

**THE SIGNIFICANCE OF RURAL AREAS IN SOUTH AFRICA FOR TOURISM  
DEVELOPMENT THROUGH COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION WITH SPECIAL  
REFERENCE TO UMGABABA, A RURAL AREA LOCATED IN THE PROVINCE  
OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**by**

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**Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of**

**MASTER OF ARTS**

**in the subject**

**GEOGRAPHY**

**at the**

**UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA**

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**November 2006**

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I declare that, “The significance of rural areas in South Africa for tourism development through community participation with special reference to Umgababa, a rural area located in the province of KwaZulu-Natal” is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

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DATE

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the following people whose contributions and support have been invaluable:

Dr. A.C. Harmse, my supervisor for her superb supervision of the thesis.

Ms. Melanie Nicolau, Head of Department, Department of Geography, Unisa, for her mediation in times of problems and continued assistance until completion of the thesis.

Ms. Leanne Brown, subject librarian at Unisa, for her prompt service.

Ms. Helenne Steenkamp, secretary at the Department of Geography, Unisa, for her prompt service with regards to communication.

Ms. Noeline McNamara, from eThekweni Municipality, South Local Council, assisting with some of the maps.

Radhika Gopaul (my wife) for typing and layout of the thesis. Arusha and Kerina (my daughters) for their continued support and patience during the writing process.

Suren Bisseru, Simunye Printers, for binding this thesis.

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**ABSTRACT**

The aim of this study was to determine the role of tourism, empowerment and participation in the socio-economic upliftment of the community of Umgababa. The research examines the views of the community on their socio-economic conditions, their willingness to participate in tourism business ventures and their perceptions and attitude towards communicating with other rural communities on tourism development. The study concludes that the socio-economic living conditions of the community of Umgababa are very poor and that empowerment and participation of the community in tourism could be an answer to their problems. Given the opportunity, the majority of the people were willing to participate in a tourism business venture. Investigation revealed that there is an abundance of natural and human resources in Umgababa to start a tourism business. The community also felt that by communicating their knowledge and experience they would be able to help other communities in their own development.

## CHAPTER 1

### BACKGROUND AND INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Introduction

South African rural societies remain some of the most impoverished societies in the world, and access to employment, education, land, housing, health services and other essential resources still divide them from their urban neighbours. Most rural communities live in severe poverty and there is very little development activities taking place in these areas. According to Koch (1993: 28) rural areas in South Africa have always remained poor, impoverished, undeveloped and less inhabited. Orford (2004:13) informs us that rural communities in South Africa are a cause of great concern. These communities seem neglected and endure great poverty and deprivation. Poverty appears to be deepening in rural areas and some form of development and financial aid is urgently needed for rural communities (Orford 2004: 10). One possible answer to this problem lies in empowerment and participatory community development projects (Allen and Brennan 2004: 39).

The Province of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), which comprises the former homeland of KwaZulu in amalgamation with the former Province of Natal, is estimated to have about 10 million people, of whom the majority live in rural areas (Data Research Africa 2000). The homeland of KwaZulu, which came into being in March 1972 constituted 44 diminutive and separate pockets of land. These scattered and sometimes diminutive areas are characterised by overcrowding and poverty (Allen and Brennan 2004: 47) and in some instances, absence of men. Many of the men of these rural areas are migrant workers in mines or urban areas, such as Durban, Pinetown, Richards Bay and Dundee. The Province

has the third highest incidence of poverty, and some 47 per cent of the rural population exist below the poverty line (Data Research Africa 2000).

Baden, Hasim and Meintjies (1999: 109) are of the view that poverty in South Africa is worst among rural women living in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo Provinces. Those households headed by women are far more likely to be living in poverty than households headed by men. According to Daniels (2001) the majority of rural African women are employed in casual agriculture labour, domestic work and the informal sector, where they are poorly paid, and liable to job loss and abuse. African women constitute the bulk of poverty victims in the country, with 71% living below the poverty line. Unemployment among rural African men is on average 45% while rural African women experience an unemployment rate of 62% (Daniels 2001).

## **1.2 Statement of problem**

Most rural communities in South Africa and in KwaZulu-Natal rely on subsistence farming, or depend on their families or on government grants to sustain a living. There is therefore a need for these communities to improve their sources of income and their social and economic levels. Rural people need to have a purpose in life, to develop their skills and to utilize the available resources in their area to make their lives better. Tourism, empowerment and participation of rural communities in tourism ventures could be a potential driver for rural development.

Umgababa is a rural settlement located approximately 40 kilometres south of the city of Durban in KwaZulu-Natal. The plight of this rural community does not differ much from

those in other rural areas of South Africa in terms of poverty and a need for development. There is a need to create awareness of these poor rural communities and to investigate if these communities are open to the possibility of alternative means of achieving a better way of life.

The plight and role of women amongst the rural community is also an important consideration in the development of the rural areas. Women in Umgababa, just as women in other rural areas, are also subject to poverty, hostility, abuse, neglect and hardship. Many of them are also breadwinners and head of households. However, they lack the means to use their skills to achieve a better way of life. Despite government commitment to rural improvement there is little sign of improvement, especially for women. Most attempts to improve the living conditions of rural women to any noticeable extent have failed in the past (Daniels 2001).

### **1.3 Motivation for the research**

According to Leedy (1993: 53) the first step in deciding on conducting a research project is to identify a researchable problem that requires an enquiring mind, which seeks fact, which can then be synthesized into an accurate and logical conclusion. In South Africa, the discourse of empowerment and participation in rural development rests on the assumption that people are themselves able to bridge the gap between poverty and higher levels of development (Giddens 1999: 264). The challenges of rural development are immense but the revitalisation of the rural economy is a key to a better way of life for rural people (May 1998: 15). Community empowerment and participation is regarded as one of the most

crucial factors in the development goals of rural communities (Wells and Brandon 1992: 118).

In rural Umgababa most African people do not have access to basic services such as electricity, water and sanitation, and social and health services, leaving the community excluded and marginalized. The plight of the rural community and their families within this locality, their exclusion from a decent life, failure to receive sufficient supportive measures from government and their reluctance to make attempts to improve their lives (not because they are ignorant or lazy but because they are sidelined) have contributed towards the identification of the problem of the rural community of Umgababa and for undertaking this research.

To this extent the main motivation for this research therefore, was to demonstrate an understanding of the problems associated with the community living in the study area, which would contribute to the pursuit and production of further research and development of knowledge by practitioners within the field of geography. According to Marshall and Rossman (1989: 30) the researcher is motivated with the crucial question: What does this world need to know? How will new research add to knowledge, practice and policy in the study of geography? The researcher must describe how this study will provide information that will contribute to the solution of some real-world problem. The research must also show that practitioners need the information required to furthering their knowledge base.

The question then arises, to what extent could the rural community be benefactors of research? Although community participation is often costly and time-consuming it is an essential ingredient for research into rural economic development (Glaser 2001: 259).

Research into empowerment and involvement in tourism projects could be a possible answer to the challenges facing this rural community. Their only hope could be to rely on the results and outcome from more research projects that could have an impact on their problematic situation.

#### **1.4 Objectives of the study**

The objective of this research is to investigate the possibility of greater participation of the rural community of Umgababa in their own development and the possibility of promoting their experience to other rural communities living in similar conditions. In order to achieve this objective the following research questions can be posed.

1. What are the socio-economic living conditions of the rural community of Umgababa?
2. What natural and/or human resources are available in this community that could be used for a tourism business venture?
3. Would the community be willing to participate in a tourism business venture as a means to improve their living conditions?
4. What are the perceptions of the Umgababa community in terms of communicating their attitudes and experiences to other rural communities, who could also use tourism ventures to improve their living standards?

#### **1.5 Literature study: Tourism and rural development**

According to Strydom, De Vos and Fouche (1998:64) a literature study is aimed at contributing towards a clearer understanding of the nature and meaning of the problem that has been identified. Researchers need to have thorough background knowledge of the phenomenon under review in order to conduct research. In the case of undertaking and

executing a research project, a literature study is essential because it provides a substantially better insight into the dimensions and complexities of the problem. It also equips the investigator with a complete and thorough justification for the subsequent steps, as well as with a sense of importance of the undertaking; demonstrates the underlying assumptions behind the general research questions, and finally it refines and redefines the research questions.

### **1.5.1 Rural development**

According to the Rural Development Framework (RDF) 'rural' is defined as the sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources, including the villages and small towns scattered across these areas. 'Rural clusters' in the former homelands (large settlements without an economic base except for transfer payments) are also included in the definition of rural (South Africa, 1997: paragraph 1.2).

Unemployment and poverty have for a long time been a major problem in the rural areas of South Africa. Current trends indicate that the broader development problems of the rural areas cannot be explained fully without reference to its ongoing socio-economic needs. The various problems facing rural communities highlight the need for some form of development programmes, where the community members themselves can become participants. A community is a group of people living, working and interacting together in a form that may result in organized activities, views and opinions (World Bank 1995). According to Hoogersvorst (2000: 26) a community is a conglomeration of groups with social and economic differences based on wealth, land, livestock, age, gender, political

affiliation and other factors. A community, he concludes, cannot be regarded as a homogenous unit, but something locational.

The development of rural women is an important consideration in the development of rural areas. Despite government commitment to rural improvement, there is little sign of improvement especially for women (Billy 1996). It is mainly the women who have to shoulder the burden of poverty. Women struggle to survive by growing subsistence crops on land they do not even own. Large numbers of them have to take the full burden of farming when their husbands and sons are forced to leave home for employment in towns and cities. In the absence of men, women have brought up their children alone, and have the daily and ever more difficult chore of finding fuel and fetching water (Billy 1996). Women often become homeless when their husbands die or their marriages come to an end. Unmarried women may be forced to become squatters (Billy 1996). During the years of apartheid and even today, women were left behind to work on unproductive land. They were and are still dependent upon the goodwill of chiefs in times of hardships. Poverty in South Africa is worst among rural women living in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Northern Province. The strain of poverty in these areas often leads to problems within families likely to be living in abject poverty (Baden, et al., 1999).

### **1.5.2 Rural tourism**

Tourism, according to van Harssel (1994: 2), is regarded as the business of attracting visitors and catering towards their needs and expectations. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (1996: 4) regards tourism as all travel for whatever purpose that results in one or more nights away from home. Tourism comprises the



activities of persons traveling to and staying in places outside their usual environment, which consists of a certain area around his or her residence together with all other places they have visited (Smith 1989). Tourism has for a long time been a major theme for research by geographers. With tourism as an underlying feature for rural development, rural areas have also become an important topic for geographical research.

Geographer's interest in the development of rural areas is not only interested in the resource base of these areas but also as a multi-faceted environment capable of accommodating a wide range of uses such as the demand and supply of agriculture, recreation and tourism (Getz and Page 1997). Natural resources are the basic materials and resources that are produced through the earth's natural process and systems (Hoogervorst 2000: 65) and include the planet's air, water and land, nutrient, minerals and resources in the soil, wild and domesticated plants and animals, and the entire range of the natural systems.

Rural tourism occurs in the countryside or in small rural settlements and is made up of ecological elements (referred to as eco-tourism) as well as cultural and traditional elements present in the rural areas (Reid 2000). Shaw and Williams (1994: 223) see rural areas as idylls to which to escape from the pressure of modern urban-industrial life to rekindle the human spirit. Harrison (1991: 11) regards rural tourism as the actualization of deeply felt needs for high quality life in the countryside. Williams (1975: 124) associates rural areas as tourism destinations with qualities, which are absent from urban life. Patmore (1983: 124) describes rural areas as a 'wilderness' that offers restorative and psychological reward to one who is stressed from urban life. According to Katz and Kirkby (1991: 266) rural tourism has a strong influence on rural communities in terms of development. Rural

tourism is fundamentally based on some form of natural resource (Mearns 2003) and as such nature-based tourism (eco-tourism) a sub-set of tourism is touted as a solution to the problem of rural-underdevelopment (Viljoen and Naicker 2000).

Eco-tourism is defined by The International Eco-tourism Society (2006) as responsible travel to natural areas that conserve the environment and improves the well-being of local people. Theobald (1994: 261) believes that eco-tourism is the main component of tourism in rural areas. Eco-tourism has a wealth of natural attractions in developing countries. It includes the natural environment such as fauna and flora, the geographical landscape, rivers, valleys, lakes and the total ecosystem. Cowling (1993:3) identifies eco-tourism as an instrument that can be used for rural development. He believes that the conservation of the natural resources is an important consideration in eco-tourism. Ceballos-Lascurain (1989: 5) gives a scientific, aesthetic or philosophical meaning to eco-tourism, in which people can immerse themselves in a way most urban people cannot enjoy. Lastly, eco-tourism is travel to areas for the purpose of enjoying and admiring the natural beauty (Boo 1990: 31; and Lindberg 1991: 55).

### **1.5.3 Traditional and cultural tourism**

Traditional and culture cannot be separated from tourism. Kaplan (2000: 41) explains that traditional and cultural tourism is associated with the traditional beliefs of rural communities. These two elements in tourism are viewed as assets that communities can market for the creation of employment and active investment. Pearce and Moscardo (2000: 416) believe that traditional and cultural tourism has the potential to restore the past and allow rural communities to become creative. Traditional and cultural tourism covers all

aspects of travel where tourists learn about others' thoughts and way of life (McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie 2001: 67).

In the opinion of Weaver and Opperman (2000: 69) traditional and cultural tourism actively market that which makes a community unique. Many tourists are interested in learning and experiencing the cultures and traditions of rural communities. An integral part of traditional Zulu culture includes indigenous African art, music and dance. Other attractions include Zulu kraals with tribal dancing and well-stocked curio shops with brightly coloured beadworks, pottery basketware and mat making, sculptures, African masks, tribal shields and drums (O'Hagan 1999). Finally, Davidson (2003: 88) believes that traditional and cultural tourism brings development to an area. It develops and promotes the economic stability of the area.

#### **1.5.4 Community based tourism**

Levi and Litwin (1986: 25) regard community participation as the creation of a democratic system and procedure to enable community members to become actively involved and to take responsibility for their own development, to share equally in the fruits of community development and to improve their decision-making power. Community participation provides a sense of belonging or identity, a commitment to common norms, a willingness to take responsibility for oneself and others, and a readiness to share and interact.

Empowerment means enabling poor communities to build their capacity and the confidence to succeed at development in an effective and sustainable manner. The approach is learning by doing and building one's capacity through experience (Thwala 2004: 18).

Thwala (2004: 19) also goes onto defining community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. Reid and van Dreunen (1996: 49) calls participation, facilitation, which is more a skill that is required through learning by doing and which can become readily available. The objective of community participation is to build individual skills and community solidarity using a concrete project such as the development of a tourism destination in rural areas.

Culpan's (1987), model for Community Based Tourism (CBT) explains community based tourism in rural areas as the community's participation in the design and decision-making process, the management and administration of tourism. The main objective according to this model is to involve people in the process of their own development and give them more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. According to Ceballos-Lascurain (1989: 27) communities possess immense natural and cultural knowledge of their local rural environment. With some basic training they could become entrepreneurs of tourism projects.

### **1.5.5 Tourism development in KwaZulu-Natal**

KwaZulu-Natal is the third smallest Province in South Africa, but in 2005 it had the largest population of all the Provinces, estimated to be 9,65 million people, of whom the majority were living in rural areas (Statistics South Africa 2006). According to Statistics South Africa (2001), 42,5% of the South African population lived in rural areas, but in KwaZulu-Natal 54% of the population still resided in areas classified as rural. KwaZulu-Natal is a traditional holiday destination for domestic as well as international tourists. The Province

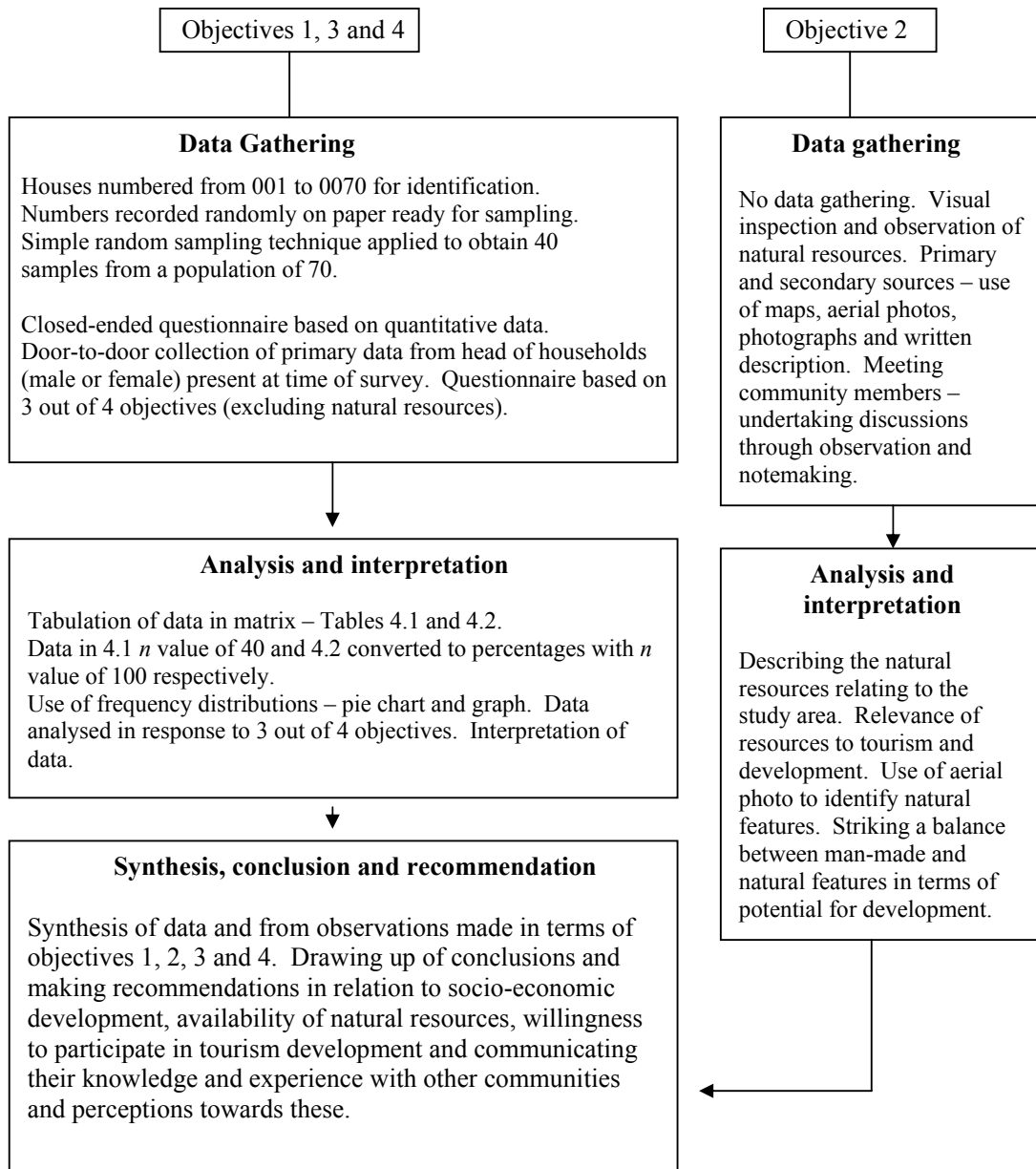
contains some major scenic attractions as well as year-round sunshine, long beaches and the warm Indian Ocean. There are huge protected areas with substantial holdings of the “big five”: elephants, rhinos, buffaloes, leopards and lions. The Drakensberg Mountain and the rolling countryside of the Midlands attract walkers and climbers. The northern regions of the province are rich in wetlands and other special ecosystems that are recognised internationally and where biodiversity is well protected for tourist viewing (Allen and Brennan 2004: 48).

One of the main objectives of the Department of Economic Development and Tourism, KwaZulu-Natal, is to grant previously excluded groups the opportunity to participate in tourism. Tourism must contribute to the upliftment and socio-economic wellbeing of all the people of KwaZulu-Natal. Through tourism community pride must be strengthened (Department of Economic Development and Tourism 1995: 4). A more detailed exposition of literature on tourism and its related concepts is discussed in the literature review in chapter 2. In the next section the research design is discussed.

## **1.6 Research design**

Thyer (1993: 94) views a research design as a blueprint or detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted. Huysamen (1993: 10) refines this definition by specifying that this plan, or blueprint offers the framework according to which data are to be collected to investigate the research questions in the most economical manner. According to Mouton and Marais (1990: 155) the quantitative approach used in social science research is highly formalized as well as explicitly controlled, with a range that is more exactly defined and which, in terms of the methods used, is relatively close to the methods used in the

physical sciences. Figure 1.1 highlights the research design and the main processes involved in the research.



**Figure 1.1: The main processes involved in the research**

### **1.6.1 Study area**

Umgababa is a large rural settlement, situated in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, along the Indian Ocean approximately 40 kilometres south of the city of Durban. The settlement can be viewed from the N2 freeway connecting Durban with the rest of KwaZulu-Natal South Coast. Figure 1.2 indicates the location and layout of the study area in relation to the tourism towns of the south coast of KwaZulu-Natal. The largest part of the settlement is located between the freeway and the Indian Ocean. Remnants of old dilapidated buildings can be seen on the seashore, which appears to have been tourism sites many years ago. Secondary sources indicate that faction fighting had led to the area's downfall.

