

**The Social and Economic impact of Eco-tourism: Reviewing of Tourism Policy in  
Zwelisha in Drakenberg and Khula Village in St. Lucia KZN.**

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BY

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## **Abstract**

The study scientifically and empirically evaluates the social and economic impact of ecotourism, as well as its relationship with the tourism policy. The primary focus is on the displacement of communities, the effect it brought to cultural needs of the communities as well as an escalating poverty rate. The South African tourism policy is the primary document underlying the development and promotion of tourism in the country for sustainable economic development. Supporting this is the South African constitution where it promotes the protection of the environment for the benefit of present and future generations through reasonable legislative and other measures that: prevent pollution and ecological degradation; promote conservation; and secure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development.

The research then looks at how the lives of the affected communities are incorporated into these objectives without affecting social and cultural lives of the people.

## **ACRONYMS**

<b>ANC</b>	<b>African National Congress</b>
<b>CBOs</b>	<b>Community Based Organisations</b>
<b>COSATU</b>	<b>Congress of South African Trade Unions</b>
<b>DEAT</b>	<b>Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism</b>
<b>DLA</b>	<b>Department of Land Affairs</b>
<b>EIA</b>	<b>Environmental Impact Assessment</b>
<b>GDP</b>	<b>Gross Domestic Product</b>
<b>IDPs</b>	<b>Integrated Development Plans</b>
<b>ITTT</b>	<b>Interim Tourism Task Team</b>
<b>KZN</b>	<b>KwaZulu Natal</b>
<b>LA21</b>	<b>Local Agenda 21</b>
<b>LEDS</b>	<b>Local Economic Development Strategies</b>
<b>N&amp;D</b>	<b>Needs and Desirability</b>
<b>NGOs</b>	<b>Non Governmental Organisations</b>
<b>PGDS</b>	<b>Provincial Growth and Development Strategy</b>
<b>PPA</b>	<b>Personal Profile Analysis</b>
<b>RDP</b>	<b>Reconstruction and Development Programme</b>
<b>SACP</b>	<b>South African Communist Party</b>
<b>SADT</b>	<b>South African Development Trust</b>
<b>SANCO</b>	<b>South African National Civics Organisation</b>
<b>SMMEs</b>	<b>Small, Medium, and Micro Enterprises</b>
<b>SPSS</b>	<b>Statistical Program for Social Sciences</b>

<b>TRPC:</b>	<b>Town and Regional Planning Commission</b>
<b>UN:</b>	<b>United Nations</b>
<b>UNCED</b>	<b>United Nations Conference on Environment and Development</b>
<b>UNESCO</b>	<b>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</b>
<b>VOs</b>	<b>Voluntary Organisations</b>

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## **Chapter 1**

### **1.1 Introduction**

The tourism White Paper (1996) describes tourism development in South Africa as a missed opportunity, in the sense that most of black population were systematically excluded from partaking in decision-making because of obvious socio-political reasons. "Had history been different, South Africa would probably have been one of the most visited places in the world" (Tourism white paper, 1996). With the population of 44 819 778 million people and a land area of 1.27 million square kilometres([www.statssa.gov.za](http://www.statssa.gov.za)) which is five times the size of the United Kingdom, South Africa's resource base is phenomenal with incredible tourism attractions which lies in its diversity. A few of these attractive resource include: accessible wild life, varied and impressive scenery, unspoiled wilderness areas, diverse cultures, generally sunny and hot climate and virtually unlimited opportunities for special interest activities ranging from deep-sea fishing to hunting and diving. In addition to these there is also a unique archaeological sites and battlefields, excellent conference centres and exhibition facilities as well as internationally known attractions such as Kruger National Park, Table Mountain and World Heritage Sites which include the Ukhahlamba Drakensberg Park, St Lucia Wetlands Park, Cape Floral Region Protected Areas, Robben Island, Cradle for Humankind and Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape.

While ecotourism is good for the preservation of natural resources which includes forests, mountains, plants, animals etc, it also has problems associated with it. These can range from cultural diminishing, dismantling of social net and most importantly displacement of communities which results to poverty and under development as well as access denial to culturally significant sites.

Although tourism can improve local living standards, uncontrolled development can destabilize whole communities. Negative impacts can range from increased tension as a result of unequal benefits to crime, prostitution, begging, and alcohol and drug abuse. Tourism operators should be sensitive to potential impacts, such as loss of privacy, prevention of access to culturally significant places, invasion of sacred sites or the demeaning of cultural ceremonies, which can

result from tourism. By setting up genuine cooperative structures with staff and local people and involving them in planning and decision making, trust and mutual cooperation can be built. Providing support to education and health care and contributing to social infrastructure also promote goodwill and help to improve local quality of life, ultimately leading to mutual benefits.

South Africa as a democratic country ensures social well being of all South Africans through a series of clauses that are directly securing the environment and the people. These include the bill of rights. Various sections of the Bill of Rights have major relevance to environmental policy. Section 24 of the Bill of Rights guarantees that:

*Everyone has the right:*

- (a) to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well-being; and*
- (b) to have the environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures that -*
  - (I) prevent pollution and ecological degradation;*
  - (ii) promote conservation; and*
  - (ii) secure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development. (SA constitution, Act 108 of 1996)*

As good as the policies may be, what the research seeks to look at is the relationship between environmental preservation documents especially the white paper (1996) on tourism and other documents, which include environmental policy and constitution as well as affected communities.

Whether there was any proper consultation with the communities during the drafting of the white paper is a question?

The following are important rights captured by White Paper:

- (i) Section 25 (Property)
- (ii) Section 26 (Housing)
- (iii) Section 27 (Health care, food, water and social security)
- (iv) Section 32 (Access to information) and
- (v) Section 33 (Just administrative action).

In terms of section 8 of the South African Constitution, the Bill of Rights applies to all law, and binds the legislature, executive, judiciary and all organs of state. This means that government must give effect to the rights in the exercise of environmental governance. In terms of section 24 of the constitution people can take legal action to protect their environmental and other rights, even where government has no obligation in terms of any other statute to give effect to these rights. Section 24 also compels government to pass reasonable legislation to protect the environment, prevent pollution and ecological degradation, and secure sustainable development. Government must also ensure compliance with legislation. But what seeks to be addressed is whether these rights are in line with the basic human rights and if not, did the White Paper address the problem correctly?

## **1.2 Motivation of the Study**

The emergence of ecotourism as one of the growing industries in South Africa has resulted in a number of places being reserved as tourism destinations. While these places have contributed positively to the economic development of the country, they also have socio-political results that influence surrounding communities in one way or the other. Whilst tourism can improve local living standards, uncontrolled development can destabilise whole communities. Negative impacts can range from increased tension as a result of unequal benefits to crime, prostitution, begging, alcohol and drug abuse. Tourism operators should be sensitive to potential impacts, such as loss of privacy, prevention of access to culturally significant places, invasion of sacred sites or the demeaning of cultural ceremonies, which can result from tourism ([www.satis.co.za](http://www.satis.co.za)). This is also a concern for the government. As proclaimed on the White paper (1996), “...most protected areas were proclaimed without consultation with, or the approval of, affected rural communities. Communities bore the cost of reduced access to natural and cultural resources but did not perceive, or receive any direct benefits”. This shows that even though the industry produced good fruits to others, but there is also a concern that it negatively affects poor rural communities as well.

Since the research will look at social and economic impact of ecotourism it is also important to unpack the perception of other writers on the subject matter. Robinson and Boniface argued that “any discussion of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism there is the difficulty of separating the

social from cultural, and divisions can be largely arbitrary". This implies that what can be perceived as a social matter can be a culture related. It then becomes difficult for the researcher to differentiate between culture related issues and those that are social given the siameseness of the issues in question. Drama revealed that; in many touristic "countries" socio-cultural structures have changed considerably under the influence of tourism (McIntosh et al. 1995).

One of the most important issues that have raised concern in many countries that have recorded substantial growth in tourism is the issue of unsurpassed escalation of prostitution which is a course for concern to affected communities. This is also an area that the researcher will closely look at in the research. This has been supported by other writers, "one social impact which is frequently associated with the growth of tourism is prostitution, both male and female. (Robinson and Boniface).

Further looking at social aspect of ecotourism there has been a heated debate that encapsulates the issue of the rights of individuals. Previous scholars have argued that: the morality of an action is determined by whether its performance adheres to moral duties, rather than by the action's repercussions. Our moral duties include the treatment of individuals with dignity and respect. (Anderson,). Still on the rights of human beings there is also a concern that there is lack of proper consultation during planning with affected communities which is a serious violation of human rights. Individuals have the right to know the truth and be fully consulted before whatever action that may affect their social wellbeing is to be taken. According to the **Principle of Ends**, one should never treat humanity as a means to an end, but always as an end in itself. This suggests that individuals should not be exploited in pursuit of profits.

The research will also look at how people are affected during the process since there are many problems that have erupted in areas where displacement as a result of ecotourism has occurred. Other writers alluded that the rights of individuals should: include the rights of individuals to choose freely what they will do with their lives, to have privacy, to be free of punishment, and to receive what has been promised in contract or argument (Anderson D). Ecotourism has been characterised by displacement of people from their areas with the promise of getting better service in their new places.

What the research will also specifically look at is the relevance, coherence as well as the conformity of the policy in relation to the issue in question. It has been argued that policies are profit orientated than securing the interests of ordinary citizens: policies must seek to mitigate and avoid the negative aspects of tourism's socio-cultural impact ..... It will help to ensure a good quality experience for the tourist (Robinson and Boniface)

Adding to this were laudable aspirations of the Rio Earth summit in 1992 where among other challenges drafted on the Local Agenda 21 (LA21) where it required local government globally to find ways of framing policy goals which would incorporate the central tenets of sustainable development and would also draw communities into a participative, collaborative policy making process. Out of the policy there must be a clear and tangible evidence that sustainable tourism as a policy goal can be translated into implementable policies, which will transform conceptually robust and well rehearsed theory into action. If these policies are not coordinated well they can make implementation very difficult by pulling back processes of development.

### **1.3 Aims and Objectives of the study**

The aims of the study are to measure if:

- Tourism creates sustainable employment opportunities and contributes to the well-being of the rural people through alleviating poverty.
- The policy encourage the community participation in the planning, development, management and implementation of tourism projects and
- There is a relationship between ecotourism and surrounding communities

### **1.4 Hypothesis**

The emergence of eco-tourism as one of the growing industries in South Africa has resulted in a number of places being reserved as tourism destinations and the displacement of poor communities resulting in breakdown of cultural practices and an increase in poverty. Does the Tourism policy address these problems?

## **1.5 Study Area**

Of the six places identified as bases of ecotourism and World Heritage Sites and centres of attraction for tourists in South Africa two of them are in KwaZulu Natal (KZN). The study will mainly focus on the two in KZN which are Drankensberg and Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Each area is presented below: this includes even the four that are not the focus of the study.

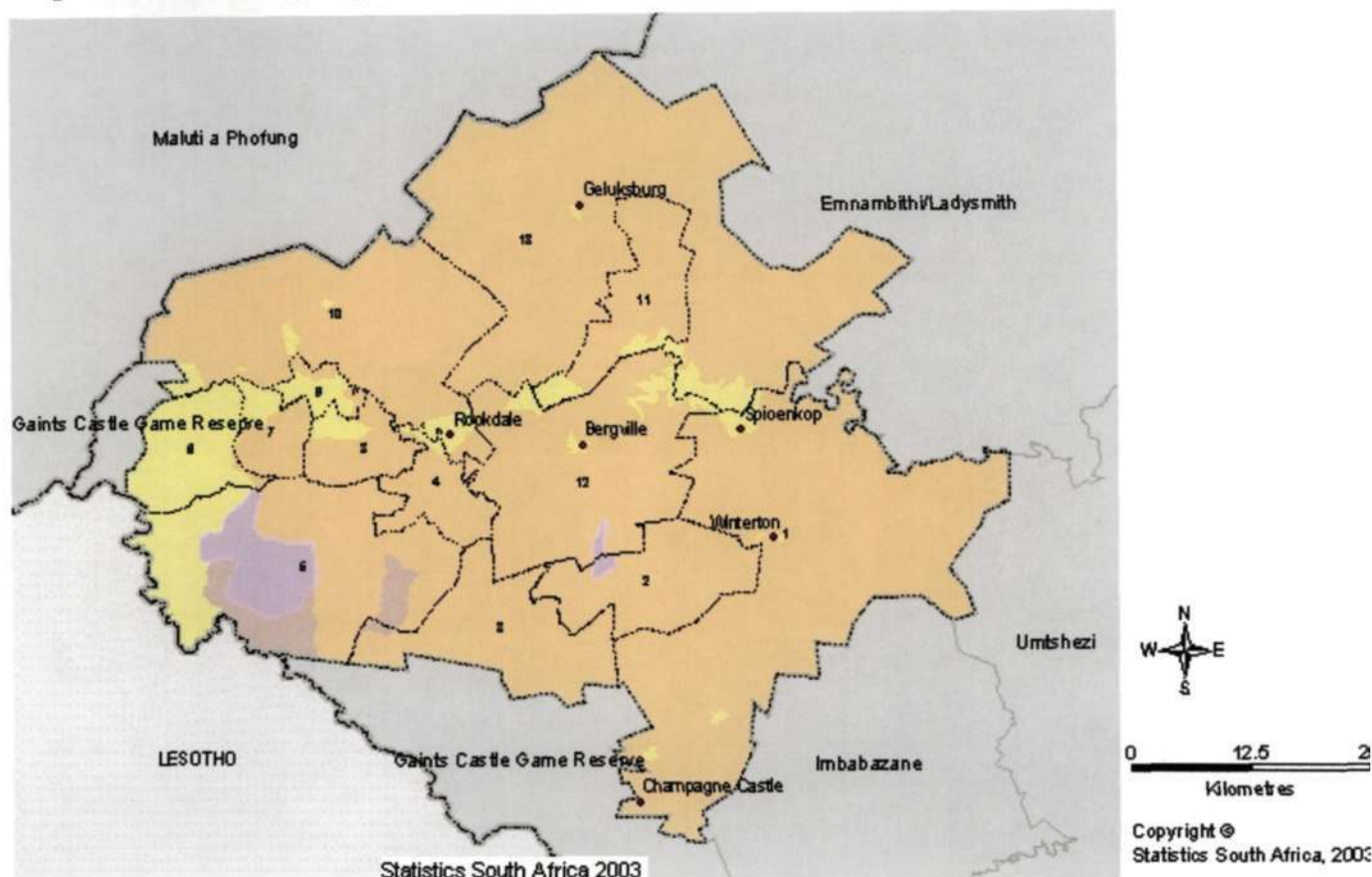
### **1.5.1 Drankensberg**

Ukhahlamba/Drankensberg is characterised by outstanding natural beauty and cultural heritage. It contains Africa's highest mountain range South of Kilimanjaro, and has the largest and most concentrated series of rock art paintings in the sub-Saharan Africa. Located in the west of KZN province, along its border with Lesotho, the park is 243.00 hectares in size and spans 150 kilometres from the Royal Hotel national park in the north of the Cobham forest station in the South. Both the Zulu name Ukhahlamba\_ "Barrier of Spears"\_ and the Afrikaans name Drankensberg (Dragon mountains) aptly describes this formidable mountain area.

For more than 4 600 years the mountains were the home of the indigenous San people, who created a vast body of rock art in the sandstone caves and rock shelters of the Drankensberg valleys. It was this combination of artistry and cultural heritage with spectacular natural beauty that led to the park being inscribed to a world heritage site. In this justification for inscription, UNESCO cited the scope and importance of the rock paintings in Africa South of the Sahara and their quality of diversity of subject. It was equally impressed by the sites morphology, fauna and flora.



**Map: 1 Drakensberg map**



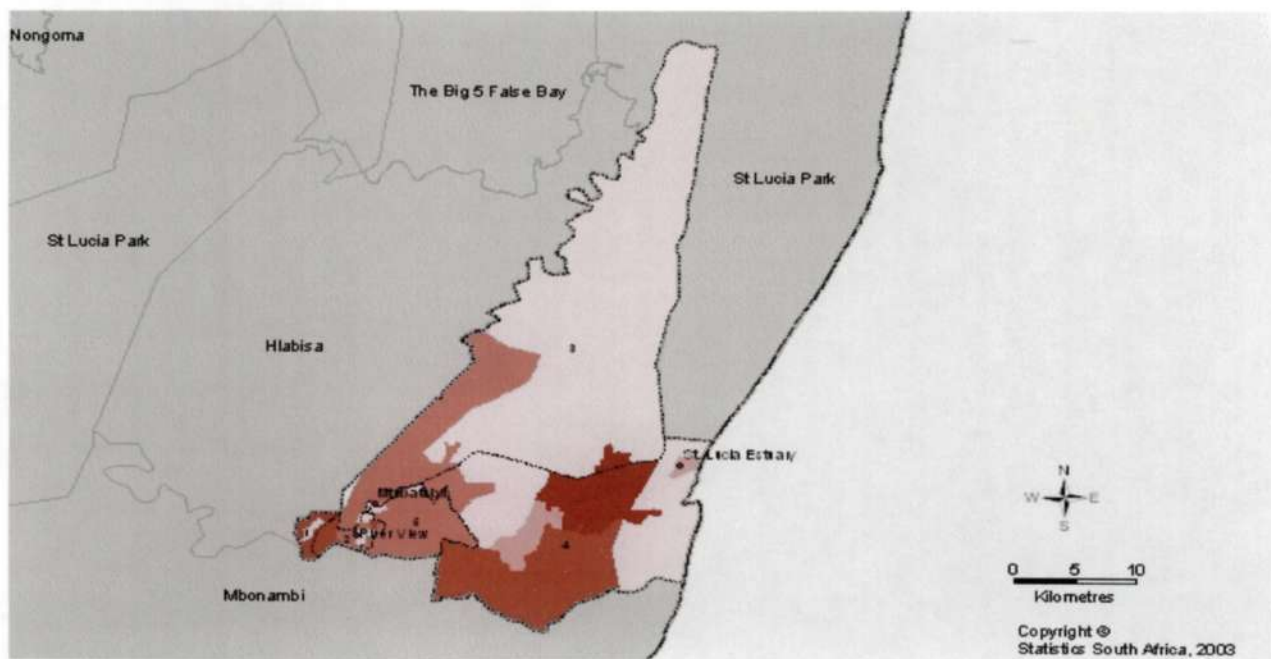
### 1.5.2 Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park

Boasting the largest system of the estuaries in Africa as well as the continent's southernmost coral reefs, the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is an area of exceptional biodiversity. Situated on the central Zululand coast in the province of KZN, the park is made up of 13 adjoining protected areas with a total size of 234 566 hectares. Greater St Lucia's location, at 27 degrees South,

places it between sub-tropical and tropical Africa, contributing to its remarkable bird life, which numbers approximately 521 species.

Avian biodiversity is among the reasons the St Lucia site won the world heritage status. In its Justification for Inscription, UNESCO also emphasises “a combination of ongoing fluvial, marine and Aeolian processes that have resulted in a variety of land forms and ecosystems”. Shaped by the actions of River Sea and wind, St Lucia’s unique landscape offers critical habitats to a wide range of Africa’s marine, wetland and savannah species. The UNESCO inscription states that this variety, together with “major flood and storm events” results in “on going evolutionary process in the area.

**Map: 2 Greater St Lucia Wetlands Map**



(Statistics South Africa 2003)

Other world heritage sites that also have impacted on the lives of the people in one way or the other are:

**1.5.3 Mapungubwe**

**“Place of the stone of wisdom”- is situated in the open Savannah of the Mapungudwe National Park, at the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe Rivers in Limpopo Province. Among the factors that UNESCO lists for naming Mapungubwe as a World Heritage Site, is that it contains evidence of an important interchange of human values that led to far-reaching cultural and social changes in Southern Africa between AD 900 and AD 1300.**

#### **1.5.4 Sterkfontein**

**Known in South Africa as The Cradle of Humankind, the region of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Komdraai and environs provide one of the World’s richest concentrations of hominid fossils, and eloquent evidence of human evolution over the past 3.5 million years. Located in north-western Gouteng Province, the fossil sites cover an area of 47 000 hectares. Although other sites in south and East Africa have such remains, The Cradle for Humankind has produced more than 950 hominid fossil specimens. In its Justification for Inscription as a World Heritage Site, UNESCO said: “The Sterkfontein area contains an exceptionally large and scientifically significant group of sites which throw light on the earliest ancestors of humankind. They constitute a vast reserve of scientific information, the potential of which is enormous” (Explore South Africa,2005).**

#### **1.5.5 Cape Floral Region**

**The Cape Floral Region is one of the richest areas for plants in the world and one of the globe’s 18 biodiversity hot spots. Cape Floral Region comprises eight protected areas stretching from the Cape Peninsula to the Eastern Cape: Tale Mountain, De Hoop Nature Reserve, the Boland mountain complex, Groot Winterhoek wilderness area, the Swartberg Mountains, the Boosmansbos wilderness area and Baviaanskloof. The Cape Floral Region is considered of outstanding universal value for representing ongoing ecological and biological processes associated with the evolution of the unique Fynbos biome.**

#### **1.5.6 Robben Island**

**Known the world over as the place where Nelson Mandela was imprisoned for 18 of his 27 years in jail, Robben Island has come to symbolise the triumph of democracy and freedom over oppression. The Island has shed its forbidding role as a centuries- old place of incarceration to**

become the world-renowned Robben Island Museum, one of Cape Town's "Big Six" tourist attractions. In listing its reasons for inscribing it as a World Heritage Site, UNESCO declared: "The buildings of Robben Island bear eloquent testimony to its sombre history," noting that "Robben Island and its prison buildings symbolise the triumph of the human spirit, of freedom, democracy over oppression."

