealing for support for TNR. The Nswazwi mall attracts a lot of people because of its strategic positioning. It is well situated close to the bus terminal and serves the people in the NED. It is possible that it can market the TNR project. “As much as the mall commemorates the repatriation and reintegration of Bakanswazwi and honours their leader, it boosts Tati Company public relations and marketing strategies (Manatsha, 2012)”.

The board of trustees of TNR does not have any members from the three villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. This makes the board of trustees questionable since it does not include representatives from other villages surrounding TNR while TNR is an ecotourism

project. A respondent in Matshelagabedi explained that the board of trustees lacks community representatives. It is constituted of wealthy individuals who are influential and are guarding their business interests using the nature reserve. In Ditladi a 57 year old man indicated that they do not even know the management of the nature reserve. This is a clear sign that the nature reserve is not a community project. Some private individuals owning ranches within the Tati Company land have identified themselves to local people and have been helping in the village developments whereas Tachila is secretive and very exploitative according to one of the respondents. TNR, as an ecotourism project, lacks the guiding programme of CBNRM. In Botswana CBNRM is seen as a development approach that supports natural resource conservation and the alleviation of poverty through community empowerment and the management of resources for long-term social, economic and ecological benefits (Government of Botswana, 2000).

Understanding the attitudes of the people means understanding if residents are supportive or exert opposition towards tourism development projects, and understanding their attitudes allows for the adoption of an adequate responsive mechanism to the negative influences that arise from the tourism exchange (Williams & Lawson, 2001; Sharma & Dyer, 2009). The study used the SET to evaluate perceptions of residents. The SET postulates that residents evaluate tourism in terms of social exchange, that is, evaluate it in terms of expected more benefits or costs obtained in return for the services they supply (Ap, 1992). Hence, it is assumed host resident actors seek tourism development for their community in order to satisfy their economic, social, and psychological needs and to improve the community's well-being.

The perceptions of local people in the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi need to be changed through public workshops and seminars. Failure to do that means TNR would remain intolerable to the local people. TNR Trust should develop co-management guidelines and extend them to the local communities. The local people should be included and the project explained to them in small groups or at individual level. This will help in instilling sense of ownership to the local communities since it is one of the objectives for TNR. Results have indicated that the perception of the people of the villages of Ditladi, Matshelagabedi and Patayamatebele is negative towards TNR.

If the local people are not involved in the decision making for tourism development and conservation they are likely to develop negative attitudes towards natural resources management as shown by the case at TNR. Since the 1980s, tourism literature calls for the inclusion and involvement of local communities in tourism development. Failure to include the local people means that residents have the potential to disown the tourism product (Hardy, Beeton & Pearson, 2002). Residents of Patayamatebele, Ditladi and Matshelagabedi perceive tourism to have created costs that impinge on them adversely. They have developed negative attitudes towards tourism development at TNR. Studies have shown that residents will support the management of natural resources if they accrue more benefits than costs (Rothman, 1978; Thomason et al., 1979; Milman & Pizman, 1988).

Despite the negative perceptions towards TNR as a conservation area it is worth to note that, conserving natural resources is an important form of sustaining the natural environment. The efforts of developing nature reserves helps mitigate climate change. Nature reserves are therefore

a crucial part of our effort to combat climate change. Working with nature, rather than against it, brings multiple benefits also for preserving our climate. By conserving nature and restoring ecosystem we reduce vulnerability and increase resilience. Nature conservation and restoration is a major, cost-effective ally in our fight against climate change. Climate change damages biodiversity. It is one of the causes of biodiversity loss. At the same time, climate change will accelerate further if biodiversity and ecosystems are not effectively protected. Conservation areas such as TNR can therefore be used to guard against climate change and sustain the integrity of the environment.

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the perception scores for males and females. The results indicated that there was a significant statistical difference in scores for males ($M = 1.22$, $SD = .490$) and females ($M = .059$, $SD = .368$; $t(268) = 2.073$, $p = .039$). This implies that males and females perceive the development of tourism at TNR differently. Depending on a number of factors, individuals may tend to favour or disfavour an innovation or development. The results indicate that most male people in the study villages strongly disagree with the development of tourism at TNR. In most of the interviews they indicated that the development of TNR has created costs to them and these costs included restrictions to use their previous grazing land, hunting land, restrictions to forest product harvest and this has affected their livelihoods negatively. These results are also supported by research scholars on tourism e.g. (Haley et al., 2005; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996) who also found that people do not support tourism development if it brings more costs to them than expected benefits.

Moreover, a one way ANOVA was performed to explore the mean difference of perceptions for the three villages of Matshelagabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele. The results have shown that the mean difference is the same for all the three villages: $F(2,267)=1.5$, $p=.217$. The mean score for the village of Matshelagabedi was found to be ($M=1.47$, $SD=.946$), Ditladi ($M=1.49$, $SD=1.006$) and Patayamatebele ($M=1.78$, $SD=1.209$). The people of the study villages have negative perception towards the development of TNR.

4.4 Socio-economic contribution of TNR

4.4.1 Employment

Tourism benefits such as employment and income play a significant role in the improvement of local livelihoods and attitudes. Founding paperwork and management of TNR show that TNR is an ecotourism project for the community, but implementation on the ground is something else. There is no community involvement both in governance and through participation, involvement and benefits sharing. Benefits in place may be few employment opportunities, though still available for all in NE. This study found that there are no people employed at TNR from the three villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. This is because TNR lacks the genuine principle of ecotourism which implies local empowerment and creation of jobs. This was further confirmed by interviews with TNR managers who noted that TNR used to have six (6) employees but none of them came from the three (3) villages used in the study. The TNR manager has also revealed that the reserve is on a downward slope and the management will soon communicate about its temporary closure.

