

CITIZEN ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT IN THE TOURISM SECTOR IN SADC: THE CASE OF TANZANIA, BOTSWANA AND SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

This article reveals that although tourism sector is regarded as means of promoting SADC goals of economic development there is generally little participation and benefits of citizens (local people) in the sector. This is especially the case in Botswana and Tanzania. Since these countries represent the majority of black people -dominated SADC economies, the argument may be extended to most SADC countries. Most of the citizens are generally employed in the low positions and earn low incomes. Furthermore, foreigners own/manage the relatively larger hotels (3-5 stars). More men than women manage/own the SMEs in the tourism sector. Additionally, women manage the smaller hotels (1-2 stars) in general. Relevant recommendations are finally spelt out in this article.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism is an important sector in Southern African Development Community (SADC) as it has positive impact on economic growth in SADC countries. Tourism is also regarded as a means of promoting SADC goals of economic development and regional integration as per 1998 SADC Protocol on development of tourism (SADC 2016a, 1998).

At micro-level the tourism sector is expected to create jobs, generate income and alleviate poverty to the citizens. According to the 1998 Protocol on Development of Tourism, SADC objectives relevant to small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are:

- To ensure the involvement of small and micro enterprises, local communities, women and youth in the development of tourism throughout the region;

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- To create a favourable investment climate for tourism within the Region for both the public and private sectors, including small and medium scale tourist establishments. (SADC 1998)

The question which remains partially answered is whether citizens in SADC countries benefit enough through tourism activities especially by participating in the relevant small and medium enterprises - SMEs (hotels and restaurants and their suppliers, travel and tour operator agencies, and other related SMEs).

This article assesses the extent to which citizens participate in the tourism sector in SADC with special reference to Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana. The three countries are selected due to their relatively significant tourism sector and convenience of research location.

The rest of the format of this article is as follows: after the overview of tourism sector in SADC/Africa (Tanzania, South Africa and Botswana) the conceptual/theoretical framework of this study and retrospective empirical evidence are examined under literature review (section 3). Section 4 provides the methodology. Findings and their interpretations are presented in section 5. Conclusion and policy recommendations are provided in Section 6.

2. OVERVIEW OF THE TOURISM SECTOR IN SADC/AFRICA

2.1.SADC/Africa

The tourism sector has been recently growing remarkably in SADC/Sub-Saharan Africa. In fact SADC/Africa was the only region that did not suffer a decline in tourist arrivals even during the 2008/2009 economic crisis. The highest growth was experienced in Sub-Saharan Africa which registered a growth of 14 percent during the period fuelled by the FIFA Soccer World Cup(2010). Tourism receipts grew from US\$ 28 billion in 2009 to US\$ 34billion in 2010(SADC 2016a).Recently, SADC's market share for tourism receipts to Africa has been consistently above 40 percent. Tourism receipts in SADC have grown continuously from US\$ 5.6 in 2000 to US\$ 14.5 in 2008 (SADC 2016a).

With tourism expected to increase extensively in coming years – constituting up to 58 percent of Africa's tourism total by 2027, SADC has developed strategies for promoting the sector: Its regional Infrastructure Development Market Plan has proposed the creation of Trans frontier Conservation Areas as a means of promoting conservation of biodiversity (SADC 2016b).

2.2.Tanzania

Tanzania has numerous tourist attraction. More than 44 percent of the land area is covered with game reserves and national parks: 29 game reserves,

16 national parks and 40 controlled conservation areas and marina parks. Tanzania is also home to the famous *Roof of Africa* – Mount Kilimanjaro, the Ngorongoro Crater, the vast attractive plains of Serengeti, and the attractive beaches of Zanzibar. (Wikipedia, 2016). Tanzania has also a wide variety of destinations for cultural tourism such as Maasai boma and Bushmen settlements (Boniface *et al.* 2001).