### **1.6 Research Methodology**

In order to arrive at a meaningful understanding of the variables under investigation, a qualitative approach was used to solicit individual responses on the ecotourism debate. Qualitative approach as defined by Babbie (1997) is a research style used to describe, interpret or reconstruct the subjectively meaningful worlds of people. Qualitative research attempts to explore how research participants understand, or make sense of what the researcher is interested in. The essence of this approach is to view events through the perspective of the subjects under investigation; the way they think and view the world. The researcher obtained permission from Amakhosi, Izinduna, and ward councillors in charge of the community to conduct research. In order to reveal the feelings, perceptions and attitudes of affected communities towards ecotourism and its role players the researcher made use of questionnaires.

The questionnaires were personally administered to the affected communities. Two types of questionnaires were used that is; close and open ended questionnaires (refer to appendix 1 for questionnaire). Because of the language barrier, questionnaires were translated into isiZulu. The estimated timeframe to conduct the field work was one month. The first part of the questionnaire looked at the biographical information of the respondent. The second part focuses on the content of the topic under investigation.

Observation was used to determine the nature of the relationship and the social well-being of the community and those in charge of facilitating the tourism industry. This was done using human rights principles as enshrined in the South African constitution. Face to face interviews were conducted with the respondents i.e. Community of Drankensberg and of the Greater St Lucia

Wetland Park in order to gain more understanding of the nature of the problem surrounding the issue of ecotourism. (Refer to appendix 1 for interviews schedule)

The sample was drawn from the population of about 12 000 people from Zwelisha area in the Drakensberg as well as 15000 from Khula village in the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Judgement sampling technique was used to collect the data. This method is useful in the selection of appropriate participant from the community. The people who are in the best position to provide reliable information to the researcher in this study are the community of both the study areas selected. A total of 100 questionnaires from each area which totalled to 200 were conducted.

### **1.7 Limitations of the study**

Due to limited resources, it became difficult for the researcher to cover the whole population on both the areas. In the Drakensberg the researcher managed to interview 100 people as well as another 100 drawn from a population of 15 000 from Khula Village in the St. Lucia. Should the financial backup was enough a greater sample would have been covered.

### **1.8 Chapter outline**

Chapter 1 deals with the introduction and background of the research problem under investigation. Chapter 2 examines the theoretical framework emanating from the tourism industry in relation to policies in question. Chapter 3 deals with the importance of tourism policy in addressing the needs of the people. Chapter 4 deals with the methodology which encapsulates data analysis and data interpretation. Lastly, chapter 5 focuses on the conclusions and recommendations of the research.

## Chapter Two

### Factors Impacting on the development of Ecotourism

#### 2.1 Introduction

Although frequently associated with third world destinations, ecotourism is now common in first world destinations such as Australia, Canada and the United States. The use of the term ecotourism is mostly attributed to Ceballos-Lascurain (1987) who used it to describe nature-based tourism in tropical areas. Boo (1990) used the term interchangeably with nature tourism. However, as the ecotourism industry began to flourish and more studies on the subject became available, the term ecotourism was subsumed as a subset of the umbrella-notion of nature tourism. Definitions of ecotourism abound: Orams (1995), Wight (1993), Boyd and Butler (1996), Mandziuk (1995), Herath (1996), Buckley (1994), Linberg, Enriquez and Sproule (1996) and Nelson 1994. However, all have common characteristics such as:

- *nature-based tourism,*
- *appreciation of nature as the primary motive to participate,*
- *fostering conservation of the natural resource base on which it depends (which translates into protecting and minimizing negative impacts on the environment),*
- *providing benefits to local hosts (which translates into economic opportunities),*
- *respect for local culture and minimizing social impacts, and*
- *promoting environmental education to visitors.*

For the purpose of this study, the definition of ecotourism will be confined to Ceballos-Lascurain (1987), Norman et al. (1997), McMinn (1997), Higgins (1996), and Williams (1992), who define it as 'environmentally conscious nature-based travel enjoyed by people interested in learning about the nature, history and culture of the area visited, while providing economic and social benefits to host communities by expanding the community's economic base, and contributing to natural resource conservation through nature interpretation and environmental education'<sup>1</sup>.

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<sup>1</sup> See, Boo, 1990

There are quite a number of reasons why South Africa became a favourite and a popular tourist and business destination. Among others is that:

- The country is perceived as a high quality tour destination with competitive costs
- It has a growing economy of 7-9% GDP
- Air transportation capacity has increased
- There is sustainable trend of growing tourism interest

Since eco-tourism is still in its infancy in South Africa, statistics can only indicate the interest in nature-based tourism. Satour's (1997) Winter Survey reflected that more than 60% foreign visitors came to South Africa for one of the following reasons: the scenic beauty (33%, of arrivals); wildlife (30% of arrivals), and the climate (15%, of arrivals) ([www.satour.org](http://www.satour.org)). All of these are environmentally motivated visits which are based on the understanding on the environment either by neither the visitors nor the host communities.

The term environment in its broader context has come to include the diverse community activities and cultures of a country's inhabitants, as well as its scarce and sensitive natural resources. Eco-tourism implies tourism practices that would benefit all concerned parties rather than benefit some concerns and neglect others. The term "eco-tourism" has therefore come to include concepts such as planning before development; sustainability of resources; economic viability of a tourism product, no negative impact on either the environment and local communities; responsibility for the environment from developers, the tourism industry and tourists; environmentally-friendly practices by all parties concerned; and economic benefits flowing to local communities

The Strategic Framework for Tourism Development in South and Southern Africa, compiled by South African Tourism and the Development Bank of SA, emphasised the values of equitable socio-economic benefits for all participants and communities, community involvement in decision making and responsibility, and sustainability, which requires balanced management of potentially renewable tourism resources.

The Status of eco-tourism in South Africa is promising and there is a growing awareness of environmental responsibility among the members of the tourism industry. Parties that are directly involved in a nature-based tourism experience, such as the national and provincial parks, as well as private game reserves, are now including the concept of involving and benefiting local communities in their mission statements. Similarly, the need for thorough planning and impact studies is being emphasised through publicity given to mining projects in ecologically sensitive areas ([www.satuor.co.za](http://www.satuor.co.za)). Conservation and careful management of scarce resources is increasingly becoming a priority. There are some elements that define ecotourism and are regarded as common to the ecotourism industry and those elements are well defined in the next paragraph.

## **2.2 Elements of Ecotourism**

Common elements related to the ecotourist in ecotourism discourse as identified by Wight (1996) include:

- *first hand experience with the natural environment (Butler cited, In: Nelson 1994),*
- *stronger appreciation and closer contact with wildlife, local culture and resource conservation issues (Williams; 1992),*
- *direct enjoyment of some relatively undisturbed phenomenon of nature (Valentine 1992),*
- *a high level of preparation from participants (Butler cited, In: Nelson 1994), and*
- *contribution to the health and quality of the natural attractions visited (Orams; 1995).*

To achieve these elements it is of vital importance that the host community and the visitors understand what they entail. First hand experience means having a full understanding and full contact with the environment. While having that sense of appreciating natural beauty of the environment and of the culture of the host community and sustaining it and also contributing to the quality and health of the natural attractions through the promotion of responsible ecotourism as encouraged by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT).



Most ecotourism studies have focused on the experience itself, and the setting in which it occurs (Boo; 1990, Valentine; 1993, Aylward et al. 1996). With respect to the experience, ecotourism normally involves:

- *travel to natural areas* (Boyd and Butler; 1996, Wight; 1993, Orams; 1995),
- *low-impact on the destination site* (Williams; 1992, Nelson; 1994) and
- *fostering environmental principals* (Boyd and Butler; 1996).

Ecotourism experiences also contribute to a better understanding and appreciation of the culture and natural history of the area visited (Mandziuk; 1995 and Herath; 1996), and of the environment (Nelson, 1994). The setting for ecotourism includes the natural environment, host communities and the equipment involved in the activities. Structures for ecotourism frequently involve rustic accommodations, trails, and basic amenities that tend to foster a stronger appreciation and closer contact with nature (Williams, 1992). A key factor relating to host communities is whether ecotourism providers are local. Local providers generally benefit host communities more than outside providers by reducing economic leakages. Thus, local providers tend to provide greater expansion of the local economic base (Lindberg, Enriquez, and Sproule; 1996). No studies were identified that focus on the provider or on the provision of ecotourism itself. Some of the case studies on ecotourism consider how ecotourism is being provided by addressing the need for or existence of a code of ethics for operators.

Private lands can play a significant role in providing “settings” where ecotourism can take place, and private landowners are interested in providing ecotourism as an additional source of income. Thus, such studies are needed to focus on the provision of ecotourism on private lands and on the factors related to successful ecotourism on private lands. Another factor that seems to be orphaned is a clear analysis as to how far are we defining environmental assessment, given the fact that the affected communities are part of the environment hence they are not seen as integral part during the environmental assessment period. The importance of the environment during the development process warrants a discussion.

### **2.3 Environmental Factors**

Following Mathieson and Wall (1982), environmental factors refer to the natural environment such as natural features and the ecological processes occurring in an area. Natural features, including scenic vistas and landscapes, climate, topography, wildlife and vegetation, are important to the type and level of tourism in an area (Bird and Inman; 1969, Mathiesen and Wall; 1982). Tourism can be important to natural resource conservation because part of the income from tourism can be re-invested into maintaining natural areas (Budowski; 1977, In: Mathieson and Wall; 1982). In this sense, tourism has enabled rehabilitation of old and creation of new sites, and has fostered administrative and planning controls such as restricted access to sensitive areas that maintain the quality of the environment.

Additionally, the physical location of an area is an important factor in tourism demand. Usually rural locations relatively close to metropolitan areas are tourism locations in high demand (Bird and Inman; 1969, Mathieson and Wall; 1982). The goals of ecotourism management strategies are to protect the environment and to provide the tourist with a great ecotourism experience. Ecotourists are motivated by ideas of wilderness, wildlife, parks, learning, nature and physical activity and these ideas should underlie the management of ecotourism (Eagles; 1997). Moreover, ecotourism should be managed toward a more active form so that activities contribute to the health and viability of the environment where they take place (Orams; 1995). In many cases, and despite good intentions and attempts to reduce negative effects on the natural environment, tourism has been detrimental to the environment. Damaged vegetation, disruption to wildlife, soil compaction, water quality problems, air and noise pollution, are but a few of the negative environmental effects caused by tourism (Mathieson and Wall; 1982). Additionally, protected areas (e.g., national and state parks) have undergone the cumulative and interactive effects of many small-scale, independent, low-intensity tourism developments over the decades (Nelson; 1994). Increasing the number of ecotourism activities can pose environmental problems because, despite being non-consumptive and low-impact, people engaging in ecotourism consume resources and generate waste (Office of Technology Assessment; 1993). While environmental factors are so important, they cannot be

sustained if they are not backed a strong and stable economic base. That economic base can only be strong if it is supported by strategic factors. The following paragraph will therefore deal with the factors that are viable for a sustained ecotourism area.

## **2.4 Economic Factors**

Based on Mathieson and Wall (1982), economic factors are those related to economic structure and economic development including the economic base, patterns of investment, and economic leakages. Tourism can help the stability of local economies by diversifying the economy through the creation of businesses providing tours and catering the tourist. However, the seasonal character of tourism creates economic fluctuations throughout the year that can be detrimental to the stability of the local economy. Additionally, the existence of personnel skilled in the provision and management of tourism enterprises is the key to tourism success. The existence of educational programs is fundamental in training these personnel. Local investment in tourism is important to strengthen the local economy and minimize economic leakages. Economic leakages occur when profits generated locally are exported (i.e., "leaked") to another locale.

Additionally, marketing and human resources play an important role in the success of ecotourism enterprises (Mandiuz 1995). Following Mandiuz (1995), for individual businesses, cooperative marketing is an affordable way to attract visitors to an area. For regional agencies, strategies based on symbols, images and other regional characteristics can attract visitors by setting the region apart from others. These economic factors can only be effective if they are supported by a well planned National or Provincial strategy and here is an example of the provincial Growth and Development Strategy for KwaZulu-Natal.

### **2.4.1 The Growth and Development Strategy for KwaZulu-Natal**

The Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS) of 1996 vision was:

"The dynamic Province of KwaZulu-Natal is characterized by a peaceful, secure, prosperous, healthy, educated and democratic society, and as being attractive and competitive both in local and global terms."

The PGDS is informed by the following principles:

- The Strategy is built on the dynamism and vibrancy of KwaZulu-Natal's economy and the richness and diversity of its human, natural and infrastructure resource base.
- The Strategy creates new areas for economic development. Opportunities provided by the changing global economy would need to be explored, new talents unearthed within the Province, and existing industries reshaped so as to take advantage of new opportunities.
- The Strategy redresses the social inequities, which are widespread in the Province. It should meet basic needs, identify and support poor, vulnerable and marginal areas and communities;
- The Strategy addresses constraints to development. It will enhance the skills base, extend infrastructure, and contribute towards a reduction in violence;
- The Strategy is rooted in a shared responsibility for, and commitment to, the economic and social development of the Province;
- The Strategy focus effort on the identification and operation of key levers to the development of KwaZulu-Natal, which will produce the greatest impact in terms of economic growth and the redistribution of opportunities and access to essential services;
- The condition for the successful implementation of the Strategy is the integration of its growth and redistributive elements and the creation of an appropriate and effective institutional framework;

In terms of its specific approach, the Strategy is concerned with:

- Directing existing social and economic trends in KwaZulu-Natal towards the fulfillment of the principles of the Reconstruction and Development Programme;
- Fostering growth in wage employment, capital investment and productivity in urban areas;
- Seeking innovative ways in which economic linkages between urban and rural areas can be enhanced and;
- Introducing measures for encouraging manufactures to move up the value chain, whereby raw and basic materials are further processed into higher value goods ([www.satour.co.za](http://www.satour.co.za)).

The PGDS consists of four programmes of intervention. The key relevant programmes are:

#### **2.4.2 Building the Winning Province**

The objective of this programme is to enable the Province to maximise on opportunities in trade and tourism. The key levers of the programme are the development of the ports (Durban and Richards Bay); proactive marketing of the Province's industries; the facilitation of support for SMMEs (Small, Medium, and Micro Enterprises) development through a well-resourced SMME desk in the Department of Economic Development and Tourism; the establishment of an export promotion facility; and the promotion of a diverse tourism strategy.

#### **2.4.3 Enabling Local Economic Development**

The objective of this programme is to stimulate economic growth and investment in specific localities through the delivery of basic services. The key levers of the programme are the formulation of a clear framework for Local Economic Development Strategies (LEDS) which specifies the roles of key institutions, organisations and interest groups; the establishment of an accessible Provincial data base; training and capacity building for all tiers of government which includes training in data base management, facilitation, and physical and economic planning; and the implementation of regional pilot projects for delivery of basic services to fast track the LED programme.

#### **2.4.4 Addressing the Needs of the Poor**

The objective of this programme is to eradicate poverty through the transfer of assets and the provision of social welfare. The key levers of the programme are the land reform programme; the development of community financial institutions; the establishment of district health systems for the co-ordinated and comprehensive delivery of health care; specific and targeted support for survivalist enterprises; the formulation of a disaster relief strategy; implementation of a rural service centre programme to rationalise the delivery of services to rural areas; the development of a strategy for eco-tourism and cultural tourism to benefit rural communities; and the implementation of a public works

programme which should be managed as a development initiative and not simply as a service to government.

#### **2.4.5 Preparing people through effective development and utilisation of human resources.**

The objective of this programme is to formulate a co-ordinated approach to the enhancement of KwaZulu-Natal's human resources. The key levers of the programme are the preparation of a human resource development strategy; the preparation of a training and education database; and capacity building amongst the social partners of government, principally labour and communities.

The beneficiaries of the Programmes are:

- **Urban Communities** through the delivery of infrastructure and services, and through vocational and skills training;
- **Rural Communities** through the development of eco-tourism and the sale of rural crafts, through overcoming service and infrastructure backlogs, through facilitation of local economic development, and through increased capacity to engage in productive activities;
- **Organized labour** through the creation of employment opportunities in tourism and trade, through support for SMMEs, through increased opportunities for self-employment, and through the reform of labour markets;
- **Small, medium and micro businesses** through the provision of support to SMMEs, through the facilitation of local economic development, and through skills development and
- **Organized business**, which benefits from improvements in trading infrastructure and increased trade links. It also benefits from the promotion of local economic development, and the increased productivity of labour.

While these programmes are necessary for human development as well as creating an environment of self supporting among communities but they also create inequalities among the society which at the end results to class structures. Adding to these is a number of other social factors attributed to this and are discussed in the next paragraph.

## **2.5 Social Factors**

Social factors are related to social structure and organization, including demographic characteristics, availability and quality of social amenities, attitudes toward tourists, and local traditions and culture (Mathiesen and Wall 1982). A friendly and cooperative host community enhances local business opportunities for tourism (Bird and Inman 1969). Focusing on impacts, Fox, (1977) suggests that social factors are expressed by changes in values, relationships, life styles, quality of life, behavior and creative expressions in the locale (Fox; 1977, In: Mathiesen and Wall; 1982). Singh, (2003) also argued that communities are faced with many challenges of which some of those challenges include:

- Sustaining daily lifestyles in the face of visitor intrusion;
- Coping with the pressure for change;
- Retaining the meaning of the traditions and ceremonies;
- Retaining authenticity; and
- Containing tendency towards commercialization.

Vulnerability may be encapsulated in the combined interpretations of such key terms as transformation, modification, modernization, exploitation and stereotyping. Any developmental action that might be interpreted as contributing to any of these circumstances may bring about the progressive neutralization and generalization of the local culture and its host community, reducing its distinctive identity and, thereby, its special attractiveness (Singh; 2003) backing what the previous authors are saying about community based tourism is a strategy that is used by the KwaZulu-Natal, which is discussed in the following sub-paragraph.

## **2.6 Community based Tourism Strategy for KwaZulu-Natal**

Community-based tourism is defined as: 'tourism in which a significant number of local people are involved in providing services to tourists and the tourism industry, and in which local people have meaningful ownership, power and participation in the various tourism and related enterprises' ([www..wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)). Community-based tourism should offer some form of benefits to local people not directly involved in the tourist enterprises, for

example through improved education or infrastructure. But this type of tourism needs a supporting policy that would make sure that the direct beneficiaries of tourism on the area are fully benefiting the people in the area.

## **2.7 Goals of Community-Based Tourism**

The main goal of community-based tourism is the empowerment of communities to participate in tourism and tourism-related activities and their inclusion into the tourism industry. Empowerment of communities occurs through:

- Community involvement in and responsibility for tourism related planning and decision making;
- Community involvement in the management of tourism and tourism related enterprises;
- Community control of the use of land and assets;
- Community equity sharing in tourism and related activities;
- Community access to tourism and related SMME opportunities and support; and
- Capacity building at local level as part of tourism development processes.

### **2.7.1 The economic goals of community-based tourism are:**

- Maximizing economic benefits to local communities;
- Distributing the benefits of tourism as widely as possible;
- Minimizing economic leakages;
- Encouraging local economic development to ensure benefits to community members not directly involved in tourism;
- Creating employment both directly and indirectly; and
- Diversifying tourism products, particularly in the nature-based and cultural sectors.

### **2.7.2 The social goals of community-based tourism are:**

- Maximizing social benefits, for example, through using profits to improve infrastructure and health and education facilities;
- Minimizing the social costs of tourism through educating communities and tourists about possible negative impacts; and



- Developing human resources through enhancing skills, providing institutional training, and improving the status of women ([www.satour.co.za](http://www.satour.co.za)).

## **2.8 The environmental goals of community-based tourism are:**

- Increasing local environmental awareness, enhancing appreciation of the economic importance of the environment, and inculcating an understanding of the importance of conservation measures; and
- Ensuring environmental sustainability through setting in place appropriate guidelines.

The sectors that are considered suitable for community-based initiatives are broadly similar to those in the established tourism industry, and include catering, accommodation, services, and attractions. While these goals can be viewed as achievable they need to be cultivated in a well informed society. And getting a society to be informed does not only require one to be informed with tourism industry alone but also a general literacy which South Africa is statistically lacking in this respect especially in KwaZulu-Natal. Part also of achieving these goals is the cultivation of a sense of some type of community participation which includes but not limited to the following which are most commonly identified.

- Sale of community owned land;
- Lease of community owned land to an investor;
- Employment in tourism businesses;
- Participation in businesses supporting or supplying the tourism industry;
- Community/private joint ventures requiring the formation of a legal entity on the part of communities, and financial or other forms of contribution by investors; and
- Community sole ventures where communities are the sole shareholders of a tourism business ([www.satour.co.za](http://www.satour.co.za))

## **2.9 Community-Based Tourism**

The key elements of community-based tourism projects are community ownership, investment in capacity building, job creation, active involvement of community

members, and financial returns to local people. These elements are combined in various ways and apply to different degrees within different projects. There are also other factors that are attributed to a well defined and successful ecotourism which are highlighted below.

#### **2.10 Other Factors contributing to successful ecotourism**

Additionally, ecotourism should be locally defined and implemented in terms of specific activities and structures, and potential environmental, cultural, and economic effects for the host area (Nelson; 1994). Visitor guidelines are a key in enhancing appropriate behavior of visitors to both cultural and natural areas. Ecotourism guidelines highlight expected behavior of visitors with respect to nature and to the host community and environmentally sensitive and low-impact activities (Mandziuk; 1995). Two important factors for successful ecotourism destinations go beyond quality of services and facilities to include the quality of the experience itself and the positive host environment (Moore and Carter; 1993). The concept of carrying capacity is often mentioned in the ecotourism literature. Carrying capacity is the maximum number of visitors who can visit an area without leading to severe environmental degradation or serious decline in the quality of the experience gained by visitors (Aylward et al; 1996, Mandziuk; 1995). Carrying capacity can be measured in terms of the natural environment, the host community and the visitor. Factors measured are ecological (e.g., ecosystem health, ecosystem integrity), physical (trail areas, water quality and availability, lodging, sewer systems), social (e.g., over-crowding, traffic, pollution, waste disposal), and economic and managerial (e.g., locally owned enterprises, trained personnel) (Mandziuk; 1995). Determining carrying capacity limits of increasingly popular destinations is important for the success of ecotourism because this form of tourism promotes conservation and sustainability principles. In determining these, a number of issues need to be considered among others are the following:

#### **2.11 Land Use Zoning, Environmental and Developmental Approvals**

##### **Land development applications**

The establishment and development of tourism enterprises or projects on any land within KwaZulu-Natal is subject to approval by the appropriate authority for land development. The process for obtaining authority is quite complex and is defined by the category of land on which the application is being sought. The categories are defined as:

- Ingonyama Trust Land- Land held in terms of the KwaZulu-Natal Ingonyama Trust Act (Act 3 of 1994) as amended by Act 9 of 1997
- Rural freehold (predominantly privately owned agricultural land outside proclaimed towns)
- Proclaimed conservation areas within the Province of KwaZulu-Natal
- Urban freehold;
- State land, (including former South African Development Trust (SADT) land

#### **2.11.1 Ingonyama Trust land**

The development of Ingonyama Trust land for tourism purposes requires the following:

- The written consent of the relevant traditional authority (in a format acceptable to the Ingonyama Trust Board) for the land to be utilised for tourism development purposes;
- Consent of the Ingonyama Trust Board through an initial issue of a short term lease and thereafter a long term lease, once the necessary development approvals have been obtained;
- Development consent in terms of the Development Facilitation Act (Act 67 of 1995) or the KwaZulu Land Affairs Act (Act 11 of 1992).