The settlement of Umgababa consists of an African, predominantly Zulu speaking community. Judging from the appearance of low cost and traditional homes and the way residents live, this community appears to have a poor socio-economic background. Subsistence farming is the dominant economic activity while parts of their surroundings seem to remain unused. Due to the impracticality of surveying the entire settlement, the study area was limited to that part of the Umgababa rural settlement which was bordered by the freeway on the western side, the old south coast road on the east, the road connecting the freeway with the old south coast road to the south and the Umgababa River to the north. The specific study is approximately 3 square kilometres in area and is situated on a north-facing slope overlooking the Umgababa River. There are about 150 households in this particular study area and most of them appear to be extremely poor. There is an abundance of natural resources readily available for tourism. These include the fauna and flora, the river, the wetland, the estuary, the sand dunes, the beach and flat shores, the view amongst





### 1.6.2 Methodology

In order to achieve the stated objective, data had to be obtained from the community living in the designated study area. To obtain the required data a questionnaire was designed around the different objectives. Since it was not possible to collect data from all the households in the settlement, an appropriate sample size had to be determined. According to Schaller (1992: 66) larger samples enable researchers to draw more accurate conclusions and make more accurate predictions. In order to make our sample free of bias and as representative of the larger population (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 54) the most appropriate sampling design to be used in selecting the samples and the number of samples to be used in the survey had to be determined. Grinnell and Williams (1990: 127) observed that 30 samples were sufficient to perform basic statistical procedures. The larger the sample, however, the more confidence one can place on the statistics derived from it (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 59). A sample of 40 households out of a population of 70 (57%) would therefore be sufficient to undertake the research. The sampling process most suitable would be the simple random sampling technique. According to Kitchin and Tate (2000: 55) a simple random sample is a sample size of  $n$  elements selected from a sampling frame without replacement, such that every possible member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. The study area lacked the necessary infrastructure such as post boxes or street addresses or any other feature that could assist fieldworkers in identifying households for sampling. Fieldworkers obtained permission from residents to chalk-mark each house or door with a three and four digit figure starting from 001 and ending with 0070. These figures were then written on 70 pieces of cardboard, placed in a basket, shuffled and 40 were randomly selected. Each of the numbers was then written on a questionnaire for the fieldworker to use when conducting the survey. During the survey the number on the door was correlated with that in the questionnaire.

Fieldworkers obtained data from the selected households through a questionnaire. A person, either male or female who was present at the time of the survey and who acted as head of household was required to fill-in the questionnaire. Data was firstly collected on questions based on the socio-economic status of the community, then on their willingness to participate in a tourism business venture, and lastly on their perceptions of other rural communities in South Africa in terms of participation in tourism development. Information on the resources for tourism was gathered through observation and inspection of the study area. These observations were made on the natural resources such as the river, beach, fauna and flora and man-made features and human attributes such as curio stalls and the economic impact this would have on the area, which is referred to as human resources.

Quantitative analysis was done on data collected on three of the objectives in this research. Objectives 3, which was based on the natural and human resources was analysed through descriptive observation methods. Frequency distribution tables, graphs, and pie charts were used to assist in the analysis of the data. Data analysis in the quantitative paradigm entails that the analyst breaks down data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions. The analysis of research data, however, does not in itself provide the answers to research questions. Interpretation of data is necessary. To interpret is to explain, to find meaning. It is impossible to explain raw data. One must first analyse the data and then interpret the results of the analysis (Kerlinger 1986: 125-126).

## **1.7 Organisation of the thesis**

This thesis consists of 5 chapters. The first chapter is an introductory chapter and provides the introduction and an overview of the main issues to be discussed in the thesis. The statement of problem, motivation for the research, objectives of the study, conceptualization, study area, research design and methodology, organization of thesis and lastly problems experienced in the research formed the basis of this chapter.

Chapter 2 provides the literature review and opinions on tourism related research. These issues pertain to the general overview of tourism and how it relates to rural areas. Most of the literature was concentrated on South Africa and the Province of KwaZulu-Natal with a focus on rural development and the empowerment of the community. Attention was also drawn to the plight of women and their role in rural development.

Chapter 3 was concerned with the main instruments used for data gathering. The questionnaire design, sampling and sampling methods were described as well as the methods used in the data collection process. Chapter 4 deals with the analysis and interpretation of data. Chapter 5 concluded the thesis with the inclusion of a synthesis, recommendation and conclusion.

## **1.8 Problems experienced during the research**

Accessibility to some households or to respondents became a problem because the study area lacked proper motor vehicle access. There is very little access in the form of roads to individual respondents in the study area and certain households/respondents were quite a

distance away from the main road. This created a problem as it hindered access for the fieldworker to many households. Fieldworkers had to park their cars in a “safe” spot and walk through grassed pathways to respondents making data collection cumbersome. There were instances when fieldworkers had to return to respondents to complete the tasks because the respondents were not at home. Crime was also a factor for concern. Newspaper reports have indicated that the area was notorious for criminal activity. Motor vehicle highjackings, theft, stone throwing on passing motorists were rife. Fieldworkers had to contend with these problems by taking special care not to become victims of it. However, these problems were overcome through support and co-operation from the respondents.

Certain women were reluctant to partake in the questionnaire survey in the absence of their husbands. Fieldworkers were told that it was inappropriate to “do anything without their husband’s consent and/or in his absence”. However, their decision was respected hence they were not coerced to do ‘anything improper’. The researcher instead had to call again at another time to meet and interview the male head of household. Despite these problems encountered by the researcher, data collection was successfully completed.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **TOURISM, EMPOWERMENT AND COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Although South Africa is defined as an upper middle-income country in per capita terms (May 1998), the distribution of income is amongst the most unequal in the world. Many households, particularly in rural areas have limited access to employment opportunities, education, health care, energy, sanitation and clean water. The challenges addressing the problems of rural areas are immense, and the revitalisation of the rural economy is a key to a better way of life (May 1998: 15).

Research on rural communities could highlight some important issues towards future development of these communities. The views and opinions of several authorities in geography and tourism are essential for a better understanding of the concepts and issues related to tourism and its role in rural development.

#### **2.2 Rural development**

According to Statistics South Africa (2001) 42,5% of the South African population lived in rural areas. An estimated 9,65 million people alone lived in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal (Statistics South Africa 2006). The rural areas in South Africa are generally poor and underdeveloped. The communities in the rural areas of South Africa have often been excluded from any form of development. There is very either a very low level of infrastructure development or no development in the rural areas of South Africa. Service delivery by government appears to be limited. These areas are characterised by low level of employment, poor housing conditions, low earnings and a generally low state of living.

Much blame has been placed on the previous government. Almost 40 years of apartheid policy, under which rural people were systematically and violently denied even the most basic of human rights, have left their mark on every aspect of South African rural life. Apartheid's legacy includes total neglect of rural society in the fields of education, housing, infrastructure, employment and also on the issue of environment management. Moreover, apartheid has left behind a rural society infused with intolerance, factionalism, misunderstanding, hatred and psychological violence (Koch 1993: 28).

**Table: 2.1 South Africa: population distributions by race (2001)**

Race	Urban	Proportion of total population	Rural	Proportion of total population
African	15 586 000	35,1%	18 793 000	42,4%
Coloured	3 515 000	7,9%	680 000	1,5%
Indian	1 103 000	2,5%	27 000	0,1%
White	4 242 000	9,6%	362 000	0,8%
<b>Total</b>	<b>24 489 000</b>	<b>55,2%</b>	<b>19 876 000</b>	<b>44,8%</b>

Source: Statistics South Africa (2001: 6)

According to Berman (2001-2002: 3) approximately 85% of South Africa's poor were African, 5% were coloured, and less than 1% were Indian. Table 2.1 summarises the distribution of the population in South Africa and identifies the highest population group concentration in rural areas. In addition, households headed by women had a 50% higher poverty rate than those headed by men. Three quarters (75%) of the country's poor lived in rural areas at a time when little more than half of the population was rural and it can be concluded that poverty is most widespread in rural areas (Berman 2001-2002: 36).

Berman (2001-2002: 3) acknowledges that rural poverty cannot be measured simply in terms of income. Other dimensions include a lack of access to clean drinking water, fuel for cooking, warmth and lighting, adequate health and transport, infrastructure and

employment. Access to electricity in rural areas was at 28% compared to 85% in metropolitan areas. Whereas 40% of all households spend less than R1000 each month, the figure for rural households was 64% and the figure could rise to 86 % by 2008. The poorest households were those headed by women in the largely rural Provinces of Eastern Cape and the Free State with an average monthly expenditure of R724 and R636 respectively. Significantly, poor rural households depend on 26% of their income from state grants, such as old-age pensions and disability grants.

Orford (2004: 13) views rural communities in South Africa as a cause of great concern. They are neglected and endure great poverty and deprivation and they depend on the handouts they receive from the meagre wages from their family members working in towns and cities. People need to have a purpose in life re-instilled in them, to develop their survival skills and to utilise the land, the little they have, with an input from government. The starting point is to forge partnerships to help rural communities in South Africa discover that they have skills within themselves in spite of their illiteracy and poverty. The author adds that rural communities utilise indigenous knowledge for their own survival, because poor people really do have survival skills.

Koch (1993) maintains that tourism development in rural areas of South Africa had been neglected and communities were never given the opportunity to get involved in any such developments. His argument is that the need to reverse this situation is of urgent importance. He adds that despite these constraints on rural communities, other factors also limit the participation of communities. These include lack of information and awareness, lack of interest on the part of government and stakeholders to assist rural communities, lack of incentives to develop and involve rural communities.

### **2.3 Geography and tourism**

Geographers are generally interested in the interaction between people and their environment from a space-in time perspective. Geographers would examine the way in which the rural environment is considered as a tourism resource for development. Robinson (1990) in his definition of rural tourism advocates two pertinent resources in the area, which is the natural resource pertaining to the natural environment and the economic resource that pertains to the human-economic environment.

The natural resources draws attention to the resources such as the climate and weather, landscape and soil, water bodies, fauna and flora, and all other ecological factors pertaining to rural areas. The economic environment consists of all economic activities that take place between man and the environment. Robinson (1990) views this relationship as having two sides – the supply side in which the environment provides the goods and services through the efforts of the community, and the demand side in which the tourists' demands must be met by the community. The demand side involves the tourist buying the products or services from the community who in turn sells the product or service obtained from the environment, hence, the supply side. According to Hall and Page (1999: 192) the concept of resources should not only be viewed as material substances, but as functions. In this sense resource functions are created by man through the selection and manipulation of certain attributes of the environment.

According to Johnston (1991: 1) the study of the geography of tourism does not occur in isolation from the wider trends in geography and academic discourse. Tourism geographers are 'a society within a society'; academic life 'is not a closed system but rather



is open to the influences and commands of the wider society which encompasses it'. Tourist geographers are a sub-community of the geographic community within the wider community of academics, scientists and intellectuals, which is in it-self a subset of the wider society (Johnston 1991: 1).

## **2.4 Concepts in tourism development**

van Harssel (1994: 7) regards tourism as the business of attracting visitors and catering toward their needs and expectations. He purports that the common element in all definitions of tourism is that the tourist is synonymous with traveller. Today, the terms tourism and travel have become almost interchangeable. Tourism therefore connotes the act of travelling and also refers to that industry that is developed to service that activity. Tourism also connotes the ability of people to escape from surroundings and everyday routine. Tourism is generally conceived as being 'play', not work. It is supposed to renew us from the regular work-a-day world. People therefore attach a symbolism to the link between staying (working) and travelling (playing).

According to Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (1996: 4) tourism is all travel for whatever purpose that results in one or more nights being spent away from home. Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and any other purpose. The usual environment of a person consists of a certain area around his/her place of residence plus all other places he/she frequently visits (Smith 1989: 2).

### **2.4.1 Rural tourism development**

According to Lewis (1998: 1) the development of tourism is often seen as a panacea for the ills of a rural community. Many rural communities have resorted to tourism in an attempt to fend-off their socio-economic problems. The rural economy is much different from the urban economy, so much so that it is “not unusual for rural economies to struggle while the nation’s general economy flourishes.” The plight of rural communities are many: migration of young and vibrant from the community, persistent poverty of residents, lack of employment opportunities, an overall lack of infrastructure; natural disasters and a lack of government intervention and revenue. For this, many rural communities have established tourism to generate revenue, which in turn translates into jobs and income. Of-course, tourism cannot simply solve rural problems overnight. There must be an understanding of the development process. Many communities have failed in the process because of a lack of understanding of the developmental process (Lewis 1998: 1).

Lewis (1998: 3) has researched the importance of the development process through the popularity and growth of tourism in rural communities. He believes that because tourism is so popular, rural community leaders are racing to establish tourism in their communities, yet they often lack the understanding of the tourism development process. If these leaders do not understand the process, they cannot possibly deal with the impacts of tourism in their community. Rural communities are constantly searching for economic development opportunities, and one particular type of development that is becoming very popular is tourism. Accordingly, tourism is a viable method of development because it is economically feasible, relatively clean and is a method of economic advancement and development that can be undertaken by the community alone.

Lewis (1998: 4) contends that leaders and residents of rural communities can foster pride and interest, and establish responsibilities for the process of development. This means that the residents from within the community can utilize local resources and establish local community organisations to create tourism in their areas. Tourism is something that a rural community can do with assistance from – not reliance on – outside sources. It does not have to rely on out-of-state businesses or companies. New research has shown that the idea of development within rural communities has begun to take root.

Lewis (1998: 5) adds that the process of tourism development usually begins when an individual or organisation believes that there is a resource in the area that would be of interest to the tourist. Such a resource could be natural, and/or man-made with the human element making something unique to the community and for tourism. The second stage involves the formation of organisations to secure resources and obtain funding. In the third stage, development begins with infrastructure and marketing of the product. Finally, tourism is fully developed, organisations are affiliated and integrated to form a community process and revenue generation begins. However, Lewis (1998) cautions us that there could be certain drawbacks such as not all residents could be keen to participate and support the venture.

An important consideration needs to be raised when discussing the relevance of rural tourism in the development of rural areas. That consideration is the definition and importance of rural tourism, in the countryside or in small rural settlements, and that it is made up of the ecological elements of tourism (eco-tourism), and cultural and traditional tourism. All areas that are not defined as urban areas are non-urban (including peri-urban

areas) are called rural areas, which include commercial farms, small settlements, rural villages, and other areas further away from towns and cities (Berman 2001-2002: 128).

Reid, Fuller and Haywood (1995: 23) suggest that rural tourism is distinguishable by its projection of cultural and traditional (authentic or unauthentic) rural life into the attractions, which constitute its core. Rural tourism is generally constructed around the built or natural environment and includes programmes such as traditional festivals and cultural activities which often re-enact or provide a flavour of the traditional or local rural culture or history. Rural tourism quite often reconstructs either natural or human made environments that have either been destroyed or left unattended.

According to Shaw and Williams (1994: 223) rural areas have long played an important part in tourism and leisure within the developed world. Rural areas are seen as idylls to which to escape from the pressures of modern urban-industrial commotion, with open areas, spacious for recreational purposes, considered as untamed wilderness, which can rekindle the human spirit, or simply as large reserves of open area suitable for space-intensive recreational pursuits. The countryside has something to offer which is absent from the urban life. This argument can also be extended to remote rural areas. There is a continuum of mountain peaks, valleys, rivers, caves and vegetation in rural areas. All of these are therefore a 'culture of rurality'. Harrison (1991: 11) also provides an explanation of the importance of rural areas when she writes, "visits to the countryside can be regarded as the actualisation of deeply-felt needs, especially, those relating to the high quality of life associated with the countryside".

Williams (1975: 175) in his seminal work, *The country and the city*, similarly emphasises that rural areas have come to be defined in terms of qualities which are absent from urban

life. In short, the notions of urbanity and rurality are cultural definitions. According to Shaw and Williams (1994: 225), rural tourism emphasises drives, outings and picnics, wildlife viewing and nature sightseeing. Walks by visiting unspoilt countryside and visiting historic sites are added activities in rural areas. Rural recreation is separated within the countryside, since different areas provide settings for different types of leisure activities. For the tourist, the nature and decision to travel to the countryside is a result of particular space-time budget constraints. Large blocks of time are required in order to be able to enjoy some types of rural-tourism. Activities include long distance walking. As a result there are distinctive daily, weekly and annual rhythms to recreation and tourism in different parts of the countryside. If a full day is available then the nearby countryside becomes a possibility for recreation. If a weekend is available then short-break rural tourism is feasible (Shaw and Williams 1994: 225).

Patmore (1983: 122) refers to the countryside as having its own special appeal over and above its actual physical attributes. This is to say that the rural area is a prime area for leisure and tourism in modern societies therefore it becomes a social right to visit a countryside. Patmore (1983: 124) goes on to describe rural areas as a “wilderness, which can be seen as a public good since it offers restorative and psychological reward to a stressed urban-industrial life.” Katz and Kirkby (1991: 266) argue that rural tourism has a strong influence on rural communities. Rural tourism calls for ‘open access’ to private and public owned land in the countryside for development and use, the preservation of traditional countryside and a stronger control on outside interference from the local community. Since space is important to outdoor recreation it incorporates the need for water resources, beautiful landscapes and succulent greenery.

### **2.4.2 Local economic development (LED)**

Local economic development (LED) is defined as a process in which partnerships are established between local governments, the private sector and the community-based groups in order to manage existing resources for job creation as well as the stimulation of local economies (Helmsing 2001). According to Visser (2003: 116) tourism may constitute one of the leading driving forces of economic expansion in South Africa. One of the key objectives relates to tourism, which could assume a more developmental role especially in terms of the slow pace at which the tourism industry is transforming pro-poor tourism development. Binns and Nel (2002: 236) believe that in many areas of the world, the reality of economic crisis has provoked a search for locally driven and innovative growth alternatives, which are frequently referred to in literature as ‘local economic development’. Key features of LED are that it seeks to encourage economic growth and to diversify the local economic base into sectors that are usually quite different from those in which recent hardship has been experienced pertinent to communities undergoing economic change (Binns and Nel 2002: 236). Binns and Nel (2002: 239) also believe that tourism has come to be widely recognised by local authorities in South Africa as a mechanism through which development can be attained, yielding benefits for the host community. These authors have supported their beliefs with evidence found from the significant number of local authority applications received by the national LED fund to support tourism ventures, such as construction of traditional and cultural villages and craft centres.

According to Binns and Nel (2002: 235) the promotion of tourism has been identified as a key strategy that can lead to economic upliftment, community development and poverty relief in the development of rural areas in South Africa. The economic crisis in rural areas

has provoked a search for locally driven and innovative alternatives to growth, which are frequently referred to as 'local economic development' (LED). One key aim of LED is to encourage rural economic growth and to diversify the local economic base into sectors that are usually quite different from those in which recent hardships has been experienced in respect of to rural communities undergoing economic change in South Africa. Within this context, LED, in utilising local resources and skills, is recognised by government as a key vehicle for bringing about economic change and alleviating poverty. Since 1999 there has been growing support from central government for the support of a range of local tourism-led LED initiatives, particularly linked to goals of job creation and poverty alleviation in South Africa. Under the Local Economic Development fund (LEDF), an initiative which provides targeted funding to rural areas to encourage bottom-up community economic development as well as to foster entrepreneurship, many rural tourism projects have secured financing. An example is the ambitious LED project of Utrecht in Kwazulu-Natal where the entire settlement is surrounded by a game park and game farm in an attempt to create a major tourism destination (Binns and Nel 2002: 236-237).

Rogerson (2000: 402) has identified tourism as a key local economic development strategy in South Africa and as an anchor for growing local economies. Within South Africa, a wide range of localities is currently seeking to drive development through tourism promotion, often as an explicit part of their local economic development programmes. Such interventions tend to have a community/pro-poor focus. Rogerson (2002: 144) states that local economic development (LED) planning is of major importance especially with tourism as a lead sector for LED. He highlights the Highlands Meander as an initiative for tourism-led LED. In his findings of his research Rogerson (2002: 163) identified the benefits of tourism development through LED. The research discloses that there is much

scope for the enhancement of communities in geographically dispersed areas of South Africa. Binns and Nel (2002: 239) believe that tourism has come to be widely recognised by local authorities in South Africa as a mechanism through which development can be attained, yielding benefits for the host community. These authors have supported their beliefs with evidence found from the significant number of local authority applications received by the national LED fund to support tourism ventures, such as construction of traditional and cultural villages and craft centres.

In several South African rural areas, tourism is now targeted as an important element of local economic development programming. In the recent national survey of South African local authorities, tourism promotion was ranked as one of the most popular LED strategies across many rural areas. The theme of tourism as a lead sector for LED has been documented in South African research in both rural locations (Binns and Nel 2003). One of the most successful examples of tourism-driven local economic development (LED) in South Africa is a small coastal resort of Still Bay, which is situated in the southern coast of the Western Cape Province of South Africa. This small village of 4000 inhabitants has experienced rapid growth and expansion as a result of endeavours in tourism development. The support of the local community, local government and external development agencies provided the necessary resources for these projects. Job creation and overall standards of living was the main focus. Since Still Bay lacked adequate resources to solve its difficulties independently, it was realised that their only hope lie in tapping into a definable economic resource – in this case tourism, which was recognised as being a cash generator. Local stakeholders and the community clearly recognised that ‘the whole future of the village lay in tourism’ (Binns and Nel 2002: 241).