Results from the household's interviews from all the three villages indicate that TNR has never employed any people from the villages. An interview with the village Chief in Ditladi has shown

that TNR managers do not even allow people to go into the reserve. He continued to say “how can people work in a no go area?” This shows that accessibility to TNR is restricted to a few individuals more especially those who come from Francistown with high buying power. A study conducted at KRST (Sebele, 2009) has indicated that KRST has become a very important source of employment for local communities, with the nature reserve employing locals in a variety of jobs ranging from cleaners, drivers, guides, park rangers etc. This is not the same with the development of tourism at TNR. The results with the Village Development Committee in Ditladi show that TNR is nonexistent when it comes to employment benefits. This, therefore, contributes to an increase in the number of unemployed since rural areas are often characterised by a shortage of facilities and industries. Lack of employment in rural areas makes rural areas to have the poorest people in the society. Earnings derived from tourism facilities can reduce poverty through employment opportunities. Ashley (2000a) emphasises that residents can benefit at household income from waged income as is the situation in Kenya and Namibia. TNR does not fully execute its mandate as a community based tourism resort. TNR does not contribute to assisting local people with employment in the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi.

4.4.2 Livelihoods

Results from household’s interviews have shown that TNR does not contribute to the livelihoods of the local people in the three villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. Survey interviews with the Village Development Committee (VDC) have also indicated that there is no contribution done in the villages by TNR. A community representative in Matshelagabedi concluded that TNR does not consider the interests of the local people. An interview with the

VDC in Ditladi has indicated that when TNR is approached to help with donations such as for prize giving for their school, Independence Day celebrations or any request in the form of donations TNR never responds or at least shows an acknowledgement of request and give response. The VDC further mentioned that this might be because TNR is a secret institution run and managed by a few individuals with a different mission outside the boundaries of a community project and ecotourism purposes. In fact from all the villages there is no community representative.

The TNR project has negatively impacted on the livelihoods of the local people. The people of the study villages had been engaging in a number of livelihood activities. Households combine subsistence arable farming and livestock with other livelihood activities such as formal employment, informal employment and poverty eradication initiatives such as Ipelegeng or labour intensive public-works. Livestock farming was the most common, being practiced by more than 75% of households in the three study villages. Crops commonly planted in the study villages include maize, beans, sweet reed, melons, sorghum and millet. When livelihood activities were ranked in terms of level of importance, livestock farming was stated as the most important in the villages of Matshelagabedi (78%), Ditladi (70%) and Patayamatebele (59%). Livestock farming is preferred more than crop farming because of the high risks associated with arable farming compared to livestock. Arable farming is prone to crop failure due to unreliable rainfall and poor soil fertility. Arable farming is also prone to crop damage by livestock and wildlife. Tourism development at TNR has reduced grazing land and cropping land. Failure to contribute to rural livelihoods creates a disturbance to the lives of the local communities.

TNR has been in operation for seven (7) years now. This may not be enough bearing in mind the goals of eco-tourism (rural development, community empowerment and improved livelihoods).

A 67 year old woman at Patayamatebele mentioned that they rely on donations from certain ranch owners found near the boundaries of the land owned by TC. Private ranch owners have donated Impala and Kudu meat to the village when they asked for donations. This is also similar in Ditladi and also vegetable farmers along the Shashe River have donated vegetables to the village of Ditladi. In these discussions TNR does not appear altogether to have once contributed any donation to any village. In an interview with the VDC in Matshelagabedi it was indicated that Tati Nickel, which is a mining company, is the only company that helps in the development of the village. They indicated that Tati Nickel has built a day care centre, a catering service kitchen, a garage and a sewing factory. In Ditladi the village Chief also emphasised the help rendered to them by Tati Nickel. The company has built a mobile clinic at a cost of BWP 57,000.00 and a kindergarten. A manager at TNR has indicated that they have not done anything to improve the livelihoods of the people or to contribute to social projects in the neighbouring villages because TNR lacks funding and it is still being established. The manager also indicated that TNR is eight years old (8) but faced with a lot of challenges that might even result in its temporary closure.

Results of the study have also shown that the board of directors of TNR does not have a documented village development guide that can help in community development project. TNR is registered in line with Botswana's eco-tourism objectives that include community empowerment and improved rural livelihoods. Failure to have a community development guide or scheme of projects raises suspicion about TNR as a community project. Lack of a plan for community projects is likely to have negative consequences and may affect the success and progress of TNR and its principles of the said "eco-tourism". The Social Exchange Theory suggests that all

human relationships are formed by the use of a subjective cost-benefit analysis and the comparison of alternatives (Thibaut and Kelly, 1995). In tourism development individual attitudes are influenced by the evaluation of the outcomes of tourism for themselves and their communities (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005). For eco-tourism to succeed, the benefits from the utilization of the natural resources should outweigh the cost to ensure the sustainability of tourism projects. (Mbaiwa, 2007) noted that in Ngamiland district, in villages like Sankuyo, the Sankuyo Trust distributes funds made from CBNRM to each household in the village on an annual basis. This same idea is raised by Thakadu (2005) who argues that although the distribution of benefits differs in the type and mode of distribution, if benefits are felt at household level, this may positively change people's attitudes towards conservation. Failure to provide benefits to the community by TNR makes the local communities to have resistance towards the development of this project.

4.4.3 Recreation to local people

Results from households' interviews have indicated that TNR contributes to entertainment and leisure (photos 1 and 2) to the community members in the villages of Ditladi and Matshelagabedi. A total of (57%, n=153) of the households have positively indicated that TNR provides recreation for few individuals but this does not create or generate any income to their households. In an interview with a park ranger it comes out clear that the area has the potential to be a tourist destination and many recreational activities are enjoyed in Tachila. These include bicycle races, horse riding, hill climbing and outdoor camping. The local people who can afford and are willing to visit TNR, are allowed to visit the reserve for recreation.



