

The economic contribution of tourism to local communities: The case of Khumaga and Moreomaoto villages, Botswana

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Abstract

Tourism is one of the fastest growing industries worldwide, and its economic significance cannot be overestimated, especially in a country like Botswana. Botswana is one of the prime tourist destinations in Africa, with several tourist attractions such as the Boteti River sub-basin, one of the numerous ephemeral river sub-basins found in the country. However, there is a paucity of empirical research on how tourism improves the livelihoods of the communities in the Boteti sub-District. The main objective of this paper is to compare the contribution of tourism to household income relative to other livelihood activities in the Boteti Sub-District. The paper further identifies factors that affect the contribution of tourism to the household economy in the region. This study was conducted in two villages, namely, Khumaga and Moreomaoto in the Boteti Sub-District. The results show that on average tourism related activities contribute as little as P2076.82 (about USD 200) annually to individual households in rural Boteti. The study further shows that government assistance, Ipelegeng, remittances, livestock and crop production are important sources of household income in the region. Negative attitudes towards tourism, limited education and fewer tourism facilities are some of the factors that explain the low contribution of tourism to household incomes in the area. The study recommends that the 1990 Tourism Policy be reviewed in order to design favourable, relevant and appropriate ways through which the contribution of tourism to households in tourism hubs could be enhanced.

Keywords: Tourism, GDP, household economy, livelihood, Boteti sub-District

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Introduction

Developing countries are concerned with diversifying their economies in order to increase employment opportunities and reduce poverty. In Botswana, tourism has been identified as an alternative source of economic growth. Tourism was almost non-existent when the country attained independence in 1966. However, by 2007 tourism had grown to become the second largest economic sector after diamond production in terms of contribution to gross domestic product (World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), 2007). Tourism contributes to the household economy of most rural communities in Botswana. The sector employs a number of Batswana, especially around the areas where operators are concentrated. The benefits, however, vary from one community to the other and from one household to another.

The Boteti River Sub-basin is one of the numerous ephemeral river sub-basins found in Botswana. It is part of the larger Okavango River Basin, found in the south eastern part of the Okavango Delta, a Ramsar site of international importance. It is the main connecting point between the larger Okavango Delta and Makgadikgadi salt pans in north-central Botswana (Kgathi, et al., 2006). It is home to a large number of wildlife species. Khumaga and Moreomaoto villages are both located along the Boteti River which is the seasonal outflow of the Okavango Delta in the Boteti sub-district. Khumaga is one of the two campsites in the Makgadikgadi National Park. It has five camp stands and is strategically situated in an area that overlooks the Boteti riverbed. It is the base for the exploration of the Boteti River. *Meno a Kwena* tented camp is located on the western boundary of Makgadikgadi Pans National Park, near Moreomaoto village, with easy access to Makgadikgadi Pans National Park, Nxai Pan National Park and Central Kalahari Game Reserve.

According to the Tourism Policy of 1990, the local communities should obtain, on a sustainable basis, the greatest possible net social and economic benefits from their tourism resources, scenic beauty, wildlife and unique ecological, geological and cultural resources. The objectives of the policy are to generate employment, mainly in rural areas, and to raise incomes in order to reduce rural-urban migration. This policy was developed because the sector had not been given due attention, even though it had the potential to create more economic benefits, and Batswana were not likely to benefit from the sector without an enabling policy (Republic of Botswana, 2008). Notwithstanding the noble objectives of the policy, poverty levels and unemployment rates in the Boteti sub-district are still high. Estimated District poverty rates show that the Central Boteti is one of the poorest districts in Botswana with a poverty rate of 33% (Statistics Botswana, 2015).

This study assesses the extent to which tourism contributes to the household economy as well as to the communities of Boteti sub-district, and seeks to identify factors that hinder the contribution of tourism to livelihoods in the area. The results of this study are expected to guide policy formulation to ensure that local communities benefit from the natural resources in their areas. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 1 and 8 are aimed at ending extreme poverty in all forms, and attaining decent work for all men and women by 2030. As such, it is hoped that the findings of this study will help policy makers to work towards attaining these SDGs.