In a second case study of Utrecht, an abandoned mining town in KwaZulu-Natal, the local rural community was left devastated and unemployed at the closure of the mine. By 2000, the unemployment rate had reached 50%, businesses had closed and many families had left the town. With the introduction of tourism in the area, the local community demonstrated how a town faced up to its economic challenges in identifying and pursuing new economic orientations. Whilst the initiative is not as advanced as that in Still Bay, it still indicates the potential of tourism to serve as a development mechanism through which local economies can be re-orientated (Binns and Nel 2002: 243).

Ndlovu and Rogerson (2003: 124) assert that community-based tourism is of growing importance in the changing rural environment of South Africa. In terms of the local economic development (LED) strategy there exist a host of small towns and rural areas that are receiving the support of a range of national government programmes. An important distinction about tourism-led local economic development in South Africa is that a high proportion (as compared with their urban counterparts) of rural initiatives assume the form of community-based projects. Community-based tourism is becoming increasingly popular as a means of contributing to rural development in South Africa.

Ndlovu and Rogerson (2003: 125) further aver that in the South African context community-based tourism implies that a significant number of persons from the local community contribute to providing services to tourists from the tourism industry in which these people have a right to ownership and power, and therefore are able to participate in various tourism-led enterprises. In addition, local economic development through community-based initiatives stresses the importance of offering benefits to the local community who are directly involved in it. Rogerson (2006:41) state that at a local level of

implementation the objectives of LED initiatives towards poverty reduction have been geared broadly towards strengthening the asset base of poor communities and to expand their capabilities. At the core of this new sustainable paradigm is the importance of working with low-income communities and their organizations. The approach explicitly aims to link profitable growth and their organizations. It is stated that one of the six developmental LED strategies that should be supported is community-based economic development.

#### **2.4.3 Tourism and regional economic development**

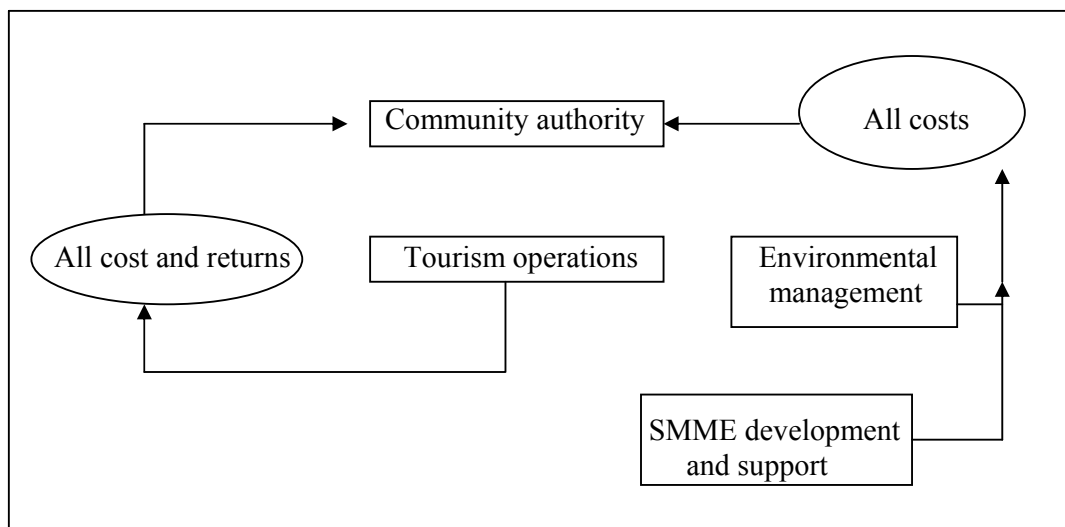
Cleverdon (2002: 7) examines the performance and profile of tourism in the Southern African Development Community (SADC). Data from the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) show that in respect of arrivals and receipts, Africa lags behind all other continents in fulfilling its tourism potential. In terms of the SADC region's tourism performance, South Africa has been far more advanced than the remaining countries. The 1990s saw strong growth in inbound tourism to South Africa both from intra-regional and interregional source markets. The pace of growth in tourism demand for other SADC countries is slower than that achieved in South Africa. SADC countries fall into one of three WTO regions: Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia, South Africa and Swaziland are in southern Africa; Malawi, Mauritius, Seychelles, Tanzania, Zambia and Zimbabwe are categorised in the eastern Africa subregion; and Angola and the Democratic Republic of Congo are in central Africa (Cleverdon 2002: 9).

Ferreira (2003: 37) looks at tourism development from a broader Southern African perspective, and views tourism for the promotion of self-sustaining development through

collective-reliance and interdependence of communities. The author contends that although the SADC countries share the same vision of sustainable utilisation of natural resources, the regional economy holds obstacles to such development as a result of poverty and inequality. From a tourist perspective, the boundaries between countries are disappearing. Southern Africa as a whole is now beginning to be seen as a single tourist destination. Westerners have been preaching tourism as a salvation for Africans for decades. She asserts that 'people don't come to Africa to see the cities and the factories and the farms, they want to see the buffaloes and the elephants'. One of the advantages of having a shared Trans-frontier development of parks with the SADC regions is to increase economic opportunities through tourism and promote closer links between local communities whose cultures and traditional land areas have been divided by borders (Ferreira 2003: 39). Rogerson (2003: 33) also adds that cross-border cooperation can be significant for the mutual strengthening of the tourism between South Africa and the SADC countries. With growing interest towards regional integration through SADC the region of Southern Africa is emerging as an important focus for cross-border regional initiatives for tourism development in South Africa. Rogerson (2003: 34) refers to the origins of Spatial Development Initiatives (SDI) programmes that were introduced as an approach to fast track plans of tourism investment-led growth and development in various spatial locations in Southern Africa. It is argued that the regional SDI programme is designed to make African countries more attractive to investors and more competitive in global markets. In the following section eco-tourism will be discussed as a key available source of tourism in rural areas.

Koch, de Beer and Elliffe (1998: 813) present a conceptual model for promoting local empowerment in the tourism-led SDI. In terms of the model based on communal land, the

option exists for the communities as controllers of the land to assume full responsibility for the development of all infrastructure services and facilities normally associated with tourism development. In such a model (figure 2.1) the local community would be responsible for mobilising the necessary infrastructure, facilities and services, as well as to assume responsibility for environmental management (the state would remain responsible for the regulatory framework) and small, medium and micro-enterprise (SMME) development and support.



**Figure 2.1 Tourism model on communal empowerment (Koch et al. 1998: 813)**

This alternative is potentially empowering to the community in that it has full control of decision-making, full responsibility for all operations and receives all profits and/or is accountable for all losses.

#### **2.4.4 Eco-tourism (ecological tourism)**

The International Eco-tourism Society (2006) defines eco-tourism as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people.

This means that those who implement and participate in eco-tourism activities should follow the following principles: minimize impact, build environmental and cultural awareness and respect, provide positive experiences for both visitors and hosts, provide direct financial benefits for conservation, provide financial benefits to empower local communities, raise sensitivity to host countries' political, environmental, and social climate, and support international human rights and labour agreements.

According to Theobald (1994:261) eco-tourism is the main component of tourism in rural areas. Fauna and flora, the geographical landscape, rivers, valleys, lakes, mountains, the ocean and the total ecosystem enclose rural areas. The vast reserves of natural habitats in rural regions makes eco-tourism the most important part of the tourism industry. Theobald (1994:262) further emphasises that there is desire among a rapidly growing and relatively affluent segment of the industrialised world's tourists to have nature-based experiences.

Eco-tourism, based on ecological resources such as flora, fauna and natural beauty, is commonly seen as one of the instruments that can be used for rural development as well as conservation (Cowling 1993: 3). should not be ignored. If eco-tourism is properly managed, it is a very powerful means of justifying conservation as a means to the sustainable creation of wealth. Ziffer (1989: 3) also emphasises the conservation role which eco-tourism can play and sees it as a kind of management approach. Ceballos-Lascurain (1989: 5) suggests that ecological tourism implies a scientific, aesthetic or philosophical approach. The person who practices eco-tourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in such a way that most people in urban areas cannot enjoy. Boo (1990:31) and Lindberg (1991:55) define eco-tourism as tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated nature areas with the specific

objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals. Eco-tourism development is also viewed as the process of change that is necessary to reach a symbiosis between nature conservation, sustainable socio-economic development and nature tourism (Boo 1990: 32). Sace, Grifone and Usher (1992: 88) and Wight (1994: 123) also suggest that eco-tourism is nature travel that actually contributes to conservation.

Perhaps an even more compelling component/or dimension of eco-tourism in this definition is the notion of 'spirituality' (Jaakson 1997: 34). He suggests that many of the definitions of eco-tourism leave out the human component, which is the spiritual. Accordingly, eco-tourism has a human dimension of deep spirituality, which is the motivation, consciousness or sub-consciousness for all eco-tourism travel. The spirituality is akin to the travel of devout pilgrims to worship at sacred and holy sites. Eco-tourism in pristine natural site is where nature is the sacred holy site. Eco-tourism is an *ethic* and that makes eco-tourism different from other types of tourism. Sace et al. (1992: 88) are of the view that the world of eco-tourism has witnessed a move away from the gun (hunting) to the camera over the last few decades. There is growing understanding among hosts and guests alike that the resource base on which eco-tourism depends must be protected if these sites are to last over a long term. Many tourists are becoming more sophisticated and reflect an ecological ethic in their needs and desires. In addition, local rural communities and their cultures are gaining recognition as part of the ecosystem. As a result their needs and welfare is increasingly recognised when considering development of new eco-tourism sites.

Eco-tourism, according to the World Tourism Organization (WTO), is any form of tourism to an unspoilt nature area. This type of tourism is responsible for 20% of the world's total tourism expenditure and is rated the fastest growing of all tourism sectors. It is also noted

that 80% of nature tourism in South Africa is taking place on privately owned land such as game farms. This form of eco-tourism is an important world product and a pull-factor for international as well as local tourists (Van der Merwe 2003: 112).

Eco-tourism is widely assumed to serve a dual role. It is a mechanism for the maintenance of biodiversity while offering an opportunity for community empowerment and participation in development (Kerley 2003: 13). Kerley (2003: 21) further suggest that the quality of wildlife viewing may be significantly improved through the use of guides. Guiding offers an opportunity to expand the community involvement (through empowering them as game rangers) and through the environmental education components of eco-tourism.

Given that eco-tourism is an integrated option, it presents a highly positive alternative for livelihood diversification, economic and social benefit and biodiversity conservation. Eco-tourism relies upon landscape, its biotic and abiotic components, its energy and nutrient cycle, as well as its visible and non-visible components. Eco-tourism can sustain and protect dependent relationships and manipulate them to provide multi-dimensional support for local and rural communities providing a win-win situation. While eco-tourism is also sensitive to the environment, it has the added dimensions of a strong community focus and the interaction and enlightenment of the eco-tourism.

Wight (1994:24) provides the following principles on which the eco-tourism experience must be constructed:

- It should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner

- It should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to local community and industry (benefits may be conservation, scientific, social, cultural or economic)
- It should provide first-hand, participatory and enlightening experiences
- It should involve education among all parties-local communities, government, non-governmental organizations, industry and tourist (before, during and after the trip)
- It should encourage all-party recognition of the intrinsic values of the resources
- It should involve acceptance of the resource on its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involves supply-orientated management
- It should involve understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could include government, non-governmental organizations, industry, scientists and local (both before and during operations)
- It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviours towards the natural and cultural environment by all players (Wight 1994: 39-40).

Eco-tourism has been called the leisure industry, but it has the opportunity to broaden its contribution to society and become a prime economic agent for the socio-economic development of the rural environments, natural environments and cultural heritage (Evetts 2003: 67).

#### **2.4.5 Tradition and culture**

Kaplan (2000: 41) explains that a large part of rural tourism is about contact with others' traditions and cultures and learning about others' way of life. Traditional and cultural tourism, which is more associated with the traditional beliefs of rural communities, is constantly growing as more and more tourists seek to interact with other cultures and broaden their knowledge and personal experience base. More and more therefore, it is found that culture is viewed as an asset that communities own and that can be marketed in a way that creates employment and attract investment. Pearce and Moscardo's (2000: 416) view is that traditional and cultural tourism has the potential to restore the past and its



history, revitalise arts, skills, foster creativity and allow communities to present themselves positively.

Lubbe (2003: 87) observes that Africa has a wonderful diversity of traditions and cultures. There are many different tribes and nations, each with fascinating customs, traditions and ways of living. In South Africa there is a wide variety of cultures and indigenous people from the east and west, and people from the rest of Africa. Lubbe (2003) posed a number of possible research agendas in terms of how South Africans can present the unique traditional and cultural characteristics of the country to tourists and to provide a better definition of rural tourism in terms of its cultural heritage.

According to McIntosh, Goeldner and Ritchie (2001: 67) traditional and cultural tourism covers all aspects of travel where tourists learn about each other's way of life and thought. This will include sites, which can be classified into the following categories: traditional living styles, prehistoric, contemporary festivals, commemorations and entertainment. Weaver and Oppermann (2000: 69) propose that the various expressions of tradition and culture are described as traditional-cultural factors. These traditional-cultural factors include arts and crafts, architecture, historic ruins, dancing, festivals, dress, cuisine, language and religion. It is also vital that communities be encouraged to actively maintain and nurture their own cultures and traditions lest they become obsolete. Traditional and cultural tourism actively markets that which makes a community unique. Many tourists are interested in the way things are, which is why traditional people with their cultural villages and traditional museums are popular (Behoo and Prentice 2002: 75). Davidson (2003: 88) believes that traditional and cultural tourism confers a number of benefits on those who are involved with it or experience it. For the host community, it brings development to the

area. Cultural tourism develops and promotes the economic stability of the area. It develops a close union of its members because the members of that culture see and understand each other better, a necessity for joint participation. Culture tourism enhances and strengthens the identity of members of a cultural group, thus contributing to their happiness and wellbeing.

Lubbe (2003: 23) cites Keisha Lodge, on the Tugela River in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, as an example where culture has been developed and protected, to be used as a form of rural tourism. Anthropologists were asked to help the rural communities re-learn traditional dances, which had been lost over time. These dances have since become a valuable part of the entertainment programme offered to tourists. A study conducted by Pearce and Moscardo (2000: 126) revealed that traditional and cultural tourists seek both information and direct encounters, which involve participation. These tourists are looking for information about the history of the people, their traditional lifestyle, how such people are living now, arts and crafts, dances, authentic or traditional cuisine (food) and in addition, actual direct contact with indigenous communities and participation in traditional activities. The following excerpt is an example of a tourist attraction where most of the elements, identified by Pearce and Moscardo (2000: 127), are available to tourists.

### **Warriors, maidens and sticks**

The sights and sounds of Africa's fiercest warrior nation, the Zulu, come alive during a visit to the village of Phumangena, uMuzi, situated near the Heia Safari Ranch, 45 km from Johannesburg.

Phumangena is an authentic Zulu village, built entirely from traditional materials imported from Zululand. The village is an important attraction because it highlights the art of building the distinctive 'beehive' huts, now slowly being lost as Zulu's opt for more Westernised lifestyles. Guests at Phumangena are able to study the traditional Zulu way of life at first hand by observing Zulu customs and rituals. They are given opportunities to watch

skilled craftspeople weave baskets and create pottery, beadwork and traditional jewellery. They also experience the whole ambience by spending a night in one of the Zulu traditional huts.

The highlight of an evening visit is the cultural entertainment provided by Zulu maidens and warriors who re-enact dances that date back to the time of King Shaka. The pounding drums, the rhythmic dancing, and the stamping feet make a powerful and unforgettable impression.

A dramatic stick fight, which shows how warriors train for combat, is genuine in every respect. This spectacle alone is worth the price of the visit. A 'referee' is appointed to stop the fight and prevent injuries whenever these warriors become over-exuberant.

After the performance, home-brewed-beer (*tshwala-a unique taste experience*), is served by Zulu maidens and one is offered a meal that has been cooked over open fires (Pearce and Moscardo 2000: 127).

#### **2.4.6 Tourism, empowerment and community participation in development**

Rahman (1993: 75) defines a community as a group of people who share physical and social space, making them aware of individual, family and community strengths and needs to help them to create informal social support in cooperation with professional helpers in order to prevent social problems. Empowerment, Rahman (1993) contends, can be described as the process of increasing personal, interpersonal and political power, enabling individuals or collectives to improve their situation. Empowerment increases the energy, motivation, coping and problem-solving skills, decision-making power, self-esteem, self-sufficiency and self-determination of community members.

According to Thwala (2004: 18) empowerment means enabling poor communities to build their capacity and the confidence to succeed at development in an effective and sustainable manner. It is a means by which the community develops consensus. It is open, transparent, managed and perpetuated by the community. He adds that community empowerment means far more than having an access to social grants by donors and government. Capacity building needs to be strengthened and built. The approach should be learning by doing and

building capacity through experience, which allows space through trial and error. Expertise is best found in local knowledge and know-how.

Thwala (2004: 18) also defines and explains community participation as a process through which stakeholders influence and share control over development initiatives, and the decisions and resources which affect them. Community participation is created when a community process is created by a team of facilitators who do the equivalent of holding mirrors up to the participants so that their own thoughts, ideas and visions are shared and converge into a single, powerful beam of community purpose. It brings both direction and unity of purpose to the community. It is used to guide the community's energies in synergistic paths towards vision, planning actions towards its vision and then implementing these visions through a process of monitoring and assessment of community progress. He regards facilitation more a skill that is required through learning by doing and which can become readily available. At the most basic level, community empowerment and participation in development is fundamentally designed to educate people through a process of skill development, forging the community's capacity to facilitate lasting community autonomy and strength. Thwala (2004) suggests that community development "is a process for empowerment and transformation" of individuals and communities.

Levi and Litwin (1986: 25) regard community participation as the creation of a democratic system and procedure to enable community members to become actively involved and to take responsibility for their own development, to share equally in the fruits of community development and to improve their decision-making power. Community participation provides a sense of belonging or identity, a commitment to common norms, a willingness to take responsibility for oneself and others, and a readiness to share and interact.

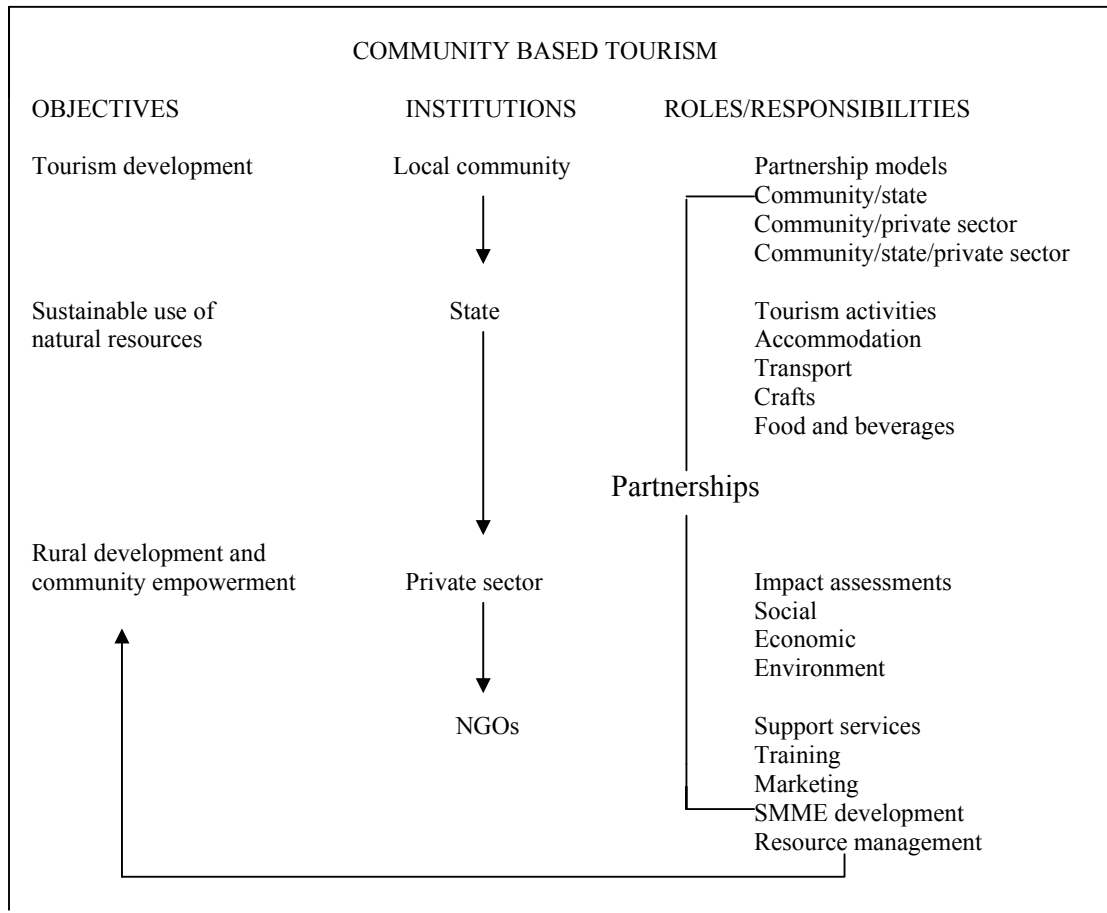
Abbot (1995: 158) contends that the term community development was seen to be synonymous with the term community participation. Community development is defined as a process designed to create conditions of economic and social process for the whole community with its active participation (Thwala 2004: 19). Some writers, including Abbot (1995), see community development as a form of participation, whereas others like Checkoway (1995: 2) see participation as part of community development. The objective of community development is to build individual skills and community solidarity. It encourages the community's self-reliance and builds confidence in the community's ability to control its ultimate destiny. In a pure community development approach, the chief goal is to increase the capacity of the community using a concrete project such as the development of a tourism destination in rural areas (Reid and van Dreunen 1996: 49).