#### **2.11.2 Rural Freehold**

Consent will have to be obtained for any proposed development in terms of the Provincial Town Planning Ordinance 27 of 1949. The application needs to be submitted through the Directorate Development Planning of the Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs. If the development does not exceed ten lots, the normal land development application process rather than the more taxing Needs and Desirability (N&D) application route will have to be followed. The plans need to specify the location of the development and give details on the various development service aspects including

water, sanitation, electricity, roads etc. The consent normally takes about 9 months to process.

If the development exceeds more than ten lots i.e. it requires more than 10 sub-divisions, the developer must submit a Needs and Desirability application to the Town and Regional Planning Commission (TRPC).

### **2.11.3 Rural Conservation**

Land and tourism development in proclaimed conservation areas is subject to the approval of the appropriate Conservation Authority responsible for the area.

### **2.11.4 Urban Freehold**

Applications within a town-planning scheme, which would constitute applications for rezoning, special consent and sub-division, must be submitted through the relevant local authority

### **2.11.5 State Land (including former SADT)**

Any tourism development on state land, including former SADT land will first require consent through the Department of Land Affairs (DLA). A written application must be submitted through the State Land Management Unit of the Department of Land Affairs, (KwaZulu-Natal Provincial Directorate).

### **2.11.6 Environmental Approval**

The process for development authority runs in conjunction with the process of acquiring the requisite environmental approvals. The application for development consent contains a form dealing with environmental aspects of the development. The Chief Directorate of the Department of the Environmental Affairs of the Provincial Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs will assess the application in terms of the Environmental Conservation Act.

At the discretion of the Department a scoping exercise or Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) may be requested. An archaeological assessment may also be required.

A full Environmental Impact Assessment involves a number of detailed steps that are set out in Chapter 7.3 of the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority.

### **2.12 Ecotourism on Private Lands**

Starting in the mid 1960s, the role of private landowners in providing outdoor recreation opportunities has become increasingly important as public forests and parks have become crowded and less able to meet outdoor recreation demand (Owens; 1964). Today, much nature based tourism takes place on private lands (Bird and Inman; 1968, Tjaden; 1990). This is particularly true for the northeastern U.S., where only 9 percent of the land is publicly owned (Langner; 1990). According to Hollenhorst (1989) nature tourism options available to private landowners fall under two categories: fees for access to the land, and commercial operations. User access fees provide the visitor opportunities for hiking, rock climbing, mountain biking, caving, and camping. Examples of commercial operations are campgrounds, lodging, retail sales/rental, and guide services.

### **2.13 Barriers to Ecotourism Success**

Lack of information, the need for market analyses, and liability concerns are important barriers to ecotourism opportunities on private lands (Lynch and Robinson; 1998). Private landowners cite the lack of basic enterprise start-up information as a major impediment to developing recreational enterprises. This information is related to: management costs, labor needs, potential demand, fee structure, and competitors. A market analysis is necessary to determine the type of resources needed and how to reach potential visitors. Also, existing competitors should be identified, and what they offer and for how much. Marketing skills are essential to a successful recreation-based enterprise. This is usually an unfamiliar task for private land owners. Landowners have to be willing to spend time and money to learn how to and market their product or service. Other barriers to ecotourism on private lands include not liking strangers on their lands and risk of damage to property such as trash, vandalism, trespassing, mistreatment of animals, loss of privacy and nuisance complaints. Dissemination strategies to transfer information to private landowners include individual contact methods (such as farm visits and office calls), group contact methods (such as tours, conferences and demonstrations), and mass

contact methods (such as bulletins; exhibits and the Internet) (Lynch and Robinson; 1998). Following Bird and Inman (1969), natural characteristics of areas, public recreational facilities, community attitude, and, once again, liability, are all factors affecting the establishment of recreational facilities. The most important characteristics of an area are accessibility (distance to large urban centers and roads to the area), climate, topography, water, wildlife, vegetation, and historical sites of interest. Businesses catering the needs of visitors enhance visitation to state parks, hiking and scenic areas. In this sense, private and public areas can complement each other in providing recreation areas and facilities. Another important element is community attitude. A friendly and cooperative host community enhances local business opportunities for tourism. Finally, private landowners increase their liability risks as a result of charging a fee for access.

The landowner can reduce liability by warning guests of potential dangers on the property, incorporating the business to limit liability to the value of the assets of the corporation, or carrying liability insurance.

#### **2.14 Policy and Ecotourism**

The development of the local policy is likely to be associated with the particular political circumstance and the research will examine the extent to which such a circumstance can be expected to lead to a specific kind of tourism policy and planning. Voase (2002) further pointed out that the implementation of the sound strategy with respect to policy making and planning for tourism is not simply a matter of researching and implementing best practice. Accordingly, the cultural self Identity of the service class is rooted in individualistic, rather than collective, values.

Some common perceptions of residents, as reported by many studies (e.g. Ap; 1990, Tsartas; 1992, Brunt and Courtney; 1999, Snaith and Haley; 1999) in (Singh, 2002), include the following:

- A heavy concentration of tourists tends to create a negative attitude towards tourism by residents and their communities an attitude which may be lessened if

the clear economic benefits (Jobs, incomes, image of place, level of services, and amenities) of tourism can be seen;

- Residences prefer tourism attractions and facilities to be concentrated rather than dispersed through out the community;
- Residences blame visitors for raised prices, level of criminal activity and reduced moral standards;
- In Terms of the Impact on culture, destination residents tend to blame tourist for reducing the significance of local culture by trivializing it or by causing it to be commodified and packed for easy consumption (and even transportability in the form of souvenirs);

In many instances, decisions are made based on economic and political criteria instead of substantial public consultation process. One outcome of this is that it is seldom the local community that determines the level of tourism development, and the use of social and cultural resources. However, there are cases where both careful and community consultation and management strategies have been deployed which contribute positively to community sustainability (in social and cultural terms) (Singh; 2002). Some cases that have emerged and well consulted during the development process of tourism is the Roben Island Which was declared as the World heritage site by the UN while also those that were poorly consulted includes Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park in KwaZulu-Natal, where people were removed from the Dukuduku forest which was a benefit to them given their social status. Since this research is based in KwaZulu-Natal it is also important to have a closer look at some of the strategies that are employed by the KZN province in the development of the tourism industry in the region.

### **2.15 KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Product Development Strategies**

The KZN Tourism Product Development Strategy is an important indicator of the province's priorities with respect to future product development in KwaZulu-Natal and it is important that the project is in alignment with the strategies and projects set out below. The Tourism Product Development Strategy focuses on three elements:

- Building a core/primary “coastal destination” across 4 differentiated coastal areas for international and domestic tourism; the four coastal tourism destinations are Maputaland/St Lucia, DolphinCoast-King Shaka, Durban and the South Coast;
- The establishment of a Zulu Heritage and Cultural Trail in the northern rural hinterland linked to the primary coastal destinations;
- The inclusion of “Zuluness” within tourism product development initiatives within the interior destinations of the Durban-Pietermaritzburg Midlands corridor and the uThukela/uKhahlamba-Drakensberg gateway.

The strategy has identified 12 priority projects that will underpin the primary strategies. They are:

- The establishment of a Zulu Heritage and Cultural trail north of Durban towards the UThukela River and then Ulundi-Nongoma Corridor. The initial establishment will entail a further 3 projects namely:
  - The establishment of the King Shaka Tourism Route focused around Kwadukuza and the re-generation of the King Shaka interpretative Centre;
  - The combining and development of the eMakhosini Valley and Opathe Game Reserve;
  - The development of a phased Isibiyi (the Royal Zulu House) at Nongoma
- The development of a cruise ship passenger terminal at Richards Bay to increase tourism into the **Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park**.
- The development of a coastal resort complex on the Tongati River to develop a world-class coastal resort;
- The preparation of a strategic tourism development plan for the Durban Beachfront.
- The continued development of community/cultural tourism in Inanda with links to the 1000 Hills and Mkhambathini;
- The improvement of accessibility to the Ukhahlamba-Drakensberg through a number of road access projects and the development of the Mnweni Valley;
- The attraction of higher spend categories of domestic tourists along the South coast through the establishment of coastal resort complexes with waterfront and marina facilities;



- The establishment of a culture-heritage-wildlife route for the rural areas inland from the South Coast.

## **2.16 Conclusion**

Chapter 3 of the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Amendment Act (2002) sets out various tourism related functions of municipalities. The Act also identifies the role of municipalities in the development and implementation of municipal tourism policy. A number of local and district municipalities have developed or are in the process of establishing municipal tourism development plans as a means of guiding decision making with respect to tourism development. These plans largely supplement the IDPs with respect to local economic development and tourism. It is important to establish whether a municipal tourism plan exists and the extent to which the project aligns/complies with the plan. The next chapter (Chapter 3) deals with the importance of tourism policy in addressing the needs of the people. In this chapter other policies related to ecotourism will also be discussed.

## Chapter Three

### 3.1 Introduction

Policy documents emerging from the ANC, COSATU, SACP, and SANCO prior to the 1994 elections have addressed the issues of environment and sustainable development to varying degrees. This process represents a major step forward and reflects the progress on the part of the democratic movement toward constructing a new model for development in South Africa.

In the past, resistance to apartheid policies of the South African government left little space to reflect on alternative paths for social, economic, and political development beyond agreement that such future development must be shaped within a context defined by democracy, nonracialism, and nonsexism. When such reflections did take place, the issue of environment was low on the agenda. This can be explained, in part, by the legacy of apartheid, where those in power expressed more concern with nature conservation and the preservation of wildlife than with the poverty and oppression being experienced by the majority of the population. Indeed, for many black South Africans, issues surrounding the environment and sustainability have a very negative connotation, given that they have often been used as justification by past South African governments to forcibly remove people from their land. The low level of priority accorded to the environmental basis for economic development can also be attributed to the isolation experienced by South Africa as a result of international sanctions. Perhaps this was most clearly evident from the minimal involvement of South Africa in the formal and informal meetings surrounding the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) in June 1992.

The election of a new government in 1994 meant that new policies were put in place and a new set of international relationships emerged as development objectives became redirected toward alleviating poverty, creating jobs, and meeting the basic needs of the majority of South Africans. Within this new context, it is necessary to define clear policy objectives in the area of environmental quality and the use of natural resources.

Furthermore, given the history of environment as a "White" issue in South Africa, it is important that the Mission's report makes explicit the links between environment and development, and that it shows how development priorities are rooted in environmental policy if they are to be sustained in the medium to long term. The Mission also sees as being critical that communities and NGOs working on the relationship between the environment and development be directly involved in discussions of future policy directions for sustainable development. This chapter looks at different policies and other documents that are directly or indirectly related to environment and ecotourism and look at whether those policies and documents clearly define the socio-political impact of ecotourism on surrounding communities. It looks at whether those policies clearly protect the social, cultural and political rights of the concerned individuals as highlighted on the constitution of the Republic of South Africa. Before moving on to the discussion on policies it is more important to understand the nature and characteristics of development.

### **3.2 The nature of Development**

Most of the time when the concept of development is defined, the definition refers to action plans, strategies and programmes aimed at improving the situation of the so called less developed (even referred to as underdeveloped). A list of characteristics of those, which can be described as less developed or underdeveloped, would include: poor, backward, traditional and rural. Most definitions of development work with the assumption that physical quality of life can be measured and that the physical quality of life index (Barnet; 1988) can provide us with a mechanism of measuring development along a composite axis. The rationale for this index is that by implementing specific plans or programmes, it is possible to introduce into a specific society aspect, which will move the society along on the development path. The word *development* therefore carries with it the connotation of a favourable change; moving from worse to better; evolving from simple to complex; advancing away from the inferior.

The search for a different definition of development concentrates on the process preceding political, economic and social transformation. This indicates changes in

perception, inclination and attitude that have to take place before changes in the economic, social or political life will occur. A different definition of development, then, will include components that will allow for the personal growth of every individual. This includes the personal satisfaction of basic needs in a broader sense of the word: not only food, clothing, shelter and other more concrete needs, but also the right to live meaningful life. Esteem is also an important underlying aspect of development. Development efforts have to be based on the assumption that all people value respect and want to be treated as worthy individuals.

While development can be perceived in many ways, Gran argued that capacity Building rests on the premise that people can lead their own change process. They can be actors, merely the subjects of change (Gran 1983). This supports the vitality of community participation in development. Oarkley and Marsden (1984) also highlighted that 'A development milieu is created in which the human being becomes the subject of his/her own development, rather than the object of other people's worlds' (Oarkley and Marsden 1984).

When we speak of capacity building, we speak of capacity of the people. Those who used to be the object and recipients of development to become the masters of their own development. With Integrated rural development an unsuccessful attempt was made to avoid elitism that became the hallmark of community development. Chambers (1983) shows how the elite became the champions and beneficiaries of rural development programmes; it is the elite '... who articulate "the village" interests and wishes; their concerns which emerge as "the village's" priorities for development'. Integrated rural development failed to avoid an elite bias and also failed to generate incomes and employment for the landless and jobless rural poor (Jones and Wiggle 1987).

From this it follows that action plans or programmes aimed at providing the opportunity for people to become more than they are will have to aim towards creating opportunities

for increased humanness. Increased humanness as the basic ideal or goal for development will imply the striving for:

- Increasing social justice.
- Comprehensive consultation and joint decision making.
- The alleviation of all forms of suffering (the satisfaction of basic needs).
- Respect for all local ecosystems as well as the local social and cultural patterns.
- The advancement of people through their own endeavours (freedom of expression).

Ecotourism in general is also part of development and it comes with objectives that fall into four main categories: economic, social, environmental and cultural. Sometimes they are also political. But, for the purpose of this study, it is the economic and social objectives that are paramount. An evaluation of economic objectives requires consideration to be given to five major aspects:

- The growth of national income;
- Employment in tourism;
- Net foreign exchange earnings;
- Regional development; and
- Government revenues.

One of the principal problems is utilitarianism where the well being of minorities can be threatened wherever or whenever their needs or desires clash with those that might be deemed to facilitate a greater good. This means, for example, that utilitarianism can easily be used to justify the displacement of individuals or small-scale indigenous communities by tourist developments when the changes offer significant benefits for a region or country as a whole, even if the consequences for the minority are very serious. This seems quite wrong, because the leisure pursuits of tourists surely should not take precedence over the livelihoods or even lives of the people already occupying an area. Golf simply is not as important as grain (Ling; 1995). Ethics must have the role in protecting the vital needs of minorities and/or those without political clout and economic

power. This is usually seen to be the role of legislation and codes based on the recognition of human rights, and it is to these we now turn. We begin by examining the political origins and philosophical underpinnings of rights discourses and then turn to the relationship between rights and development and their influence on codes of practice in the tourism industry.

### **3.3 Rights**

We hold the truths to be sacred and undeniable; that all men are created equal and independent, that from that equal creation they derive rights inherent and inalienable, among which are the preservation of life, and liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. Next to government, non governmental organisations (NGOs), Voluntary Organisations (VOs), community based organisations (CBOs) and the private sector have the responsibility to enable capacity building in as far as they are involved in people-development. In all, every institution involved with people-development has an obligation towards capacity building; towards facilitating the learning process of capacity building and being part of that learning process.

This poses a very difficult challenge which, according to Korten (1980: 498), requires 'organisations with a well developed capacity for responsive and anticipatory adaptation - organisations that: (a) embrace error; (b) plan with the people (c) link knowledge building with action'. They embrace error not because of sloppiness, but because experimentation includes mistakes and mistakes are learning opportunities. They plan with the people because it is the people's right to plan their own future. They link knowledge building with action because action is very much part of the learning process.

### **3.4 Policy formulation and implementation in relation to people's lives**

#### **3.4.1 What is National Policy?**

A national policy is designed to be a statement of the government's guiding principles and intentions with regards to dealing with an important public issue. The policy provides the means by which government prioritises problems which need to be addressed, sets

objectives and allocates resources in order for these to be achieved. As the resources are initially derived from taxpayers' contributions, it is important that government policy should reflect the wishes of the general public. Policy provides a means for citizens to hold government to account for its actions and omissions ([www.satour.org](http://www.satour.org))

#### **3.4.2 Tourism Policy (Background)**

In October 1994, the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism appointed the Interim Tourism Task Team (ITTT) with the mandate of drafting a tourism discussion paper as a basis for a future national tourism policy. Representing the business sector, labor movement, provincial governments, community organisations and the national government, the ITTT produced a Tourism Green Paper in September 1995. The Tourism Green Paper was widely distributed for comment; where after the European Union was approached to provide technical assistance to the Government of South Africa in developing a Tourism White Paper. An international tourism specialist was appointed by the European Union for this purpose, in October 1995. It was recognised that the process of arriving at a White Paper for tourism is as important as the White Paper itself. As such, a great deal of emphasis was placed on developing the White Paper in such a way as to facilitate maximum participation by all.

#### **3.4.3 Tourism and the RDP**

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) is the strategy of the Government of South Africa for the fundamental transformation of the country. The RDP is based on the notion that reconstruction and development are parts of an integrated process. It (RDP) integrates growth, development, reconstruction, redistribution and reconciliation into a unified programme. As one of the most cognisance principles of the South African social policy framework, it works in line with the tourism policy. It underpins six basic principles:

**Integration and sustainability** - integrating all facets of the country: national, provincial and local, business and civic organisations in a coherent strategy, and developing economically and environmentally sustainable programmes:

- **People-driven** - active involvement of all citizens irrespective of age, sex, financial status, urban or rural in the shaping of their own future
  - **Peace and security** - a national drive for peace and the combat of various forms of violence, particularly violence on women
  - **Nation-building** - on the basis of unity in diversity and consolidation of national sovereignty
  - **Meeting basic needs and building the infrastructure** - meeting basic needs of the people of South Africa and opening up previously suppressed economic and human potential in urban and rural areas.
  - **Democratisation** - participation by all in decision-making
  - **Assessment and accountability** - creating standards of measurement accepted by society by which progress towards phased achievements can be judged.
- (www.satour.org)

The RDP was a bold and innovative programme of the Government of South Africa. Although the delivery of some programmes is slower than the population would like, considerable progress is being made in meeting basic needs and the democratisation of state and society.

The provision of basic needs is, by nature, consumptive - a user rather than a creator of national resources. There is an urgent need to create sustainability of the RDP programme, i.e. create legs for it to walk on. The population needs to be provided with meaningful employment and entrepreneurial opportunities so as to be able to afford housing, water and sanitation, electricity, transport and health care. The tourism industry, more than any other industry, can provide sturdy, effective and sustainable legs for the RDP to walk on.

### **3.5 Social Implications of Ecotourism**

Local communities often provide attractions for tourists through their cultural or social heritage or through their personal qualities such as friendliness and hospitality offered to visitors. The cultural heritage, social customs and personal attributes of the community



are part of tourism products and assets of the tourism industry as much as the natural, environmental attractions and must be protected in the same way. It is necessary to gain the support of local communities for tourism activities and to ensure that they participate in tourism where appropriate.

Whilst tourism can improve local living standards, uncontrolled development can destabilise whole communities. Negative impacts can range from increased tension as a result of unequal benefits to crime, prostitution, begging, alcohol and drug abuse. Tourism operators should be sensitive to potential impacts, such as loss of privacy, prevention of access to culturally significant places, invasion of sacred sites or the demeaning of cultural ceremonies, which can result from tourism. By setting up genuine cooperative structures with staff and local people and involving them in planning and decision making, trust and mutual cooperation can be built. Providing support with education and health care and contributing to social infrastructure also promotes goodwill and helps to improve local quality of life, ultimately leading to mutual benefits.

### **3.6 Tourism as a vehicle for development**

#### **3.6.1 Introduction**

Tourism can be an engine of growth, capable of dynamising and rejuvenating other sectors of the economy. There are reasons why. Consider that:

From accountants and hairdressers to tour guides and trackers, the tourism industry draws upon a multiplicity of skills. Moreover, the potential for on-the-job training is enormous. This vision cannot be a reality since the medium language of communication is English and a lot of people are not well versed with the language.

#### **3.6.2 Entrepreneurship and the tourism industry**

The tourism industry accommodates a thriving and dynamic informal sector - from craft and fruit vendors to beach vendors, chair rentals, and others. Apart from the opportunities provided in the informal sector, there are many business opportunities to involve

previously neglected groups in the tourism business: entertainment, laundry and transportation services, craft rental; arts, craft and curios sales; tour guides and walking tours of places of interest; teaching of African languages and customs to interested visitors; restaurants emphasising local cuisine; guest houses; beach manicures and pedicures; and much more. **Development and Tourism**

Many of the prime tourism attractions are not located in the city centres but in the rural areas. Tourism allows rural peoples to share in the benefits of tourism development, promoting more balanced and sustainable forms of development. Tourism provides an alternative to urbanisation, permitting people to continue a rural family existence, enfranchising both women and the youth.