Literature review

Tourism and poverty alleviation

There are seven approaches to poverty reduction through tourism. First, poverty can be reduced through the employment of the poor in tourism enterprises. The advantage of addressing poverty through employing poor people in existing tourism enterprises is that it enables them to benefit from entrepreneurial skills and market access. Second, they can benefit by supplying goods and services to tourism enterprises and earning income from that (Dimoska, 2008). Poverty can also be reduced through the direct sale of goods and services to the visitors. The informal sector is important in many developing countries as it is one of the ways of getting visitors to spend directly on the poor (Ashley et al., 2007). The United Nations also supports the establishment of tourism enterprises by the poor. Another way of reducing poverty is through a tax or levy on tourism income or profits with proceeds benefiting poverty reduction programmes. Voluntary giving by tourism enterprises and tourists can also significantly reduce poverty. Finally, tourism contributes to enhanced community infrastructure (Greiner, 2010).

The contribution of tourism to household income

Tourism contributes to households through various channels. It is often applauded for its ability to generate employment faster than other livelihood activities because of its labour-intensive nature (Neto, 2003). According to the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2014), travel and tourism generated about 100,894,000 jobs directly in 2013. It is projected that by the year 2024, travel and tourism will account for about 126,257,000 jobs (WTTC, 2014). Furthermore, tourism generates three types of cash income for rural households: regular wages, casual earnings and profits. Tourism provides both direct and indirect employment opportunities through hotels, recreational activities, beauty parlours, and others. Grass-sellers, craft makers, fisher men and women, casual labourers and those who sell their products or labour to tourists and tourism enterprises benefit from casual earnings through tourism. These additional earning opportunities are more likely to benefit a higher percentage of local households than some full-time jobs and are more important for the poor people who have few other options for earning cash (Ashley, 2000).

Tourism also leads to decreased vulnerability and enhanced food security (Nabane, 1995; Ashley, 2000; Pirani and Arafat, 2016). The cash income earned from tourism is often used for purchasing food, particularly in drought years. From a food security perspective, it is the small amounts of casual income earned by many poor people that are more important than the full-time wages of the more skilled. For example, Caprivian women selling grass to tourism lodges use their earnings to buy food during those lean years of drought and low crop yields (Nabane, 1995). Notably, increased wildlife damage to crops threatens food security and makes the need for alternative sources of income such as tourism more imperative.

Contribution of tourism to the community

A study on private sector-community partnerships in Namibia has revealed that there is a growing involvement of tourism businesses in the affairs of the local communities through, among others, donation of funds (Roe and Urquhart, 2001). Further, tourism results in the appreciation of culture as customers are attracted, and have greater sensitivity, to the environment and cultures of local people. Those tourism activities that are focused on local

cultures can help strengthen pride in local traditional practices, though there is also a risk of devaluing culture by commodifying it. Jones and Ibrahim (2008) claim that in Mozambique the sector directly constitutes over half of all formal employment in the locality, and supports numerous other jobs in the formal and informal sectors.

Factors that lead to low contribution of tourism to household incomes

The low contribution of tourism to household incomes can be attributed to institutional and legislative structures that are not aligned to the needs of local communities. In Botswana, the institutional frameworks, such as policies, are not able to adequately promote citizen participation and ownership of tourism facilities. The failure to have institutional arrangements that promote local investment and participation in tourism has led to few citizens being involved in the industry (Mbaiwa, 2005). There is difficulty in acquiring resources such as land and funds which discourage local people from venturing into tourism businesses.