According to Munster (2003: 18) rural community education should be effected at the primary education and training level to achieve the widest support for current and future community members to participate in skill development. This is done by obtaining funding for tourism ventures, and then direct tourism funds towards education of local individuals to create people of expertise such as wildlife officials, conservation officers and tourism managers (Munster 2003: 22).

Culpan (1987), whose model for Community Based Tourism (CBT) (figure 2.1) is still being widely used, views community based tourism in rural areas as the community's participation in the design and decision-making process, the management and administration of tourism and related activities and operations. The main objective is to involve people in the process of their own development and give them more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. Culpan (1987) states that the concept of

community participation in tourism in South Africa is still in its infancy while there is a lack of coherent regional plan for rural tourism development, which specifically caters for community based tourism. A plan of action in respect to community participation in tourism has never been written. Uncertainty and lack of guidance have resulted in a number of blockages. Culpan (1987) further explains that the development of a successful tourism strategy depends on a number of crucial elements, which must be incorporated into a well-planned strategy. This is best done within a conceptual framework analysis. It conceptualises the various elements that affects community based tourism, and provides a focus for adopting a more integrated approach to the design and implementation of community based tourism projects (figure 2.1). This research therefore proposes a CBT framework similar to that of Culpan (1987) for the development of rural areas in South Africa.

Culpan (1987) defines community-based tourism as the use of a community's resources, both cultural and natural, for tourism activities in order to promote socio-economic development and provide local rural communities with income resources, to encourage community commitment to the natural environment and its resource base in terms of its sustainable use. Finally, to involve rural communities in their own development by giving them more opportunities (empowerment) to participate (participation) in the design and decision-making process, which includes the management and administration of tourism and related activities and operations. In this way it ensures a degree of ownership by the community in the development process and operations. Beyl (2002-2003: 64) regards community-based tourism in rural areas as a means of promoting economic development in a geographically equitable manner and creating job opportunities that match the skills of the local people in a given area.



**Figure 2.2: Community-Based Tourism (CBT): A conceptual framework (Culpan 1987).**

Cernea (1991) also describes community's participation in tourism in rural development as giving more opportunities to participate effectively in development activities. His explanation goes further to include empowerment of communities to mobilize their own capacities (empowerment and capacity building), be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions and control the activities, which affect their lives.

Pimbert and Pretty (1997: 25) argue that in the case of rural development, a shift occurred in the 1990s when communities began taking an active interest in development. Today, participation is regarded as the local people's active involvement in managing rural area development. These authors support the view that without this involvement rural development has little chance of success. The differing interpretations of the term participation are reflected in Pretty's (1995: 67) typology of participation. Drawing on a range of ways that development organizations interpret and use the term participation, Pretty (1995) divided participation into seven different types (Table 2.2), allowing for differing degrees of external involvement and community control in the development process. He describes the level of community involvement and offers a critique for each type of participation. The spectrum of participation extends from passive participation, in which local communities possess no power or control over the development process where external bodies make unilateral decisions. Through self-mobilization, local communities have complete control over development activities and take initiatives independent of these external bodies or institutions. In the case of self-mobilization, external consultants provide support services to the community but have no control over the development process. Active participation of local communities in the decision-making process is a characteristic of only the interactive participation and self-mobilization types. It is therefore imperative that when the term participation is used in development, its specific application needs to be clarified, and there should be a shift in focus from the more common passive, consultative and incentive-driven participation towards the interactive end of the spectrum.

According to Reid (2000: 36) there must be "bottom up" and participatory approaches to ensure that community needs are assessed and community support drives the process.



Given that communities are sceptical to such intervention, they must participate in both creating and realizing concrete, obtainable goals, which directly benefit local communities. Jones (1996: 56) believes that there should be participatory workshops for rural adults involved in developmental issues. Such workshops could play a critical role in presenting empowerment and participation in tourism as an option for sustaining a living. The workshops could emphasise the sustainable relationships between culture and socio-economic needs (medicine, foodstuffs, hunting and daily travel for resource collection).

The potential benefits of involvement in tourism should be introduced to the community with emphasis on community-based and community-determined priorities (e.g. water, health care, food, security and education). Jones (1996: 4) also agrees that in the implementation of community-based tourism projects, the relationship and capacity of institutions are crucial for the success or failure of a project. This means that there is a need for a partnership between different institutions and stakeholders in the successful design and implementation of community based tourism projects. Partnerships need to be promoted because without interest and joint action to achieve goals, institutions will not cooperate and undermine each other. Jones (1996) concludes that the development of a successful community based tourism strategy will require a sound institutional framework based on a constructive partnership between the local community, state, the private sector and Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs).

**Table 2.2: Typology of participation**

	Topology	Comments
1	Passive Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participation is limited to be told what is going to or what has already happened</li> <li>* People's responses are not taken into account</li> <li>* Information belongs only to external professionals</li> </ul>
2	Participation in information giving	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participation is limited to provision of information in response to questionnaires, surveys etc. designed by external agents</li> <li>* Findings of the research are not shared with the people- consequently they have no influence on proceedings</li> </ul>
3	Participation by consulting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participation involves consultation with local people</li> <li>* They may take into account people's views during this process, but are not obliged to do so</li> </ul>
4	Participation for material incentives	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participate by contributing resources (e.g. labour) in return for food, cash or other material incentive</li> <li>* Farmers may provide fields and labour but are not involved in the experimentation or the process of learning</li> <li>* This is often called participation, but people have no stake</li> <li>* This is often called participation, but people have no stake in prolonging activities when the incentives end</li> </ul>
5	Functional participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participate by forming groups to meet specific objectives related to the project</li> <li>* Involvement may be interactive but tends to arise later in the project cycle after major decisions have been made</li> <li>* Institutions formed tend to depend on external facilitators, but may become self dependent</li> </ul>
6	Interactive participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participate in joint analysis, development of action plans and creation or strengthening of local institutions</li> <li>* Participation is seen as a right and not only as a means of achieving projects goals</li> <li>* It tends to involve interdisciplinary methodologies that seek multiple perspectives and make use of systematic and structured learning processes</li> <li>* Local groups take control of local decision making and determine how resources are to be used giving them a stake in maintaining structures or practices</li> </ul>
7	Self-mobilization	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>* People participate by taking initiatives independent of external institutions or change systems</li> <li>* They develop contacts with external institutions for advice and resources, but retain control of the use of resources</li> <li>* Self-mobilization and collective action may or may not challenge existing inequitable distributions of wealth and power</li> </ul>

Source: Pretty (1995: 5)

Ceballos-Lascurain's (1989: 27) view is that opportunities for community involvement include ownership of tourism facilities through shared equity management and associated employment opportunities (for example, taxi drivers, tavern owners, tour operators, marketers, trainers, booking agents, laundry workers, curio and craft sellers, construction workers, vegetable and fruit producers and farmers). Local communities often possess immense natural and cultural knowledge of their local rural environment. With some basic training they can become efficient entrepreneurs and employees of rural tourism projects.

King and Stewart (1996: 293) have a different view of the community's involvement. They view the community as competent and resourceful with access to information and resources, which enables them to make informed decisions. This is not always the case. Initially, due to a lack of experience, the community will not be competent to undertake most of the tasks required of it. Community initiatives will never be successful without adequate support services. It is the task of all the stakeholders to see to it that such services are put into place. Areas that need special attention are training, capacity building, business skills, access to finance, negotiating skills, marketing, natural resource management, and monitoring and evaluation of tourism projects (King and Stewart 1996: 293).

#### **2.4.7 Role of communities in tourism development**

McIntyre, Hetherington and Inskip (1993: 50) states that communities must organise themselves at all levels (national, provincial and local) to play a more effective role in development, and interact with government and role-players at all levels. They must be able to identify potential tourism resources and attractions within their communities and support and promote responsible tourism and sustainable development. They should be

eager participants in decision-making with respect to major tourism developments planned and proposed for the area.

Kepe (2004: 45) proposes that communities should play a proactive role ensuring positive benefits from rural tourism. Communities should work closely with Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) to educate others in the community concerning rural tourism projects. Rural women also have a particularly important role to play in development. The employment of women can be a fundamental determinant of the development impacts of rural tourism. As householders and mentors, women can generate awareness of the potential of tourism in rural areas to stimulate community growth and development. They can actively assist in shaping a thriving tourism industry in rural areas as policy makers, entrepreneurs, entertainers, travel agents, tour guides, game rangers, restaurateurs, drivers, guest-house operators and even managers. They can organize themselves at the implementation of community projects that could have positive environmental, social and economic impacts. Rural women can secure the provision of craft training and other opportunities to expand their skill base (Wickens and Briedenhann 2004: 71).

Tourism in rural areas can also provide an opportunity for men and women to work closely together. The potential employment impact of the tourism industry on both men and women in rural areas can considerably improve family life. The urban drift among men who migrate to cities and mines in search of employment has a deleterious impact on rural women who continue to suffer from hard labour in the rural fields, with poor access to basic needs and infrastructure. Tourism activities in which both men and women are active participants can alleviate the burden and hardship of the people in rural areas (Wickens and Briedenhann 2004: 72). According to Lea (1988: 78), tourism in rural areas can provide

job opportunities, no matter how little and help to facilitate the upliftment of rural communities.

## **2.5 Tourism development in South Africa**

Rogerson and Visser (2004: 26) reflect on student research into the South African tourism system. These authors contend that despite the expansion in tourism activity in South Africa, research into the dynamics of tourism research has just recently become a serious site of academic reflection. Despite extraordinary growth of tourism since the emergency of democracy as well as the policy prominence provided to tourism by government, a review of published academic research into the South African tourism system reveals that disappointingly very little research has been undertaken. Although repeated calls for greater research into the tourism system is crucial to the development of tourism, this has largely been ignored in academic circles. Despite the dearth of information on the South African tourism system, these authors claim that a significant body of student-generated research is developing locally. More specifically, South African graduate students are starting to contribute to academic reflections on local tourism.

Rogerson and Visser (2004: 27) reflect on the definition of tourism in the context of tourism, tourism studies and tourism geography. They define tourism as the study of people away from their usual habitat and the industry which responds to their needs. It also refers to the impacts of both people and the industry on the host's socio-economic, cultural and physical environment. This definition is central to geographical analysis where geographers might regard tourism as an obvious field of tourism geography research. Crucial to this issue is that geographers are interested in the processes that create and shape the places where people live. Geographers aim to understand the relationship between

people which is fundamental to an understanding of tourism processes. As far as tourism is concerned, geographers are concerned with tourism infrastructure and the people who shape their socio-economic places. Indeed, an understanding of why and how tourism impacts on these places is the theme for most geographers' contribution to tourism research.

Another contention is that most geographers are at the forefront of tourism studies, not only in the production of research papers in journals, but also increasingly in the production of textbooks. At the postgraduate level, student research into tourism has become a key focus. Although research into tourism geography is vibrant internationally, the same cannot be said in the South African context. Despite certain emerging interest in tourism research it constitutes only a fraction of the current research output at South African institutions of higher learning. A total of 16 doctoral and 145 masters' theses focused on tourism in South Africa in the period 1971-2002. Whereas geographers produced the first tourism research theses on the South African tourism system, only three of the subsequent doctorates awarded at local universities were written from the discipline of geography (Rogerson and Visser 2004: 30).

The reformist government under the leadership of FW de Klerk and the end of white minority rule led to a tourism boom in the first part of the 1990s and an expansion of the tourism system. It is in this context that the starting point of the current growth in graduate student research in South Africa arose. Although most South African universities have produced theses and dissertations on tourism between 1971-2002, the University of Stellenbosch has produced the largest amount (29) of graduate work on tourism. Most of the theses were produced at historically white Afrikaans universities while a further

noticeable trend is the absence of graduate tourism research at historically black universities. The University of South Africa according to Rogerson and Visser (2004: 56) has produced zero Masters dissertation and only one doctoral thesis on tourism since 2002.

South African tourism geography has closely followed issues to investigate the economic, social and environmental impacts of tourism. A range of studies have emerged that focused on nature-based tourism and its linkages to rural development, community participation and tourism development, the role of cultural and historical tourism in development (Rogerson and Visser 2004: 61). Finally, Rogerson and Visser (2004: 63) contend that tourism-focused post-graduate research is steadily gaining prominence at South African institutions of higher education. Nevertheless, it is overwhelming that student research is contributing towards addressing the current backlog of research into South African tourism systems, which should be grounds for some excitement.

### **2.5.1 Pro-poor tourism**

South Africa has to look at avenues to meet the challenges facing the country. These challenges can become new opportunities for development. Because of its immediate appeal to the wealthier part of the global market, one such opportunity is development through tourism. In the South African context one of the most distinguishing facets of South Africa is the strong commitment made towards the tourism sector assuming a developmental role. In a comparative international review, South Africa is regarded as the most active government in Africa in terms of shifting towards a pro-poor policy stance. Pro-poor tourism is tourism that generates net benefits to the poor and seeks to ensure that tourism growth contributes to poverty reduction. In order to realize potential gains from tourism for local communities, it is contended that tourism development needs to be

reoriented according to the interests of the local community. Pro-poor tourism is not a specific product or sector of tourism but rather an overall approach that aims to unlock opportunities for economic gain by the poor (Ashley and Roe 2002).

During 2004, the tourism economy was recognized as a key contributor to national employment creation, gross domestic product (GDP) and foreign exchange earnings. Tourism is the only sector for the period 1998-2002 that shows positive growth in both employment and contribution to GDP. Since the export earnings calculated from tourism surpassed that of gold exports, tourism has become 'the new gold' for the South African economy (Monitor 2004). To support the involvement of poor rural communities in the tourism economy, national government has innovated a series of interventions, including support through the Poverty Relief Fund for the provision of infrastructure investment and new product development and additional support for rural infra-structural development through the programme for Spatial Development Initiatives. Another support measure relates to the search for new market niches and development of new tourism products involving poor communities with special focus in rural areas on cultural tourism and handicrafts (Jansen van Veuren 2001). Promotion of small businesses and the informal sector as well as community involvement in tourism is an important component of the activities of these enterprises (Kirsten and Rogerson 2002). A dedicated support programme, the Tourism Enterprise Programme, for providing advice and expertise and expertise to emerging tourism entrepreneurs has been established with funding support from both the private sector and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. Further, the improvement of the skills base of poor communities through various training initiatives is another critical pro-poor policy in rural areas (Kaplan 2004). At present, it is evident that the majority of pro-poor tourism interventions in South Africa are operating in



rural, rather than urban areas and most commonly linked to project initiatives around nature-based tourism. The developments taking place around Madikwe Game Reserve in South Africa's North West Province, offer a good rural example of pro-poor tourism and of maximizing linkages to local economic development (Poultney and Spenceley 2001).

Mearns (2003: 30) views community-based tourism as tourism initiatives that are owned by one or more defined communities, or run as joint venture partnerships with the private sector with an equitable amount of participation by the community themselves, through the use of natural resources to improve their standard of living. Mearns (2003: 31) believes that community-based tourism should not be seen as an end in itself, but as a means of empowering poor rural communities to take control of their land and resources, to tap their potential and to acquire the necessary skills in their own development. Local communities view tourism as an accessible form of development to improve their standards of living through improved health and education. Tourism is often perceived as the best option for rural communities to achieve such development. Tourism is also perceived as an industry with the potential to provide rural communities with job opportunities, income and economic diversity. KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa boasts a wide range of tourist attractions and as a result, tourism development and community empowerment are the main concepts for rural economic development. Tourism development is earmarked to eliminate rural poverty by economically empowering marginalized and local communities through employment, gender equity and skill development.

Kibirige (2003: 23) purports that the Province of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa boasts a wide range of tourist attractions and as a result, tourism development and community empowerment are the major focus for economic development. She also believes that

tourism provides rural communities with job opportunities, income and economic diversity. Kibirige (2003: 24) further asserts that tourism development in KwaZulu-Natal is earmarked to eliminate rural poverty by economically empowering marginalized and local communities through employment, equity and entrepreneurship. Tourism development depends on the involvement of private sector and government investment being channelled to poor rural communities.

Many rural communities regard tourism as an economic development strategy. Most studies reveal that rural residents are positive towards tourism development. It is perceived to have positive effects on community development and therefore improves their quality of life (Kibirige 2003: 25). In her concluding remarks to her case study on the Mpembeni community, Kibirige (2003: 27) argues that her examination of the socio-economic impacts of tourism on this rural community showed that they benefited to some extent from various means. These include job opportunities, income generation, good working relations and joint problem-solving ventures. Finally, her study reveals that tourism has the potential to contribute to the socio-economic development of rural communities. She advises us that tourism should not be looked upon as an immediate remedy for rural development, but instead should be regarded as part of a larger development strategy regionally. Communities are expected to put in place more organised ceremonies and activities to serve as tourist attractions. This will foster poverty alleviation and empowerment of the disadvantaged rural community (Kibirige 2003: 27).

In another case study, involving the community of Maputaland, Ngubane and Diab (2005: 120) state that all stakeholders recognised this rural area to be one of the prime tourist destinations in KwaZulu-Natal based on its rich biodiversity and cultural attractions. It was

recorded in their case study that tourism was a new concept for the local community. Through the process of participating in workshops and information sharing with other communities and stakeholders, the local community could learn and develop their environment.

Berman (2000-2001: 22) is of the opinion that the tourism industry is a potential source of growth and employment due to the fact that it is relatively labour intensive and requires relatively few imported inputs. It is a major potential source of foreign exchange earnings. However Berman (2000-2001: 22) sounds a note of caution on the issue of job creation. He suggests that tourism's potential in terms of job creation may be more limited than appears at first glance. Tourism is a trade that is peculiarly vulnerable to unexpected shocks. One highly publicised crime can halt a hard-won and lucrative flow of hard-currency tourists to South African tourism destinations. According to Ferreira and Harmse (1999: 246-247) the largest concentrations of serious crimes in South Africa, such as murder, armed robbery and rape, are to be found in Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape. According to these authors, a 'no-go area for a tourist is defined as an area with an existing high crime profile, together with a history of attacks against tourists. Gauteng, (Johannesburg), KwaZulu-Natal (Durban and Umgababa) and the Western Cape (Cape Town) are where most of these no-go areas are found. Despite these words of caution, foreign visitors were estimated to have generated some R7, 1 billion between January and June 2000. The tourism industry's contribution to GDP had grown by some 2,2% a year since 1994 and in June 2000 it employed 574236 people (Berman 2000-2001: 188).

Referring to Burger (2005: 581-582), tourism is South Africa's fastest growing industry and contributes about 7,1% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). South Africa is the

fastest-growing tourism destination in the world, with 6,4 million tourists having travelled to the country during 2002 alone. Overseas arrivals increased by 20,1% (just over 1,8 million) during 2002. All of South Africa's key markets indicated high-digit growth for the year, with Europe up 24,2% and North America up 9,2%. There was also an increase of 20,7% in travel from Asia, and 14,5% from Australia. Africa, contributing the bulk of foreign arrivals into South Africa (1,06 million) grew by 2,1% with close to 35 000 additional arrivals from Kenya, identified as one of South Africa's key emerging markets. It also reports that tourism employs an estimated 3% of South Africa's workforce, and is regarded potentially the largest provider of jobs and earner of foreign exchange.

By early 2003, some R232 million had been committed and spent on tourism-development projects aimed at creating jobs and alleviating poverty in South Africa. Almost R69 million had been invested in poverty-relief funding in respect of tourism. By 2003, poverty-relief funding stood at a total of R290, 6 million. These poverty-relief projects promote the development of community-owned tourism ventures and products, such as lodges and the development of tourism infrastructure, including roads, information centres and tourism signage. These projects are categorised into product development, infrastructure development, capacity building and training, the establishment of small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMES), and business-development projects. It is projected that in 2010, the South African tourism economy will employ more than 1,2 million people directly or indirectly.

A database of black-owned tourism enterprises was compiled to assist government departments with meeting affirmative procurement targets. A public-private tourism transformation forum to promote Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) was established,

with representatives from the Departments of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Trade and Industry, Labour, the Tourism Business Council, the Development Bank of Southern Africa and the Industrial Development Corporation. Other initiatives launched by the Department in 2002 to promote tourism included the formulation of an information booklet outlining the funding opportunities and assistance programmes available to small, medium and micro-enterprises (Burger 2005: 583). In 2000, the State President launched the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy (ISRDP) with tourism as one of the forerunners in response to concerns about the stagnation and decline of rural areas, and rising unemployment levels (South Africa 2000).