### **3.6.3 Tourism and cross-culturalism**

Through its inherent message of goodwill, hospitality, trust, service without servility, tolerance, interaction and communication, tourism is a most effective mechanism for fostering national and international cultural exchange and understanding among people. It is, therefore, an effective nation-builder and a strong incentive and reason for peace. Even though the tourism policy is championing tourism, the fact is that most of the people are still marginalized in the distribution of the industry especially the rural community.

The tourism sector could provide the basis for and sustain the RDP programme of the South African government. To achieve this mandate, however, tourism must be developed as a strategic industry. A 'wait and see what happens' approach pervades the industry. However, unless tourism is viewed and developed as a strategically important industry - the greatest engine of growth for the South African economy - the true wealth-creating potential of the tourism sector will never be realised.

### **3.7 Understanding rural communities**

By nature rural communities are classified as being backward, primitive and under developed. This is because of the nature in which they were raised and influenced by

their geographical settlement that informs their way of life. For rural communities the environment is the provider of everything, these include land for farming, hunting, forests for the provision of energy and cultural sites where they have buried their loved ones as well as to mention a few. Respect for local culture and support for social development are integral to responsible tourism practice, considering the impacts tourism can have on local communities.

### **3.8 Conclusion**

While ecotourism is good for the preservation of natural resources which includes forests, mountains, plants, animals etc, it also comes with problems. These can range from cultural diminishing, dismantling of social net and most importantly displacement of communities which results to poverty and under development as well as access denial to culturally significant sites. What needs to be understood is the fact that those places that are getting attention in terms of preservation are the places that initially belonged to mostly rural poor communities and when the so called ecotourism comes in it means the displacement of people. When this kind of development is taking place affected communities are promised a better life as well as job opportunities. Given the literacy rate status in South Africa together with the population growth rate especially in rural areas it then become unpractical to provide a better life for these people if hoping to absorb high unemployment rate and poverty to the tourism industry. This on the other side came to be contradicting with one of the supreme law of the country, the Constitution where it clearly defines the rights of the individual. Section 25 (1) of the constitution states that: No one may be deprived of property except in terms of law of general application, and no law may permit arbitrary deprivation of property. In this case the land is the most valuable property that people are deprived. The next chapter (four) discusses the methodology that has been used in the study.

## **Chapter Four**

### **Research Methodology**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

Definitions and descriptions of different focus areas in research and of various research methodologies and processes are more readily available than a definition of 'research', and Leedy (1997) remarks that "the word *research* is used in everyday speech to cover a broad spectrum of meaning, which makes it a decidedly confusing term ...". Reinard (2001) provides the following short definition of research: "Research is the systematic effort to secure answers to questions." He expands on this definition by stressing the point that "these questions are not mundane ones", but that "research questions deal with issues requiring reference to data and information" (Reinard, 2001). Leedy (1997) defines research as the systematic process of collecting and analysing information (data) in order to increase individual's understanding of the phenomenon with which people are concerned or interested.

A method is, very simply, a way of accomplishing an end result. It is how one operates, a way to get the job done. A method is therefore a following *after the way* that someone found to be effective in solving a problem, of reaching an objective, in getting a job done. Methodology is merely a study of a particular method, or methods, for reaching a desired end.

What the researcher needs to address in the methodology with respect to the data is:

- 1) What data the researcher need?
- 2) Where is it located?
- 3) How the researcher intend to get the data.
- 4) Precisely and in detail what the researcher intend to do with the data.

Research methodology is a means to understand the ways in which social science research produces multiple accounts of the world. A method is, very simply, a way of accomplishing an end result. It is how one operates, a way to get the job done. Further, methodology specifies how the researcher may go about practically studying whatever he or she believes can be known Terre-blanche & Durrheim (1999). Social science research is a collaboration human activity in which social reality is studied

objectively with the aim of gaining a valid understanding of it. It corrects and expands perceptions. When social change occurs, the old prediction rules may not work. Rules which work in one setting may not work in another. In time of rapid social change, general explanations are wanted to heighten awareness of where things fit in a larger framework. In this research, the researcher wants to determine whether ecotourism does bring about socio-economic change in the surrounding communities, and if it does, is it positive or negative? And what can be done to remedy the situation with regard to the tourism policy.

One of the main strengths of Social Research Methods is way in which a broad theoretical perspective driven by distinctions between positivists, interpretive and critical social science is introduced and reconsidered throughout the text in the context of methodological applications. Thus, not only are students exposed to the larger context in which research is conducted, but they are exposed to the alternative philosophical assumptions that underlie research practice. Based on Davidson (2000) and Jones (2001), identified a phenomenological methodology as the best means for this type of study since on the consciousness and the objects of the direct experience of the communities involved. Phenomenologists, in contrast to positivists, believe that the researcher cannot be detached from his/her own presuppositions and that the researcher should not pretend otherwise (Hammersley; 2000). In this regard, Mouton and Marais (1990) state that individual researchers "hold explicit beliefs". The intention of this research, at the outset (preliminary focus), was to gather data regarding the perspectives of research participants about the ecotourism industry and its effect in the area.

#### **4.2 Locating the research participants/informants**

According to Hycner (1999) 'the phenomenon dictates the method (not vice-versa) including even the type of participants.' The researcher chose purposive sampling, considered by Welman and Kruger (1999) as the most important kind of non-probability sampling, to identify the primary participants. The researcher selected the sample based on her judgement and the purpose of the research (Babbie, 1995; Greig & Taylor, 1999; Schwandt, 1997), looking for those who "have had experiences relating to the phenomenon to be researched" (Kruger, 1988). The researcher made use of Amakhosi and Izinduna to have access to the community and other community

organisations that are related and or affected in one way or the other to ecotourism for interviews. These respondents are the primary unit of analysis (Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000), with their 'informed consent' (Bailey, 1996; Arksey & Knight, 1999; Street, 1998). In order to trace additional participants or informants, the researcher used both Judgemental sampling and Snowball sampling. Snowballing is a method of expanding the sample by asking one informant or participant to recommend others for interviewing (Babbie, 1995; Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Bailey (1996), Holloway (1997), and Greig and Taylor (1999) call those through whom entry is gained *gatekeepers* and those persons who volunteer assistance *key actors* or *key insiders*. (Historically, the common term was *informants*, a term which is losing popularity owing to negative connotations.) Neuman (2000) qualifies a gatekeeper as "someone with the formal or informal authority to control access to a site" for instance, in this manner, Amakhosi and Izinduna may be regarded as the gatekeepers because these are the people from whom permission is required to access the required information. Key insiders often adopt the researcher. Bailey (1996) cautions that such adoption may isolate the researcher from some potential informants or subjects. The researcher requested the Judgemental sampling; this type will be useful in the selection of the appropriate participant. These gatekeepers are in a best position to provide their discretion, the names and contact details of persons who best qualify for being interviewed for this purpose. Furthermore, those people who had participated in the programme presented. Regardless of these strategies, the most accommodating gatekeepers did, as Neuman (2000) cautions, to some extent influence the course of the research unfolding by, for example, is the introduction of the ecotourism.

Snowball sampling will be also be used as the few known or identified people participating at the beginning of the program result in them referring others for participation. Snowballing is a method of expanding the sample by asking one informant or participant to recommend others for interviewing (Babbie, 1995; Crabtree & Miller, 1992). Bailey (1996), Holloway (1997), Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) explain that a non-probability sampling is sampling where the probability of inclusion is not the same for each subject. Judgemental sampling can be classified as where goal is cost-effectiveness; based on some previous knowledge; highest amount of bias potential; generally a second stage of inquiry based in findings in first stage; prior knowledge may be poor or incomplete.

Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) state that Judgmental sampling is called network or referral sampling, as respondents identified initially to take part in the research are then used to identify other people who qualify for inclusion in the sample. One Hundred (100) respondents will be interviewed from Zwelisha in the Drakenberg and another one hundred (100) from Khula Village in the St Lucia wetlands park. Data will be gathered by means of a semi-structured interview schedule. Grinnel (1993) explains that semi-structured interview is conducted by means of a research schedule. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) and Kahn (1960) mention that semi-structured interview is a research schedule that does not usually post its questions in a particular sequence, but ensures that all the relevant questions are covered during an interview.

#### **4.3 Ethical considerations**

In order to ensure ethical research, the researcher made use of informed consent based on Bailey's (1996) recommended items; the researcher developed a specific informed consent 'agreement', in order to gain the informed consent from participants, namely:

- That they are participating in research
- The purpose of the research (without stating the central research question)
- The procedures of the research
- The risk and benefits of the research
- The voluntary nature of research participation
- The subject's (informant's) right to stop the research at any time
- The procedures used to protect confidentiality (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000; Kvale, 1996, Street, 1998)

Bailey (1996) further observes that deception might prevent insights, whereas honesty coupled with confidentiality reduces suspicion and promotes sincere responses. The 'informed consent agreement' form was explained to subjects at the beginning of each interview. Most potential subjects signed the agreement and those who did not were not pressured to participate in the study. All who ended up being participants were in agreement with its content and signed.

Because Boyd (2001) regards two to 10 participants or research subjects as sufficient to reach saturation and Creswell (1998) recommends 'long interviews with up to 10 people' for a phenomenological study, a sample size of 200 community members were requested to respond on their experiences. Group discussion was also employed, whereas others wrote essays. The purpose of collecting data from different kinds of informants is to 'validate' the data if it yields similar findings (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Bloor, 1997; Holloway, 1997). Data-collection interviews continued until the topic was exhausted or saturated, that is when interviewees (subjects or informants) introduced some new perspectives on the topic.

#### **4.4 Sample**

Sample defined as a subset or portion of the total population. The sample must always be viewed as an approximation of the whole rather than the whole in itself. Since surveying the whole population would take much longer than the sample study and time is often very important, as Babbie (1973) notes, may actually decrease the accuracy of the data because one may be obliged to obtain marginal interviews rather than selecting the most competent.

In order to gain information concerning the Socio-Economic status and other areas of concern as highlighted on the aims and objectives of the study there would be a fairly detailed and comprehensive survey. To accomplish this, the study covers 100% of the population elements of each of the two clusters and in total 200 participants were interviewed. The table below represents a breakdown of the respondents in terms of location.

**Data distribution table**

<b>Population Subjects Distribution</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
Zwelisha (Drankensberg)	100	50
Khula Village (St Lucia)	100	50
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100%</b>



#### **4.5 Data-gathering methods**

The research aims to address the central question which is: since the introduction of ecotourism and the declaration of these areas as World Heritage sites have come with many changes, what were the social and economic changes that have emerged thus far? However, Bentz and Shapiro (1998) and Kensit (2000) caution that the researcher must allow the data to emerge: For this reason, the actual research questions that were put to participants addressed the issues of:

- How satisfied are you with ecotourism operation in the area?
- What value, if any, does ecotourism have in the community?

Kvale (1996) draws a similar distinction between the research question and the interview question. Further, it was important to keep in mind that the findings may, or may not, illustrate that ecotourism have changed the life of communities socially or otherwise. In this regard Jon Kabat-Zinn state that "inquiry doesn't mean looking for answers" (cited in Bentz and Shapiro,1998). To ensure this, the researcher has conducted unstructured in-depth interviews with the community. The researcher's questions were "directed to the participant's experiences, feelings, beliefs and convictions about the theme in question". According to Bentz and Shapiro (1998), Husserl called it bracketing when the inquiry is performed from the perspective of the researcher. Bracketing (Caelli, 2001; Davidson, 2000; King, 1994) in this study entailed asking the participants/informants to set aside their experiences about the ecotourism development and to share their reflection on its value. Data were obtained about how the participants "think and feel in the most direct ways" (Bentz & Shapiro, 1998). The researcher focused on "what goes on within" the participants and got the participants to "describe the direct experience of what ecotourism means to them.

A questionnaire consisting of two parts will be used for this purpose. The first section contained questions pertaining to the demographic features and working conditions of service providers. The second part included questions necessary to figure out community perceptions on ecotourism. The interviews were conducted. In all research studies analysis follows data collection. The result of the analysis depends on and is modified by the collection and the investigation of further data. In this way the researcher was the participant in the research project, for his own interpretations and actions to become legitimate object of subsequent analysis by other researcher.

Furthermore, information on the researcher's own behaviour and thinking in the form of field notes, memos and diary can become a vital source of data for the overall analysis. In this way, the process shifts attention from context and intention to action and consequences (Sayer 1992).

According to Bailey (1996) the 'informal interview is a conscious attempt by the researcher to find out more information about the setting of the person'. The interview is reciprocal: both researcher and research subject are engaged in the dialogue. The researcher felt that, the duration of interviews and the number of questions varied from one participant to the other. Kvale (1996) remarks with regard to data capturing during the qualitative interview that it 'is literally an interview, an interchange of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest,' where researcher attempts to "understand the world from the subject's point of view, to unfold meaning of peoples' experiences.

Memoing according to Miles & Huberman (1984) is another important data source in qualitative research that the researcher used in this study. It is the researcher's field notes recording what the researcher hears, sees, experiences and thinks in the course of collecting and reflecting on the process. Researchers are easily absorbed in the data-collection process and may fail to reflect on what is happening. However, it is important that the researcher maintain a balance between descriptive notes and reflective notes, such as hunches, impressions, feelings, and so on. Miles and Huberman (1984) emphasize that memos (or field notes) must be dated so that the researcher can later correlate them with the data.

In addition to the 200 interviews conducted in this study, depending on the circumstances, the researcher has talked directly to the participants to ask them to write comments. On the other hand, due to the financial constraints, the researcher would like to use an audio-recorded, with the permission from the respondents, but it did not happen, for a number of reasons, some people were so sceptical that if recorded, their opinion about the subject matter may put them into trouble. Further to that, other problems that might occur was also identified through the words of caution by Easton, McComish and Greenberg (2000) that equipment failure and environmental conditions might seriously threaten the research undertaken, was bare

in mind. Furthermore after each interview the researcher takes notes of what has happened for the day. The researcher transcribed key words, phrases and statements in order to allow the voices of research participants/informants to speak. They advise that the researcher must at all times ensure that she has all the required equipment so that everything can be easily done. The interview setting must further be as free as possible from background noise and interruptions.

Field notes were mostly used as data storage method in this research. Because the human mind tends to forget quickly, field notes by the researcher are crucial in qualitative research to retain data gathered (Lofland & Lofland, 1999). This implies that the researcher must be disciplined to record, subsequent to each interview, as comprehensively as possible, "What happened and what was involved? Who was involved? Where did the activities occur? Why did an incident take place and how did it actually happen?" Furthermore, Lofland and Lofland (1999) emphasise that field notes "should be written no later than the morning after". Besides discipline, field notes also involve "luck, feelings, timing, whimsy and art" (Bailey, 1996). The method followed in this study is based on a model or scheme developed by Leonard Schatzman and Anselm Strauss supplemented by Robert Burgess. Four types of field notes were made:

- Observational notes (ON) — 'what happened notes' deemed important enough to the researcher to make. Bailey (1996) emphasizes the use of all the senses in making observations.
- Theoretical notes (TN) — 'attempts to derive meaning' as the researcher thinks or reflects on experiences.
- Methodological notes (MN) — 'reminders, instructions or critique' to oneself on the process.
- Analytical memos (AM) — end-of-a-field-day summary or progress reviews.

At this juncture, it is important to note that field notes are already "a step toward data analysis. Morgan (1997) remarks that because field notes involve interpretation, they are, properly speaking, "part of the analysis rather than the data collection". Bearing in mind that the "basic datum of phenomenology is the conscious human being", or the lived experiences of the participants in the research (Bentz & Shapiro, 1998; Heron, 1996), it is very important that the researcher must, to the greatest degree

possible, prevent the data from being prematurely categorised or 'pushed' into the researcher's bias about the potential contribution of co-operative education in growing talent. The writing of field notes during the research process compels the researcher to further clarify each interview setting (Caelli, 2001; Miles & Huberman, 1984). The researcher opened a file with divisions for the various interviews and filed the following hard copy documentation:

- The informed consent agreement.
- The researcher's notes made during the interview.
- The field notes that I made subsequent to each interview.
- Any notes or sketches that the participant made during the interview, which the participant gave to me.
- Any additional information that the participant offered during the interview.
- Any notes made during the 'data analysis' process, e.g. grouping of units of meaning into themes.
- The draft 'transcription' and 'analysis' of the interview that the researcher presented to the participants for validation.
- The confirmation of correctness and/or commentary by the participant about the 'transcript' and 'analyses' of the interview.
- Any additional/subsequent communication between the participant and the researcher.

Data storage includes, field notes and filing of hard copy documentation. The interview transcriptions and field notes will be stored electronically on multiple hard drives.

#### **4.6 Analysis of Data**

Data was captured and analysed using the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS text analysis for surveys enables the researcher to quickly and reliably categorise or code responses to open ended questions in surveys or questionnaires. This was backed by theoretical framework (Corbin, 1986). In producing good quality findings, data has been coded and analysed using three coding methods viz. open coding, axial coding and selective coding. The open coding is the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualising and categorising data. The aim of this coding system is the development of categories. Axial coding involves rebuilding the

data in new ways by establishing relationship between the categories, and between categories and their sub-categories. Selective coding involves selecting a core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships, and filling in categories that need further development or refinement.

Coding procedures, memo writing and diagramming will also be used as data analysis strategy. Facts or incidents obtained from interviews, documents or diary entries, will be coded in a systematic way. Memos were written as records of analysis; diagrams will be developed as visual representations of the relationships between concepts.

#### **4.6 Conclusion**

This chapter concentrated on the methodology that the researcher used in the study, starting from the method used during the collection of data moving on to the analysis of the data.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Data analysis and interpretation**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

In order to analyse the data the researcher used qualitative approach together with frequencies, percentages as well as figures which includes tables and graphs. Bless and Higson-Smith (1995) views data analysis as a summary and manipulation of data to provide information to solve the research problem. This information should lead to discussion, conclusions and recommendations.

Newman (1995) elaborating on qualitative method stated that 'data are in the form of words which are relatively imprecise, defuse and context based, and can have more than one meaning'. When arguing about the accuracy and skills needed in collecting data for any research project, Bless and Smith (1995) maintained that 'a research stands and falls on the quality of facts on which it is based'. It is in this regard that communication through languages plays an important part in the quality and accuracy of the information recorded. Since the researcher is fluent in the IsiZulu that was spoken by the respondents, he was in a better position to understand and record all the responses as there were related to him. It must be mentioned that the respondents that were interviewed were both males and females.

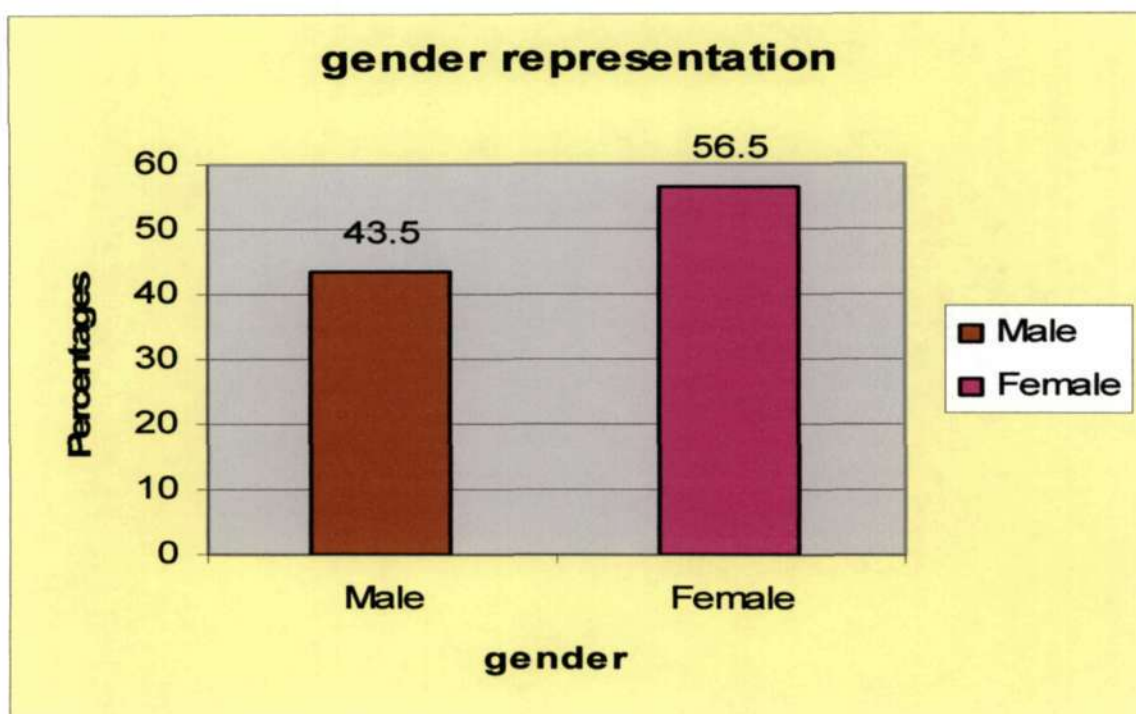
This chapter utilises descriptive analysis and inferential statistics to understand the data and to assess the relationship between the biographical data, organizational culture, and Personal Profile Analysis (PPA) factors and present the empirical result. This analysis gives the researcher the basic characteristics of the data collected. Thereafter inferential statistical analysis was used to determine relationships between variables.

This chapter focuses on the analysis of data gathered from both places (Drakensberg and the St Lucia Wetland Park). In the analysis the researcher will follow the sequence that is reflected on the questionnaire starting with the biographical data which also includes educational level of the respondent, land ownership and sources of income.

The second part will cover section that deals with the community and eco-tourism parks in general. The third part then covers the community and social impacts of eco-tourism, the fourth part further moves on to give information about the community and the economic impacts of eco-tourism. The fifth part further covers the section that deals with the community and natural environment while the last section seeks to get suggestions from the community.