There are 3 main safari circuits: (1) The Northern especially Arusha, being the most popular and best suited for the first time visitors; (2) the Western (Mahale Mountains National Park and Gombe Stream National Park); and (3) the Southern (Ruaha, Mikumi, and Udzungwa Mountains National Parks and the Seleous Game Reserve). The Coast (Dar-es-Salaam, Zanzibar and Mafia) is also increasingly becoming popular for game fishing and diving (ibid).

The tourism sector currently supports over 27,000 jobs, and generates 25 percent of Tanzania's foreign exchange. During 2006/07 tourism in Tanzania contributed 28 percent of total export. This estimate has recently been 30 percent (Kapunda *et al.* 2011).

Although increasing development of hotels, tours activities, and other small and medium enterprises tends to increase over time it is not clear the extent to which local residents benefit from these enterprises and activities. This is the main concern of this research.

2.3. South Africa

South Africa is highly diverse in terms of its climate, culture, tourist activities and infrastructure; catering for every tourism niche, from business, adventure, sport and paleo-tourism (archaeological and world heritage tourism)-(internet 2016a). Tourism supports one in every 12 jobs in South Africa (Media Club South Africa 2016).

As noted in the case of SADC/Africa, SADC's marketshare to tourist receipts to Africa has been consistently above 40 percent, with South Africa being dominant destination, accounting for 47 percent of the total arrivals to the region in 2008 (SADC 2016a).

The 2010 South Africa FIFA World Cup hosting promoted tourism significantly. By 2011 South Africa contributed more than 73 percent of total tourists arrivals in Africa and earned revenue over R50 billion (Media Club South Africa 2016).

After the FIFA World Cup, South Africa aimed at increasing tourism contribution to GDP from about 8 percent in 2009 to over 10 percent by 2020 (Government of South Africa 2012). The current Tourism Sector Strategy, launched after the FIFA World Cup (2011), aims at ensuring that tourism sector realises its full potential in terms of job creation, social

inclusion, service exports and foreign exchange earnings (Government of South Africa 2011).

2.4. Botswana

Tourism in Botswana aims at diversifying the economy from the mining sector and particularly reliance on diamonds. The government of Botswana has taken measures to encourage the growth of tourism in Botswana by having tourism policy since 1990 and establishing a Tourism Board in 2004. The Tourism Board, which is currently the Botswana Tourism Organisation is responsible for marketing Botswana and to attract investment in the tourism industry. Botswana follows a tourism model of high quality, high cost, low volume policy. This policy aims at protecting the fragile ecology/environment in the tourist areas. In addition to the Tourism Policy, the Botswana Government Tourism Strategy is guided by various policies and statutory frameworks which include the Botswana Tourism Master Plan (2000), Tourism Development Framework (2001) and Botswana National Ecotourism Strategy (2002) (Leechor *et al* 2007).

The main tourist areas include: the Okavango Delta, Chobe National Park, Makgadikgadi Pans and the Moremi Game Reserve. Recently there has been a shift in the Botswana tourist industry from wildlife tourism to eco-tourism, some of which involve Botswana communities and helping them to develop own projects. The government is also encouraging citizens/indigenous Botswana to participate in the tourism sector by granting incentives to non-citizens to form joint ventures with citizens. For example, foreign investors are required to bring in investment capital of US\$200 000. However, if they are in a joint venture with citizen investors, the required investment is only US\$100 000. Foreign investors are also required to transfer technology and skills to citizen investors by promoting participation of local Botswana in supervisory positions and senior management levels (*ibid*).

In addition to the above-mentioned policies and regulations, there is also the Tourism Act 1992 and Tourism Regulations 1996. The Tourism Act provides regulations for the tourism sector. To mention a few, it makes provision for licensing of tourism enterprises, defines categories of tourism enterprises and makes provision for a grading system for tourism enterprises. The Tourism Regulations established the National Council of Tourism and specifies among other things, the requirements for a tourism licence and hotel grading system (*ibid*).