The fastest-growing segment of tourism in South Africa is eco-tourism (ecological tourism), which includes nature photography, bird watching, botanical studies, snorkelling, hiking and mountaineering. National and provincial parks in South Africa, as well as private game reserves, involve local communities in the maintenance of natural resources. These communities are not only benefiting financially from eco-tourism, but are also becoming aware of the importance of conserving the resources for their future livelihood. The high foreign-exchange value of eco-tourism enables significant economic value to be assigned to rural communities who view eco-tourism as a means to sustaining a living. Community developed tourism has become increasingly popular, with tourists wanting to experience South Africa in the many rural villages and townships across the country (Burger 2005: 584).

Mafunzwaini and Hugo (2005: 1) contend that tourism offers rural areas in South Africa an opportunity to revitalize itself through the diversification of economic activities. More and more people have been visiting and appreciating rural areas. These visits have encouraged

many rural communities to change their area's image and aggressively market their rural heritage to tourists. Mafunzwaini and Hugo (2005: 1) add that many rural communities and the government in particular have come to realise the economic benefit that accrues to rural areas from tourism development. However, not every rural community and rural area or government have taken advantage of this tourism product. This is particularly true of the South African rural sector and government who have yet to capitalise fully on tourism as a development tool. Mafunzwaini and Hugo (2005: 2) describe rural areas as having a special appeal to tourists because of their distinct cultural, traditional, historic, ethnic and geographic characteristics. Special attention is also given to tourism development in rural areas, where wildlife and indigenous traditions and cultures provide numerous opportunities for rural socio-economic development.

Rural areas in South Africa are one of the leading destinations for the environmental tourist. These areas offer abundant and varied wildlife, bushveld and savanna plains, mountain ranges, deserts, subtropical forests, coastlines, wilderness trails, rural settlements, orchards and vineyards, plantations and much more. They have a resource base that supports the campaign to uplift local communities. While South Africa is one of the world's most beautiful and environmentally rich countries, millions of its people – in townships, shack settlements and most especially in rural areas – live in degraded and unhealthy conditions because of abject poverty. Socio-economic justice is still very much a prominent issue despite the ending of apartheid and the significant progress that has been made since 1994 in providing clean water, electricity and waste and sanitation services (Harrison 2004: 7).

### **2.5.2 Rural tourism projects**

Mahoney and van Zyl (2001) had undertaken significant research both internationally and locally on tourism development and its impacts on the empowerment of rural communities. They analysed the extent to which three tourism projects in South Africa, namely the Makuleke Bungalows, the Umngazi and the Manyeleti Game Reserve have improved the livelihoods of rural communities and contributed to rural socio-economic development. The research draws specific attention to tourism development in rural areas, where the comparative advantages of wildlife and indigenous tradition and culture provide numerous opportunities for rural tourism development and sustainable economic growth. In the first case study, the Makuleke is a community-based initiative where the community has ownership of land that is a valuable tourism resource and has entered into partnership with the state and private sector to secure economic growth and benefits to the local community. Interest mainly lies in the first case study because of its relevance to this research in which communities are involved. The other two cases, Umngazi and Manyeleti, are private sector initiatives and partnership agreements respectively (Mahoney and van Zyl 2001).

According to Mahoney and van Zyl (2001) their research showed that although the benefits were relatively small to the community, in absolute terms (in relation to the extent of poverty in these areas) as well as in relative terms (in relation to the benefits accruing to the non-poor), all three initiatives demonstrate that the communities are, or have, the potential to be significantly better-off than they would have been had the initiative not taken place. All three tourism initiatives led to additional infrastructure investment and improved service delivery (by government, private sector and parastatals), improved income levels, and it created a range of small, medium and micro-enterprise opportunities and often

brought about new private sector investment based on the success of the initial investment (Mahoney and van Zyl 2001).

In another case study of Banzi Pan Safari Lodge, Naguran (2000: 39) refers to a joint venture between a local community, the Conservation Services and the private developer, Wilderness Safaris, as an example of a community-based tourism (CBT) project in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Situated in the Maputaland region of KwaZulu-Natal, just south of the Mozambique border, the camp is built on the edge of the Banzi Pan on the Ndumo floodplain system. Ndumo is considered to be the finest birdwatching locale in South Africa, where over 400 species (60%) of South Africa's birds have been recorded. It offers tented accommodation on raised wooden decks linked by tree canopy walkways several metres above the ground.

To develop this project, the Conservation Services, represented by the Commercial Arm Isivuno, facilitated the formation of a development company and an operating company in partnership with the host community, the Mathenjwa Tribe, and a private tour operator. The Banzi Safari Lodge required an initial capital start of up to R2, 5 million. The Conservation Services provided R1, 05 million in equity and the balance went into a shareholder's loan to make up a total of 58% equity holding in the development company. The remaining 42% was taken up by the KwaZulu Finance Corporation, a parastatal which loans capital to businesses (Naguran 2000: 39)

Naguran (2000: 40) notes that the Mathenjwa Tribal Authority was invited to take up 25% of the Conservation Services' shares in the development company, while 37% went to the local community. The community derives benefits from a variety of cash flows such as from land rentals, turnover from tourism investments, profit sharing and gate fees. The



project demonstrates how the Mathenjwa community got itself involved in tourism projects with shared equity and decision-making opportunities in an operation that brought socio-economic rewards to a poor community.

Carnie (2005: 6) reports that rural communities are getting involved in innovative wild life ventures and are bringing hope to many impoverished people. Deep in the rural wilderness area of KwaZulu-Natal two local community groups have decided to join the wildlife business and creating new game reserves on their soil. The two community conservation areas – Usuthu Gorge and Tshanini – are also in the Maputaland district of KwaZulu-Natal, close to the more established Ndumo Game Reserve and Tembe Elephant Park. The area is unsuitable for agriculture because of the rocky terrain, poor soil and low rainfall. Despite these, the community had relied on subsistence agriculture and migrant labour to make ends meet. With the help of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) and WK Kellogg Foundation the community has embarked on game-proofing fencing, road construction and other infrastructure development at an initial funding of R2, 6 million. Some of the monies were used to create 138 temporary jobs, which were rotated to benefit the immediate community.

SABC (2006) reported that China with a population of 1,3 billion of which the majority is rural, embarked on a plan to utilize the natural resources 30 years ago through the implementation of tourism and agriculture in order to sustain a living. The implementation had first taken place in Guizhou Province where the government provided financial support, infrastructure development and free education. The community of this province in turn supported this drive with tourism and agriculture as a means to develop and sustain themselves. Today, Guizhou Province is a thriving tourist area and an agricultural hub.

It was reported in the journal, Metro Ezasegagasini of The eThekweni Municipality (2006: 1), that strategic plans were underway to upgrade the rural areas surrounding the Municipality of eThekweni (Durban). The journal reports that the Area Based Management (ABM) programme is a partnership between the eThekweni Municipality and the European Union – an institutional mechanism through which the delivery of services can be focused with key rural areas of the municipality. These areas of concern are characterised by factors such as little or no municipal services, fragmented service delivery by government, high levels of poverty and diseases, low levels of sustainable income and economic opportunities and potential resources to self-development.

Mayor Obed Mlaba from the eThekweni Municipality, (Durban) reports in the Metro Ezasegagasini (2006: 2) that rural areas, particularly in developing and underdeveloped societies around the world are traditionally characterised by abject poverty and unemployment. These result from generally poor means of transport and education and disregard towards rural people. Similarly eThekweni's 1500 square-kilometre rural zone is characterised by poverty and unemployment. That said, it would be unfair if an area that forms 67% of the city's spatial footprint would be left unattended. He says that this particular ABM initiative aims to develop alternative approaches such as tourism and agriculture for the delivery of basic services and expand the range of income generating opportunities for the rural people. "As leaders, we are mandated to turn the tide against poverty and change the lives of those rural people who were neglected for centuries from any form of development" (Metro Ezasegagasini 2006: 2). Mhlaba refers to tourism and agriculture as the main criteria to turn the tide in rural areas. He has the following questions to ask about life on a commercial farm and compares it to that of a neighbouring homestead: Whoever said that life in the countryside should not be fun? Why should life

on a commercial farm, itself in effect a rural area, be more comfortable than that which is experienced by a resident on the neighbouring rural household? Today's civilised society and democratic government reject such disparities in lifestyles. ABM also aims to enhance economic livelihoods and improve systems of governance through community support ventures in rural areas. Rural households ought to enjoy greater access to a range of sustainable, affordable and appropriate basic services through the re-orientation of delivery systems and the improved spatial location of these services (Metro Ezasegagadini 2006: 3). According to Mafunzwaini and Hugo (2005: 2), Limpopo Province in South Africa is the most rural of the country's nine provinces. These geographers describe tourism in rural Limpopo as a new, vibrant and viable product if it is internationally recognised and promoted for the Province with an 89% rural population. Limpopo Province offers "a mosaic" of exceptional scenic and other nature-based tourism opportunities. It is a land rich in legends, myths and ancient civilizations. Their study concludes that for Limpopo Province to succeed, it requires pro-active initiatives not only from individual businesses, also from the communities themselves.

Walmsley (2003: 1) cites rural Australia as going through a time of major developmental change. The countryside towns in particular are attracting a good deal of attention to development. What Australian rural communities seem to be seeking most of all is sustainable economic growth. Very often this is thought to be in the field of tourism. So common are the pleas for the development of rural tourism that some authorities have suggested that tourism is often viewed as a 'panacea' for rural ills. Walmsley (2003: 2) refers to tourism as a 'last resort' in rejuvenating communities that are looking for an alternative economic base for survival. Tourism is therefore referred to as a 'white knight', something that comes to save the day for the oppressed and marginalised. However, White (2000: 19), cautions us on the use of this view given that across Australia there are many

well meaning rural communities who believe that by building a tourist attraction, magically the public will hear about it and come in great numbers, time and time again.

Orford (2004: 8) describes The Social Change Assistance Trust (SCAT) as an independent fund-raising and grant-making development agency whose mission is to empower the rural poor, promote involvement, strengthen rural society and promote socio-economic change. Scat works with rural community-based organisations that focus on local economic development. Scat has always emphasised the importance of self-reliance and the mobilisation of a community's own resources in tackling their own problems. Scat took an active role in the rural poor with the belief that rural people's exclusion from wealth and power was likely to be perpetuated, even in democracy, unless it was actively challenged. Rural local development agencies had become important institutions in their communities and had provided crucial services to marginalized communities in rural areas.

Orford (2004: 10) claims that very few members of Parliament elected in 1994 and thereafter were rural-based, despite the fact that more than half of the voters reside in rural areas. Government and the economy are concentrated in urban areas. This means that development efforts, administrative capacity, and social service benefits and the concentration of wealth are also concentrated in these areas, increasing the marginalisation of the rural poor. Scat and other agencies not only bring administrative justice to rural communities but play a role in educating communities, resolving conflicts, initiating development projects and attracting tourism to their resources in their area. The need for organisational as well as financial support for rural areas was urgent. Poverty was deepening in rural areas and has continued to do so. Retrenchments from the mines and farms meant even higher levels of rural unemployment and a decrease in remittances being

sent home. The effect of HIV/Aids on rural communities has been increasingly devastating and has placed greater strain on the already scarce financial and emotional resources of poor rural communities. Scat believes that local fund-raising provides a mechanism for building support within communities, helps to reduce dependence on outside funders and fosters community responsibility (Orford 2004: 8).

## **2.6 Rural tourism development in KwaZulu-Natal**

KwaZulu-Natal, aptly called South Africa's garden province, has the potential to play a promoting role in the development of impoverished rural communities and rural areas through community participation in tourism in its Province. The Province has an abundance of natural, man-made and human resources to undertake a substantial pro-active role in the development of its rural areas. KwaZulu-Natal is geographically the third smallest province in South Africa and the majority of the population live in rural areas. According to Allen and Brennan (2004: 57) research undertaken in northern KwaZulu-Natal and Maputaland indicated that there are many protected areas amid a population suffering the most awful hardships. Their economic choices are severely limited but any attempts to establish community based tourism projects are met with varying degrees of success. Much of the literature and research concerned with the welfare of rural communities in northern KwaZulu-Natal focuses on the debilitating and chronic poverty that characterizes the region's tribal life. The concept of communal exclusion, often used in the study of European and North American politics, is preferred in the study of KwaZulu-Natal because of its usefulness in analysing social processes that block progress of the deprived and marginalized (Evans 1998: 68). These may include

restricted access to land, unemployment, less earnings, little or no welfare support, gender inequalities, ethnic rivalries and social monopolies (Gaventa 1998: 22).

In northern KwaZulu-Natal, violence and the fear of it, the resurgence of chieftainship, political venality, the slow development of an appropriate institutional framework to support community empowerment and a shared memory of apartheid's injustices are factors that prevent the rural population of this Province from progressing. With few property rights, and a weakened identity, it leaves rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal destitute. Poor rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal display low self-esteem, and social exclusion. Such exclusions are a major challenge to development initiatives among remote and disempowered tribal groups in the regions of KwaZulu-Natal (Allen and Brennan 2004: 57).

## **2.7 Potential for rural development**

An exhaustive report prepared for the government of KwaZulu-Natal (Proctor 1995: 49), assesses the potential role of tourism in the developmental trajectory of the province. The author argues the need for an integrated strategy that would reflect the interests and aspirations of the public and private sectors, non-governmental organisations, labour organisations and above all the community. He claims that as part of that proposed strategy, and in the face of fierce competition in the tourism market, a positive marketing of the Province's nature-based tourism products must be confidently promoted. It should be finely tuned into the growing trend and global growth in tourism. Given the importance of the tourist's experience, it is essential that communities be prepared to participate enthusiastically and to welcome tourists into their province to their advantage.

According to the Department of Economic Development and Tourism (1995), the tourism industry has the potential to become the most important economic sector in the province. This Department is of the view that previously excluded groups especially the rural people must be granted the opportunity to participate as entrepreneurs in tourism businesses. The department wishes to ensure its goals through the following four guiding principles, namely, tourism must be a concept to all the people of KwaZulu-Natal; to provide a means of strengthening community pride; to make a significant contribution to safeguarding environmental, historical and cultural resources, and to contribute to the creation of goodwill, peace, understanding and friendship between the people of KwaZulu-Natal and other communities in South Africa, Southern Africa and around the world (Department of Economic Development and Tourism 1995: 4).

Clearly a great deal is asked of tourism. According to the Department of Economic Development and Tourism (1995) the development of tourism must ensure that no citizen are worse off than they were before the promotion of the sector in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal and that special attention should be paid to improving the opportunities for women within the Province and especially in rural societies. Government's responsibilities include the setting of tourism policy, the drafting of legislation, and the creation of institutional frameworks. For much of the capital and expertise essential for establishing and running a vibrant tourism economy, the government will look to the private sector. Tourism development in rural areas, (according to this department), must be small scale. Constitutional representatives of rural communities must be consulted prior to seeking government approval. Those people who have been unable to secure loans to establish tourism business ventures or entrepreneurships should have access to a fund of low-interest

loans guaranteed by government, and free vocational training be provided for individuals hoping to build careers within the tourism trade. Small business development is one of the most effective means of creating jobs, and the government should actively encourage and support the participation of small community enterprises.

It is the government's task to foster a culture of tourism among the communities. This entails making plain the potential rewards of the industry, particularly in those areas where there are few alternative means of earning a livelihood. Only by highlighting potential benefits will agrarian societies recognize the importance of providing a friendly welcome to tourists who arrive in their localities (Allen and Brennan 2004: 53).

The integrated conservation and development model in KwaZulu-Natal is based on the interdependence of local rural communities and protected areas for tourism. According to this model, tourism agencies are to act as a catalyst for rural development that would focus on both the use of natural resources themselves and on economic improvements within the surrounding rural villages. The model argues for resources to be used efficiently and sustainably by rural communities. Opportunities for rural development would emerge from the controlled use of wildlife and natural resources such as eco-tourism. In the areas close to rural communities, efforts would be made to encourage eco-tourism and agricultural development. It is hoped in that cross-sectoral linkages would arise, and facilities such as tourism structures, retail and service industries be established. The model finally states that the development of the rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal depended on their resources available to them (Allen and Brennan 2004: 65).



Not all observers of economic development in KwaZulu-Natal are content to accept an analysis that blames internal, cultural factors alone for the lack of progress in improving the welfare of rural communities. The Centre for Community Organisation, Research and Development (CORD), based at the University of KwaZulu-Natal argues that much of the government-sponsored research in rural development in the province has centred on the need to modernize Zulu society, and on the importance of dispensing with anachronistic organisations and irrational ways of doing things, such as witch-craft and political systems dominated by traditional chiefs and headmen. CORD's research among the rural people in KwaZulu-Natal is concerned primarily with the difficulties in making a living, and with the shifting allegiances that arise out of the struggle for survival (Allen and Brennan 2004: 124).

## **2.8 Women in rural development**

According to Billy (1996: 67) women in the rural areas of KwaZulu-Natal do not have explicit rights to land ownership. Even the development of Land Reform Gender Policy (1996) has failed to improve the living conditions of rural women to any noticeable extent. Daniels (2001: 56) writes that African women in South Africa have not been drawn into land reform programmes in any significant way. Most women visited by the author during research in the regions of KwaZulu-Natal struggle to survive by growing subsistence crops on land they do not even own. Large numbers of them have to take the full burden of farming when their husbands and/or sons are forced to leave home and seek employment in urban centres. As head of households, many rural (African) women have brought up their children alone, have the daily and ever more difficult chore of finding fuel and fetching water. Even rules and regulations on environmental and conservation matters place

restrictions on the use of natural resources, which negatively affects the lives of women more directly than of men. However, at a recent gathering of about 2000 delegates who attended the fourth World Congress of Rural Women at the Inkosi Albert Luthuli International Convention Centre complex (ICC), Durban, held from 23 to 25 April 2007, discussions were underway on solutions on the problems facing rural women with regard to, amongst others, gender equality, land rights and the effect of public, traditional and cultural policies on women (MetroEzasegagasini 2007: 3).

Billy (1996: 89) states that in the rural areas of this Province, rural (African) women do not have access to electricity and social services. Issues of race, class and gender ensure that rural (African) women remain poor and severely excluded. During the decades of apartheid, other than short-term insecure permits to occupy and farm in certain areas of the Province, rural (African) women were denied ownership of land outside the homeland of KwaZulu-Natal. Furthermore, Baden, Hasim and Meintjies (1999: 107) argue that customary laws prevent these women from owning land. Under the traditional communal system, grazing rights and rights to occupy land are allocated by the chief to male heads of households. Customary law continues to treat women as minors, and prevent them from holding rights in land and from inheriting land rights from their husbands. Women often became homeless when their husbands die or their marriage comes to an end. Unmarried women may be forced to become squatters. The difficulties for women over land rights are compounded by the fact that families working under communal tenure may lose their rights if their chief decides to sell common lands. There are instances where chiefs claiming proprietary rights over common lands have sold them to speculators, in deals, which are illegal and ignore the poor and landless (Baden, Hasim and Meintjies 1999: 108).

Poverty in South Africa is worst among the rural women living in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape and Limpopo. The strain of poverty in these areas often leads to problems within families resulting in added problems. Moreover, those households headed by women are far more likely to be living in abject poverty than households headed by men. But even within male-headed households, women do not always experience an equal share of earnings. In spite of this, women serve and maintain a strong family union essential for development (Baden et al.1999: 108).

In terms of employment the majority of rural (African) women are concentrated in casual agricultural labour, domestic work and the informal sector where they are poorly paid, liable to job loss, and to abuse. In the country, rural (African) women constitute the bulk of poverty victims, with 71 percent living below the poverty line. In rural areas however, unemployment among (African) men fluctuates around an average of 45 percent while women experience an unemployment rate of 62 percent. Because of a general lack of safe clean water, sanitation, a varied diet, good housing and health services, these rural communities in general have worse health conditions than city dwellers in South Africa (Daniels 2001: 98). According to Mbeki (2006) poor rural women have been brutalized by the patriarchal system.

Witepski (2004: 32-33) is of the opinion that, “time has forgotten the rural villages of KwaZulu-Natal. In the world where evermore innovative technology dissolves boundaries at the click of a mouse, the women of rural KwaZulu-Natal still live in scattered communities without electricity”. Poverty, no longer a concern for most developed countries, remains a problem here. With no running water, people and animals share the same resources. Literally “dirt poor”, many of these women rely on the sale of traditional

crafts, a generations-old skill, to eke out a meagre income. However, a new project provides renewed hope. Through a project initiated by KhumbulaZulu Craft, a company affiliated to the Siyazisiza Trust, these very women have recently sold thousands of pounds' worth of hand made items at Sotheby's prestigious Contemporary Decorative Arts Exhibition (CDA), their wares catching the eyes of global trendsetters such as Terrence Conran. With the launch of LOSA (London South Africa), the exclusive label under which the designer crafts will be marketed and sold, these women's star will continue to rise (Witepski 2004: 32-33).