Photo 1: Horse riding at TNR



Photo 2: Hill Climbing at TNR

Photos 1 and 2 summarises the benefits that the local people get from tourism development at TNR. From all the villages there are no people employed at TNR. Results from interviews with one of the managers of TNR indicate that the development of tourism at TNR is facing a lot of challenges and this partly makes the project to fail. TNR provides leisure and entertainment but this does not improve their livelihoods. The leisure and entertainment response is only prevalent in the age range 31-35 from the villages of Matshelagabedi and Ditladi.

Results have shown that there are no benefits at TNR for the people of the villages of Ditladi, Matshelagabedi and Patayamatebele. There are no employment benefits at TNR, it also shows that there are not any form of donations, contribution to local development, infrastructure, sports, and funerals from the nature reserve. Survey interviews show that residents benefits in terms of leisure and entertainment even though this does not translate to income benefits at household level.

4.4.4 Natural Resource Management Utilisation

Some local people (34%, n=91) have indicated that TNR contributes to the management of natural resources such as trees, grass and wild life. Interview results have also indicated that the fact that TNR contributes to the preservation of resources does not imply that they benefit from

TNR. Majority of the people (66%, n=178) have indicated that TNR does not contribute to natural resources management. One respondent was quoted saying “we do not benefit from Tachila, the reserve provides us with nothing, maybe animals and trees will benefit, not us”. The statement clearly shows that the local people have detached themselves from TNR and do not differentiate between TNR and TC of today and the colonial TC which was so exploitative. A study (Munasinghe and Mc Neely, 1995) indicates that the goals of natural resources management can be hindered by stress imposed by human activity if they oppose conservation. One of the managers at TNR stated that the reserve suffers damages of fencing by the local people who cut and graze their animals in TNR. A village leader in Ditladi mentioned that the local people have been deprived of some grazing land and their land taken for conservation of which is not their priority at village level. Interview results in Matshelagabedi have shown that women have been prevented from collecting firewood and thatch grass, and traditional practitioners no longer have unimpeded access to a variety of medicinal plants found in the reserve. The local people recognise the need for the utilisation and management of resources but because of shortage of land they tend not to support resource management since it conflicts with their urgent needs of land. The fencing of TNR has led to a general dissatisfaction among the residents in the three villages used in the study. In Patayamatebele the fence also cuts off direct access to their traditional ancestral graves, which are important places of worship, sacrifice and veneration for these communities. The local people of the villages have also continued to poach in TNR. Results have also indicated that the fact that local people do not receive any financial benefits, they won't support TNR as an area that utilises and manages natural resources.

4.5 Role of TNR in conflict resolution

Land use conflicts between Tati Company, TNR and communities of the three villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi are still in existence. The communities of the three villages have conflicts over land which currently is TNR. The TC, uses TNR as a community tourism project model to try a resolve the long land conflict with the local communities. In fact the TC has donated 8,000 hectares of land to a TNR trust which is leasing the land for a 50 year period at the rate of P1 per annum (TNR progress report, 2012). The land donated by TC to be used by TNR project, is managed by a TNR Trust and village representatives from the neighbouring villages. Founding paperwork has also shown that TNR is an ecotourism project which part of its mandate is to improve rural livelihoods, empower local people and create job opportunities for the local people. In reality the implementation of ecotourism at TNR is something else. There is no community involvement, no participation, no consultation and no benefit sharing. TC truly supports TNR as seen from the leasing condition. Despite this attempt to resolve the land issue, results from household interviews and informal interviews have shown that there are land use conflicts at TNR and surrounding villages of Patayamatebele, Ditladi and Matshelagabedi. A total of (70%, n=189) of household's survey want the land to be expropriated from TC. Another (12.9%, n=34) want TNR to be closed. The other (7.4%, n=19) of the respondents want the land belonging to TC in the NED to be redistributed (Figure 5). Results also show that (5.5%, n=14) do not know what can be done and (3.7%, n=9) want the land to be sold to people who can afford to buy. The NED has a complex and very unique history with the Tati Company (TC). The intensity of the grabbing of land in the NED during the colonial period motivates the local people to call for land expropriation. During the interviews most of the respondents (70%) expressed their desire to have the reserve degazetted since they do not

understand why such a big area is left to waste when they do not have land for cultivation. The residents want the land to be freed for settlement and cultivation. The local people feel their interests would be best served if the reserve was degazetted. "The NED covers an area of 5,993 km². Tribal land covers 3,391 km²(56%); free hold farms 2,569 km²(42.9%) and state land 33km²(0.5%)". One of the TNR executive members indicated that land expropriation is likely to cause violence and it is not a good approach to solving land issues. Manatsha (2010) has explained that since independence in 1966, the Botswana government has been addressing land issues through a market interventionist policy. A village Chief in Ditladi mentioned that a market led reform can work only if the land lords can sell the land to the government at fair prices. He condemned the idea of land expropriation. The Chief indicated that Botswana is founded on the pillars of peaceful negotiations therefore matters need to be solved in the most applicable manner not violence. In this line of argument the respondent indicated the need of social justice and democracy. Figure 5 shows household data on conflict resolution.