### 5.2.1 Section A: Analysis of Biographical information

**Figure 5.1: Gender Representation**



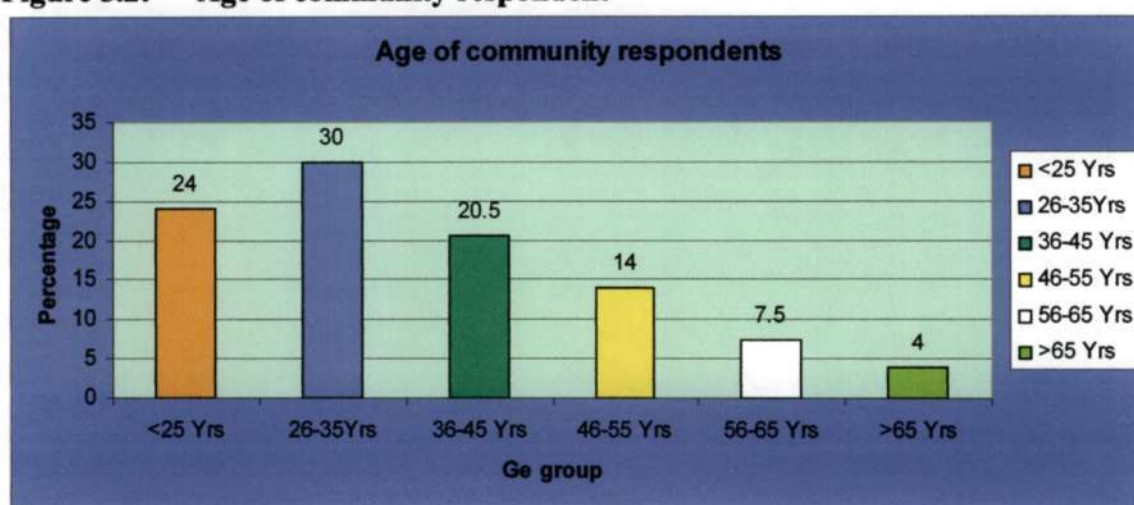
**Source: Field-Work report (July- October 2005)**

**Figure 5.1** above indicates the gender of the respondents. It shows that out of 200 respondents that were interviewed, 87 were males and 113 were females which show the balance between gender respondents in the area. This brings to a total of 43.5% of males contributed to the study and 56.5 % of women. When gender representation was cross tabulated, it showed that of 43% of male respondents; 11.5% were below 25 years compared to women of the same age which were 12.5%. 10.5% of males were between 26 and 35 years compared to 19.5% of women of the same age. Another 10.5% of males were between 36 and 45 years, and women of the same age constituted 10%. Those



between 46 and 55 years, 5% were males and 9% were females. For those between 56 and 65 years only 2.5% were males and 5% were women. And lastly 3.5% of males were above 65 years as compared to 0.5% of women of the same age. These statistics does not show much shift in household responsibilities. Since most of the data was collected during working hours, it clearly shows that there was no much difference as to which part of gender is mostly away from home either for work purposes as traditionally happens in African rural areas where women are left behind while males move to urban areas in search of work. These statistics again support figure 5.5 where 73% of the respondents are unemployed as compared 88.5% of the respondents between the ages of 18-55 (Figure 5.2) which falls between the perimeters of economically active group.

**Figure 5.2: Age of community respondent**

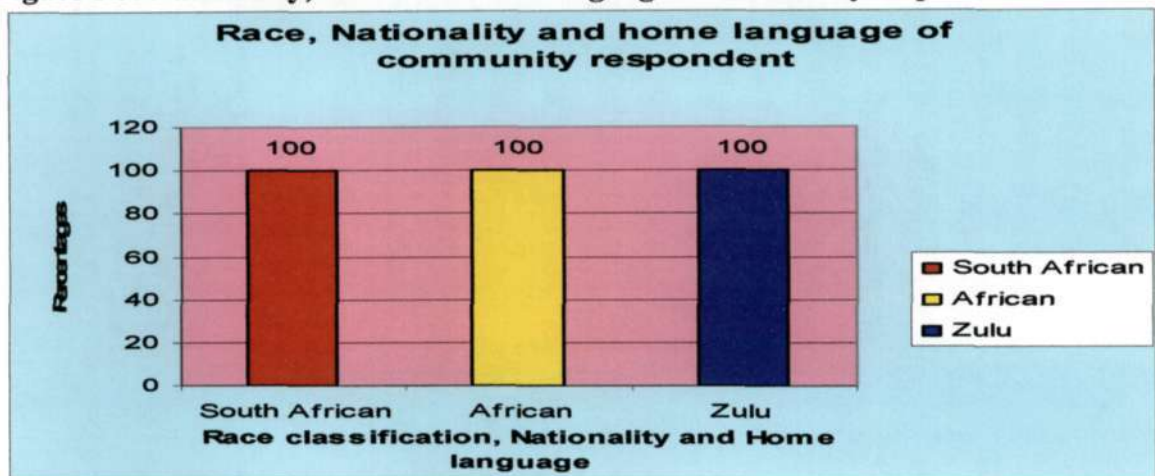


**Source: Field-Work report (July- August 2005)**

**Figure 5.2** above represents the ages of respondents. It depicts that out of 200 respondents 24% are below 25 years, followed by 30% who are between the ages of 26 and 35, those that are between ages 36 and 45 constitute 20.5% while those in the region of between 46 and 55 equals to 14%, while 7.5% comes from those that are between the ages of 56 and 65 and lastly 4% comes from those who are above 65 years. The statistics shows a very good balance in terms of respondent's ages constituting of 88.5% of the generally economic active respondents which are those of ages up to 55. These show that the very same people are economically active that are supposed to be fully active in the development of their areas in a form of being employed in their area or becoming business owners



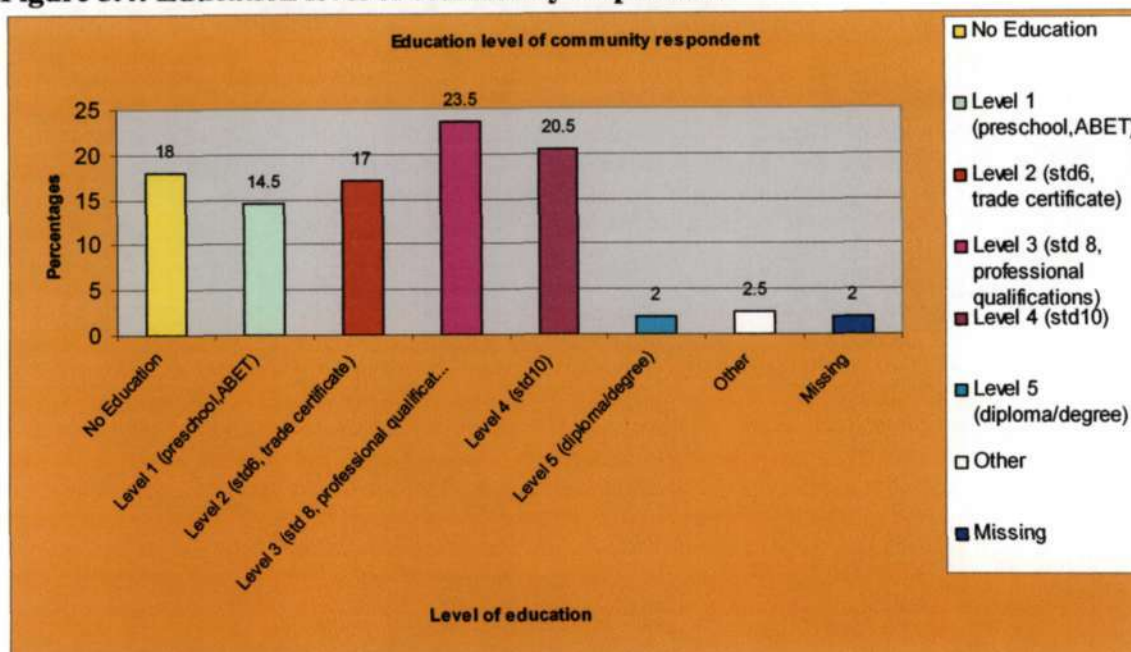
**Figure 5.3: Nationality, Race and Home language of community respondent**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.3** represent Nationality, Race and home language of the research respondents. As the table above shows that out of 200 respondents that were interviewed on nationality and race all were South Africans and Zulus which then constituted 100% on both categories. Hence on home language, 200 people were also interviewed and 100% responded. Of the 200 household respondents interviewed were IsiZulu speakers. Looking at the use local language by the indigenous people, it then confirms an argument by Singh (1999) that 'indigenous people from outlying areas ...often have more to teach developers than to learn from them'. This then clearly shows that development should include the local people since they have more to offer in terms of language and culture. These statistics shows how united these communities are since they are not only glued together by their geographical locations but also by their sharing of Africanness, norms and values as well as culture.

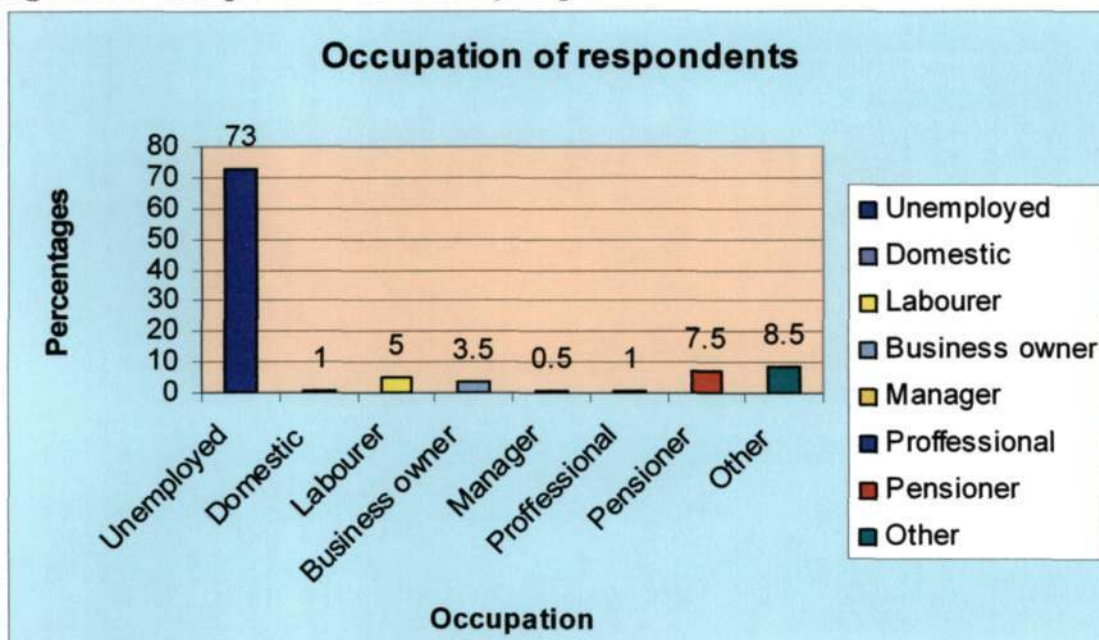
**Figure 5.4: Education level of community respondent**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

According to **Figure 5.4** of 200 respondents, 18% have no education at all, 14.5% have level 1 (pre-school, ABET) education, 17% have level 2 (standard 6, trade certificate), 23.5 have level 3 (standard 8, professional qualifications), 20.5% have level 4 (standard 10), 2.0 have level 5 (diploma\degree) while 2.5% is made up of other qualifications that were not listed on the questionnaire and lastly 2% of the respondents have never responded to the question. Chandola (1995) cited that in countries where the educational level is on average low, people have slim chances of securing employment in the modern organized sector. The lower the level of education and skills may lead to the marginalization or inferior positions in the labour market. This is also supported by the table below (Figure 5.5)

**Figure 5.5: Occupation of community respondent**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

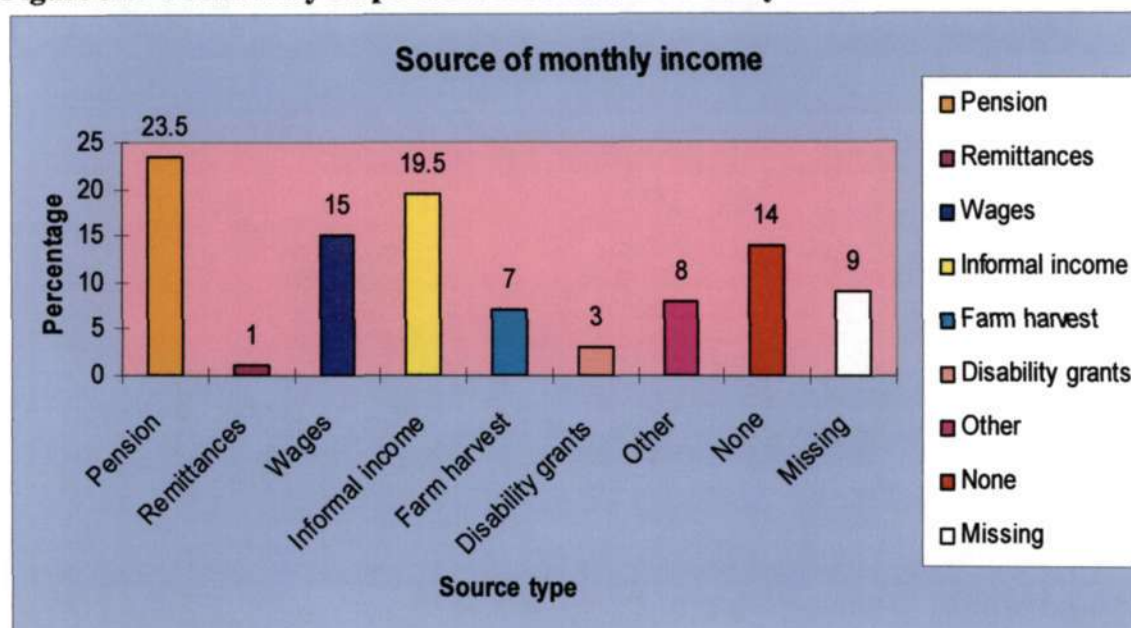
**Figure 5.5** represents occupation of respondents. 200 people were interviewed and 73% of the respondents were unemployed, 5% worked as labourers while 3.5% were business owners, 0.5% on managerial position, only 1% on professional employment, while 7.5% were pensioners and another 1% as domestic workers. The last 8.5% is made up of people who have other jobs that were not listed on the questionnaire. Looking at the areas that have the tourism growth potential, one of the strength should be the capacity of the people to deliver, and delivering needs people who are well trained for the job. In this regard out of 73% of people who are unemployed 17.5% have no education, 14.5% have less chances of being employed since they hold only level 1 education and 7.5% again are least employable when considering their level of education.

When cross tabulating on the question of occupation of community respondent to find out how many males or females are working and what kind of work they are doing, 30% of male responded on the question were unemployed, 0.5 % work as domestic worker, 4% as a labourer, 2% as business owners, 0.5% as manager, 3% are pensioners and 3.5% do other types of work. On the same question and category 43% of women were



unemployed, 0.5% as domestic workers, 1% as labourers, 1.5% as business owners 1% as professionals, 4.5% composed of pensioners and 5% on other types of works that were not listed on the questionnaire. These statistics also do not clearly show which part of gender is more likely to be employed on which positions since the statistics differ on a very thin margin. The unemployment category gives us clarity, results shows that 30% of males are unemployed when compared to 43% of females. This is the only category that shows that males stood a better chance of being employed.

**Figure 5.6: Community respondent's source/s of monthly income**

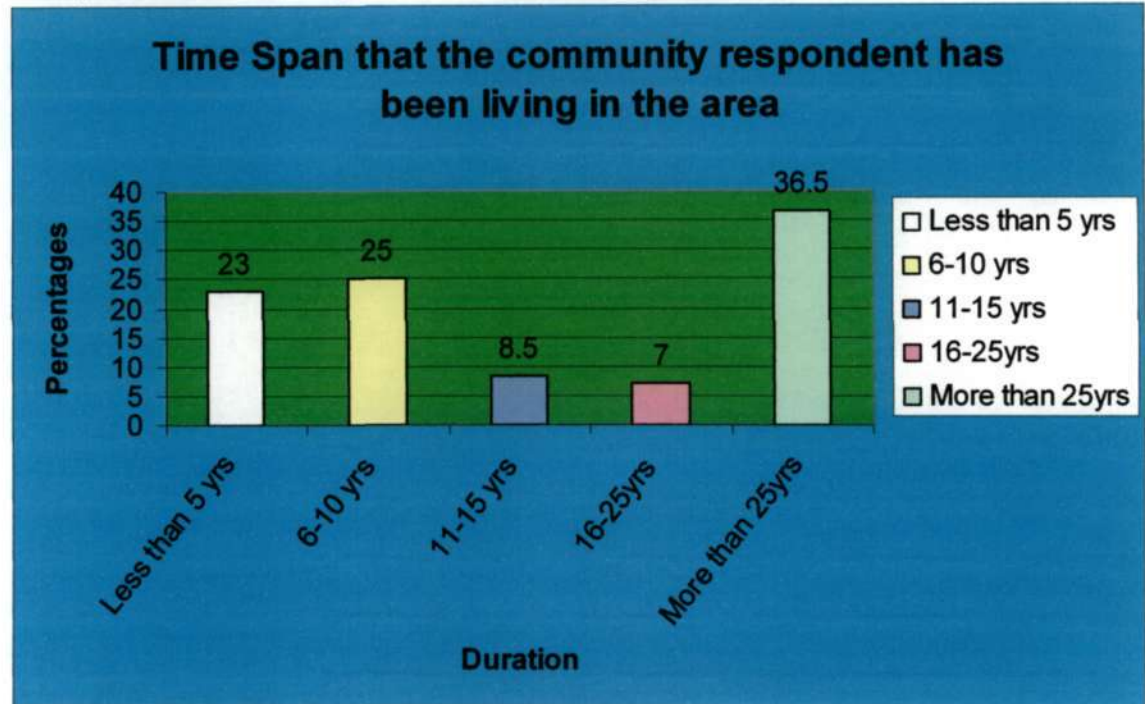


**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

Individuals require reliable and stable income to survive and **Figure 5.6** represents different forms of incomes from the respondents. A total of 23.5% of the respondents are pensioners, 1% rely on remittances, 15% earn wages, 19.5% on informal income, 2.5% on disability grants, 7% on farm harvest, 3% on disability grants, 8% on other unidentified sources of income, 14% does not have a source of income either, and the remaining 9% is made up of the missing value where people never responded to the question. On the farm harvest issue the percentage is low because of poor quality of land for growing where 45% of the respondents have confirmed that the land for growing is of very poor quality in a community where there are depleted resources to absorb unemployment rate, the only alternative is farming either subsistence or commercial.

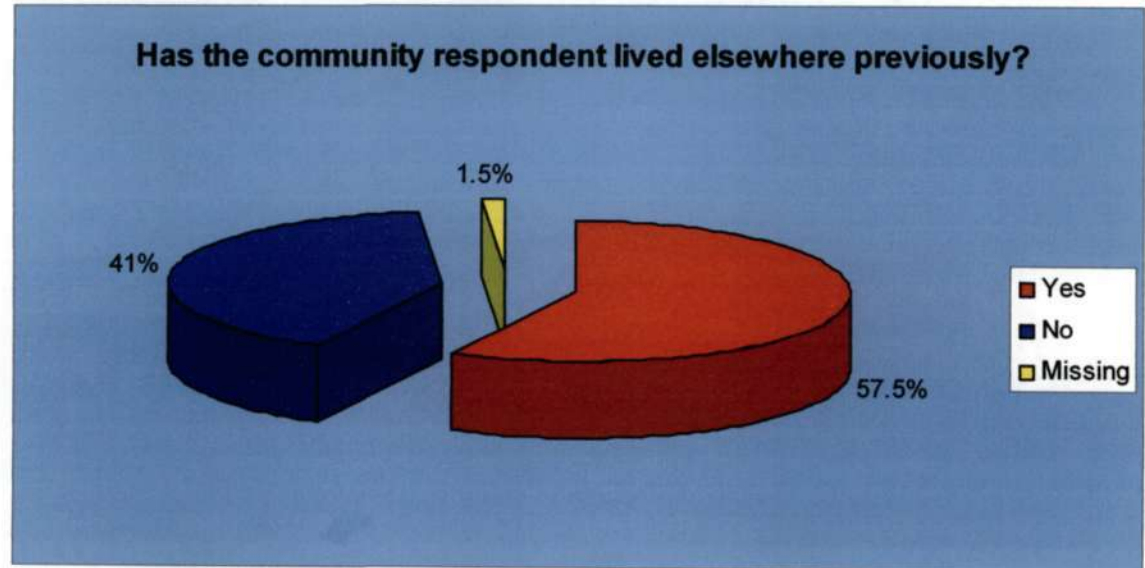
**Figure 5.7: Previous Dwelling**

Time span that the community respondent has been living in the area



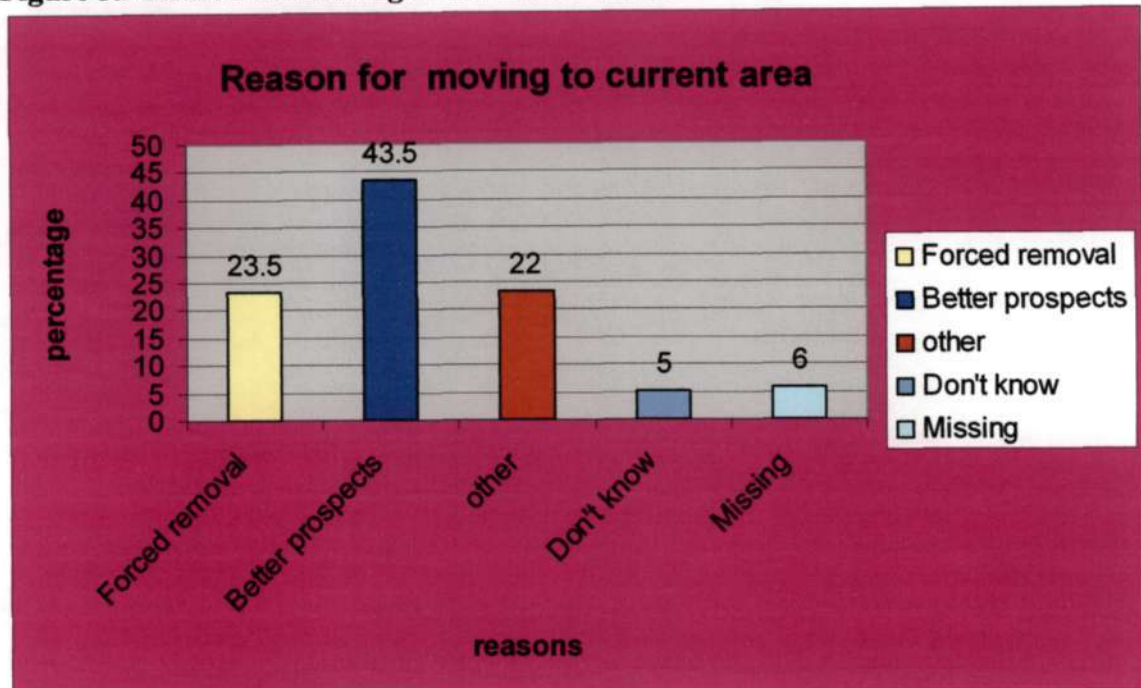
Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

**Figure 5.8: Has the community respondent lived elsewhere previously?**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

**Figure 5.9 Reason for moving to the current area**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figures 5.7, 5.8 and figure 5.9** represents previous dwellings of the respondents 57.5% have lived somewhere prior settlement in Drakensberg and St Lucia, 23.5% are in the place because of forced removal as reflected on **figure 5.9** and 41% of the respondents were born and bred in the area. Only 3% never responded to the question.