A study by Akama and Kieti (2007) shows that Kenya's local and national governments have promoted large scale, capital-intensive tourism and hospitality projects such as beach resorts, high-rise grand hotels and lodges. Most have been initiated through foreign and multinational investments (Akama, 2004). These projects tend to exclude local participation in tourism project design, planning and management (Sindiga, 2000). Kimura *et al.* (2013) also found that government policies related to the tourism industry, especially advertising Kenya as a tourism destination, and lack of financing for exhibitions outside the country were some of the factors hindering the success of tourism business owned by indigenous Kenyans. Commenting on Third World Tourism, Goodwin (1998) states that the locals are often excluded from playing any significant role in the tourism market. Tourists are not accessible to the local communities when they are within their hotels, coaches, safari vehicles or inside sites and attractions such as museums. These are all enclave forms of tourism, where those wishing to sell to tourists are often reduced to hawking at the enclave entry and exit points (Akama and Kieti, 2007).

Tourism is an accommodating industry as it offers a wide range of jobs with diverse human capital or skills requirements. The tourism sector requires skills that vary from low to very high. The majority of people in rural areas have low levels of education, which means that they can only be employed in low paying jobs as cleaners and drivers. Managerial positions require higher levels of education, hence the absence of rural people in such jobs because of the low levels of education that characterize rural populations.

According to Jamieson *et al.* (2004), governments and communities lack essential market knowledge to allow them to develop pro-tourism strategies and products based on sound market information. The consequence of this is that tourism contributes very little to regional, community and household economies. Lack of access to credit, which is essential in helping locals to participate in the tourism industry, makes the situation worse (Jamieson *et al.*, 2004). This directly affects the participation of local people in tourism ventures, hence the low contribution of the sector to household incomes.

Tourism that involves setting aside a large exclusive area for wildlife and tourism reduces access to natural resources for other activities (Ashley and LaFranchi, 1997). Loss of grazing land is likely to be a major concern for farmers whose core activity is livestock-keeping, and particularly for richer large-herd owners. Further, it is associated with loss of access to natural

resources, especially for poor households who are dependent on bush products for food, medicine and building materials. Because of this, locals develop negative attitudes to tourism and do not participate in it as an income generating activity.

One of the factors that hinder the contribution of tourism to local economies is the time it takes to establish a tourism enterprise and the fact that tourism competes and is at odds with agricultural activities, which make it difficult for community members to start tourism businesses as their energy is concentrated on agriculture. It is generally easier for outside investors to establish tourism business and related developments. For example, rough estimates suggest that committee members and the Chief of Lianshulu community (Caprivi) would need to spend 360–720 days to negotiate with their constituents, the Park authorities and the private sector in order to establish a joint venture lodge in their tourism concession in Mudumo National Park (Ashley and LaFranchi, 1997).

Community members who have been victims of wild animals which have caused damage to their crops and livestock develop negative attitudes towards tourism (Ashley, 2000). They blame wildlife tourism for the increase in the number and aggression of wildlife in areas where people live, which leads to wildlife damage to crops, livestock and infrastructure. In Kunene, Namibia, the increasing number of antelopes and elephants is attributed to tourism, and members of Torra Conservancy feel that disturbances by tourists makes elephants more aggressive and drives them closer to the farms (Ashely, 2000). This affects livestock husbandry, because elephants damage water points used by livestock, and farmers are afraid to herd their livestock when elephants are close. In Caprivi, elephants, hippos, kudus, and baboons eat crops, and predators, particularly lions, kill livestock. Villages located near national parks and tourism areas incur greater loss than others (Ashley and LaFranchi, 1997; Ashley, 2000). This conflict between tourism interests and local farming activities leads to locals seeing tourism as a problem rather than an opportunity for them to make a living.

Materials and methods

Description of study area

The study was conducted in Khumaga and Moreomaoto villages. These villages are located in the Boteti River sub-Basin in north-central Botswana. Boteti is the smallest sub-district in the Central District. It covers an area of 34,956 sq km (Atlhopheng et al., 2009). The Boteti sub-district has 15 main settlements or villages, and numerous other smaller settlements. Each village is made up of numerous smaller settlements, or associated localities, of arable lands and cattle posts.