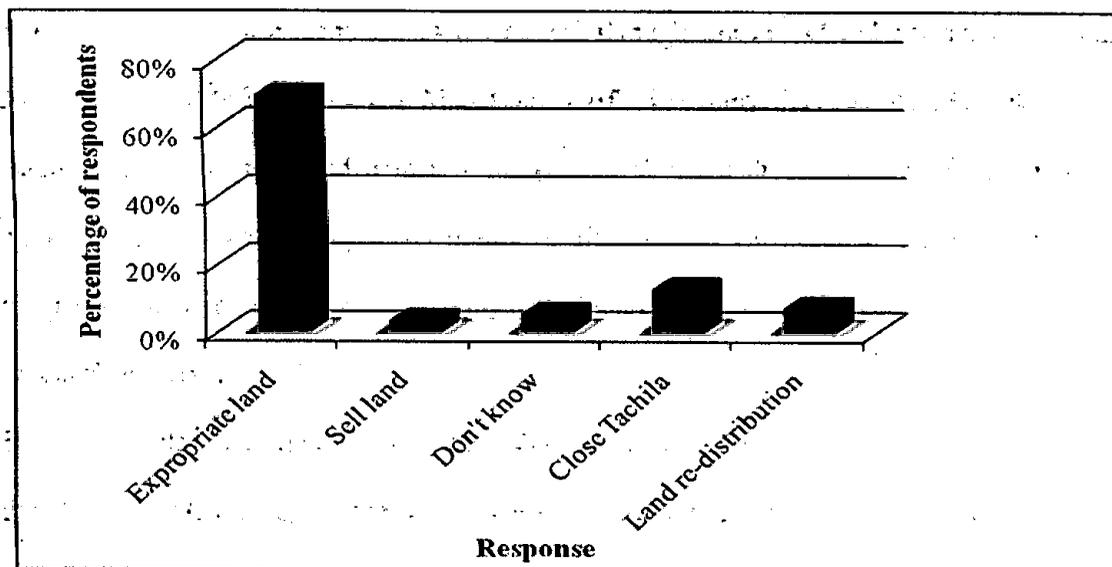


Figure 5: HH data on conflict resolution

Interviews held with the TNR manager indicates that TC and the government of Botswana can only afford to sell the land to those who can afford to buy. Writing on the "Land Question and Colonial Legacy in North-Eastern Botswana, Manatsha (2008) indicates that the government of Botswana is still trying to come up with an approach that can help solve land issues. He further explains that a market driven policy referred to as the "Willing Seller Willing Buyer" has so far been used. In the NED it is a common practice for TC to sell land at very high prices to those who can afford. Interview results have shown that the management of TC demarcates land and price it and sell through the willing seller willing buyer market strategy. Most of the land owners are absentee landlords and use private consultants to sell the land on their behalf. A study by Manatsha (2010) has shown that opposition politicians have been calling on the government to 'repossess' the land owned by TC.

In third world countries land issues are solved through the neo-liberal approach (Manatsha, 2010). Borrás (2003) quoted in Manatsha (2010) indicates that the Neo-liberal approach emphasizes on market-based land reforms (MBLR). TNR addresses issues of land through a market interventionist policy. This policy resulted in the Government spending millions of money to purchase land from the 'willing seller' land lords for distribution to the landless. This approach is seen to be the best by the Botswana government who hails the mandate of TNR. However results from the interviews have shown that the WSWB policy is a waste of money. In the NED, the TC throughout the whole year sells land to individuals who can afford through the WSWB policy as indicated by the advertisements (photo 1 and 2).



Photo 3: Land advertisement

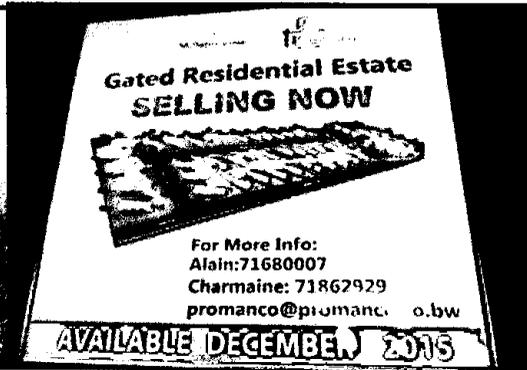


Photo 4: Land advertisement

Results of the study have also shown that the management of TNR is embarking in a mission to reconcile with the local people in the NED. In an interview with the manager of TNR he explained that, TNR, which is run by Tati Company to serve ecotourism purposes, is doing all that is possible to win back the favour of the local communities in the NED. He explained that the local communities should support the TNR project so that benefits can be felt at households.

4.6 Summary

This chapter has provided the results and discussion of the study. The discussion of the results assessed the contribution of tourism at TNR in NED, to land-use conflicts resolution, socio-economic benefits and improved rural livelihoods. The study objectives are to: (1) assess perceptions of the local communities towards TNR as an ecotourism and conservation area, (2) examine the socio-economic contribution of TNR to improved rural livelihoods of surrounding local communities, and (3) examine the role of tourism development in resolving land conflicts between local communities and TNR. The results have indicated that tourism development at TNR does not contribute to improved rural livelihoods and the local communities do not support

tourism development hence they have developed negative perception towards TNR. It is necessary for research studies to recommend what can be done to help people living near protected areas to benefit from their natural resources. The next chapter, chapter 5 gives the summary of chapters, recommendations and the conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY OF CHAPTERS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the summary of research findings, recommendations and conclusions made from the study.

5.2 Summary of Chapters

The study has shown that people of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi have negative attitudes (87%, n=234) towards the development of tourism at TNR. This is mainly because the development of tourism at TNR does not address the urgent needs of the people. The people found in the NED need land for various human activities such as farming, residential, grazing land etc. The lack of genuine consultation about the development of TNR with the local people will affect it negatively. The interaction between the reserve and the local people does not exist and this translates to unclear benefits too. According to Social Exchange theory, if people do not benefit from tourism development they are likely to develop negative attitudes towards the development as this study has shown. TNR lacks some elements to sustain the project as a community project. The TNR board of trustees are business people and this business consortium is also gender biased with only one (1) woman and nine (9) men. A study by Sebele (2010) at Khama Rhino Sanctuary has indicated that constant interaction between the management and the local people is important. For community based tourism to bring more benefits for locals, more interaction is needed between local people and the trust management. The long standing 'colonial stigma' against Tati Company has serious negative impacts for the support of TNR. The development of tourism at TNR is not welcomed by many local people, therefore, rendering it a failure.