Still on the dwelling place, from the data collected, it is reflected that 22.5% of the respondents live within the park, 52% live at 1-5 KM radius from the park, 17.5% live in 6-10 KM radius from the park, 5.5% at 11-15 KM radius from the park and 0.5% 16-20KM radius from the park while 2% never responded. A total of 7% is still expected to move from their respected areas, 46% is not threatened to be moved from the area, 13% don't know if they will be moved or not and 33.5% never responded to that question.

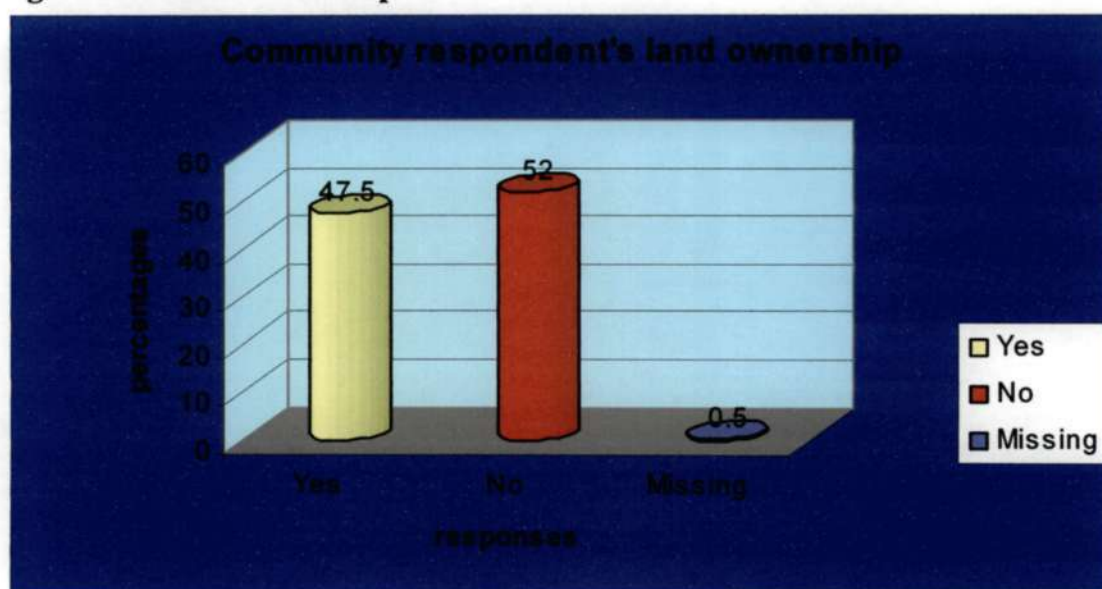
On the land issue, the researcher divided the land into two categories, the land for cultivation and the land for grazing. Of 200 respondents from both areas, 68% have access to land for grazing, 28.5 have no access to land for grazing and 3.5% never



responded to the question. On the issue of land for cultivation 69% while 27% have no access to land for the same purpose, 3% never responded to the question and 1% does not know whether they have access to land for cultivation.

Another issue has been the quality of the aforementioned land, 45% have declared that the land they have for cultivation is poor, 17% referred to the land as satisfactory, while 28% have good land for cultivation, 7.5% view land as excellent and lastly 2.5% never responded to the question. On the quality of land for grazing 45% saw the land as poor, 15% declared it as satisfactory, 26.5% have good land for grazing, while 7% have excellent grazing land and 6.5% never responded to the question.

**Figure 5.10: Land ownership**

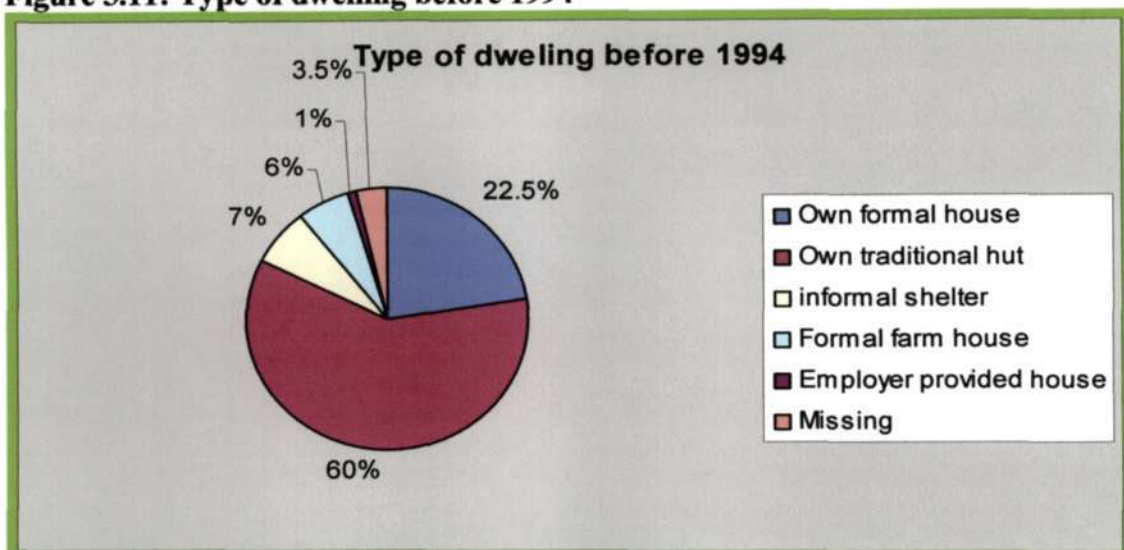


**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

On the issue of land ownership, **Figure 5.10** shows that 47.5% of the respondents own land. 52% does not have ownership of land 0.5% never responded to the question and counted as the missing value which then makes it 100%.

To understand the livelihoods of the communities in question from the pre-1994 and post 1994, the inquiry focused at a few basic necessities of humanity which are identified in following figures.

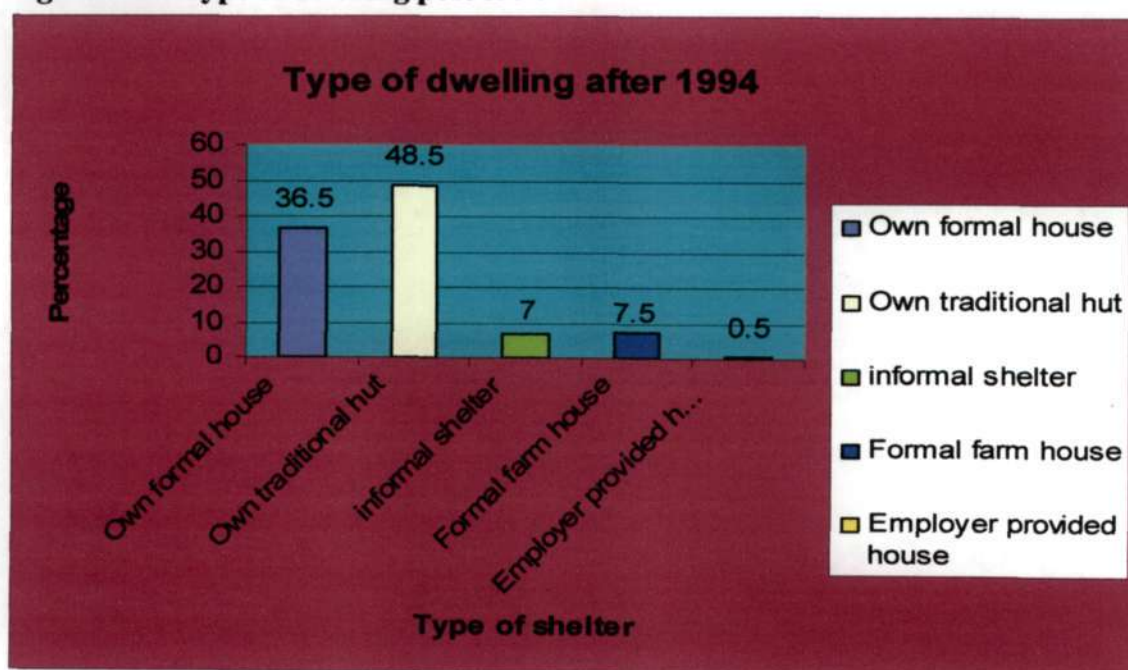
**Figure 5.11: Type of dwelling before 1994**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

As the aim of the research is to assess the social impact of eco-tourism, it is important to understand their way of life. **Figure 5.11** above the shows type of dwelling before 1994. Of 200 respondents 22.5% have their own formal house during this period, 60% lived on traditional huts, 7% lived on informal shelter, 6% on formal farm house, 1% on houses provided by their employers and 3.5% did not respond to the question.

**Figure 5.12: Type of dwelling post 1994**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)



When the data was collected there was no considerable change (from 1994-2005) in as far as the dwelling type is concerned. Of the 200 respondents, 36.5% own formal house, 48.5 own traditional huts, 7% in informal shelter, 7.5% have a formal farm house and 0.5% live on the house that is provided by the employer. The statistics clearly show that there isn't so much change even though 9% of the people were removed forcefully from their places of origin where they had good descent housing. Below is an example of a traditional hut (**Figure 5.13**).

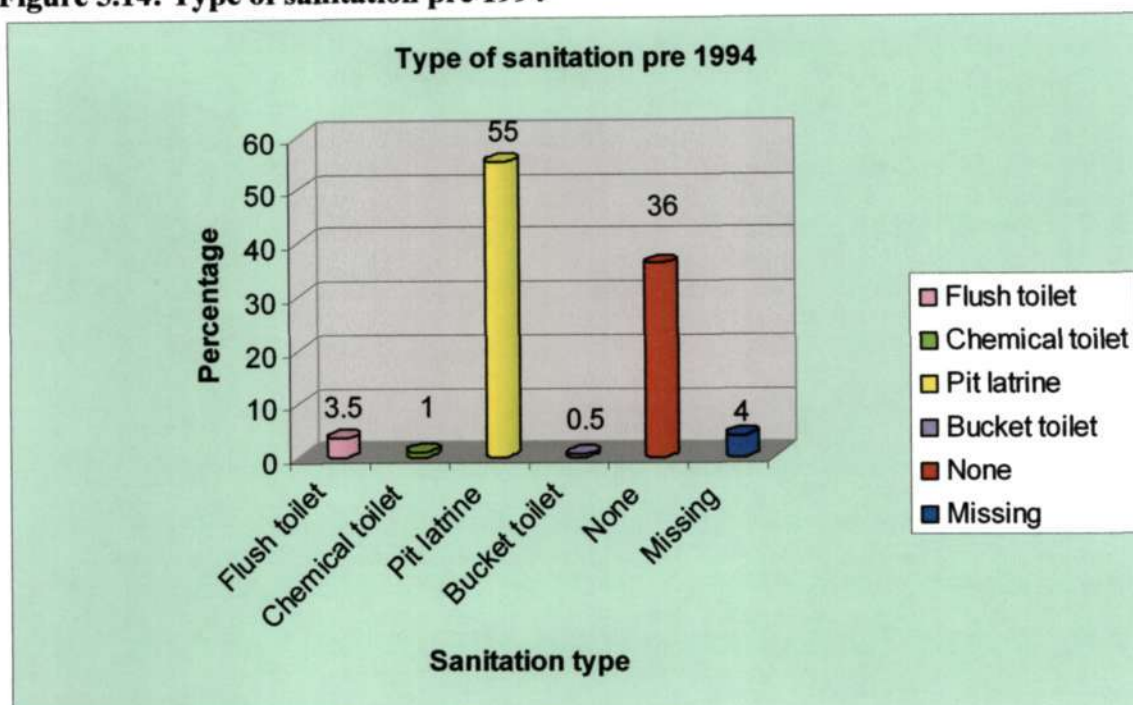
**Figure 5.13: Traditional Hut**



**Source: Fieldwork. July – August 2005**

The next category is the sanitation type which is also assessed on two categories. Category one looks at the sanitation type pre 1994 and category two looks at sanitation after 1994 up to the time when the data was collected. Below is the sanitation table pre 1994.

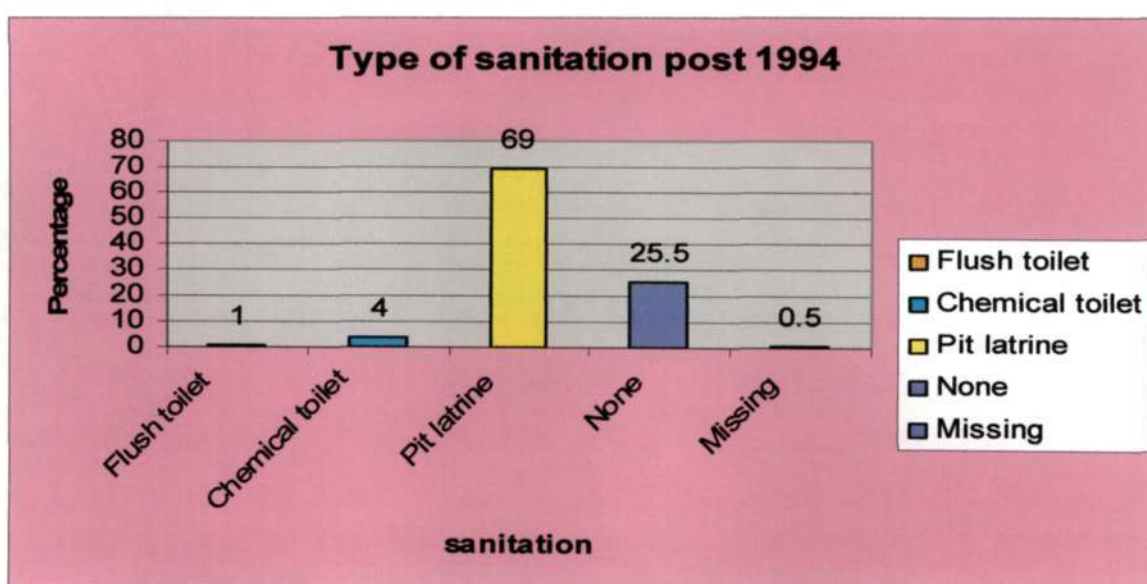
**Figure 5.14: Type of sanitation pre 1994**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

**Figure 5.14** shows that 3.5% of the respondents have flush toilets, 1% chemical toilets, 55% pit latrine, 0.5% use the bucket toilet system, 36% have no toilet at all and 4% never responded to the question. The next (**Figure 5.15**) shows the type of sanitation post 1994.

**Figure 5.15: Type of sanitation post 1994**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

**Figure 5.15** depicts the type of sanitation after 1994. Of the 200 respondents interviewed 1% have flush toilet, while 4% have chemical toilet, 69% with pit latrine, 25.5% have no toilet at all and 0.5% never responded. Below is an example of a pit latrine since it is the dominant type of sanitation prior 1994. This clearly shows that even though there has been ecotourism development, the lives of the people has never been developed to meet the basic acceptable standard of all humans.

**Figure 5.16: Pit latrine**

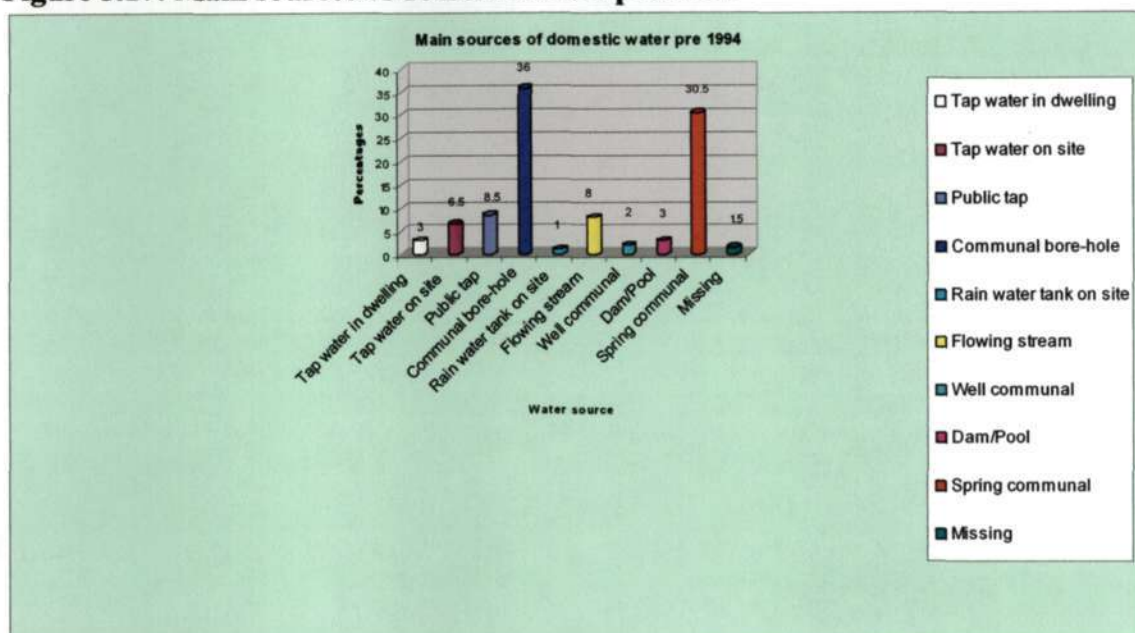


**Source: Fieldwork. July – August 2005**

The next category will look at the water source pre and post 1994. It shows the statistics of the respondents.



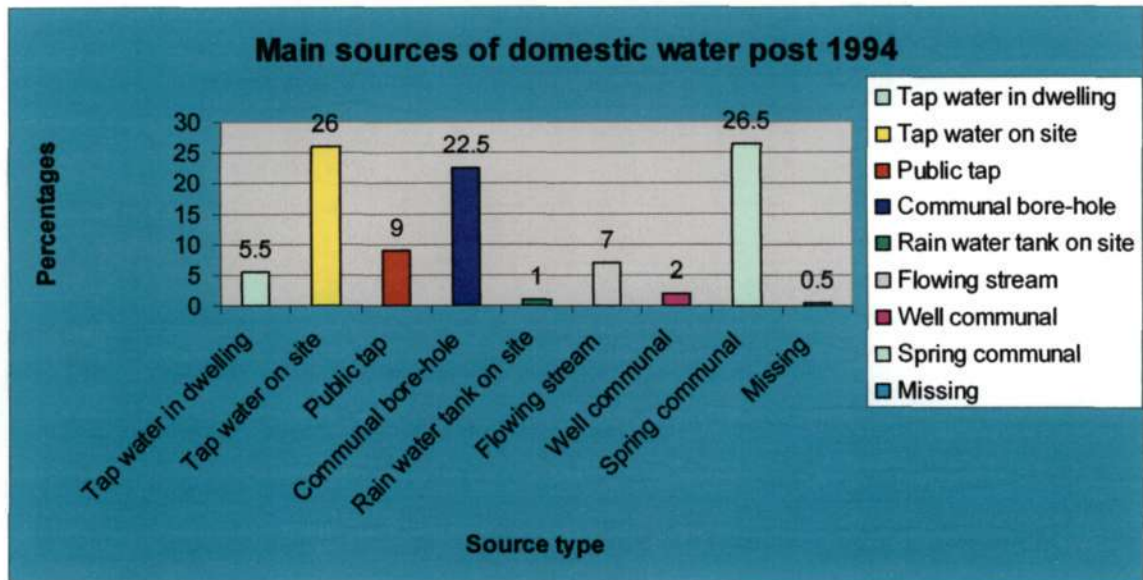
**Figure 5.17: Main sources of domestic water pre 1994**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.17** above shows that 3% of the respondents pre 1994 had tap water in their dwelling, 6.5% with tap water on site, 8.5 used public tap, 36% used communal borehole, 1% rain water tank on site, 8% used flowing stream, 2% used well communal, 31% on spring communal while 3% uses dam/pool and 1.5% never responded. The next **Figure (5.18)** will look at the same issue of water supply in the post 1994 era.

**Table 5.18: Main sources of domestic water post 1994**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.18** water supply type post 1994. 200 respondents responded as follows: 5.5% have tap water in dwelling, 26% have tap water on site, 9% uses public tap, 22.5% uses communal borehole, 1% with rain water tank on site, 7% on flowing stream, 2% on well communal and 26.5 uses spring communal while 0.5% of the respondents didn't answer the question. Below are examples of water supplies used by the respondents. These statistics truly reflects that 53% (**See Figure 5.31**) of the people rely on natural resources from the park of which water is the main natural resource for any living thing to survive.