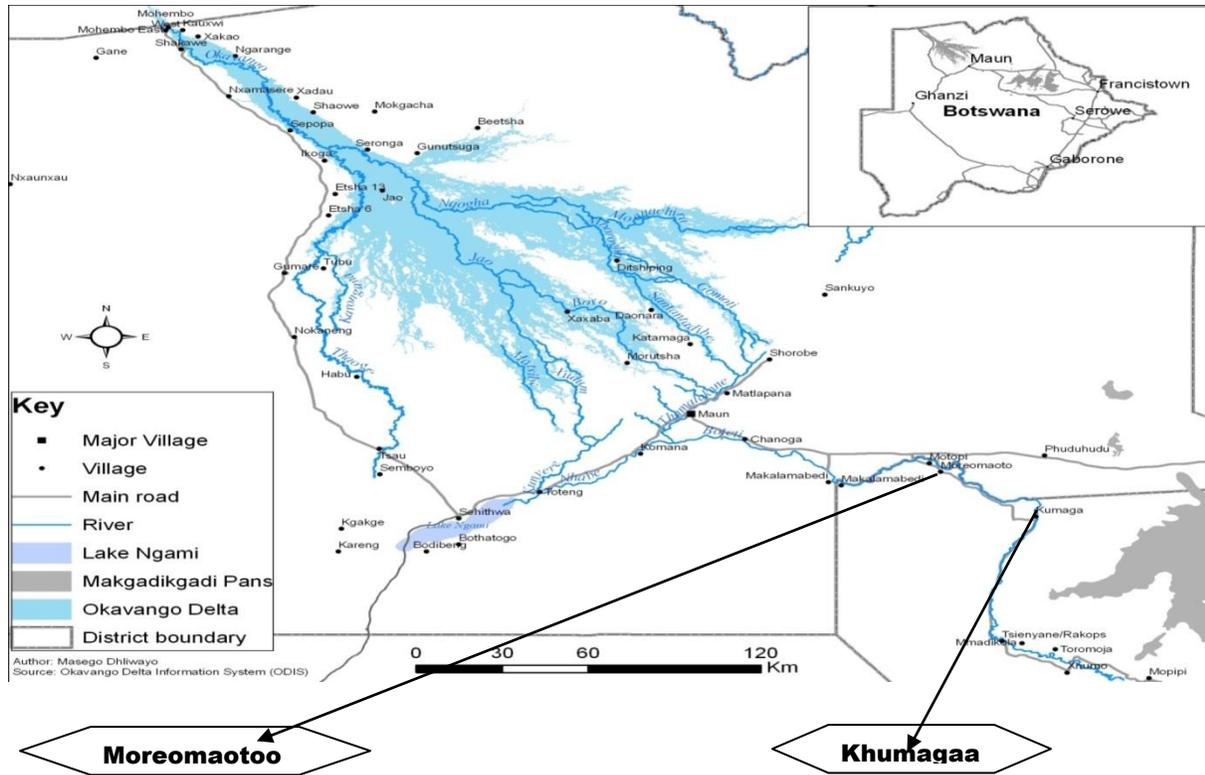


Figure 1: Map of the study area

Moreomaoto is a relatively small village with three (3) wards: Bokalaka, Phaphaza and Madima. The ethnic groups found in this village include Bakalanga, Bayei, Basubiya, Banambjwa and Bakgalagadi. The common livelihood sources in the village include livestock farming, dry land arable farming, *Molapo* arable farming (farming along the river bank to take advantage of water from the river and not rely on rainfall), informal employment, beer brewing, old age pension, *ipelegeng* (a government programme that provides short-term employment relief to participants) and basket weaving. There are also few formal employment opportunities.