The results of the study have also shown that TNR does not significantly contribute to the livelihoods of the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. The majority of the respondents (90%, n=243) have shown that the nature reserve serves the interests of a few, those who are managing it and they do not get benefits. As such they are bound not to conserve natural resources. There has been a call worldwide to get communities involved in tourism to ensure that they derive benefits from their natural resources. This case study acknowledges that communities can benefit from the development of tourism if they are allowed to own and manage the natural resources. However community projects if not properly managed can be a liability to local people as this case study concludes. Instead of the community deriving benefits, results reveal that most of the community members feel that the costs they have incurred far outweigh the benefits. Communities do not derive benefits from TNR because there is no documentation of the distribution of benefits. This hinders the development of tourism at TNR. Although the people appreciate that tourism can bring benefits that are essential for their livelihoods, it is the reverse order of the development of tourism at TNR. In order for TNR to appear meaningful to the local people, TNR should embark on a public campaign to teach the people about the benefits of the nature reserve and also develop a benefits distribution plan that clearly explains and include the community in this project. This study concludes that communities should be engaged and allowed to actively participate and take decisions for the success of tourism. Benefits generated from tourism enterprises should directly be given to local communities, and at the same time measures should be put in place to ensure that the benefits of tourism far outweigh the costs.

The study has also shown that there are land use conflicts between the nature reserve and the people of the villages of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi. During the interviews

most of the respondents (67%, n=180) expressed their desire to have the reserve degazetted since they do not understand why such a big area is left to waste when they do not have land for cultivation. The NED has a very unique history of which colonisation was very intense and led TC to demarcate large pieces of land for themselves. The intensity of the grabbing of land in the NED during the colonial period makes the local people to call for land expropriation. It is for this reason that people of the study villages demand land for a variety of human activities hence they conflict with the development of tourism at TNR.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the above results and findings, this study recommends that there is need for the community together with development planners on tourism to come up with a community participatory model that ensures the following;

a) *Outreach and Environmental Education to local communities*- Awareness campaigns should be developed to teach local communities about community engagement in tourism ventures. Outreach and environmental education is a fundamental catalyst in changing people's perception and creating situational awareness. It has been found that often local communities do not know the aims of the protected areas leaving them to feel excluded and marginalised (Ormsby and Kaplin, 2005). Through outreach and education programmes, understanding of the importance of the protected area, coupled with pragmatic alternatives for local livelihoods, can contribute to the reconciliation of people protected area conflicts. Awareness about the importance of wildlife conservation should be increased among the local communities and justify conservation as a form of land use. TNR Trust needs to educate villagers about its usefulness.

b) *Adaptive or Collaborative management* –A Co-management approach should be adopted that allows community participation. Collaborative management is now a common approach to protected area management in most of the countries. Collaborative management is focused upon conservation with some rural livelihood benefit on state owned resources and private owned resources. This should be a partnership project where communities can also share profits. Local people should be seen as partners not beneficiaries. (Blank, 1989; Mansfield, 1992) also call for greater local participation in the third world tourism sector to permit a more equitable

distribution of costs and benefits. A larger proportion of the local population should benefit from tourism, rather than merely bearing the burden of its costs. Community participation is often regarded as one of the most essential tools, if tourism is to make a substantial contribution to the national development of a country (Lea, 1988). For tourism projects to be successful community participation should never be avoided. It is evident that for community based tourism to bring more benefits for locals, more interaction is needed between them and the Trust management. TNR Board of Trustees should engage the local communities in the management of TNR.

c) *TNR, TC & government should treat the land question in the NED cautiously*-Instead of selling the land, the Government of Botswana together with TNR (TC) should give back the land freely to the local people. In the North East the communities which were dispossessed of land during the colonial era are now competing for access to land under the land redistribution policy with other Batswana, who have never been dispossessed (Manatsha, 2008). It is because of this public policy rigidity that the people of Ditladi, Matshelagabedi and Patayamatebele feel unjustly treated by the government. The villagers insist that the land belongs to them, and argue that the current land reform policy must give them special treatment and give them the land back.

5.4 Conclusions

Results in this study have shown that communities in the three villages of Matshelagabedi, Ditladi and Patayamatebele, have negative attitudes towards TNR as a conservation area. Research (e.g. Mbaiwa, 2005) has shown that if people hold negative perceptions about protected areas they are unlikely to conserve. This is mainly because people do not derive direct benefits from TNR. Namara (2006) argued that since most protected areas were created in a very forceful manner and people who had legitimately lived in them for many years were evicted, no attempt was made to work with the local people and none of the evicted were compensated in any way or given alternative land to settle. As a result of this, the local communities living around the protected areas tend to be very negative towards nature reserves. Resource access conflicts between the nature reserve authorities and the people increase the tendency of people to be negative as they view the nature reserve as a waste of valuable resources, which they need and from which they have wrongly been excluded. The SET, postulates that relationships are weighed through a cost benefit analysis. The communities in the three (3) study villages have incurred more costs than benefits. Therefore, they cannot support the development of tourism at TNR. The negative attitudes of people towards TNR mean that it is very hard for the park/reserve managers to keep people out of the reserve and a lot of policing has to be in place. The people also feel excluded from the use of natural resources that they consider traditionally theirs. Without cooperation of the local communities, the effort of the reserve management to conserve the resources is very difficult and bears minimal results.