**Figure 5.19: Spring Water**



**Source: Fieldwork. July – August 2005**



**Figure 5.20: Flowing stream**



Source: Fieldwork. July – August 2005

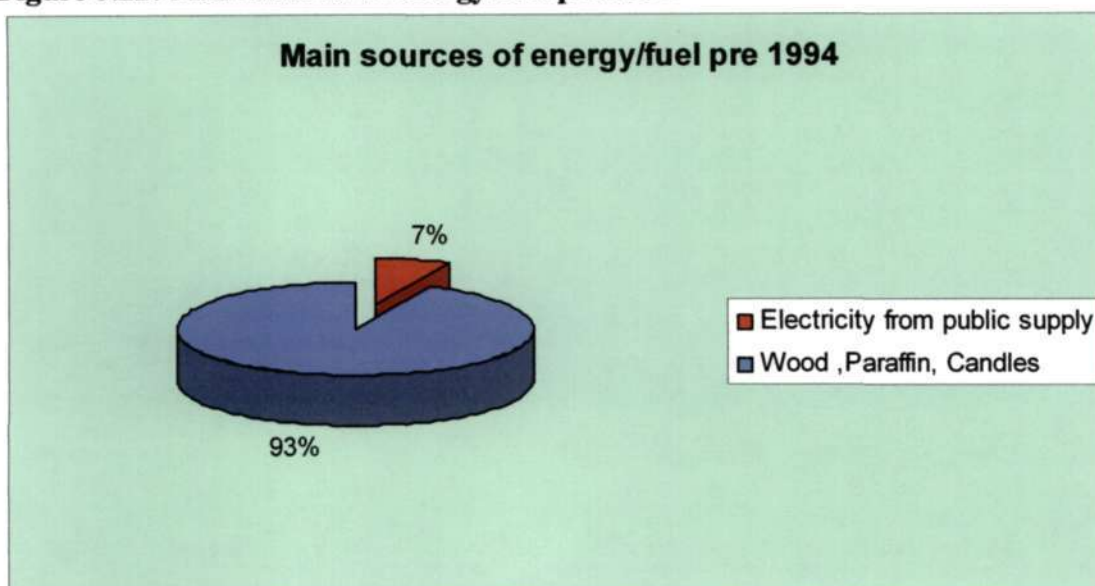
**Figure 5.21: Communal tap**



Source: Fieldwork. July – August 2005

The next two **Figures (5.22 and 5.23)** focus on the main source of energy pre and post 1994 on both the Drakensberg and Greater St Lucia Wetland Park.

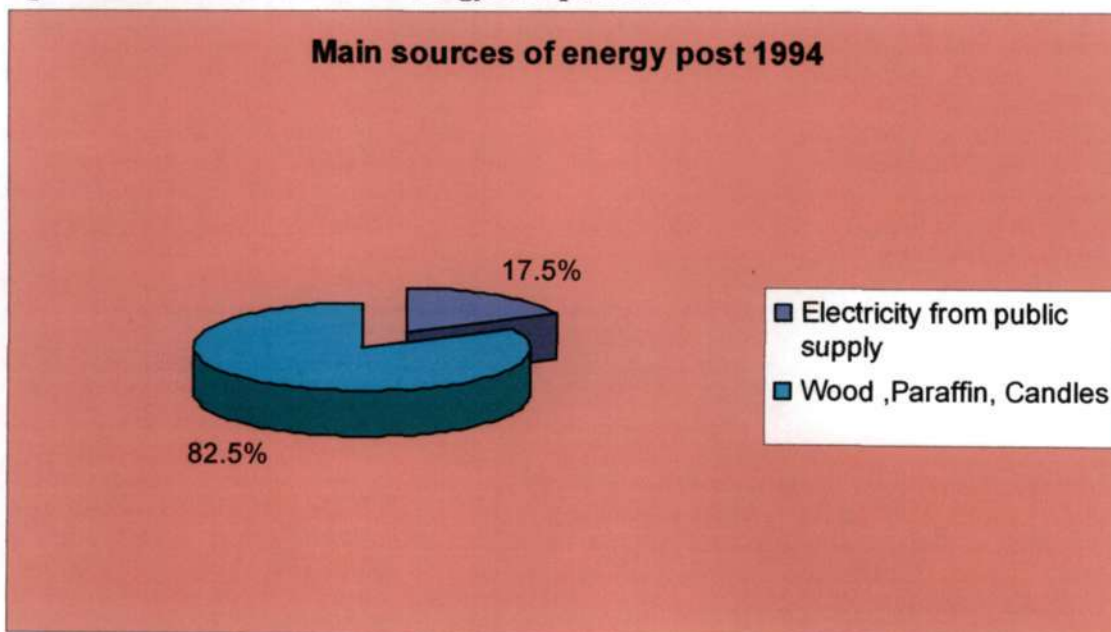
**Figure 5.22: Main sources of energy/fuel pre 1994**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

The above **Figure (5.22)** shows that of the 200 respondents, 7% of the respondents used electricity from the public supply while 93% relied on other sources of energy such as wood, paraffin and candles. This is the reflection of the energy source situation before 1994.

**Figure 5.23: Main sources of energy/fuel post 1994**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

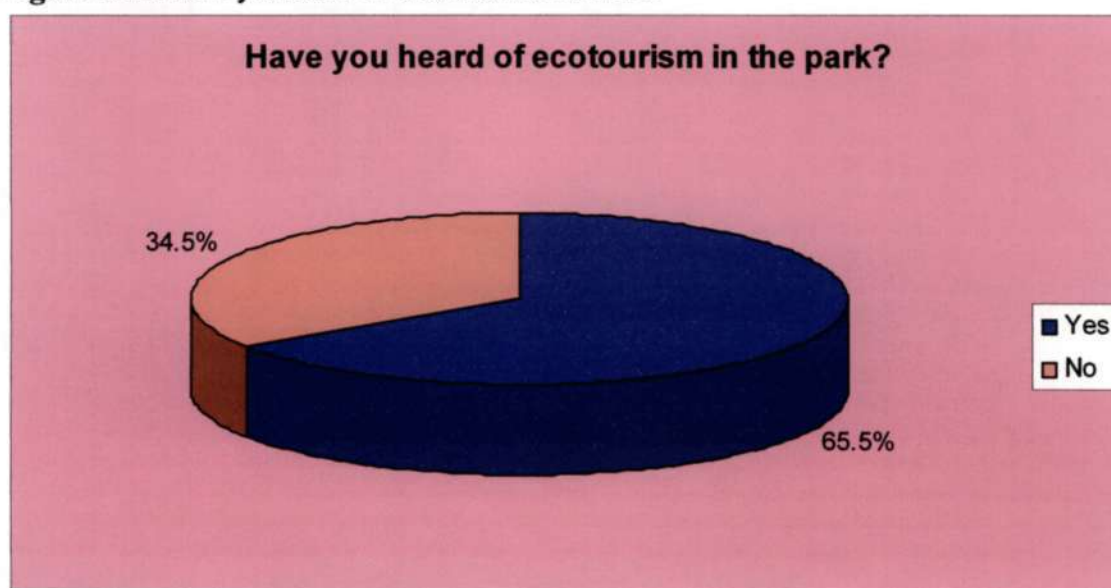


**Figure 5.23** on the other side shows that of the 200 respondents, 17.5% consumed electricity from public supply, while 82.5 uses other sources of energy like wood, paraffin and candles. These statistics will be further discussed on section D of this chapter which deals with the issue of access to the park for natural resources. Since ecotourism and the declaration of the world heritage sites in South Africa in general and specifically in Kwa-Zulu Natal came after 1994, there hasn't been so much change in the development of the local people.

### 5.3.1 Section. B: Community and the Eco-tourism Parks

This section of analysis focuses on the community and the Eco-tourism Parks. It looks at the community's responses on their understanding of eco-tourism and their perception of eco-tourism in general.

**Figure 5.24:** Have you heard of ecotourism to the Park?



**Source:** Field-Work report (July- October2005)

**Figure 5.24** represents the statistical responses from the respondents about their knowledge of eco-tourism in their area. Of 200 respondents, 65.5% have indicated that they are quite aware of what is eco-tourism, while 34.5% were not. The figures indicate that there is still a lot that needs to be done in as far as the education of local communities about eco-tourism. Since the expectations of community involvement from the government is too, high there is a greater demand for formal awareness lessons to enable



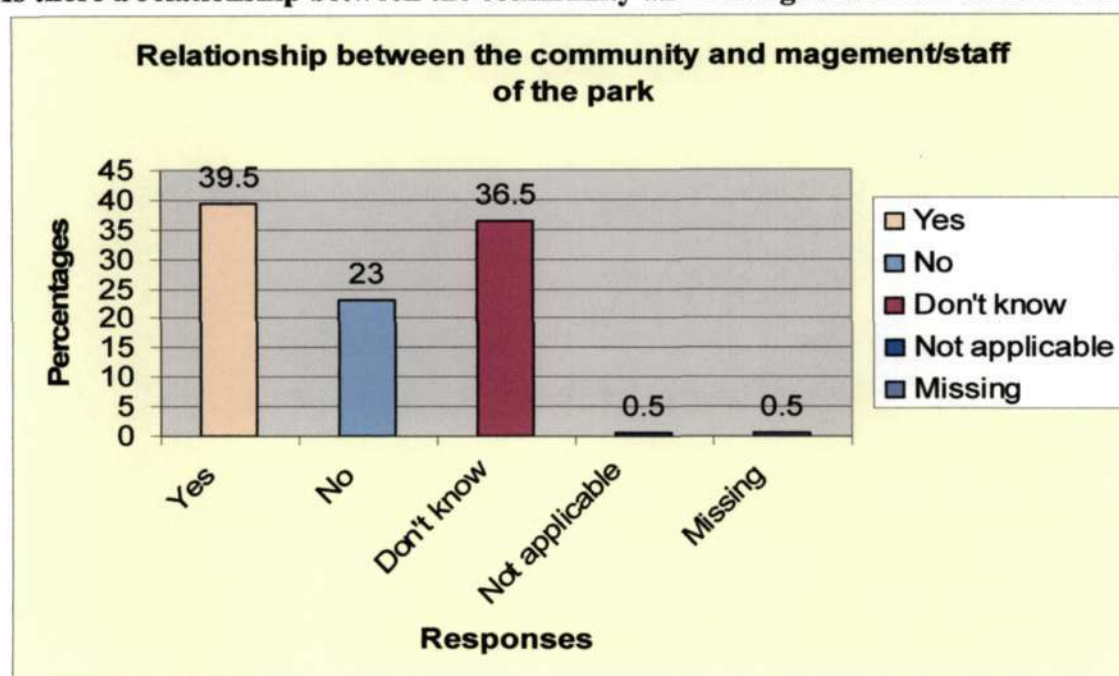
local people to be equipped to take full responsibility of their environment. This might help in reducing the problem of high unemployment rate in the area.

### 5.3.2 Section C.

This section of analysis focuses on the social impact of eco-tourism in both areas. The following graph depicts figures on percentage of the respondents.

**Figure: 5.25: Community response on social impact of eco-tourism)**

**Is there a relationship between the community and management/staff of the Park?**

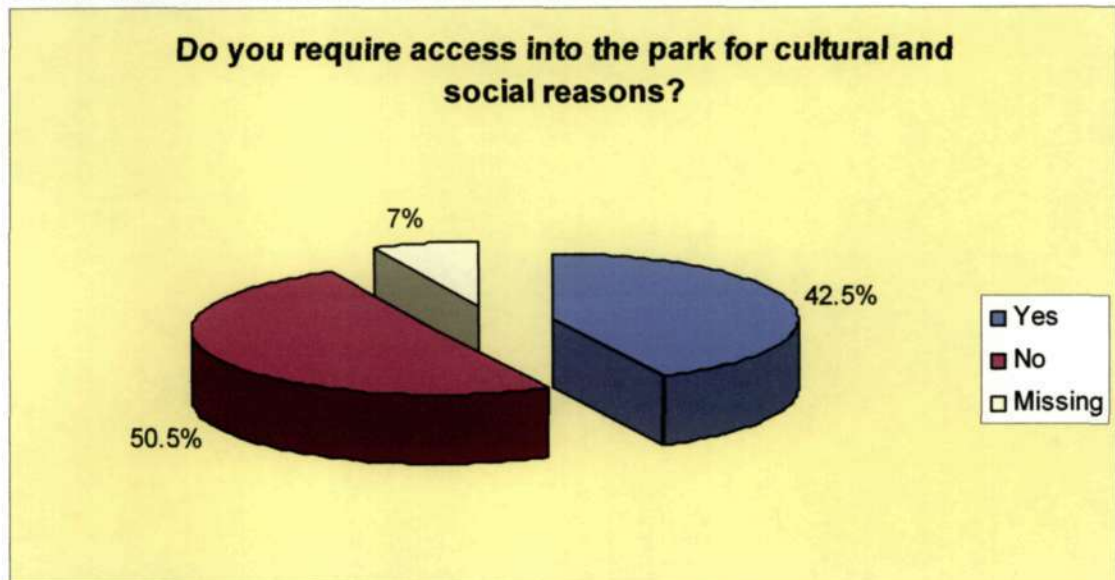


**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

Figure 5.25 depicts that of 200 respondents on the question of the relationship between the community and the management of the park the response was as follows, 39.5% said there is a relationship between these two parties, 23% said there is no relationship between management and the community, 36.5% said they do not know whether there is a relationship between the two parties or not, while in St Lucia 59% do not have an idea of whether there is relationship or not, 0.5% of the respondents said the question was not applicable to them and 0.5% again never responded to the question. The following table on the other side addresses the issue of acquiring access to the park for cultural and social reasons.

**Figure 5.26: Access into the Park for cultural and social reasons**

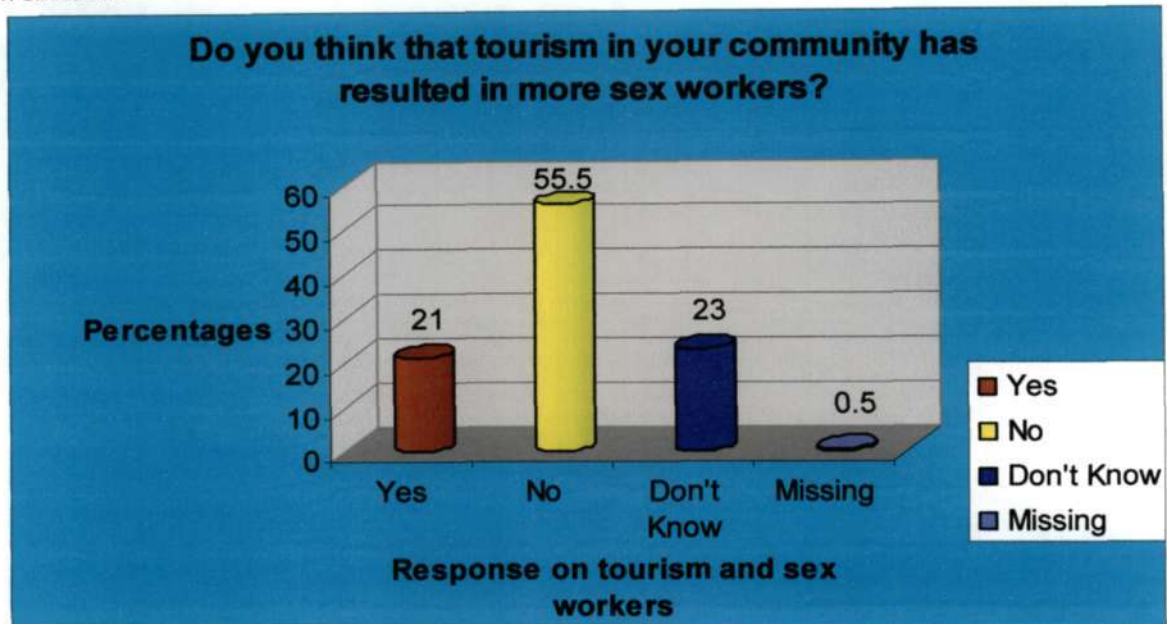
Do you require access into the Park for cultural and social reasons?



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

Table 5.26 shows that of the respondents 42.5% need access to the park for cultural and social reasons, 50.5% do not need access to the park and 7% never responded to the question. A total 100% of the respondents are Africans and Africans are culture orientated society which is the reason why 42.5% needs access to the park to fulfill their cultural needs. Another reason is that Table 5.18 has shown that 82.5% uses wood, paraffin and candles as their source of energy, and the wood is the most affordable in a society where unemployment stood at 73% (refer: **Figure 5.5**), while on the other hand access to the park is restricted. The next figure addresses the question of whether tourism has created more sex workers in the area.

**Figure 5.27: Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in more sex workers?**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.27** above shows that 21% of the responded agreed that tourism has led to more sex workers in the area, while 55.5% did not agree to that, 23% do not know whether there is any change in terms of commercial sex workers in the area and 0.5% never responded to the question. This question is further explained on the table below where it has been cross tabulated on age of respondents.

When cross tabulating the question '**Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in more sex workers?**' It can clearly show how age of the respondents affects their answers on the question. First it is important to understand that the commercial sex industry is not legal in South Africa. Secondly, it is also important to know that the industry has emanated because of change from traditional way of life to a more industrialized and more demanding one. This has been a result of a push and a pull factors where people have been pushed by shortage of resources away from rural areas and pulled by urban glory with its greener pastures. This then means that the question of commercial sex working industry is informed by firstly the generation, secondly age,

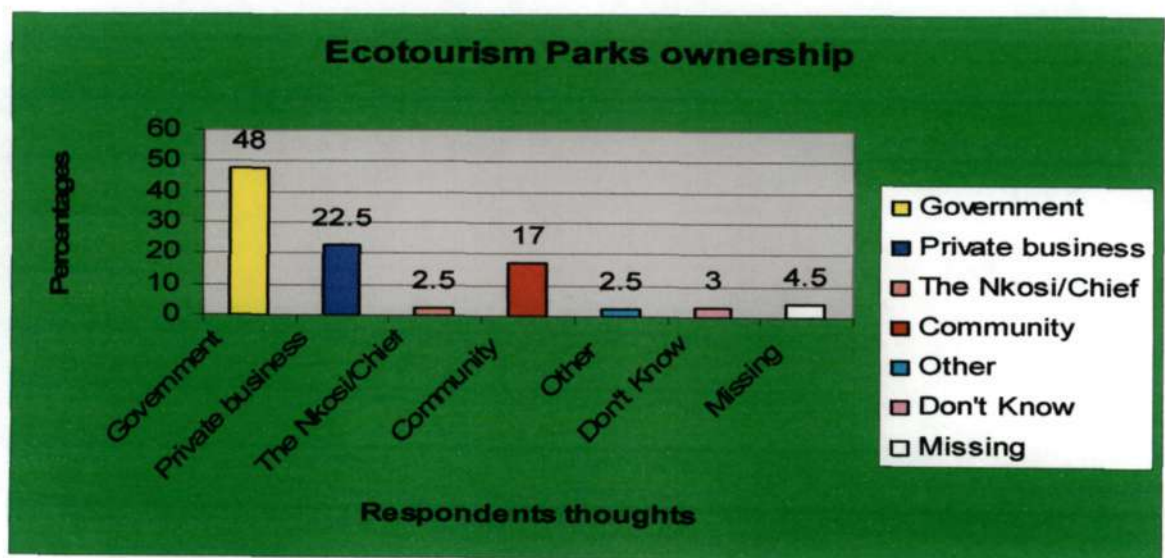


thirdly the exposure to information of the respondent and lastly the mobility of the respondent since it is concentrated on areas where is a mixture of people from different backgrounds. It is through these reasons that the researcher came up with these findings as reflected in Figure 5.27 above. From the 48 respondents below 25 years of age 5.5% agreed that tourism has resulted in more sex workers in the area, 7% of 60 respondents from the class of between 26 and 35 years also agreed to tourism as being a vehicle that promotes sex working industry, 3.5% of 40 respondents and 4.5% of 28 respondents from the ages 36-45 and 46-55 also supports this notion. While those above the age of 65 were not in support of the statement. Looking at the age categories those between 25yrs and 65 years are the people who are highly mobile, still economically active and highly informative. And these people agreed that tourism has resulted in more sex workers in the area. As a result of these, there is going to be a breakdown of social norms and values as well as culture of a united community like the one experimented in this research since it is built on same culture and language as indicated on **Figure 5.3**.

#### 5.4.1 Section: D. The Community and the Economic impacts of Eco-tourism Parks

This section addresses the issue of economic impact of tourism in surrounding communities. It seeks to find out whether there are any contributions that are made by tourism in surrounding communities. These are covered in figure 5.28 below.