Khumaga is also located on the bank of the Boteti River in the Boteti sub-district. The village is also known as “the river village” (Dipholo, 2008). It comprises a number of ethnic groups including the Bayei, Bakalanga, Basubiya and Banambjwa. There were 253 households identified in Khumaga and the nearby cattle posts - Bosubiya and Marotobolo. Livelihood activities in these settlements include subsistence agriculture, remittances, old age pension, *ipelegeng*, traditional beer brewing, informal employment (e.g. weeding and laundry), basket weaving, fishing and collection of veldt products and formal employment.

Data sources and tools

The study was carried out using secondary and primary data. Primary data were collected through the administration of a detailed questionnaire to household heads in Khumaga and Moreomaoto. The household questionnaire had two main parts. The first section was on demographic characteristics of the respondents. The second section contained information about livelihood activities that the households are involved in and the benefits from those activities.

Secondary data were obtained from the social worker on ration costs for each individual in the said villages. We note that the costs vary from one village to the other and the household heads did not know the monetary value of the ration packs. The accessible population comprised mainly the households in the aforementioned villages. Household listing was conducted for both the villages. The total sampling frame comprised 371 households. A sample of 112 households was selected, with a 7.5% margin of error. The households were selected through systematic sampling. Systematic sampling is a technique in which only the first unit is selected with the assistance of a random number and the rest get selected automatically according to some pre-assigned pattern (Crowther and Lauesen, 2017). The equation used for systematically selecting the k^{th} household is as follows:

$$\frac{N}{n} = k^{th}$$

Where N = the total population of households

n = the sample size of households

Using the above equation, every 3rd household was selected. The data were collected over a period of two weeks. All 112 questionnaires were returned and correctly completed, providing a response rate of 100%.

Data analysis

Capturing only monetary sales and salaries is not sufficient to estimate the income earning capacity of households. We have therefore derived the imputed income from the value of total livelihood activities, including sales bartering. The values of the products were aggregated in the estimated total benefit. The following equations were used in our analysis:

Total income from tourism to household income = income from employment + income from tips + income from family member's employment + income from tourism related activities

Total income from agriculture = Income from livestock farming + Income from arable farming

The total income from livestock farming includes income from the sale of livestock (cattle, goats, horses, donkeys, and poultry); the sale of sour milk; monetary value of livestock owned by households and monetary value of all the livestock used by the household in the past 12 months.

The total income from arable farming includes the monetary value of harvested produce from the past agricultural season such as *mmidi* (maize), *lebelebele* (millet), *mabele* (sorghum), *ntshe* (sweet reed), *magapu* (watermelon), *dinawa* (beans), *morogo* (bean leaves), *ditloo* (jugo beans), *makgomane* (African squash), *makatane* (melon), *manoko* (peanuts) and *maphutshe* (pumpkin)

Total income from veldt products collection = income from thatch grass + income from firewood + income from *moretlwa* (wild berries) + income from *tswii* (water lillie) + income from fencing poles

Income from thatch grass and firewood includes income from sales and monetary value of firewood and thatch grass used within the household in the 12 months leading to the study.

For formal employment, informal employment, remittances, government assistance, beer brewing, *ipelegeng*, old age pension, *semausu* (tuck shop), retail shop, the income from these activities was estimated from the monthly income derived from the activity

Total household income = $X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + X_3 + X_4 + X_5 + X_6 + X_7 + X_8 + X_9 + X_{10} + X_{11} + X_{12} + X_{13}$

= $\sum X_i$, where $i = 1, 2, \dots, 13$ and X_i = livelihood activity

Total contribution of specific livelihood to household income = $X_i / \sum X_i * 100\%$