A study conducted in Trentino-Italy (Brida, Osti & Faccioli, 2011) has also demonstrated that the need for land contributed to negative conservation attitudes among local residents towards protected areas. The history of negative attitudes of local people towards conservation, especially

wildlife in Botswana, began during the British Colonial rule of the country (1885-1966). The centralization of wildlife resources and the establishment of protected areas resulted in the displacement of local communities from their homelands and denial access to resource use in parks (Adams and McShane, 1992; Bolaane, 2004). For example, when Moremi Game Reserve was established in 1963, several San (Basarwa) communities like those of Khwai, Mababe and Gudigwa villages were relocated from their homeland (Bolaane, 2004; Mbaiwa, 2005; Taylor, 2002). The centralization of wildlife resources and the establishment of protected areas resulted in negative attitudes of resident communities towards wildlife conservation (Mordi, 1991; Moganane and Walker, 1995; Mbaiwa, 2005). Perceptions on tourism development is a result of assessing benefits and costs, and this evaluation clearly depends on what the community sees as their urgent needs and wants. The residents have indicated that all they want is the land that has been acquired by the TC in an unfair manner so that they can have grazing land and ploughing land.

Socio-economic benefits from a tourism facility play a significant role in the influence of local attitudes towards conservation. As a result, if people do not benefit in terms of employment, revenue generation, provision of social services, infrastructure development and household income there will not support the development of tourism. The development of tourism at TNR does not contribute to the livelihoods of the people of Ditladi, Patayamatebele and Matshelagabedi as it is supposed to be following the ecotourism principles and practices. This is demonstrated by (87%, n=234) of the households which noted that they derive no benefits from TNR. A Study by Mbaiwa (2007) has shown that for eco-tourism to succeed, the benefits from the utilization of the natural resources should outweigh the cost to ensure the sustainability of

tourism projects. He noted that in Ngamiland district, in villages like Sankuyo, the Sankuyo Trust distributes funds made from CBNRM to each household in the village on an annual basis. This same idea is raised by Thakadu (2005) who argues that although the distribution of benefits differs in the type and mode of distribution, if benefits are felt at household level, this may positively change people's attitudes towards conservation. Failure to provide benefits to the community renders tourism development a failure. The social exchange theory, which is guiding this study, indicates that human beings are reward seeking and punishment avoiding creatures, and that people are motivated to action by the expectation of profits. Rewards are not solely in the context of monetary returns, but may be social or psychological in nature (Napier and Bryant, 1980). Instead of getting benefits, results reveal that the local people incur more costs than benefits. Lack of benefits, therefore, hinders the progress of TNR. If people derive direct benefits from their natural resources they are unlikely to support the development of tourism. If the costs outweigh the benefits then local people will not support conservation goals. This has been demonstrated in this case study. The people of the villages can only support tourism if the benefits outweigh the costs.

Tourism has been used in other parts of the world to manage land use conflicts in natural resource conflicts. For example, in Okavango, Mbaiwa (2007), argues that communities support tourism because tourists bring income to their villages. Tourists' visits promote rural development like creation of roads, creation of employment opportunities, and that tourists buy their crafts (e.g. baskets). According to household respondents, this improves their lives. In Zimbabwe, Child et al. (2003) argue that land use conflicts have been overcome by the introduction of the CAMPFIRE programme which brings social and economic development to

areas around protected areas. This has been seen as a tool for rural development. In the case of TNR, if the development of tourism brings land use conflicts the local people are unlikely to support conservation goals as demonstrated by this study. There are no clear strategies or policies in place that aim to resolve land conflicts with the communities. A research scholar on land issues in the NED (Mahatsha, 2010) in his writings explained that since 2003, some opposition politicians and private citizens have been calling on the government to 'repossess' (the Zimbabwean style) the land owned by the Tati Company and the absentee landlords in the NED contending that they both acquired it 'dubiously' during the colonial era (Muzila, 2003). The company, a former colonial syndicate had tough relations with the local communities of Bakalanga and the Bakhurutshe of the North East in particular. It acquired the land 'dubiously'. For decades, this has been contentious drawing in politicians and ordinary Batswana. Due to the conflict dating back to the land issues of the colonial era TNR remains unjust to the people and the people of Ditladi, Matshelagabedi and Ditladi call for a redistributive land policy.

Tourism development at TNR can be an important human activity to the people in the NED. The implementation of co-management can help make communities realise the need for tourism. The implementation of a co-management approach called the integrated community management planning can be developed in the communities around the nature reserve to improve the living standards of nearby communities. A study done in China by Lai (2003) has shown that in Yunnan co-management benefited local communities. The implementation of co-management not only provided benefits to nearby communities, but also remarkably reduced conservation-related illegal activities. The conflict between the nature reserve and the communities has been considerably eased. The villagers' enthusiasm for forest management has been mobilised, and this has permitted the recovery of the vegetation and wildlife resources of the forests that are

under co-management. TNR can also use the co-management approach. The communities should be involved in the management of the reserve so as to conserve the wildlife of the reserve effectively and to implement co-management activities successfully. Community development and technical extension functions should be added to the responsibilities of reserve management. Tasks such as patrolling, guarding and law enforcement can be given to the local communities to create employment for the people from the neighbouring villages. The management of TNR should expand their duties to embrace community development services and collective conservation management; being able to mediate conflicts of land use, providing technical assistance to the adjacent communities and coordinating activities related to conservation and tourism in the local communities. TNR as a community project should also establish reserve management regulations. In a study conducted in Daweshan State Nature Reserve, (Lai and Wang, 1998) in their results indicated that there is need to formulate a series of rules and regulations for the management of nature reserves and its adjacent communities. With full respect for the local customs and habits, reserve management rules and regulations should be incorporated into the village rules of the related communities. Through research, demonstrations, training, study tours and awareness building activities in nature reserves such as TNR and their adjacent communities, community people are becoming increasingly interested in co-management approaches and can develop positive perceptions to nature reserves. There is still a need for other study to research on multiple approaches that can satisfy the needs of the community for conservation and tourism development.