## **2.9 Conclusion**

The theoretical views and opinions highlighted in this chapter bring to the fore that without community empowerment and participation in rural development, any attempt to develop rural areas could be for nought. People living in rural areas in South Africa live in abject poverty and unless something is done to assist these communities who are in need of urgent assistance, their standard of living could continue to deteriorate. To accomplish this there is a need to nurture a sense of willingness and enthusiasm amongst the poor communities to participate in rural development. One possible answer to this lies in tourism. They must decide for themselves that it is in their own interest to make changes to their culture, tradition and lifestyle in order to ensure a better way of life. Much time is wasted on deliberating on issues and questions posed on rural development. Rural communities could be willing participants in tourism business ventures because they are immersed in nature. They could therefore turn to tourism to alleviate themselves from their poor living standards. Rural women are the backbone to success in rural development, yet

they are neglected. Evidence of community success, however, stems from lessons learnt from projects initiated by community organisations such as KhumbulaZulu Craft.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **DATA GATHERING**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

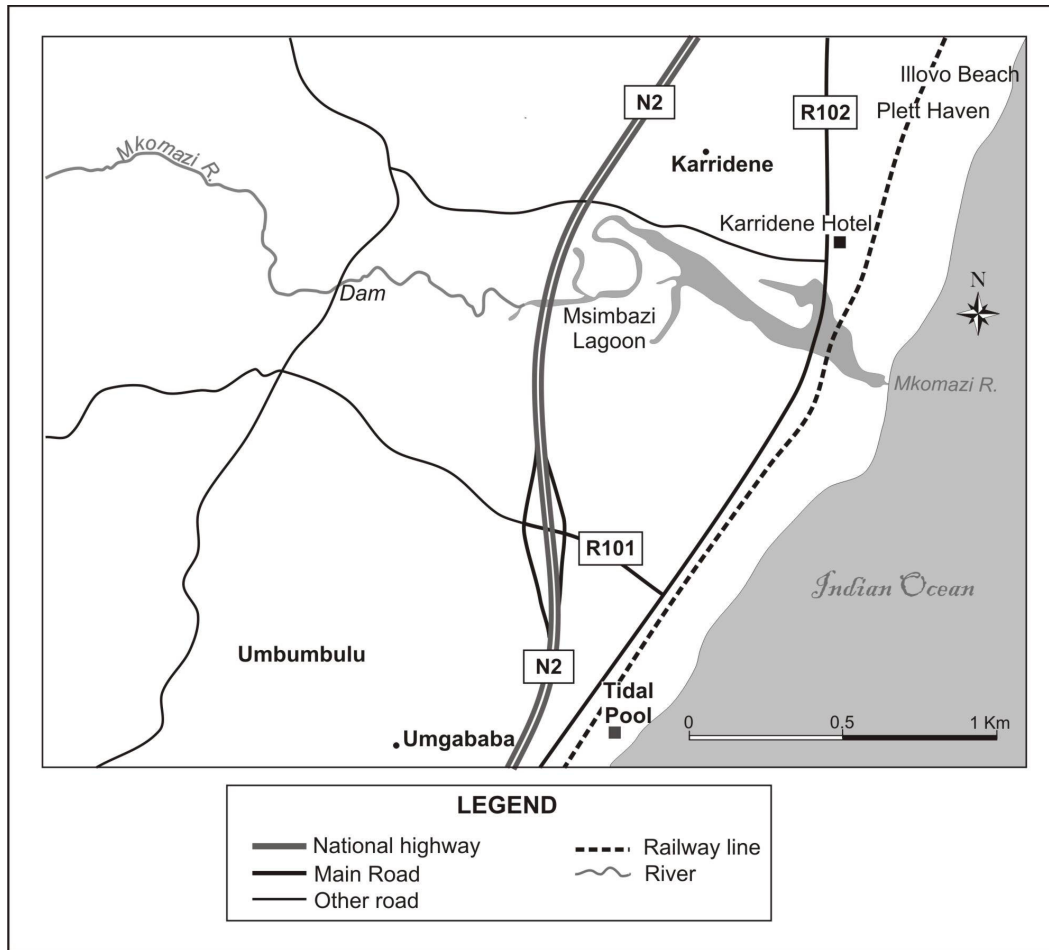
There is a need to undertake research in the study area since the people living in this area are generally poor and are in need of assistance to improve their livelihood. The study area like many other rural areas in South Africa contains many of the natural, man-made and human resources necessary for tourism. The resources that are readily available to the community of the study area could be utilized to improve their lives. In this chapter the study area will be described in more detail in terms of its natural resources, human resources and man-made resources. The collection of data on the community living in the study area will also receive attention.

#### **3.2 The study area**

The broader Umgababa settlement extends for a distance of approximately 7 kilometers between the N2 freeway and the Indian Ocean (figure 1.1). The broader Umgababa is located at approximately 30° 07' S and 30° 55'E in South Africa. In general, Umgababa appears to have a mixed economy contrasting the very poor from the fairly wealthier. According to the residents the area was once a thriving tourism destination. The land is communal-owned and falls under the control of the Mnini Traditional Authority. A striking contrast appears in terms of the socio-economic living conditions of the people in the entire area. The appearance of cheaply built homes of mud and cement and wood and iron is in direct contrast with some of the mansions that are visible from some distance away from the Old South Coast Road. A curio manufacturing and sale centre is located

alongside the Old South Coast Road that runs parallel to the beach. The Ultra-City Shell Garage on the freeway provides a resting and eating-place for motorists and tourists alike. Next to the garage is an area with curio stalls where locals manufacture and sell ornaments. There are also stalls where people sell fruit and vegetables. Some of the man-made features visible in the area are the railway station, and a newly built swimming pool on the seashore.

The study area for this research is restricted to a smaller part of the larger Umgababa rural settlement situated in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. As already mentioned in Chapter one (study area), Umgababa is located approximately 40 kilometres south of Durban (figure 3.1). Due to the size of the settlement the research had to be concentrated only in an area of approximately three square kilometers that extend for about one kilometre from the Umgababa River bridge to the first freeway off-ramp; from the off-ramp to the tarred road joining the Old South Coast Road which runs parallel to the beach. This area forms part of the larger Umgababa settlement and was chosen for this research specifically because of the extreme conditions of poverty under which the people live. The study area therefore, lies between the southbound N2 freeways, the Mfume River, the Old South Coast Road running parallel to the Indian Ocean. In order to arrive here, motorists travelling southbound on the freeway would have to pass the towns of Amanzimtoti and Kingsburgh respectively. Clear visibility of the study area is from the N2 freeway bridge on the Mfume River. A railway line and station provide access to commuters to and from Umgababa, making travel to Durban and the rest of the area easy for those in need of cheaper transport (figure 3.1). Central to the issue of man-made features, is the Karridene Hotel (figure 3.2), an affiliate to the Protea Group of hotels, situated along the Old South Coast Road adjoining the study area.



**Figure 3.1: A simplified sketch of the study area**



**Figure 3.2: Karridene Hotel (Amanzimtoti Tourism Association 2004: 10)**



The settlement comprises of cheaply built homes, which makes the community living in the area appear to be socio-economically disadvantaged. It is evident that the people living in this area generally engage in subsistence farming of agriculture and animals as a means of living. Predominantly Zulu speaking African people reside in this area. A plaque of the African National Congress (ANC), with the name of Chief Albert Luthuli engraved on it, is situated along the Old South Coast Road in the study area indicates that this community is possibly politically affiliated to the ANC.

Other prominent features include the abundance of natural resources that make this area a prominent tourism destination. The study area is situated on a northeast-facing slope and receives sunshine throughout the day. Most of the land in the study area is fairly level with gradual undulations closer to the river near Kingsburgh. Most of this area faces the beach which could be a sought after view for tourist.

South Africa is divided into 15 climatic regions, and the eThekweni Municipal Area (EMA) in which Umgababa is located, falls in Region E, which is one of the wettest regions in South Africa (Camp 1997). Region E is typically warm to hot and humid and has a subtropical climate. This region receives predominantly summer rainfall. Most of this region's winter rainfall is generally associated with frontal systems, moving northeasterly. Regional climatic data were obtained from the Durban International Airport Weather recording Station, Number 0240808. This station is located approximately 16 kilometres northeast of Umgababa. This is the closest weather recording station from the site. The average mean rainfall for the area ranges between 820mm and 1432mm per year with a mean temperature of 18,5°C. The favourable climatic conditions, warm summers and cool winters are ideal conditions for all year tourism (Camp 1997).

Due to the latitudinal position of the region, the study area as part of the EMA is influenced by both tropical and temperate weather systems. The prevailing winds along the east coast are northeasterly and southwesterly with diurnal variation in velocity and direction. Winds from these broad sectors occur with frequencies in excess of 255 days a year (Camp 1997). Southwesterly blowing winds are generally stronger, and may be accompanied by rain, while the effect of land and sea breezes has a strong influence on wind direction. In addition to diurnal variations there is a seasonal variation in both frequency and velocity, with winter months typically experiencing calm conditions with moderate to light northeasterly winds. The predominant wind directions in the study area are therefore northeasterly, southwesterly and southerly winds. The highest wind speeds are experienced from August to November (Camp 1997).

The study area lies within the moist coastal forest, thorn and palmveld bio-resource group (BRG 1). The moist coastal forest, thorn and palmveld occur in a coastal strip approximately 20 km wide and found between sea level and 450 metres above mean sea level. The vegetation classification is based on Camp's (1997) bio-resource groups of KwaZulu-Natal, which groups bio-resource units according to vegetation characteristics. The dominant vegetation pattern in this bio-resource group is bushed grassland with areas of bushland and bushland thicket. Due to the fact that the bio-resource group is found in a high rainfall area and is located near the coast it is generally not vulnerable to drought (Camp 1997).

In addition to the patches of coastal forest there is a wetland at the lowest point of the study area along the N2 freeway and river bridge north of Ultra city. Species found within

the wetland area include, *Typha capensis*, *Cyperus dives* and *Syzygium cordatum* all of which indicate permanently or semi-permanently saturated soils. There is a possibility that the site has rare or endangered animal species. Small mammals, reptiles and birds are found in and around the coastal forest and river side. Loose aeolian sands of the Berea formation, clayey sands and sandy clays predominantly overlie the study area. The overlying material is highly susceptible to erosion by wind and surface water and will require controls to prevent or minimise the impacts of erosion. On the beach-facing plateau, where most of the residential dwellings are located, the overlying soil layer is blanketed by wind deposited, unconsolidated, Berea formation clayey sands becoming sandy clays with depth. This deposit is generally in excess of 6,6 metres in thickness and is likely to extend tens of metres in thickness with an increase in height.

Air quality in the study area is generally good due to its distance from, and elevation in relation to the South Durban industrial basin; however, it is dependent on the prevailing winds. When the prevailing winds originate in the north east, air quality is likely to be reduced as pollution from the north, Durban, moves over the area, while under southwesterly conditions there is a general improvement in air quality. In addition local air quality is enriched with the cultivation of sugar cane adjacent to the area and from sea breeze blowing over the study area.

### **3.3 Data gathering**

Moss (1988: 440) suggests that a detailed description of the data collection procedures for the planned investigation is needed. This description covers the specific techniques to be employed in the research, the specific measuring instruments to be utilized and the specific

series of activities to be conducted in making the measurements. He adds that when original measuring instruments are to be constructed, a detailed account of the procedures to be employed in constructing them, their validity and reliability have to be discussed. Finally, any ethical considerations or any other factors that may result in problems in obtaining access to data and the steps to be taken to overcome these potential problems need to be detailed (Moss 1988: 441).

The discussion and description of the study area provided the foundation for the researcher to decide on the best suitable research design. After careful consideration it was decided that the best way of obtaining data to answer the research questions was to draw up a questionnaire and to obtain primary data from a survey. The choice of methodological approach for this research was guided by concerns as to how best to address the research problem, objectives and research questions.

### **3.3.1 Questionnaires**

The first step in the data collection process was to decide on the type of data collection instrument that was most applicable to answering the research questions. Surveys use questionnaires to generate quantitative data from which statistical information can be calculated (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 49). Three of the objectives of this research demanded a quantitative research approach and it was therefore decided to collect data through a survey with the use of closed-ended questions.

The next step was to decide on the type of questionnaire to be used in collecting the data. According to Strydom, et al. (1998: 152-153) different types of questionnaires can be

identified. A mailed questionnaire, according to Grinnell and Williams (1990: 216) is a questionnaire, which is sent off by mail in the hope that the respondent will complete and return it. However, this type of questionnaire has its limitations since the non-response rate may be very high, missing data may occur frequently, there may be no control to determine the right person in the household completes the questionnaire, and only literates may complete the questionnaire. According to Arkava and Lane (1983: 172) the use of a telephonic questionnaire have advantages similar to the personal questionnaire. The fieldworker gets an opportunity to explain, literacy is not a requirement and the response rate is high because respondents usually do not refuse easily. The telephone questionnaire has its limitations in that the costs could be high especially in long distance calls. In the case of the personal questionnaire, the questionnaire is handed to the respondent who completes it on his/her own, but the researcher is available in case problems are experienced. The researcher (or fieldworker) limits his/her own contribution to the completion of the questionnaire to the absolute minimum. The researcher thus largely remains in the background and can at most encourage the respondent with a few words to continue his/her contribution or lead the respondent back to the subject (Grinnell and Williams 1990: 217).

The researcher had to decide from these types of questionnaires, which best type of questionnaire was most applicable for the collection process. Mailed or telephonic questionnaires could not be used due to the poverty of the respondents in the study area and it was therefore decided to use door-to-door, personal contact to complete the questionnaires.

The researcher then had to decide on the most appropriate response system to be used in the formulation of the questionnaire. According to McMurtry (1993: 168) a variety of response systems or question types exist from which the researcher must select. These included open questions, closed questions, dichotomous questions and multiple-choice questions. In the case of open questions, respondents are given the opportunity of writing any answers in the open space provided. Kitchin and Tate (2000: 51) add to this definition by stating that in open-ended questions respondents are given no set of possible answers. These authors contend that although this type of question is generally easier to put into a questionnaire, and avoids the problem of suggesting possible answers to the respondent, it is harder to analyse quantitatively. Open-ended questions have several limitations in that they lengthen the time of completion and respondents may be tempted to leave notes incomplete, which decreases the real value of the data obtained from the questionnaire. The time necessary to process the data is also lengthened. The process is also expensive, time-consuming and more liable to error (McMurtry 1993: 168).

Kitchin and Tate (2000: 49) define a closed questionnaire as one where the respondent is given a set of answers, one of which they must choose as the most representative of their facts/views. Questionnaire data to be analysed quantitatively are usually generated using what are termed closed-ended questions. Closed-ended questions offer the respondent the opportunity of selecting one or more response choices from a number provided to him/her. This type of questionnaire is advantageous when a substantial amount of information about a subject exists and the response options are relatively well known. The degree, frequency and comprehensiveness of a phenomenon can be ascertained quite meaningfully by means of closed-ended questions. Closed questions are advantageous in that the result of the investigation can become available fairly quickly. Other advantages of closed-ended

questions are that respondents understand the meaning of the questions better, questions can be answered within the same framework, and responses can consequently be compared better with one another.

With the use of dichotomous questions, there are only two response possibilities, such as “Yes/No” (Schuerman 1983: 151). Snyman (1984: 90) contends that it is usually better to use multiple-choice questions, where three or more response options are offered, with the dichotomous questions included as one response type. The more categories provided, the finer the differences that can be observed. However, the limitation of using these questions is that the researcher should be wary of too many fine divisions because they become less discrete.

The researcher was faced with the decision as to which response system would best be applicable to the research. Since it was expected that most of the people living in the research area were semi-literate or illiterate, open-ended questions, which required a qualitative approach in the analysis process was not considered to be the best option. The limitations suggested by McMurty (1993: 168) regarding open-ended questions would apply problematically to this community, and hinder the research process. Multiple-choice questions were also avoided due to their inconsistency. The researcher then decided that the use of closed-ended questions that could include some dichotomous questions would be the best applicable response systems for this research.

Finally, the language medium in which the questionnaire was to be designed was of concern to the researcher. Since the community of the study area was predominantly Zulu speaking, this posed a problem. The questionnaire was however prepared in English.

However, fieldworkers were well versed in English and Zulu and assisted the researcher in translating and guiding respondents during the survey. Respondents were required to mark a circle around the answer of their choice and in the case of an error they could delete the incorrect answer and encircle the correct choice.

By using the closed questions it was hoped that answers would be obtained promptly and without bias. Questionnaires usually take less time to complete and the relationship between researchers and researched is more formal (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 49). Respondents were required to fill in a questionnaire in the presence of fieldworkers and when it was completed the questionnaire had to be handed over to the fieldworker. Questions were formal and structured and aimed at generating quantitative data. Personal, face-to-face contact between researcher and respondent has the advantage of accuracy and a high response rate (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 48).

The questions in the questionnaire were numbered from 1 to 28 and each question was directed at obtaining answers in response to three of the four objectives indicated in chapter 1 (section 1.4). These three objectives include the first, third and fourth objectives. The second objective relates to the natural resources available in the study area for which data were collected by means of visual inspection, observation and description. The first set of questions (numbered 1 to 16) relates to the first objective and solicited answers on the socio-economic status of the community. The second set of questions (numbered 17 to 24) pertained to the third objective and derived answers on the willingness of the community to participate in tourism ventures. Questions 25 to 28, which were relevant to the fourth objective derived responses based on perceptions of the communities in South Africa.



### 3.3.2 Sampling and sampling methods

The researcher had to determine what type of sampling frame would be best suitable for the research. The researcher also had to establish the kind and number of people for sampling. This meant determining the size of the population and the sample to be derived from the population.

According to Kitchin and Tate (2000: 53) the total of all possible people who display the characteristic the researcher is interested in, is the population. Arkava and Lane (1983: 27) contend that a population is derived from the universe, and that a universe refers to all potential subjects who possess the attributes in which the researcher is interested. A sample can be viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which the researcher is interested. The sample is studied in an effort to understand the population from which it was drawn (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 54; Arkava and Lane 1983: 27). In a quantitative approach to research the researcher is usually interested in making inferences about a population from a sample. Schaller (1992: 66) states that the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population the sample needs to be. If the population is relatively small, the sample should be reasonably large. Grinnell and Williams (1990: 127) observed that 30 respondents were sufficient to perform basic statistical procedures. The larger the sample, however, the more confidence one can place on the statistics derived from it (Kitchin and Tate 2000: 59). It was therefore decided that a sample of 40 households out of a population of 70 would be sufficient to undertake the research.

The next step was to decide on the best sampling method for the research. Kitchin and Tate (2000: 54) argue that there are many sampling methods (also known as sampling designs)

available for the collection of data, of which two are the most important. The simplest is the systematic sampling. Such a sample involves the systematic selection of cases from a sampling frame. Random sampling on the other hand, is more useful, as they avoid any interviewer/sample bias. According to Kerlinger (1986: 110) random sampling means all possible cases or households of a fixed  $n$  have the same probability of being selected. Random sampling ensures that each observation has an equal chance of being part of the sample and as such representative of the population from which it was drawn (Baker 1988: 148; Chadwick, Bahr and Albrecht 1984: 53). The question then arose: How was the researcher to determine who the respondent was? A person, either male or female who was present at the time of the survey and who acted as head of household was required to fill-in the questionnaire. This meant that at all times during the survey the head of each household was selected as the respondent.

The researcher therefore decided that the application of a simple random sampling technique would be the best method for this research with 40 households randomly selected by the following procedures. The study area lacked the necessary infrastructure such as post boxes or street addresses or any other feature that could assist fieldworkers in identifying households for sampling. Fieldworkers obtained permission from residents to chalk-mark each house or door with a three and four digit figure starting from 001 and ending with 0070. These figures were then written on 70 pieces of cardboard, placed in a basket, shuffled and 40 were randomly selected. Each of the numbers was then written on a questionnaire for the fieldworker to use when conducting the survey. During the survey the number on the door was correlated with that in the questionnaire.

### **3.4 Conclusion**

An indepth discussion and description of the study area provided the background for the study and determined the type of instruments to be used in the data gathering process. The type of questionnaire best suitable for data gathering and the kind of samples used were the first step in the actual research process. These two phases in the data collection process involved the drawing up of the questionnaire and the simple random sampling methods.

## CHAPTER 4

### ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

#### 4.1 Introduction

The first step for the researcher in the data analysis process was the selection of an appropriate methodology for analyzing data. An important component is the issue of whether a qualitative or quantitative approach will be adopted. According to Mouton and Marais (1990: 155) the quantitative approach has the following advantages over qualitative approach. In a quantitative approach, it is more highly formalized as well as more explicitly controlled. Its range is more exactly defined (than the qualitative approach). It is the most important paradigm used in the physical sciences. Reid and Smith (1981: 87) added that statistical methods are used to determine associations (or differences) between variables. These authors contend that analysis proceeds by obtaining the statistical breakdown of the distribution of variables. The researcher's role is that of the objective observer. Studies are focused on relatively specific questions, which remain constant throughout the investigation. Data collection procedures and types of measurement are constructed in advance of the study and applied in a standardized manner. Finally, measurement is focused on specific variables that are quantified through rating scales, frequency counts and other means.

The quantitative paradigm entails that the analyst breaks down data into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions. Analysis means the categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of data to obtain answers to research questions. The purpose of analysis is to reduce data to an intelligible and interpretable form so that the relations of research problems can be studied, and tested, and conclusions drawn. The analysis of

research data, however, does not in itself provide the answers to research questions. Interpretation takes the results of analysis, makes inferences pertinent to the research relations studied and draws conclusions about these relations. The researcher who interprets research results searches them for their meaning and implications. The researcher must ensure that he will be able to do those things that he did intend to do when analysing and interpreting data (Kerlinger 1986: 125; Babbie 1990: 225).