The main strategy of the Ministry of Environment, Wildlife and Tourism over the next five years is to diversify the source markets of tourists and to encourage the participation of the private sector in tourism. In order to

achieve this, licensing procedures are being reviewed, citizens' participation is encouraged, and a National Eco-tourism programme has been introduced, to provide tourists an opportunity to learn about local cultures, history of Botswana and to encourage the participation of women and youth in eco-tourism (Leechor *et al.* 2007).

3. LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

The tourism sector essentially includes services provided by hotels and restaurants (including catering), travel and tour operator agencies, and other related enterprises. These are usually small and medium enterprises –SMEs (cf. WTO definition: SADC 2016a).

In this study small enterprises are those having less than 25 employees and medium enterprises are those employing 25-100 workers. These are about the average definitional numbers in the selected 3 SADC countries.

This study hinges squarely on the assumed premise that the more the tourism sector develops the more the citizen participate and benefit from it despite the foreign direct investment in the section.

3.2. Empirical Evidence

An empirical study (Yohana, 2015) revealed that tourism export receipts and tourism consumption expenditure contributed significantly to economic growth in Tanzania. Other significant factors included foreign direct investment (FDI) and economic freedom index. However, as argued elsewhere the increasing role of FDI in less developed countries, including Tanzania, has created a lot of expectations among the local community, especially in respect of their opportunity and beneficial effect through business linkages. FDI companies in Tanzania and possibly elsewhere have often come under attack for their failure to promote local business communities through backward and forward linkages (Kapunda *et al.* 2011; Meyer 2008).

In South Africa, however, effort is being made to solve the problem of establishing and maintaining linkages between large tourism businesses and SMEs and promoting more employment in the tourism sector. Tourism however, contributes about 8 percent of total employment in South Africa (Media Club South Africa, 2016). This is the same as the percentage case of East Africa – Tanzania, Kenya and Uganda (Yohana 2015: 2). However, as a general case tourism-related FDI has generally displayed an upward increase (UNCTAD 2008).

An empirical study by Monamo (2010) for Botswana revealed that in addition to FDI citizens are encouraged to invest in the tourism sector. The

study showed that SMEs in the tourism sector (guest houses and lodges) were mostly funded by the government agency-the Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA). CEDA offered them subsidized interest rates unlike the commercial banks. The study also showed that participation of male workers in the SMEs dominated in the enterprises. Furthermore, the workers were above 36 years of age. This implies less participation ratio of women and the youth.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1.Data Types Sources and Collection

This study uses both primary and secondary data. The sources for the later include published literature materials, journals articles, government documents and internet sources and the like. Primary data was collected using a survey questionnaire that was designed to elicit important information such as SMEs background information, ownership, employment, and sources of supply or inputs. The survey was carried out by the principal researcher and 12 research assistants during July – September 2014, and February 2015.

4.2.Location and Sampling Procedures

In Tanzania data was collected from purposely selected three main tourism areas: Dar-es-Salaam, Arusha and Zanzibar. Questionnaires were distributed to a randomly selected sample of 170 SMEs: 120 hotels (including camps, lodges, guest houses, inns and the like), 30 tour operators and 20 suppliers to hotels. In South Africa the data was collected from Mafikeng, Johannesburg and Pretoria. 290 SMEs were covered: 220 hotels, 40 tour operators and 30suppliers. In Botswana the data was collected similarly from three main areas of tourism: Gaborone, Maun and Kasane/Kazungula. A total of 61 usable questionnaires were collected, i.e. from 31 hotels, 16 tour operators and 14 SMEs suppliers to the hotels.

4.3.Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are tested.

- (1) There is little participation of citizen in the tourism sector.
- (2) More men head the tourism SMEs than women.

4.4.Analysis

The analysis was based on computer packages mainly the SPSS.Descriptive economic statistics were mostly employed.

5. FINDINGS AND THEIR INTERPRETATIONS

5.1. The Case of Tanzania

5.1.1. Hotels

About 51 percent of the 120 broadly defined hotels (see methodology) were owned by citizens (local people), either as individuals or families. 49 percent were owned by foreigners or were joint ventures with an average of about 70 percent foreign components. For illustration see Table 1. Furthermore, foreigners owned mostly large and superior hotels (3-5 stars).