5.5 Concluding remarks and prospects for future research.

Tourism development plays a critical role as a tool for rural development. The study results have indicated that if local people do not benefit from tourism development they tend to develop negative attitudes towards such a development. This is true as demonstrated by this study. Communities support tourism development if they perceive positive benefits from such a development. The findings of the study can be transferable to similar nature reserves facing natural capital challenges and still expect to give the same results. Studies done (Lenao, 2014; Mbaiwa, 2004a; 2009; Mbaiwa & Stronza; 2010) indicated that tourism can improve rural livelihoods through wildlife-based community tourism initiatives. There is great need for the communities to be mobilised so as to develop a sense of ownership within them and hence support tourism initiatives. Other studies done elsewhere in Botswana has indicated that “one of the recurring concerns about local community involvement in tourism development is that of lack of awareness”. Therefore there is need to develop strategies that can educate the communities around conservation areas on their usefulness. The local communities around TNR also lack education about tourism development and its consequences. It is important to note that community awareness should entail full understanding of both potential benefits and losses. The communities should be explained in the most simple and understandable language about the challenges and limitations that might develop from tourism development within their areas. A study by Lenao (2014) indicated that it is important to educate the community about tourism development and such a campaign should provide balanced awareness and also be accompanied with giving the communities a chance to decide whether or not they would like to pursue tourism as a development strategy. The results of the thesis have indicated that there was no community consultation meeting, and this underscores the principle of democracy. The efforts to introduce

community based tourism should be accompanied by thorough consultation with the communities to ensure that adequate public campaigns and mobilisation is carried out to explain the project to the local people. The Kgotla as a social institution can be used as a public assembly to convey such messages to the local communities. Understandably enough there is need for a variety of methods to be used to convey such information to the local people. A number of campaign strategies should be developed to help supplement the Kgotla system in disseminating such information. This could be house to house campaigns, smaller groups discussions, one to one discussions, use of media such as the television and local radio stations. All the varied communication strategies are helpful to cater for different demographics (e.g. youth, adults, males, females, mixed gender, literate, illiterate and so on). This approach would better educate the local communities about the principles of Community Based Tourism. CBT principles need to be marketed in a holistic manner so that all the potentials of such areas like TNR can be unpacked and educated to local communities, with the hope that local communities would appreciate and support the tourism initiative. It is important to note that the only way in which CBT contributes to diversification of rural lives is to ensure its ability to generate income.

This thesis argues that rural communities whose members do not accrue benefits from such a tourism development like TNR find it difficult to support such an initiative. Therefore negative perceptions impacts on the TNR project and ultimately may result in its complete failure. Community awareness creation should emphasis both benefits and aspects of losses so as to equip and prepare the communities about such a development. The study has demonstrated that most of the community participating in this study demonstrated a lack of awareness about this

project. The TNR board of trustees and management should embark on an awareness campaign to fully educate the local people about the project.

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**APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE SAMPLED HOUSEHOLD RESIDENTS
RESIDENTS ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF
TOURISM AT TACHILA NATURE RESERVE.A case study of the villages of
Patayamatebele, Ditladi and Matshelagabedi(North East)Botswana.**

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES [DEMOGRAPHICS]

1. Name (if you wish).....

2. Place (Village).....

3. SEX: Male [] Female [] (Tick where appropriate)

4. AGE: How many years do you have? Under 26[]; Between 26-30[]; 31-35[]; 36-40[]; 41-45[]; 46-50[]; 51-55[]; 56-60[]; 61-65[]; above 65[]

5. Education Level {How far did you go with your education}

[i]I never went to school[]

[ii]I did informal Education[]

[iii]I did primary school but did not complete[]

[iv]I have standard seven certificate []

[v]I did JC but did not complete []

[vi]I have JC certificate[]

[vii]I have Form 5/6 certificate[]

[viii]Other specify.....

6. What is your ethnic Background?

Mokalaka [];Mokhurutshe[];Mosarwa[];Mongwato[];Mmirwa[];Other Specify.....

ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES TOWARDS TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AT TACHILA

Following statements refer to tourism development at TNR, Please read each of them and show your level of agreement or disagreement. Indicate in the table if you strongly Agree[SA]; agree[A]; Neutral[N]; disagree[D]; strongly disagree[SD] with the points.

7. Attitudes towards the development of Tachila as a conservation area.

SN	QUESTION	SA	A	N	D	SD
1	The community was consulted about the development of TNR					
2	Local people were included in the naming of the reserve					
3	Residents were part of the decision-making.					
4	Tourism development at TNR is supported by many people					
5	Tourism at TNR brings economic benefits					
6	Local people participates on activities carried at TNR					

8. Contribution of TNR to local people

Indicate in the table if you strongly Agree [SA]; agree[A]; Neutral[N]; disagree[D]; strongly disagree[SD] with the points.

SN	QUESTION	SA	A	N	D	SD
7	Tourism at Tachila creates more jobs					
8	Tourism brings economic benefits to a small group of people					
9	TNR has improved the lives of the local people					
10	Our standards of living have increased more rapidly because of the money that the reserve give to our village					
11	TNR has contributed positively to the development of the village					
12	Overall, the benefits of tourism are greater than the costs for the local people					

7. Community involvement in the establishment and Development of Tachila

Indicate in the table if you strongly Agree [SA];agree[A];Neutral[N]; disagree[D];strongly disagree[SD] with the points.

SN	QUESTION	SA	A	N	D	SD
13	People were informed about the development of Tachila					
14	Communities are aware of policies on wildlife conservation					
15	Local people are involved in the management of TNR					
16	The board of trustees is made from people from this village					
17	People make decisions for the good management of the reserve					
18	Local people came up with the name for the reserve					

Nature and Extent of Land Use Issues in the Development of Tachila Nature Reserve

19. Does this nature reserve bring any benefits to you and your community?

Yes

1

No

2

If yes, list the benefits:

(a)Improved income

1

(b)Improved Infrastructure

2

(c)Better water supply, roads and other social services

3

(d)Jobs or employment for the Youth

4

(e)Other (Specify) _____

5

20. Does these reserve conflict in any way with other human activities of people in this village?

Yes

1

No

2

If Yes which human activities and how?