The quantitative approach to analysis was adopted here considering that data was collected quantitatively using closed-ended questions in a questionnaire. The literacy level of the community made data gathering for qualitative approach to analysis difficult. Many respondents did not have the ability to read and write effectively, hence, making note-taking for the qualitative approach cumbersome. The quantitative approach, on the other hand, stimulates responses making it easy and flexible for respondents to arrive at answers. Where statistical methods were used to determine associations or differences between variables (Reid and Smith 1981: 87), the process of analysis became easier and accurate.

## **4.2 Data analysis**

Raw data collected were organised manually by tabulating them into two parts, numerical frequency distribution (table 4.1) and percentage frequency distribution (table 4.2). The vertical numbers, 1 to 28, indicate the question number derived from the questionnaire whilst the horizontal letters, a to e, denotes the alternatives available and the total numerical and percentage values respectively, for responses derived from each variable. The *n* value was the sample size, with 40 samples drawn for the analysis process. The data were then categorised according to three out of four of the objectives ascertained from the

questionnaire. Questions 1 to 16 from the questionnaire denoted the first objective. Data obtained from the first 16 variables were aimed at finding answers based on the socio-economic status of the community. The next eight variables from the questionnaire numbered 17 to 24 pertained to the third objective (chapter 1, page 5), which was the willingness of the community to participate in tourism as a business venture. Questions 25 to 28 was concerned with data captured on the perception and levels of communication of the community with other rural communities in South Africa. Numerical data were further converted to percentages for analysis, interpretation and synthesis.

Graphic presentation of data through frequency diagrams such as graphs and pie charts further enhanced the analysis process. Variables were described in terms of responses derived from the questions of that specific objective. According to Royer (1981: 440) graphic presentations, or figures, are pictorial devices to illustrate data. As they are visually effective and easy to interpret, this type of presentation is often a great help in enabling the researcher to comprehend the essential features of frequency distributions and in comparing one frequency distribution with another (Ferguson 1976: 32)

Concerning the interpretation of data, the simple descriptive method was used. This implied that each variable was fully described and explained in relation to other variables or questions of that specific objective. In the case of the first objective, the level of income earned by each household was considered to be the most appropriate variable in determining the socio-economic status of the community. Attention was also drawn to the other variables. By describing, explaining and comparing the relationships and differences between the variables the researcher was able to interpret the data.

**Table 4.1: Numerical data derived from responses obtained from questionnaire with  $n$  value of 40.**

Numerical data in terms of responses obtained from questionnaire for objective 1

Question number	Number of responses					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	
						$n$
1	7	11	9	13	-	40
2	9	2	15	12	2	40
3	2	18	4	11	5	40
4	24	16	-	-	-	40
5	8	6	13	4	9	40
6	4	5	16	15	-	40
7	7	9	7	17	-	40
8	7	13	9	11	-	40
9	8	3	15	14	-	40
10	12	13	15	-	-	40
11	3	19	6	4	8	40
12	8	13	6	0	13	40
13	31	9	-	-	-	40
14	37	3	-	-	-	40
15	11	0	29	-	-	40
16	0	11	14	15	-	40

Numerical data in terms of responses obtained from questionnaire for objective 3

Question number	Number of responses					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	
						$n$
17	0	40	-	-	-	40
18	7	33	-	-	-	40
19	35	5	-	-	-	40
20	35	5	-	-	-	40
21	37	3	-	-	-	40
22	28	12	-	-	-	40
23	35	5	-	-	-	40
24	33	7	-	-	-	40

Numerical data in terms of responses obtained from questionnaire for objective 4

Question number	Number of responses					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	
						$n$
25	13	27	-	-	-	40
26	20	15	0	5	-	40
27	33	7	0	-	-	40
28	35	5	-	-	-	40

(Source: Empirical data)

**Table 4.2: Numerical data converted to percentages with an *n* value of 100 %.**

Percentage data for responses to objective 1

Question number	Response percentages					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	<i>n</i> %
1	17,5	27,5	22,5	32,5	-	100
2	22,5	5	37,5	30	5	100
3	5	45	10	27,5	12,5	100
4	60	40	-	-	-	100
5	20	15	32,5	10	22,5	100
6	10	12,5	40	37,5	-	100
7	17,5	22,5	17,5	42,5	-	100
8	17,5	32,5	22,5	27,5	-	100
9	20	7,5	37,5	35	-	100
10	30	32,5	37,5	-	-	100
11	7,5	47,5	15	10	20	100
12	20	32,5	15	0	32,5	100
13	77,5	22,5	-	-	-	100
14	92,5	7,5	-	-	-	100
15	27,5	0	72,5	-	-	100
16	0	27,5	35	37,5	-	100

Percentage data for responses to objective 3

Question number	Response percentages					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	<i>n</i> %
17	0	100	-	-	-	100
18	17,5	82,5	-	-	-	100
19	87,5	12,5	-	-	-	100
20	87,5	12,5	-	-	-	100
21	92,5	7,5	-	-	-	100
22	70	30	-	-	-	100
23	87,5	12,5	-	-	-	100
24	82,5	17,5	0	-	-	100

Percentage data for responses to objective 4

Question number	Response percentages					Sample size
	a	b	c	d	e	<i>n</i> %
25	32,5	67,5	0	-	-	100
26	50	37,5	0	12,5	-	100
27	82,5	17,5	0	-	-	100
28	87,5	12,5	-	-	-	100

(Source: Empirical data)



The question of willingness was sought through responses obtained from respondents on question number 19 of the questionnaire in conjunction with all the other variables under this objective. With regard to the perceptions of the community, question number 27 from the questionnaire was the most appropriate determining factor for the perceptibility of respondents also in conjunction with all other variables under this objective.

### **4.3 Analyses and interpretation of results**

#### **4.3.1 Socio-economic characteristics**

Statistics South Africa (2001) defined the economically active population (EAP) as all persons between the ages 15 and 65 years who were working, or were employed. The EAP included people employed in the formal sector and the self-employed. The unemployed were those in the active population who: have not worked, wanted to work and were available to start work, and have taken active steps to look for work or to provide themselves with self-employment in the near future. The number of employed people therefore includes employers, employees and the self-employed.

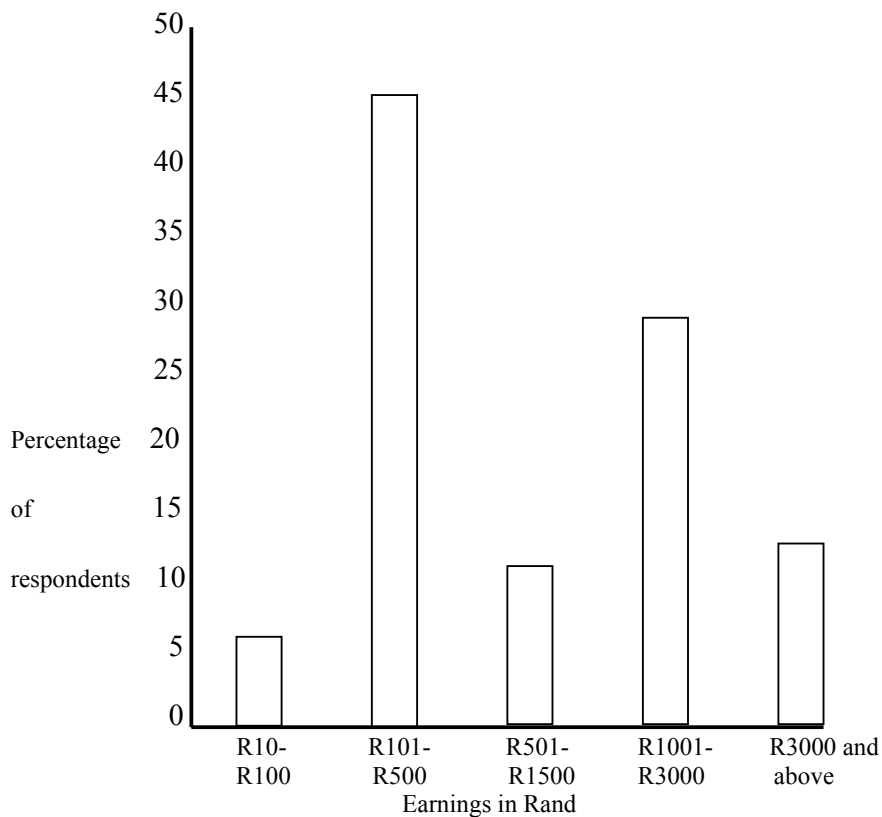
The first question asked in the questionnaire was based on the respondent's level of employment. In terms of the empirical data in tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively, one-third (13 or 32,5%) of the respondents indicated that they were not employed. The remaining two-thirds (67,5%) included those who were employed either as permanent, casual or self-employed. However, only 7 respondents (17,5%) out of 40 respondents were employed on a permanent basis. This still leaves the proportion of respondents who were unemployed and who were seeking permanent employment considerably high. The level of

employment has been used in this research as the first step in determining the socio-economic status of the community of Umgababa. The remaining 82,5% of respondents either relied on other methods of employment to make a living or had little chance of obtaining any form of employment.

With regards to question 2 relating to their level of skill (Annexure A, question 2) and with reference to data from Tables 4.1 and 4.2 respectively, the majority of respondents (15 or 37,5%) were semi-skilled while 13 respondents (30%) were unskilled. This meant that at least a third of the respondents were in need of skills development in order to obtain better employment. In total, two-thirds (67,5%) of the respondents were either semi-skilled or unskilled. Nine respondents (22,5%) were skilled in their jobs, only 2 respondents (5%) were professionals. The remaining 2% of the respondents indicated no response. With the majority of the respondents being unemployed, this has an effect on the amount of income derived in each household.

For the purpose of this thesis, the joint income received each month by each household was selected as the best indicator determining the socio-economic level of the community of Umgababa. On the question relating to their joint household income (Annexure A, question 3) five different categories were provided that ranged from R10 per month to more than R3000 per month. According to the empirical data (tables 4.1 and 4.2) only 5 respondents (12,5 %) indicated that they earned more than R3000 per month. The largest proportion of respondents (45%) earned between R100 and R500 per month. Almost half of the respondents were therefore very low earners. A total of 22 respondents (55%) earned between R100 and R1500 per month. Only 2 respondents (5%) indicated a joint income of between R10 and R100 per month in their households respectively. According

to Statistics South Africa (2001) poverty is defined as the number of people living in households with an income less than the poverty income line. Poverty income varies according to the household size – the larger the household, the larger the income required to keep its members out of poverty. According to the 2001-2002 prices, the poverty line reported by Statistics South Africa (2001) indicated that poverty income levels ranged from R551 for one individual to R2349 for a household of eight members or more. These statistics support the view that almost half of the people living in the study area earned below the breadline. A comparative analysis of all the three variables above so far indicates that the socio-economic living conditions of the community of Umgababa are relatively low. Figure 4.1 represents the level of earnings of the respondents, which is crucial to determining and understanding the socio-economic conditions of the people of the study area.



**Figure 4.1: Respondents' earnings**

Referring to question number 4, with regards to other members of the households adding to their income, 24 (60%) of respondents (almost two-thirds) stated that other family members supplemented their earnings while the remaining (16 or 40%) of the respondents indicated that their income was not supplemented. Householders' additional earnings were derived from a variety of sources. In response to question 5, 13 respondents (32,5%) chose alternative (c) (Annexure A) that is income derived from surplus of subsistence farming and the sale of ornaments and fruit to passing motorists or tourists. Other significant sources of additional income were from government grants and pensions and from children working in towns and cities. Eight respondents (20%) indicated that they received an income from government grants or pensions such as child grants, old age pensions and disability grants. Only 6 respondents (15%) received an income from children working out in towns and cities. The highest response with 32,5% (13 respondents) stated that income was generated from subsistence farming and sale of products to tourist and passing motorists. Only 4 respondents (10%) indicated that they relied on undefined means of income. However, 9 respondents (22,5%) indicated alternative (e) (Annexure A question 5).

Question number 6 relates to the number of additional occupants including children living in a household (Annexure A, question 6 and tables 4.1 and 4.2). The majority of the respondents (15 or 40%) indicated that at least 4 occupants lived in their home, while 15 respondents (37,5%) indicated that they had 5 and more additional occupants living with them. Nevertheless, only 10% (4) of the respondents indicated that 2 other occupants lived with them, while the remaining 5 respondents (12,5%) stated that there were only 3 other occupants who lived with the householder. Note that "additional occupants" excluded the householder.

With regards to question 7, a description of their socio-economic living conditions was required. Seven (17,5%) of the respondents stated that they lived under satisfactory and/or poor socio-economic conditions (tables 4.1 and 4.2). Only 9 respondents (22,5%) indicated living under 'good' socio-economic conditions. However, the majority of them (17 or 42,5%) of a total of 40 respondents felt that they lived below normal living conditions and that their standard of living was extremely low.

Question 8 required a description of their home/dwellings. Seven respondents (17,5%) indicated living in a shack. A shack is usually built of inferior material such as wood, mud, iron and/or plastic. Thirteen (32,5%) lived in traditional huts or rondavels built of mud or cement. Nine respondents (22,5%) lived in a self-built block structured house with no cement plaster and no paint and (27,5% or 11) of respondents indicated that they lived in a fairly well built, plastered and painted house.

In answer to question 9 (Annexure A), respondents were required to indicate the type of service or services available to them in terms of electricity, tapped water and proper sanitation and their responses were tabulated in (Tables 4.1 and 4.2). The following responses were derived. The majority of respondents (15 or 37,5%) indicated that they had electricity, tapped water and toilet/sanitation facilities. Despite this, 14 respondents (35%) indicated having no electricity, tapped water and proper sanitation facilities. Only 8 (20%) of the respondents had only electricity, whilst 3 (7,5%) of respondents had neither electricity nor proper sanitation facilities but did have only tapped water.

Question 10 was directed at respondent's level of literacy in English. This question aimed at finding out how respondents would react to tourists or non-Zulu speakers in the conduct of their tourism business considering that speaking English was crucial to this type of business undertaking. Of the three alternatives (Annexure A), 12 respondents (30%) indicated that they were able to understand, speak, read or write English fluently. Thirteen (32,5%) of respondents indicated that they were slightly literate in English while the remaining 15 (37,5%), (the majority) stated that they were unable to understand, speak, read or write English (Tables 4.1 and 4.2.).

In question 11(Annexure A), respondents were required to provide an answer to the question on the number of children directly dependent on them for a living. The majority, (19 respondents or 47,5%) indicated that they had 2 children who were dependent on them. Three (7,5%) of the respondents mentioned having 1 child dependent on them. Six respondents (15%) indicated having 3 dependents and 4 (10%) of the respondents confirmed having 4 and more children relying on them for a living. However, 8 out of 40 respondents (20%) indicated having no children directly dependent on them for a living.

With regards to question 12 relating to the number of children receiving school education (Annexure A and Tables 4.1 and 4.2) and who were directly dependent on the respondent, 13 (32,5%) indicated having 2 children whilst another 13 (32,5%) indicated having none dependent on them. Only 8 respondents (20%) indicated having 1 child while 6 respondents (15%) had 3 school-going children dependent on them. However, there were no responses with regard to option (d) (Annexure A). With regards to question 13, the question on whether they should engage in another activity to supplement their income, respondents were required to respond with a 'Yes' or 'No'. Thirty-one respondents

(77,5%) chose alternative (a) by responding 'Yes' whilst 9 (22,5%) chose alternative (b) by responding 'No' (Annexure A). Question 14 related to respondents' perceptions with regards to deserving a better life with better living conditions. The majority of the respondents (37 or 92,5%) indicated that they deserved a better life with better living conditions. Only 3 respondents (7,5%) stated 'No' (alternative b) meaning they were satisfied with the way they lived (Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

On the question relating to whether the present government had provided them with better living conditions (Annexure A, question 15) three alternatives were provided. The majority of the respondents (29 or 72,5%) indicated that the present government had done nothing to improve their living conditions, whilst only 11 (27,5%) of the respondents indicated that very little was done for them in terms of improvement. There were no responses to alternative (c).

With reference to question 16, respondents had to give their opinion on what they felt about the development of Umgababa today when compared with what Umgababa was during apartheid. There were no responses to option 16 (a) (Annexure A), which indicated that the improvements in Umgababa had substantially increased. According to (Tables 4.1 and 4.2) 11 respondents (27,5%) indicated that Umgababa was slightly better now than before. Fourteen respondents (35%) felt that they saw no changes to their residential area instead it remained the same. However, the majority of respondents (15 or 37,5%) responded that Umgababa became worse than before.

The first section of this analysis process summed up the findings of the first objective. The results obtained in this section indicate that the community of Umgababa is socio-

economically disadvantaged. In every aspect of their life, majority of the people living in this area suffer the most. They are deprived of the most basic necessities such as food, clothing, shelter, medical care and education. Government has done very little or nothing to alleviate them from their burden of poverty. The question then arises: What could this impoverished community do to fight off poverty and seek a better life? The answer to this lies in empowerment and participation in tourism business ventures in which this community could become active participants in their own development.

#### **4.3.2 Willingness to participate in a tourism venture**

In order to establish whether the community was willing to get involved in tourism business ventures, the researcher asked questions relevant to their willingness to participate in such ventures. Questions 17 to 24 (Annexure A) refers to objective 3 and is directed at 'Yes' / 'No' answers only.

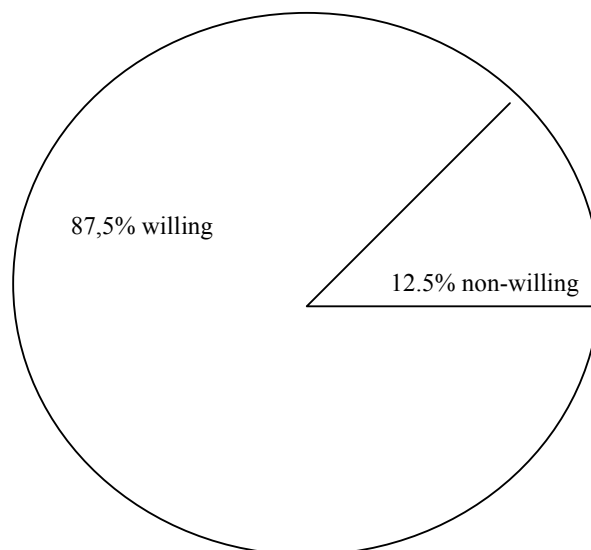
Question 17 (Annexure A), was directed at finding out whether government or tourism developers had approached the residents of Umgababa to assist them in tourism business ventures to improve their living conditions. All 40 of the respondents (100%) answered 'No' (alternative b in Annexure A and Tables 4.1 and 4.2). When respondents were asked whether they had given thought to the idea of developing their area through community participation in a large-scale tourism venture (question 18), the majority (33 respondents or 82,5%) responded they had never thought of the idea. Only 7 respondents (17,5%) indicated that they did think of participation in large-scale tourism as a development potential.



The majority of respondents (35 or 87,5%) chose alternative (a) (Question 19 Annexure A) when asked whether they were willing to learn and participate in a tourism business venture, which could help improve their living conditions (Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2). Only 5 respondents (12,5%) indicated no interest in learning and participating in a tourism venture (Tables 4.1 and 4.2). Table 4.3 and Figure 4.2 highlights the level of response in respect of respondent's willingness to participate in a tourism venture. Note that the majority of the respondents were willing to participate in a tourism related business venture. Respondents were asked (question 20) whether they were likely to use the natural resources available to them in Umgababa to start a tourism business. Of the 40 respondents, (87,5% or 35) (Tables 4.1 and 4.2) chose alternative (a) (Annexure A) while (12,5%) or 5 respondents showed no interest in a tourism business venture using available natural resources in their area.

**Table 4.3: Level of response in terms of willingness to participate in tourism**

Question number	Number willing	%	Number not willing	%
19	35	87,5	5	12,5



**Figure 4.2: Percentage of willing and non-willing respondents**

Referring to question 21, 37 respondents (92,5%) thought that Umgababa had the potential for development and therefore together with their community could do more to improve it. The remaining 3 respondents (7,5%) indicated no interest in such a venture. The majority of respondents (22 or 70 %) indicated that they were involved in a tourism business or had known of someone who was involved in it. However, 12 respondents (30%) responded 'No' to this question (alternative b).

In question 23, respondents were asked whether they were willing to participate in a tourism business but other factors such as crime, politics and lack of finance and support prevented them from pursuing such ventures. According to Tables 4.1 and 4.2, 35 respondents (87,5%) chose to answer 'Yes' (Annexure A, alternative a) while 5 (12,5%) of respondents responded 'No' (alternative b). According to question 24 respondents were required to answer whether participation in a tourism business could be the answer for solving their problems such as their level of poverty and poor living conditions. The majority of the respondents (33 or 82,5%) felt that participation and tourism could be used as a means of socio-economic upliftment, while 7 respondents (17,5%) responded negatively to the question (Question 24, Annexure A).

### **4.3.3 Communicating their knowledge and experience**

Equally important is the need to develop other rural areas not only in KwaZulu-Natal, but also in other rural regions of South Africa. Such tasks need the cooperation and expertise of a few rural communities, which are currently undergoing socio-economic transformation through their participation in tourism related activities. In order for such a transformation to be achieved there is a need for communication between the communities. The researcher

asserts that in order to find out what impact such communication would have on other communities in terms of their development, the perceptions of the community living in the study area had to be determined. The researcher aims to obtain the kind of perception one community has over other rural communities in terms of development through direct involvement in tourism related businesses.