Table 1
Hotel Ownership in Tanzania

| <i>Type / Star</i> | <i>Ownership Category</i> | | | <i>Total</i> |
|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------|
| | <i>Local</i> | <i>Foreign</i> | <i>Joint Venture</i> | |
| 1 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 25 |
| 2 | 18 | 1 | 1 | 20 |
| 3 | 13 | 11 | 4 | 28 |
| 4 | 5 | 21 | 20 | 46 |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| Total | 61 | 33 | 26 | 120 |
| Percentages | 50.8 | 27.5 | 21.7 | 100 |

Source: Kapunda and Mutasa (2015)

Regarding the gender of owners about 78 percent were men and 22 percent were women. However, female ownership of the smaller hotels (1-2). For details see Table 2.

Table 2
Gender of Owners of Hotels in Tanzania

| <i>Type / Star</i> | <i>Gender of Owners</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | <i>Male</i> | <i>Female</i> | |
| 1 | 16 | 13 | 25 |
| 2 | 6 | 9 | 20 |
| 3 | 24 | 4 | 28 |
| 4 | 41 | 1 | 46 |
| 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 88 | 27 | 120 |
| Percentages | 77.5 | 22.5 | 100 |

Source: ibid

Regarding hotel employment mix in terms of foreigners and local people it can be deduced from Table 3 that almost all local employees are in top management in the relatively small and less superior hotels. Lower positions are also occupied by local people, mostly women.

Table 3
Employment mix: 1-2 Star Hotels in Tanzania (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 1 | 0 | 95 | 4 | 100 |
| Middle positions | 0 | 0 | 51 | 49 | 100 |
| Low level positions | 0 | 0 | 45 | 55 | 100 |

Source: ibid

In case of relatively large and superior 3-5 star hotels top and middle employment are occupied mainly by foreigners. The low positions are occupied mainly by local employees. For details see Table 4.

Table 4
Employment Mix: 3 – 5 Star Hotels in Tanzania (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 90.0 | 1.2 | 8.8 | 0 | 100 |
| Middle positions | 40.0 | 4.8 | 24.4 | 30.8 | 100 |
| Low level positions | 0.1 | 0 | 9.0 | 90.9 | 100 |

Source: ibid

5.1.2. Hotel suppliers in Tanzania

About 75 percent of the top and middle positions were occupied by foreign employees. Almost 100 percent of the employees in the low position level were local and, 65 percent being women.

Hotel supplies were also requested to indicate the source of their supply (food, beverages, furniture and others). About 90 percent of the product were obtained locally from retailers, supermarket and other sources. This may suggest that the local producers/sellers have a large market in the tourist sector.

5.1.3. Tour Operators in Tanzania

30 tour operator questionnaires were fully filled in. About 60 percent of the tour operators management was local. 40 percent formed foreign and joint businesses.

Almost all tour operators (90 percent were) men.

5.2. The Case of South Africa

5.2.1 Hotels

Over 60 percent of the 220 broadly defined hotels (see methodology) were owned by citizens (all races including the white). Foreigner ownership was

about 17 percent, below joint venture ownership (19 percent). Star 4 and 5 hotels were owned mainly by joint venture (for clarification see Table 5).

Table 5
Hotel Ownership in South Africa

| <i>Type / Star</i> | <i>Ownership Category</i> | | | <i>Total</i> |
|--------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------------|--------------|
| | <i>Local</i> | <i>Foreign</i> | <i>Joint Venture</i> | |
| 1 | 31 | 0 | 0 | 31 |
| 2 | 42 | 1 | 1 | 44 |
| 3 | 43 | 11 | 5 | 59 |
| 4 | 21 | 22 | 24 | 67 |
| 5 | 3 | 4 | 12 | 19 |
| Total | 140 | 38 | 42 | 220 |
| Percentages | 63.6 | 17.3 | 19.1 | 100 |

Source: own survey

Regarding the gender of owners about 57 percent were men and 43 percent were women. For details see Table 6.