(a) Prohibits hunting and gathering in our local area

1

(b) Took away our crop and livestock lands

2

(c) Other (Specify) _____

3

Conflict with livestock farming

21. Does your family own livestock?

Yes

1

No (skip to 22)

2

22. Did you have any of your livestock killed or injured by wild animals in the last 1-2 years?

Yes (Go to table 1)

1

No (skip to 23)

2

Table 1

Type of Livestock killed/injured	Number of livestock killed/injured	Wild animal that killed/injured livestock
Cattle		
Goats		
Sheep		
Donkeys		
Other		

23. Did you report the matter to the Department of Wildlife and National Parks (DWNP)?

Yes

1

No (skip to 24)

2

If Yes, were you:

(a) Compensated and happy

1

(b) Compensated and not happy

2

(c) Not Compensated

3

Explain _____

4

Conflict with Crop farming

25. What type of crops do you grow? _____

26. Did you have any of your crops damaged by wild animals in the last 2 years?

Yes

1

NO

2

If yes, which wild animals caused the damage? _____

If Yes, were you:

(a) Compensated and happy

1

(b) Compensated and not happy

2

(c) Not Compensated

3

Explain _____

4

27. What should be done to reduce conflict between crop production and wildlife conservation? _____

28. List your traditional livelihood activities that have been affected by the development of Tachila _____

29. What are the things that Tachila is doing to develop your village? _____

30. What do you think TNR should do to help in developing the village? _____

31. Does TNR contribute to conservation of Natural resources? _____

32. Does TNR contribute to the utilization and management of natural resources? _____

APPENDIX 2: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE KEY INFORMANTS

**RESIDENTS ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF
TOURISM AT TACHILA NATURE RESERVE. A case study of the villages of
Patayamatebele, Ditladi and Matshelagabedi (North East) Botswana.**

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES [DEMOGRAPHICS]

1. Name (if you wish).....Post held in the Village.....

2. Place (Village).....

3. SEX: Male [] Female [] (Tick where appropriate)

4. AGE: How many years do you have? Under 26 []; Between 26-30 []; 31-35 []; 36-40 []; 41-45 []; 46-50 []; 51-55 []; 56-60 []; 61-65 []; above 65 []

5. Education Level {How far did you go with your education}

[i] I never went to school []

[ii] I did informal Education []

[iii] I did primary school but did not complete []

[iv] I have standard seven certificate []

[v] I did JC but did not complete []

[vi] I have JC certificate []

[vii] I have Form 5/6 certificate []

[viii] Other specify.....

6. What is your ethnic Background?

Mokalaka []; Mokhurutshe []; Mosarwa []; Mongwato []; Mmirwa []; Other Specify.....

Answer the following question about Tourism development at Tachila.

QUESTION	S/N
Were you consulted about the formation of Tachila: _____ _____ _____	1
When was Tachila formed and for what reasons? _____ _____ _____	2
What are the contribution of Tachila to your local village, give a list: _____ _____ _____	3
Are they any people working at Tachila in your village (yes[]/No[]).If yes, How many people and the nature of the job _____ _____	4
How does TNR contribute to development of rural livelihoods _____ _____ _____	5

<p>Do people from your village benefit from Tachila Nature Reserve? Yes[],No[],if yes how</p> <hr/> <hr/>	6
<p>Does TNR help in poverty eradication, Yes[]/No[].If yes how?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	7
<p>Are there any direct benefits that the local communities gain from TNR?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	8
<p>How does TNR contribute to the long standing land question conflict in your village?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	9
<p>Is TNR a community project or a project belonging to someone?</p> <hr/> <hr/>	10

APPENDIX 3: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR THE TNR MANAGERS

**RESIDENTS ATTITUDES AND PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS THE DEVELOPMENT OF
TOURISM AT TACHILA NATURE RESERVE. A case study of the villages of
Patayamatebele, Ditladi and Matshelagabedi (North East) Botswana.**

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES [DEMOGRAPHICS]

1. Name (if you wish).....Post held in TNR.....
2. Place of Interview.....
3. SEX: Male [] Female [] (Tick where appropriate)
4. AGE: How many years do you have? Under 26[]; Between 26-30[]; 31-35[]; 36-40[]; 41-45[]; 46-50[]; 51-55[]; 56-60[]; 61-65[]; above 65[]
5. Education Level {How far did you go with your education}
 - [i]I never went to school []
 - [ii]I did informal Education []
 - [iii]I did primary school but did not complete []
 - [iv] I have standard seven certificate []
 - [v]I did JC but did not complete []
 - [vi] I have JC certificate []
 - [vii]I have Form 5/6 certificate []
 - [viii]Other specify.....
6. What is your ethnic Background?
Mokalaka[];Mokhurutshe[];Mosarwa[];Mongwato[];Mmirwa[];Other Specify.....

Answer the following question about Tourism development at Tachila.

QUESTION	S/N
<p>Why did you find it necessary to form a nature reserve?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	1
<p>When was the nature reserve formed and for what reasons?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	2
<p>Who owns the land the reserve is situated on?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	3
<p>Who gave the reserve a name, what does this word mean?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	4
<p>Where the communities living around involved in the formation?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	5

<p>What were the community perceptions towards the development of Tachila? _____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	6
<p>What are the goals of Tachila?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	7
<p>What has the reserve achieved so far?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	8
<p>What strategies have been proposed to help local people benefit from TNR?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	9
<p>How does TNR contribute to the long standing land question conflict in NED?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	11
<p>Is TNR a community project or a project belonging to few people?</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p> <p>_____</p>	12

Who are the board members for TNR and what criteria was used to select them? <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	13
What is the contribution of TNR towards the development of its surrounding areas? <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	15