Questions 25 to 28 were directed at obtaining answers relating to the 4<sup>th</sup> objective. With regards to question 25, respondents were asked whether they were aware of other rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal or in South Africa, which are currently being developed through tourism with the involvement of the community. One-third of the respondents (13 or 32,5%) indicated that they were aware of such developments. However, two-thirds of respondents (27 or 67,5%) indicated that they were not aware of such developments (Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

Question 26 was directed at the perception of respondents concerning the effect of tourism on other rural communities. Four alternatives were given (Annexure A). Twenty respondents (50%) who chose alternative (a) indicated that the effect of tourism would bring quick changes for a better standard of living. Fifteen respondents (37,5%) who chose alternative (b) believed that changes would be slow but certain, bringing a better standard of living for them. None of the respondents chose alternative (c), which stated that development will fall apart and life will be the same. Only 5 respondents (12,5%) indicated that they were not interested in developing their area and that they preferred to remain the same (Tables 4.1 and 4.2).

With regards to question 27 (Annexure A and Tables 4.1 and 4.2), the majority of respondents (33 or 82,5%) felt that they could communicate their knowledge and experience with other rural communities to develop and improve themselves and their area. Only 7 respondents (17,5%) felt otherwise. In the final question (question 28), 35 respondents (87,5%) were in favour of sharing their knowledge and expertise to other rural communities in a drive to start tourism business ventures throughout South Africa, in the hope of redressing poverty in poor rural communities. Only 5 respondents (12,5%) were not in favour of this.

Mahoney and van Zyl (2001) had undertaken significant research both internationally and locally on tourism development and its impacts on the empowerment of rural communities. They analyse the extent to which tourism projects in South Africa, namely the Malkuleke Bungalows, the Umngazi and the Manyeleti game reserve have improved the livelihoods of rural communities and contributed to rural socio-economic development. In another case study of Banzi Pna safari Lodge, (Naguran (2000: 39) refers to a joint venture between a local community, the Conservation services and the private developer, wilderness safaris as an example of a community-based tourism (CBT) project in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal. Developments such as these provide sufficient proof of areas currently being developed through proper communication and participation in tourism.

The challenging task in development appears to come from shared interest in directing knowledge and expertise to other communities. The majority of the respondents perceived that given the opportunity, rural communities from other rural areas in South Africa could learn from the community of Umgababa to improve their own lives. The researcher found this variable as most suitable for analysis. Respondents felt that through proper

communication with other rural communities there was a possibility for communities undergoing empowerment and learning the tourism business. Respondents also agreed that given the opportunity they would be willing to share their knowledge and expertise with other rural communities in a drive to start tourism business ventures throughout South Africa that would see a new dawn for the poor. Through proper communication with other rural communities in South Africa, and through joint efforts in establishing tourism business ventures, much could be achieved in creating a stable life for the poor. This is to say that good communication with and between rural communities has to be established in order to facilitate development.

The study undertaken in Umgababa is important since the results could be communicated with other rural communities in South Africa with similar needs. The community's willingness to participate in communicating their knowledge and experience in tourism and development could lead to other rural communities developing themselves.

#### **4.4 Conclusion**

The analyses and interpretation of data have indicated that the rural community of Umgababa is generally impoverished and live under extremely poor socio-economic conditions. As a result of their poverty, the Umgababa rural community is willing to participate in tourism as a means to improve their standard of living. The results obtained from the analyses and interpretation of data has assisted in identifying key problems associated within the rural community of Umgababa. The results obtained also suggest that through proper channels of communication, further joint ventures with other rural communities could bring benefits in tourism to this community. Through observations, the

findings of this research also indicate that the available reserves of natural as well as human resources in the study area could support successful tourism ventures for this community with a view to development. Three out of the four objectives of this research were fully identified and explained through the analyses and interpretation process. Data that was analysed and interpreted also drew out hidden factors that previously affected the community and now provided clues towards problem solving. This brings to an end the analysis and interpretation process. The next chapter will focus on the synthesis of data and recommendations with regards to tourism development in Umgababa.

## CHAPTER 5

### SYNTHESIS AND RECOMMENDATION

#### 5.1 Introduction

Further interpretation of data was necessary to justify the results and ensure finality. This was done through the process of synthesis. Synthesis is defined in the Longman New Generation Dictionary (1981: 697) as “to make up or produce by combining parts or ideas”. Synthesis is also defined in the Reader’s Digest Oxford Wordfinder (1993: 1584) as “the process or result of building up separate elements, especially ideas, into a connected whole, especially into a theory or system”. By means of synthesis the relationships between variables that are relevant to the understanding of a phenomenon or event are reconstructed to provide an insight into the casual or underlying factors associated with the events or factors being studied (Mouton and Marais 1990: 102). Synthesis is used in data analysis to identify relationships between concepts and categories (Walker and Avant 1998: 24). Morse (1994: 25) is of the opinion that synthesizing begins when the researcher has become familiarized with the setting. Researchers have reached this level in data collection when they can describe stories of the phenomena that are being explored. The summary or synthesis, according to Bailey and Powel (1987: 69), serves two purposes: it summarises the main points, and suggests the idea of finality to the reader.

#### 5.2 Research objectives

##### 5.2.1 Socio-economic conditions

In terms of the data analysis (Annexure A and Tables 4.1 and 4.2) the majority of the people living in Umgababa are poor and therefore live under poor social and economic

conditions. One of the deductions made from the data analysis and interpretation was that a large percentage of the people living in Umgababa could not find suitable employment. Umgababa does not have the infrastructure, commerce and industry to provide these people with suitable employment. These people seek employment in nearby towns and/or cities where jobs are also scarce. Many of them have to migrate with their families from their homes in search of better life elsewhere. Sometimes these families have to return to their homes because all hopes elsewhere have failed to materialize. Many of them have little or no knowledge of any particular type of work; as a result they find it difficult to enter any form of skilled employment. They continue to seek jobs that require little or no skill and when they are unable to find one, they return to their rural household and remain unemployed.

The poor rural community of Umgababa tends to appreciate the little they earn. A family of eight could survive on an income of between R500 and R2500 per month. When the earning is so low that mere survival is experienced, large families, mostly women and children tend to work in subsistence agriculture or sell fruit and ornaments on the freeway and in curio stores. These kinds of activities take place along many freeways and roads in KwaZulu-Natal. Other forms of income supporting households come from government grants and pensions. In many households, this could be the only source of income. Life could become so difficult for these people that they tend to exclude themselves from the rest of the community and the world outside. While a few of their neighbours enjoy the use of electricity and tapped water, many of them have to survive with paraffin for energy and water from wells and streams.



A noticeable difference in Umgababa is the type and condition of the dwellings. Houses range from shacks, to thatch and mud and cement build rondavels, wood and iron buildings and cheaply built block homes. Houses are fairly small, some having one room while others range from two to four rooms. The surrounding of the home is planted with crops such as mealies, pumpkins and spinach. The general appearance of the people indicates that they lack the basics of life, nutritious food, a decent shelter, proper clothing and good education.

A further difficulty is their inability to communicate in English, which is crucial for employment and business. A business in tourism generally requires communication in English because of their close contact with overseas as well as domestic English speaking tourists. An entrepreneur who lacks this skill would find it difficult to pursue a business in tourism.

Since the community of Umgababa lives under a tribal system they would have to contend with communal laws and chieftainship. There is little that these people could do without consent from their headmen. Women suffer the most because they have to serve as head of households, do the household chores, support their children, fetch water and cultivate the land to provide food for their families. These are especially difficult times for women who do not have a husband. For those who do have husbands the same type of activities apply to the women folk. Women experience worse times when their husband dies. They become subordinate to and dependent on their headmen for help in times of problems and in need and they are also not allowed to own land.

The Umgababa community is disheartened with the way the present government treats them. They feel neglected and abandoned from the wider society. Government seems to have failed in its promises to deliver development to the area, giving rise to this impoverished community. The community had expected to see changes in their living conditions compared to what it had been during the apartheid era to the present government, but this did not materialize. Their distrust in the present government was a result of empty promises made to the community in terms of development. The government in turn blames the previous government on their failure to deliver. The people have no one to rely on for their livelihood, except themselves. Their only alternative seems to be to engage in some form of self-sustaining activities in which participation in tourism could be their only hope.

### **5.2.2 Natural and human resources**

The people living in Umgababa were not given the opportunity to enter into a tourism business that could assist them in changing their living conditions. Had they been given the opportunity to use the natural resources and the available human resources in their area, they could have kick-started a tourism business in their area. Just as the study area has an abundance of available natural and human resources, it is possible for other rural areas in South Africa to have, if not all, some of these resources. With regards to human resources and natural resources Umgababa has an abundance to offer to the business of tourism.

The people in the area form the human resources. They have the knowledge, skill and manpower to generate wealth. They could utilize the environment to their maximum financial benefit whilst ensuring sustainable use of the land. There is the interaction

between the community and their environment, in terms of their use of the available natural resources; and there is the interaction between the community and the economic environment in terms of generating income. The natural resources that appear to dominate the study area are the beach and sand dune, the river and its estuary (river mouth), indigenous flora and fauna, an undulating landscape, wetland and bird life; rich soil conditions, a warm climate with good summer rainfall and cool winters. The river could provide a venue for water sports such as canoeing, boating and a picnic spot. A well-established wetland with flora, fauna and birdlife could serve as a front for sightseeing. The bush thickets and the undulating landscape could be used as ideal hiking trails. Fertile soil, perfect climatic conditions and weather patterns are good for cultivation and animal husbandry.

The beach could serve visitors during peak holiday periods. In this regard, cultural shows, beach games and beach sports could be hosted to accommodate visitors and locals during the peak holiday season. Summer experiences an influx of tourists both domestic and international to the neighbouring towns of Umgababa. The community of Umgababa has an advantage in that they could draw these tourists to their area and use them to their own advantage. In terms of man-made resources, the Old South Coast Road provides access to the rural settlement situated between the adjoining towns of Kingsburgh and Umkomaas. The Karridene Hotel, under the umbrella of the Protea Hotels, is situated alongside this road bordering the study area. A few bead and breakfast establishments have already been catering for tourists in the settlement.

The economic and cultural resources serve to have a profound impact on the community of this settlement. Fruit, vegetables, cultural and traditional ornaments produced by the

community of this area for sale, are a common sight along the freeway. It is difficult for these people to walk long distances to sell their products. The development of tourism in their area could provide them with the infrastructure to sell their products closer to their homes. In 2003 the Umgababa Beach Festival was organized as a cultural event, together with the Umgababa Beach Resort show. This ongoing cultural event, which includes music by prominent musicians, Miss Umgababa contest, and Zulu dancers is very successful and is usually attended by a number of “VIPs” and dignitaries. Economically, these events generate large sums of money to the organizers within the community. Regular shows like these could attract people from afar.

In Umgababa, the natural and human resources remain unused, but are the necessary tools for tourism development. There is a desperate and dependable community that is willing to do almost anything to earn a living but do not have the human power to overcome their problems. They live in an area that has both the necessary development potential, the natural resources as well the human resources to turn their impoverished area into a wealth generating economy. Their answer lies in their participation in tourism as a means for development.

### **5.2.3 Willingness to participate in a tourism venture**

The availability of natural and human resources are not enough to develop rural areas. The interest of the community in playing a role in development is crucial. Participation requires the need for communities to structure themselves in such a manner that they engage themselves in decision-making, to organize development projects in tourism and facilitate a common goal towards progress. Participation should not isolate the wealthier from the

poor, nor should it dictate what the other should do. The decision to undertake a task should be intrinsic and not through persuasion. People should be offered to use their will and urge to participate and should not be forced to undertake a certain performance by the decision of others. Rural communities have an obliging interest in their own lives but cannot just sit back and expect others to do it for them. What is important is the need for some sort of motivation or incentive to encourage these communities to participate in tourism development. There is certainly a need for outside support, someone with the skill and knowledge to help kick-start the idea of participation. A research study of this nature could provide theoretical support to this community in the hope of development.

The findings of this research supports the view that the people living in Umgababa are willing to participate in tourism for the development of their area as well as for their own improvements. They have the natural resources, the human resources as well as the motivation to participate in the upliftment process. What is lacking is the financial support and guidance to pursue their goals. The community is aware that they have little hope of improvement if they are not willing to participate. Findings of research undertaken by geographers in development studies (Chapter 2) provide evidence that through community participation in tourism, many rural communities have developed. There is also a greater possibility that Umgababa could develop in a similar way. In order to receive help either from government or private sector, communities would first have to take the initiative by providing their share in development. Should they find themselves in difficulty, then it would become necessary to seek further assistance.

The finding of this research acknowledges that the community living in the study area is willing to undertake a tourism business venture. Given the necessary training in skill

development through empowerment programmes and financial assistance, there is possible hope that this rural community could uplift their livelihood through tourism.

#### **5.2.4 Communicating their knowledge and experience**

One of the findings of this research is the poor level of communication that the Umgababa rural community has with other rural communities. By communication is meant the mutual relationships between rural communities in terms of sharing ideas and pursuance of development. Through lack of proper communication, rural communities seem to live in isolation from other rural communities and the wider society. The findings of this research indicate that rural communities have a very poor perception of the problems encountered by other rural communities. Their poor insight could be as a result of their own poverty, which draws their attention to their own problems. There is very little or no communication with other communities due to their possible disinterest in others' problems. Many rural communities take for granted that all rural areas have problems and it is nothing new to them; it is the task of government to make the necessary provisions. These communities lack the knowledge and skill to venture on their own and therefore stagnate in the absence of communication. Given the opportunity and assistance where necessary, the Umgababa community could share their knowledge and expertise to other rural communities and also learn from them in order to derive mutual financial and structural benefits. One of the main criteria in this learning and sharing process would depend on proper communication.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

The findings of this research indicate that majority of the people living in Umgababa are generally poor and are in need of some form of assistance to improve their living standards. Rural communities in general may need similar assistance. For this to materialize, something urgent needs to be done. Since the Umgababa area has an abundance of natural, human and man-made resources to accommodate a tourism business, and since the majority of its people are willing to engage in such a business venture, it is therefore recommended that government and the private sector urgently step in to provide this community a helping hand to kick-start such a business venture. This could be done through the provision of empowerment programmes, such as basic skills development, adult basic education and training for would-be entrepreneurs, literacy teaching/learning programmes, on-the-job training and the provision of tourism facilities. Further support to the community could be in the form of funding, infrastructure development, policing and security, legal rights to ownership of land and acknowledging participatory decision-making. Especially women should be regarded in high esteem and be given the opportunity to operate their own business in line with gender equity. Women generally remain at home and therefore make up the majority of the community. These women remain stagnant and therefore cannot do anything in terms of generating an income. Tourism could be the ideal working tool for these women while the men folk are out and about.

It is also recommended that the people of Umgababa consult with their neighbouring rural communities who are already in the process of development so that they could share their experience, knowledge and expertise with a view to helping themselves develop on an equal footing. This could be best be done through the development of communication links

such as telephone services, postal services, transport networks to travel to and fro and by providing general education to the people on issues relating to communication. Currently, government has appointed specialist officials to oversee this process through the provision of liaison between communities. Task teams need to be set up to organize and implement the experiences of other communities with Umgababa. Umgababa however, sadly lacks these necessities.

It is further recommended that the community form their own organization to oversee, control and manage the development process. This organization could form liaisons with other tourism organizations in South Africa and worldwide. There are instances where the community could undertake visits to other rural areas in an attempt to learn and apply their knowledge and expertise where development has already taken place or is currently ongoing. The experiences of other communities could provide incentives to Umgababa to develop their area. Although government is showing greater interest in the welfare of other rural communities, this is not happening in Umgababa. The participatory initiatives sought by this community should become an incentive for government intervention. Greater private sector intervention is also required. By engaging in joint partnerships, private sector and the community could find themselves mutually benefiting from such a venture. Government together with the private sector could provide added impetus to rural development especially in Umgababa where the community is in need of it and is willing to participate in the development process.

The media could play a vital role by advertising Umgababa as a rural area for tourism. Media has the power to “show” the area to the world. Community associations with tourism organizations such as South African Tourism (SAT) and other local and



international tourism stakeholders could broaden their marketbase. Finally, it is important for the community to plan and implement their strategy with honesty, pride and diligence. This means that there should be no room for corruption, in fighting, walkouts and distrust amongst its members and its community.

### **5.3 Conclusion**

The community of Umgababa has for a long time been suffering from poverty and poor living standards. The community remains stagnant in terms of employment, education, housing, amenities, provision of basic services and infrastructure development. This has resulted in deterioration of their socio-economic living conditions. Especially women who have been more deprived have to carry the burden of caring for their households especially in the absence of men folk. There is a need for some form of action to be taken if this Umgababa rural community wishes to move from their present state of living to something better. The answer to this lies in tourism. The community is willing to participate in tourism business ventures and they could achieve this by communicating with other rural communities in respect of their knowledge and expertise to pursue a proactive role in their own development. The data analyses and interpretation led to the findings of the thesis. Recommendations made in this research provided valuable clues to would-be entrepreneurs in Umgababa, to government, to private sector developers and to the rural communities at large on how best to tackle the subject of rural development and the improvement of their living conditions.

The community of Umgababa could continue to live under poor socio-economic conditions unless drastic steps are taken to prevent this occurrence. Their only hope lies in their

participation in tourism in the area in which they live. They could make a start by turning to the available natural resources. They also possess the human resource to encounter any obstacles and to generate empowerment and development. Their decision to start a tourism business venture could be a turning point in their lives. Through perseverance, endurance and proper communication with other rural communities, the community of Umgababa could change their livelihood forever.

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## ANNEXURE A

### Questionnaire for quantitative data collection

Please answer the following questions by marking a circle over the answer of your choice. In case you have made an error, then cross the incorrect one and then mark the correct answer.

1. State your type of employment.
  - a. full time/permanent
  - b. casual/temporary
  - c. self-employed
  - d. unemployed
2. Name your employment category.
  - a. skilled worker
  - b. professional
  - c. semi-skilled
  - d. unskilled
  - e. none of the above
3. Indicate the monthly joint income (total income) in your household.
  - a. R10 – R100
  - b. R101 – R500
  - c. R501 – R1500
  - d. R1501 – R3000
  - e. R3000 and above
4. Is there any other member of your family adding to the income?
  - a. Yes
  - b. No
5. State any other source of income from the list given.
  - a. government grant/pension (child, old age, disability, other)
  - b. income from children working
  - c. subsistence farming and/or sale of product to tourists/motorists/curios and stalls
  - d. any other means of income
  - e. none
6. State the number of additional occupants including children in your household.
  - a. 2
  - b. 3
  - c. 4
  - d. 5 and more
7. Describe your socio-economic living conditions.
  - a. satisfactory
  - b. good
  - c. poor
  - d. below living conditions/standard, poverty

8. Describe the type of your home/dwelling.
- shack
  - traditional hut/rondavel-mud-cement
  - self-built unplastered/unpainted block built
  - well built, plastered/painted dwelling
9. Name the type of service/s in your household.
- electricity
  - tapped water only /single exterior tap
  - electricity, tapped water, toilet/sanitation facilities
  - none of the above
10. You are able to understand, speak, read or write English:
- fluently
  - slightly
  - not at all
11. Number of children directly dependent on you for a living?
- 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4 and more
  - none
12. Number of children receiving school education and are directly dependent on you?
- 1
  - 2
  - 3
  - 4
  - none
13. Do you think that you should engage in another activity to supplement your income?
- Yes
  - No
14. Do you think that you deserve a better way of life with better living conditions?
- Yes
  - No
15. In what way has the present government provided you with better living conditions?
- a little
  - a lot
  - not at all

16. How would you compare Umgababa in terms of development from what it was during apartheid and to what it is today?
- a. substantially increased
  - b. slightly better now
  - c. remained the same
  - d. became worse than before
17. Have you ever been approached by government or developers to assist you in a business venture or to improve Umgababa?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
18. Have you ever thought of developing your area by participating with your community in a large-scale tourism?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
19. Given the opportunity, are you willing to learn and participate in a tourism business venture, that could bring additional income for you to improve your livelihood?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
20. Given the opportunity, would you like to use the natural resources in your area to start a tourism business?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
21. Do you think that Umgababa has the potential for development and that you and your community could do more to improve it?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
22. Have you ever been involved, or know of anyone been involved, in a tourism business?
- a. Yes
  - b. No
23. Are you willing to participate in a tourism business but other factors such as crime, politics, lack of finance, lack of support from government or any other inhibiting factor prevent you from doing so?
- a. Yes
  - b. No

24. Do you think that participation in a tourism business could be the answer for your solving your problems such as poverty or poor living conditions?
- a. Yes                      b. uncertain-could be possible                      c. No
25. Are you aware of other rural areas in KwaZulu-Natal or in South Africa, which is being developed through tourism through tourism and where the community is directly involved in it?
- a. Yes                                              b. No
26. What effect do you think tourism could have on other rural areas in South Africa?
- a. quick changes for a better standard of living  
b. slow but sure changes to better standard of living  
c. development will fall apart and life will be the same  
d. nobody will be interested in development, prefer to remain the same
27. Do you think that communities from other rural areas in South Africa could learn from the community of Umgababa and develop their own areas and then benefit from it for a better life?
- a. Yes                                              b. uncertain  
c. No
28. Given the opportunity, are you willing to share your knowledge and expertise to other rural communities in a drive to start tourism business ventures throughout South Africa, which will see a new dawn for the poor?
- a. Yes                                              b. No