Table 6
Gender of Owners of Hotels in South Africa

| <i>Type / Star</i> | <i>Gender of Owners</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|--------------------|-------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| | <i>Male</i> | <i>Female</i> | |
| 1 | 16 | 15 | 231 |
| 2 | 24 | 20 | 44 |
| 3 | 30 | 29 | 59 |
| 4 | 45 | 22 | 67 |
| 5 | 11 | 8 | 19 |
| Total | 126 | 94 | 220 |
| Percentages | 57.3 | 42.7 | 100 |

Source: ibid

Regarding hotel employment mix in terms of foreigners and citizen it can be deduced from table 7 that local employee spread well in all the categories as shown in Tables 7 and 8.

Table 7
Employment mix: 1-2 Star Hotels in South Africa (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 8 | 4 | 47 | 41 | 100 |
| Middle positions | 3 | 5 | 52 | 40 | 100 |
| Low level positions | 2 | 4 | 41 | 53 | 100 |

Source: ibid

In case of relatively large and superior 3 – 5 star hotels top and middle employment are occupied mainly by foreigners or joint venture hotel owners.

The low positions are occupied mainly by local employees. For details see Table 8.

Table 8
Employment Mix: 3-5 Star Hotels in South Africa (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 21 | 12 | 40 | 27 | 100 |
| Middle positions | 118 | 36 | 45 | 100 | |
| Low level positions | 1 | 2 | 41 | 56 | 100 |

Source: ibid

5.2.2. Hotel suppliers in South Africa

About 95 percent of the top and middle positions were occupied by local employees. Almost 100 percent of the employees in the low position level were local.

About 95 percent of the product were obtained locally from retailers, supermarket and other sources. This may suggest that the local producers/sellers have a large market in the tourist sector.

5.2.3. Tour Operators in South Africa

40 tour operator questionnaires were fully filled in. About 80 percent of the tour operators' management was local.

Almost all tour operators (85 percent) were men.

5.3. The Case of Botswana

5.3.1. Hotels

In this study, hotels also include lodges, camps, guest houses, inns and others that provide accommodation to tourists. Thirty one hotels were analysed and the findings and their interpretations are in order.

About 48 percent of the 31 hotels were owned by local people, either as individuals or families. 52 percent were owned by foreigners or were joint ventures with an average of 80 percent foreign components. This implies that the majority of the hotels were foreign owned. For illustration see Table 9.

These findings are in line with the findings of Mbaiwa (2005) which showed that 81.5 percent of the tourism registered businesses in Maun and the Okavango Delta had an element of foreign ownership, either 100 percent foreign ownership or joint ventures, and only 18.5 percent were fully owned by citizens.

Table 9
Hotel Ownership in Botswana

| <i>Type / Grade (Star)</i> | <i>Ownership</i> | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| | <i>Local</i> | <i>Foreign</i> | <i>Joint venture</i> |
| 1 | 7 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 8 | 2 | 2 |
| 3 | 10 | 5 | 1 |
| 4 | 5 | 1 | 4 |
| 5 | 4 | 0 | 1 |
| Total | 15 (48.4%) | 8 (25.8%) | 8 (25.8%) |

Source: Kapunda and Mutasa (2015)

Regarding the gender of the hotel owners, about 58 percent of them were men and 42 percent were women. Female management dominated the smaller hotels (1-2 stars). For details see Table 10.

Table 10
Gender of Owners of Hotels in Botswana
Gender of Managing Director

| <i>Male</i> | <i>Female</i> | <i>Total</i> |
|-------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| 1 | 5 | 6 |
| 4 | 5 | 9 |
| 6 | 2 | 8 |
| 6 | 1 | 7 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 18 (58.1%) | 13 (41.9%) | 31 (100%) |

Source: ibid

Regarding the employment mix in terms of foreigners and local people in the hotels is shown in Table 11.