Total contribution of tourism to household income = $X_2 / \sum X_i * 100\%$

Where: X_1 = Total contribution of agriculture to household income

X_2 = Total contribution of tourism to household income

X_3 = Total contribution of veldt products to household income

X_4 = Total annual income from formal employment

X_5 = Total annual income from informal employment

X_6 = Total annual income from *ipelegeng*

X_7 = Total annual income from remittances

X_8 = Total annual income from government assistance

X_9 = Total annual income from old age pension

X_{10} = Total annual income earned from beer brewing

X_{11} = Total annual income earned from basket weaving

X_{12} = Total annual income earned from fishing

X_{13} = Total annual income earned from other livelihood activities

Results and discussion

Household profile

The age and gender of household heads

The mean age of the respondents was 42 years, but the ages ranged from 18 to 81 years. The majority of the respondents (56.3%) were females. Most of the households in the study area were

female headed, either by single mothers or married women with husbands working elsewhere. This is the case because there is a high level of male outmigration from the rural areas to urban centres in search of greener pastures due to limited employment opportunities in rural areas (Adepoju, 1995). Migrants often provide monthly remittances to their families.

Education status of household heads

About 16% of the women in the study area indicated that they had never been to school compared to 7.14% of their male counterparts as shown in Table 1. The majority (61.2%) of the respondents reported that they had attained up to primary school leaving certificate. Only 7.14% of the respondents reported that had a tertiary education qualification. The study area is therefore characterised by significantly low literacy and primary education completion rates among adults.

Table 1: Highest level of education attained and the gender of household heads

Highest level of education	Gender of respondent		Total (%)
	Male (%)	Female (%)	
None	7.14	16.07	23.21
Informal	2.68	2.68	5.36
Primary	16.96	15.18	32.14
Junior Secondary	10.71	16.07	26.79
BGCSE	2.68	2.68	5.36
Tertiary	3.57	3.57	7.14
Total (%)	43.75	56.25	100

As has been true for other African and non-African mineral-rich economies, the most serious constraint on Botswana’s development to date has been the lack of skilled human capital. In traditional Botswana, schooling was considered as a burden on the family because of both expenditures associated with schooling and the loss of the child’s contribution to household production and income. The schooling system is not designed to serve sparsely populated areas adequately.

Livelihood activities

Just over eighty-eight percent (88.39%) of the respondents indicated that they were involved in more than one livelihood activity, while 11.61% reported that they were involved in just one livelihood activity. Most of the households in the study area were engaged in diverse livelihood activities. Several studies on rural development and poverty reduction argue that rural households often diversify their households’ income streams by adopting a range of livelihood activities (Ellis, 2000; Carswell, 2002; Nyamisi et al., 2007; Madigele, 2016). A study by Fabusoro et al. (2010), shows that livelihoods diversification is prevalent in rural areas mainly because of low income earned through subsistence farming. Households in rural Boteti are involved in multiple livelihood activities to supplement the income earned from small-scale farming. Sixty-seven (67%) of the respondents reported that they were involved in livestock farming as Table 2 shows. Similarly, 73% indicated that they practice arable farming. This is more than 6 times the percentage of those involved in tourism related activities. In rural Boteti, arable farming is the main source of food for most households. The surplus food produced is sold.

Table 2: Livelihood activities households are involved in

Livelihood activity	Percentage of people participating
Livestock farming	67.0
Arable farming	73.0
Tourism related activity	11.6
Formal employment (excluding those in the tourism sector)	25.0
Informal employment (excluding those in the tourism sector)	28.6
Beer brewing	4.5
Veldt products collection	41.07
Remittances	23.2
Government Assistance	17.9
<i>Ipelegeng</i>	38.4
Old age pension	26.8
Tuckshop	11.6
Basket weaving	8.9
Retail outlet	3.6
Fishing	13.4
<i>Motshelo</i> (a communal fund to which community member contribute voluntarily)	0.02
Other	14.3

We also note that the low participation of the household heads in tourism relative to other livelihood activities is due to the fact that there are some respondents involved in tourism related activities, but do not know that they can earn an income from these activities. For example, there are those respondents involved in basket weaving and wood carving but they do not know that they could sell their products to tourists. This means that the people are not aware that they can earn income from tourism.

Tourism related activities were ranked as the most important livelihood activities by only 3.57% of the respondents. For these households, tourism related activities contributed more than 50% to their total household income. Livestock and arable farming were ranked as most important livelihood activity by 26% and 25% of the respondents respectively. Only 0.89% of the respondents ranked basket weaving and fishing as the most important livelihood activities.

The contribution of tourism related activities to household income

The contribution of tourism related activities to total household income ranged from 0% to less than 100%, where 0% means that the household did not earn any income from the activity during the period June 2009 to May 2010. Tourism related activities contributed 0 to 20% towards total household income for 94% of the respondents. It was found that the majority of the respondents in this category derived casual earnings from the tourism sector through the sale of handcrafts.

They also worked part-time as casual labourers in the tourism sector. Furthermore, tourism contributes between 41% and 100% of total household income for 5% of the households with members formally employed in the tourism sector. Most of the respondents in this group were employed as grounds men, drivers and cleaners in tourism related businesses. Thus, the percentage contribution of tourism related activities of wage earners is higher than that of casual earners.

The aggregate income of the people involved in tourism related activities was estimated to be P218 003.40 as shown in the Table 3. This income is from 11.6% of the households involved in tourism related activities. The aggregate income is higher than the aggregate income from informal employment, remittances, *ipelegeng* and old age pension combined despite the number of households involved in these activities being more than double the number of those involved in tourism related activities. It is also higher than the aggregate income estimated from arable farming, which had 6 times the participants of those in tourism related activities. The aggregate incomes derived from formal employment and livestock farming are greater than the aggregate income from tourism related activities. The aggregate income of livestock farming is 14 times that from tourism related activities, whereas that of formal employment is 6 times that of tourism related activities. This implies that aggregate income from tourism related activities relative to formal employment and livestock farming is very low.

Table 3: Contribution of livelihood activities to household income

Livelihood activity	Number of people participating	Aggregate annual income (BWP)	Average income of people participating (BWP)	Average income of the sample (BWP) (n=112)
Livestock farming	75	3 091 655.00	41 222.07	27 604.06
Arable farming	82	143 308.20	1 747.66	1 279.54
Tourism related activities	13	218 003.40	16 769.49	2 076.82
Formal employment (excluding those in the tourism sector)	28	1 369 102.92	50 707.52	12 334.26
Informal employment (excluding those in the tourism sector)	32	50 540.00	1 579.38	451.25
Beer brewing	5	31 200.00	6 240.00	278.57
Veldt products	46	43 600.00	947.83	389.26
Remittances	26	87 950.00	3 382.69	785.27
Government assistance (social welfare programme)	19	143 701.25	7 185.63	1 283.05
<i>Ipelegeng</i>	43	80 811.00	1 879.38	721.53
Old age pension	29	106 440.00	3 548.00	950.36
<i>Tuckshop</i>	13	118 100.00	9 084.62	1 054.46
Basket weaving	10	2 590.00	259.00	23.13
Retail shop	4	120 000.00	30 000.00	1 071.43
Fishing	15	860.00	57.33	7.69
<i>Motshelo</i>	2	3 800.00	1 900.00	33.93
Other	16	53 924.00	4 148.00	481.46

The average income of households participating in tourism related activities was estimated to be P16 769.49 whereas the average income of the total sample was estimated to be P2076.82. Estimated average income of the sample from tourism related activities is double the average income of the other livelihoods (excluding livestock farming and formal employment). The estimated average income from livestock farming is more than 13 times the average income for tourism related activities. Furthermore, the estimated average income for livestock farming is 5 times more than that of formal employment. Tourism's contribution to total household income is less than that of formal employment and livestock farming for households involved in all of the three activities, but it contributes higher than other livelihood activities such as beer brewing.

Formal employment contributes between 81% and 100 % of the total household income for 4% of the households. Relative to formal employment, tourism contributes very little to total household income, whereas relative to other livelihood activities (excluding livestock farming), its contribution to household income is significant. This implies that even though only a few people are involved in tourism related activities relative to other livelihood activities, the income it contributes to those involved in it is significantly higher than the income contributed by many other livelihoods.