Table 11
Employment Mix: 1-2 Star Hotels (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 26.0 | 0.7 | 61.0 | 1.3 | 100 |
| Middle positions 4.0 | 4.6 | 21.6 | 70.0 | 100 | |
| Low level positions | 0.1 | 1.1 | 11.8 | 80.0 | 100 |

Source: ibid

From Table 11 it can be seen clearly that almost all local employees are in the lower level positions (98.8%) the majority of them being women in the 1-2 star hotels. This applies also in the case of 3 - 5 star hotels as shown in Table 12.

Table 12
Employment Mix in 3 -5 Star Hotels (Percentages)

| <i>Employment Category</i> | <i>Foreign Employees</i> | | <i>Local Employees</i> | | <i>Total</i> |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|----------|------------------------|----------|--------------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>F</i> | |
| Top management | 65.0 | 10.6 | 21.0 | 3.4 | 100 |
| Middle positions 10.8 | 2.0 | 40.2 | 47.0 | 100 | |
| Low level positions | 2.0 | 0.8 | 10.0 | 80.2 | 100 |

Source: ibid

This implies that the local employees receive lower salaries in conformity with their relative low positions. Our findings are in line with those of Mbaiwa (2005), UNCTAD 2008) who also found that locals are employed in low paying unskilled jobs such as manual labour, drivers, watchmen, gatekeepers, cooks and maids, while management positions are held by foreigners.

5.3.2. Hotel Suppliers in Botswana

About 90 percent of the top and middle position were occupied by foreign employees. Almost 100 percent of the employees in the low position level were local and 70 percent being women.

About 95 of the products supplied to hotels were obtained imported especially from South Africa. This points to the need encouraging local production in Botswana.

5.3.3. Tour Operators in Botswana

About 85 percent of the local operators were foreign or 5 percent formed foreign and joint businesses. Almost all tours (95 percent) were men.

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The hypotheses to be tested in this study apply vividly mainly to the case of Tanzania and Botswana; i.e.

- (1) There is little participation of citizens (local people) in the tourism sector.
- (2) More men head the tourism SMEs than women. Since Botswana and Tanzania represent the other relatively small and black-dominated SADC economies, the hypotheses are likely to be applicable elsewhere in SADC.

This study has shown generally that there is relatively little local participation and, hence, benefits in the tourism industry especially in Tanzania and Botswana. The following specific conclusions can be drawn from the study.

Furthermore, in this case

- Most of the citizens are employed in the low positions (drivers, tour guides, cooks, cleaners, waiters and waitresses, gardeners, watchmen etc.) with low incomes.
- With regards to ownership and management, it was found that locals own/manage the relatively small hotels (1 -2 stars) while foreigners managed the relatively larger hotels (3 – 5 stars).
- Also with regards to gender, women managed the smaller hotels (1 – 2 stars). There were very few women in top management.
- There is dominance of foreign ownership, which leads to transfers of much of the tourism related revenue beyond SADCs economies as the cases of Botswana’s economy which is characteristic of enclave tourism throughout the world Mbaiwa (2005) and Tanzania (Kapunda and Mutasa, 2015).

Special case for Botswana

- Hotel suppliers and tour operators are dominantly foreign in Botswana due to heavy dependence on South Africa.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that:

- The government should make more effort to attract more local investors in the tourist sector who will eventually employ more local people in management, middle and low positions. Attractive incentives such as tax holidays may be useful.
- Foreigners who invest jointly with citizens should enjoy tax holidays for a reasonable number of years.
- Local female investors should be given preferential treatment in terms of training and information needs and raising finances, to make them more competitive in the tourism sector to encourage gender balance
- There is need for government intervention to improve indigenous SMEs access to finance and tenders to supply hotels with products and services. Botswana is a typical example where the subsidized interest rate by government through the Citizen Entrepreneurial Development Agency (CEDA) is supporting the tourist SMEs financially despite the current concentration on small guest houses and lodges.
- Investors should be encouraged by government to make use of local supply and resources.

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