Non-income benefits of tourism related activities to individuals

Apart from income benefits, the respondents indicated that they gain skills and experience, social status and learn to appreciate the ecosystem from tourism related activities. It was found that there are individuals who are involved in tourism related activities such as tourism related committees in the village and in cultural tourism even though they do not gain income from these activities. The respondents indicated that they had gained skills, experience, and social status, and had learnt to appreciate the environment. The majority of those employed formally in the tourism sector indicated that they had gained skills such as cooking, driving and guiding. They had gained much experience from working in the tourism businesses in the study areas. They had also learnt how to use the environment sustainably. In this study, all the respondents who said that there were no benefits derived from tourism are those who are not involved in any tourism related activity. This shows that there is very little knowledge or benefit transfer from tourism to households that are not participating in the industry.

Factors affecting the contribution of tourism to household incomes

The respondents were asked to identify factors that affect the contribution of tourism to household incomes in the region. The majority of the respondents identified more than one factor. Education was identified as a major factor that affects the contribution of tourism to most household incomes. Education is a component of human capital. It improves the quality of labour resources available to households to enable them to pursue various livelihood strategies (Ellis, 2000). Education also improves the chances of formal employability, thereby allowing the households to take advantage of a broader pool of economic opportunities. The respondents also cited poverty and limited financial resources as consequences of little or no education. Some of the respondents reported that they had the skill and knowledge, but lacked financial capital to start up tourism-related businesses. They pointed out that it is very difficult to acquire funds because of the high collateral that is required to access loans. The majority of those with skills

and knowledge were tour guides with first degrees, but they lacked the experience and the capital to venture into the tourism business.

Apart from education, unfavourable policies were cited as another cause of the low contribution of tourism to household incomes. Among the unfavourable policies is the land policy. The policy allows individuals to apply for land at the age of 18 years; but it takes a long time for one to be allocated a piece of land. It has also been observed that there are no laws that encourage businesses to give preference to local residents when hiring or acquiring products for their businesses. Most of the respondents said that locals were moved from their lands to give way for the construction of the Leroo La Tau lodge. However, there was low compensation and the landowners were not given any land to compensate for that which was taken from them to make way for these developments. To make matters worse, wild animals around the area also destroy their crops and kill their livestock and the compensation is very low. These factors consequently affect household incomes negatively.

According to Healy (1994), the participation of the locals in tourism is primarily through employment. The local communities in developing countries rarely participate in business due to restrictive factors such as education and skills, high capital costs and other constraints (Healy, 1994). Therefore, there is a need to create an enabling environment that addresses the factors identified in order to improve the contribution of the sector to household incomes, especially by enabling locals to participate as business owners, not just employees of foreign owned tourism businesses.

Conclusion

This study sought to compare the contribution of tourism related activities and identify factors leading to the low contribution of tourism to household incomes in the Boteti-sub District. The percentage of participation in tourism was lower than the participation in arable and livestock farming. The aggregate income from tourism related activities was estimated to be P218 003.40 per annum while the average income estimated in this study was P2076.42 per household.

It is clear from the findings that tourism related activities do not contribute significantly to household incomes. Some of the factors that explain the low contribution of tourism to household incomes are: limited knowledge, lack of skills, low education levels, unfavourable policies, and lack of funds, negative attitudes towards tourism. It was also found out that tourism contributes significantly to household income for those few households that are involved in industry and tourism is their main livelihood activity. The low contribution of tourism to household incomes in Khumaga and Moreomaoto, and the poor involvement of individuals in the sector are a cause for concern. Most community-based wildlife management programmes aim to meet at least two complex goals; conservation of nature and economic empowerment of rural households. The underlying premise of such programmes is that communities can, and should, profit from wildlife management if they are given sufficient authority and control over wildlife resources in their areas. These should be properly implemented as they could bring employment opportunities to locals.

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