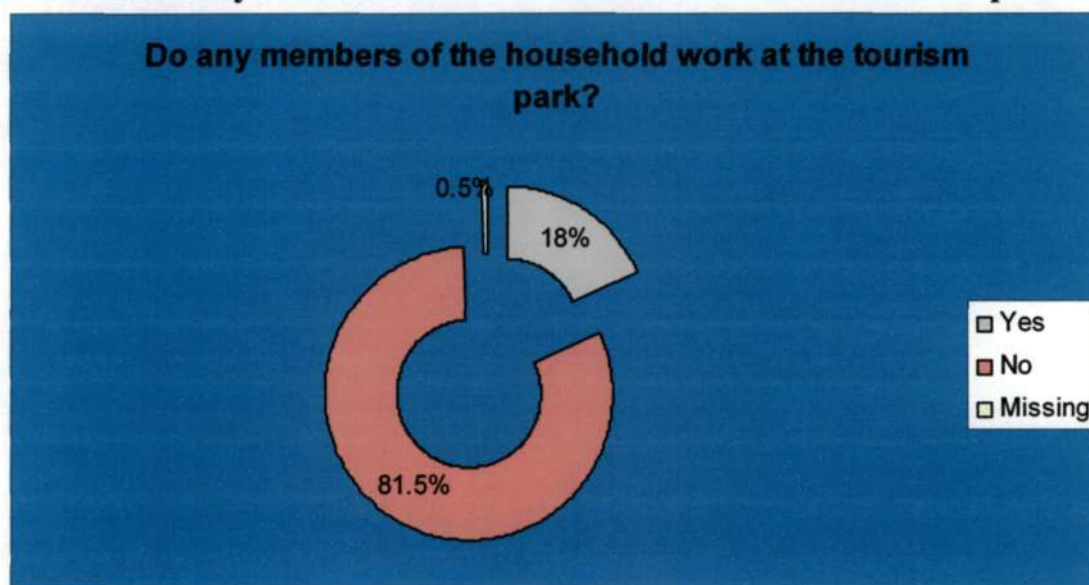
**Figure: 5.28 Who do you think owns the ecotourism parks?**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

The social is the economical, meaning the social issues and economic issues cannot be separated. Hence both variables were scientifically intertwined. **Figure 5.28** and **figure 5.14** indicate that 48% of the respondents think that the government is in charge of the ownership of the parks, while 22% think that it's private business that owns the park, while 2.5% from the think that Inkosi/ Chief owns the park, 17% thinks that the park is owned by the community, and 2.5% think that it is owned by other people or organizations not listed on the questionnaire, 3% do not know who owns the park and 4.5% never responded to the question. These statistics clearly show the lack of coordination from the managers of the parks to provide information to local communities. The next table (5.21) shows the number of family members of the respondents that are employed in the tourism park.

**Table 5.29: Do any of the members of the household work at the tourism park?**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October 2005)**

**Figure 5.29** indicates that of 200 respondents interviewed 18% agreed that their family members work in the tourism parks, 81.5% said no member of their family works in the park and the remaining 0.5% is for those who have not responded to the question. The next **Figure 5.30** looks at whether are there any community members who are in management of the parks.

**Figure 5.30: Do you know of any members of the community that are on the management of the Parks?**



Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)

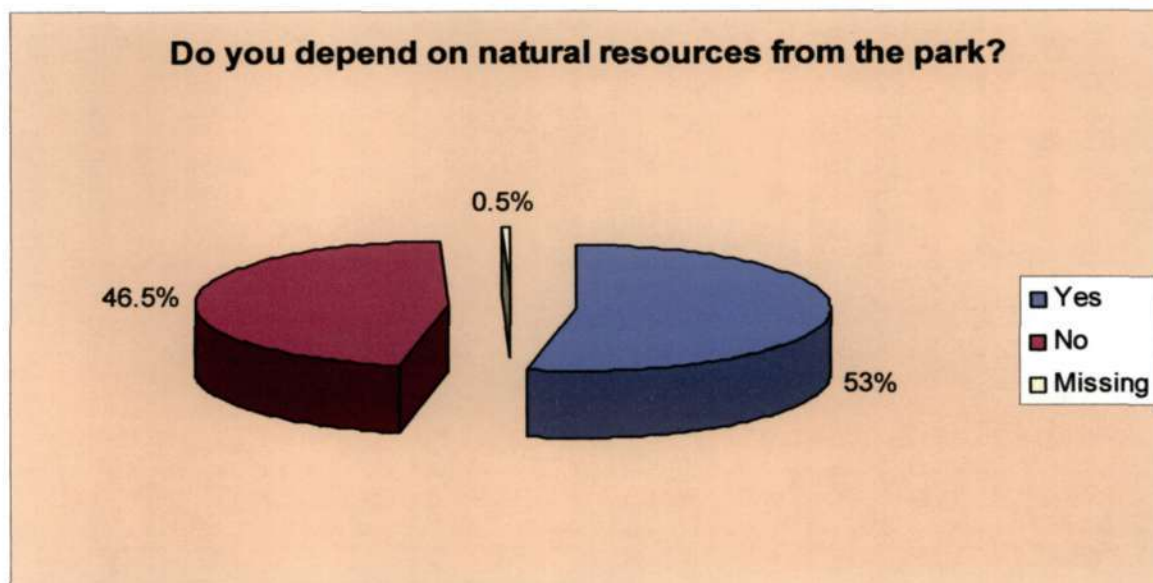
**Figure 5.30** above indicates that 32.5% know some community members who are working in the park, 45.5% said no one works in the park in their community, 20.5% responded with a “don’t know” answer and 1.5% never responded to the question.

#### **5.5.1 Section: E. The Community and the Natural Environment**

This section deals with the community and their interaction with the natural environment. Looking at how much the community depends on the park for natural use.



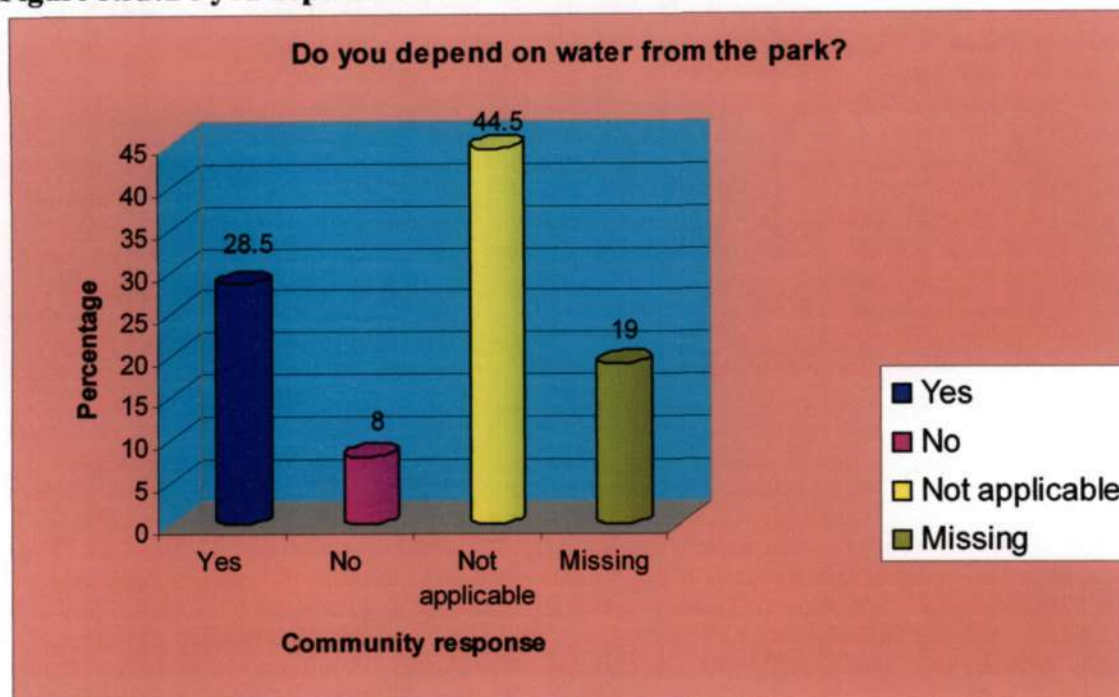
**Figure: 5.31: Community response on dependence on natural resources from the park.**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.31** above depicts how much the respondents depend on the park for natural resources. 53% depend to the park for natural resources, 46.5% do not depend on the park for such purpose and 0.5% never responded to the question. This table shows that more than half of the community still needs the park for their daily survival, hence now the parks are reserved for tourism purpose only. The next tables explore the type of natural resources that the communities rely on from the park.

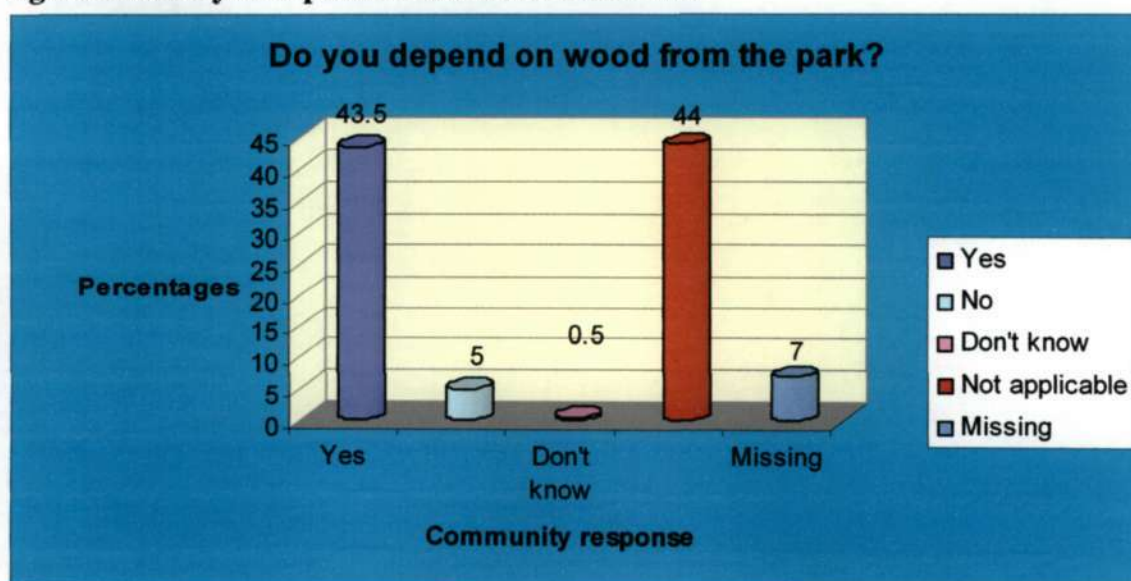
**Figure 5.32: Do you depend on water from the Park?**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.32** indicates that 28.5% of respondents are depended on water from the park, 8% do not depend on the water from the park, 44.5% not applicable and 19% not responded to the question.

**Figure 5.33: Do you depend on wood from the Park?**



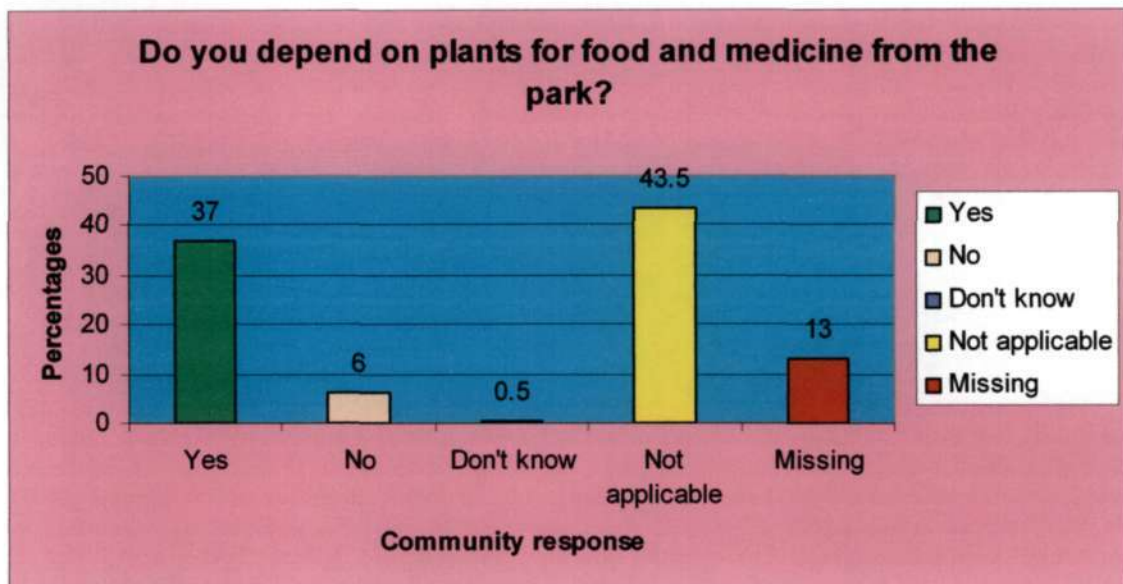
**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.33** portrays statistics of community dependent on wood from the park, 43.5% of the respondents depend on the park for wood as the source of energy, only 5% say they



do not depend on the park for the same purpose, 44% responded with a “not applicable” answer and this answer represents those who said that they do not depend on the park for natural resources and 7% never responded to the question.

**Figure 5.34: Do you depend on plants for food and medicine from the Park?**



**Source: Field-Work report (July- October2005)**

**Figure 5.34** assesses community dependents on plants for food and medicine from the park. From 200 respondents, 37% agreed that they are dependent on plants in the park, 12% disagrees, 0.5% do not know, 43.5% came with a “not applicable” answer and 13% not responded to the answer.

The next chapter will come with findings, recommendations and conclusion based on the analysis of the data accumulated above.

## **Chapter Six**

### **Conclusions and recommendations**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

This research aimed at investigating the social impact of ecotourism and its relation to the to the policy formulation and implementation and how it influence the lives of the surrounding community. This research has been undertaken at ripe time when South Africa is fully becoming part of the bigger family, “the global community” and when tourism is becoming the major contributor to the GDP in the country. The research tries to come up with the findings and highlight areas of concern where there is a need for the government and the private sector to intervene in order to improve the lives of the people more importantly the surrounding communities. This chapter therefore highlights the findings looking on the social and economic impact of ecotourism and come up with recommendations on the matter tabled.

#### **6.2 Social Findings**

In moving on the social findings, it is much imperative to understand the building blocks of a society. A society must be understood as a group of people in a particular area forming a community sharing same culture and norms. The research has revealed that the study was conducted in areas where 100% of the respondents are predominantly black and 100% speaks IsiZulu as their home language. Africans are a cultural nation and on the findings, it is revealed that 23.5 % of the respondents have been forcefully removed from their places. This forceful removal from the places of their births has resulted in a situation where they have to move out of places where they have buried their loved ones.

Secondly it is also revealed from the study that 82.5% of these two areas still do not covered with the reliable source of energy which is electricity; they rely on fire wood and other primitive sources of energy. If these people are then deprived of natural resources it becomes difficult for them to survive. Which is the case with these communities where they have to pay so as to get access to these natural resources.

### **6.3 Economic findings**

What is social is economical, so it would be naïve for the researcher to separate these two issues. In addressing the social issues around ecotourism the researcher has also tackled economic related issues. Blacks in general are a farming nation and others still hunt for survival. And if they are removed from their places it does not only mean the loss of land but also the means to survive.

Secondly as ecotourism is taking the frontline in economic development, there is a need for a special skill and the special knowledge which requires people with a certain level of education. Hence the research has revealed that 18% of the people are illiterate. To get local people involved in the core of tourism business there is a need for a special training which needs a certain amount of training and a certain amount of level of education since tourism is neither local nor national, but a global phenomenon.

### **6.4 Proving or disproving the Hypothesis**

The hypothesis is categorised into four subsections that the researcher is aiming to prove. First is the reservations of some places that belonged to the communities only for the purpose of ecotourism. Secondly is the displacement or removal of communities from their places of birth. Thirdly is the breakdown of cultural practices as a result of ecotourism and lastly as a result of the introduction of ecotourism the level of poverty has increased.

Of all these the findings of the research has been proven positive. Starting with the displacement of people, 23.5% of the respondents have hinted the problem that they have been forcefully removed from their places which correctly prove the hypothesis of this research. Secondly, coming to the breakdown of cultural practices, from the statistics the research has revealed that 42.5% of the respondents need access to the park for cultural and social reasons. Hence, accessing the park is conditional and some people fail to meet such conditions. On the issue of reservation for tourist that one as well has been proven

right by the research where these places has been declared as the World Heritage sites and local community being moved from the place.

Coming to poverty, the research has not been able to prove convincingly that 'ecotourism has resulted in poverty even though communities who had access to land for grazing and for cultivation that was excellent and enough now have poor quality of land or even no land at all.

## **6.5 Conclusion**

There can be little argument that the spirit of the Freedom Charter continues to shape and inspire what we do. However, developments over the past 10 years have highlighted the danger that the enjoyment and the exercise of the human rights can very easily become the preserve of some and remain elusive for others. There are many organized and articulate interest groups who have used the rights discourse quite effectively to champion their cause, while on the other hand vulnerable and marginalised groups who are yet to experience the full benefits of our young democracy battle to have their voices heard and to elevate their issues and their concerns onto the national agenda. This may well represent the most significant challenge for the years ahead- the need to ensure that the scope and the reach of the Bill of Rights is able to get those who require it the most. After all that must have been the spirit of Kliptown- to truly create the framework where we could develop a South Africa that belongs to all who live in it. As long as that objective remains unfulfilled then the objectives of the Freedom Charter remain unrealized.

This study has argued that to endorse ecotourism is to advocate for change. However, the changes which are desired are controversial, vary between actors, and necessitate the search for trade-offs and compromises. Assessments of the impacts of ecotourism are not immune from the difficulties associated with measuring impacts in general, as well as those pertaining to tourism in particular. Much research on the impacts of tourism is not cumulative because of the adoption of an inappropriate research paradigm and an

inadequate attention to the contexts in which impacts occur. A broad perspective involving economic, environmental, and social indicators is required.

## **6.6 Recommendations**

From the research conducted and the findings highlighted, the researcher therefore concluded by coming up some recommendations which are summarised as follows:

- A need for the integration of local communities to fully participate in the development of the ecotourism business.
- A need to develop the policy that would directly tackle the problem of the marginalisation of the local community from the core of the lucrative business.
- A full representation of the community from the planning process up to the implementation phase. This has been viewed as problematic since some people have been forcefully removed from their places.
- A compulsory training for each member of the community that will provide minimum level of education to understand ecotourism and what role they can play to contribute to its development.
- A policy that would assist in the monitoring of the situation whereby tourism operators must be directly involved in the development of local community through investing in facilities such as schools and other developmental initiatives.

It is with these recommendations that the researcher sees as the potential developmental strategy for responsible ecotourism business.

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#### **Web sites**

[www.statssa.gov.za](http://www.statssa.gov.za)

[www.satis.co.za](http://www.satis.co.za)

[www.satour.org](http://www.satour.org)

[www.wttc.org](http://www.wttc.org)

#### **Other Documents**

South African White Paper on tourism

Kwa-Zulu Natal tourism Amendment Act

Explore South Africa, Volume 7. 2005

# **APPENDIX 1**

**SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL**

**THE SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC IMPACT OF ECO-TOURISM: REVIEWING  
OF TOURISM POLICY IN ZWELISHA IN DRAKENSBERG AND KHULA  
VILLAGE IN St. LUCIA KZN.**

**COMMUNITY SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE**

Park: \_\_\_\_\_

No: \_\_\_\_\_

Municipality: \_\_\_\_\_

**A. Respondent's Personal Details**

**1. Gender**

1. Male	
2. Female	

**2. Age of Respondent**

1. <25yrs	2. 26-35 yrs	3. 36-45 yrs	4. 46-55 yrs	5. 56-65 yrs	6. >65 yrs
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**3. Race Classification**

1. African	
2. White	
3. Coloured	
4. Indian	
5. Other	

**4. Nationality**

1. South African	
2. Nigerian	
3. Zimbabwean	
4. Mozambican	
5. Other (Specify)	

**5. Home Language**

1. Zulu	
2. English	
3. Xhosa	
4. Afrikaans	
5. Other (Specify)	

6. Disability

1. Yes	
2. No	

7. Education

1. None	
2. Level 1 (pre-school, ABET)	
3. Level 2 (std 6, trade certificate)	
4. Level 3 ( std 8 professional trade qualifications)	
5. Level 4 ( std 10)	
6. Level 5 (diploma/degree) (specify)	
7. Other (Specify)	

8. Marital Status

1. Currently married	
2. Single	
3. Widowed	
4. Separated	
5. Living with partner	
6. Single	

9. Occupation

1. Unemployed	
2. Domestic	
3. Labourer	
4. Business Owner	
5. Technician	
6. Manager	
7. Artisan	
8. Professional	
9. Pensioner	
10. Other (Specify)	

**Background information of respondent**

10. Number of people living in your household

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>10

11. Sources of monthly income

Sources	Amount in rand
1. Pensions	
2. Remittances	
3. Wages	
4. Informal income	
5. Farm harvest	
6. Disability grants	
7. Other (Specify)	

12. Does your household own land?

1. Yes	
2. No	

13. For how long have you been living in this area?

1. >5 years	
2. 6-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. 16-25 years	
5. < 25 years	

14. Have you or your family lived somewhere previously?

1. Yes	
2. No	

14.1. If Yes to 14 above, why did you move here?

1. forced removal	
2. Better prospects	
3. Other	

15. Does your household have access to land for the following?

	Yes	No
Grazing	1	2
Cultivation	1	2

15.1. How would you rate the adequacy of land for the following use?

Land	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent
Grazing	1	2	3	4
Cultivation	1	2	3	4

16. Where do you reside?

1. Within the park	
2. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
6. < 20 km radius from the Park boundary	

16.1. Do you think you will be asked or forced to move out?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
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16.2. If yes, how far away from the Park are you being relocated?

1. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
2. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. < 20 km radius from the Park boundary	

16.3. If yes, how will you be compensated?

1. Money	
2. Another piece of land	
3. Other ( )	

17. Do you have any land claim to the St. Lucia Area/ The Drakensberg Region?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
--------	-------	---------------

17.1. If yes, has the claim been settled?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

17.3. If yes, how much have you received from the land?

1. < R50 000	
2. R50 000-R100 000	
3. R100 000-R150 000	
4. R150 000-R200 000	
5. R200 000-R250 000	
6. R250 000-R300 000	
7. R300 000-R350 000	
8. Other (specify)	

18. Are you experiencing any problems because of living next to the Parks?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
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18.1. If yes, could you list these problems?

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18.2. How can these problems be resolved?

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19. Type of dwelling

Type of house	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Own formal house		
2. Own traditional hut		
3. Shack/Informal		
4. Formal farmhouse		
5. Employer provided house		

20. Type of sanitation

	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Flush toilet		
2. Chemical toilet		
3. Pit latrine		
4. Bucket toilet		
5. None		

21. Main sources of domestic water

	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Tap water in dwelling		
2. Tap water on site		
3. Public tap		
4. Borehole communal		
5. Rain water tank on site		
6. Flowing stream		
7. Well communal		
8. Dam/ pool		
9. Spring communal		



22. Main sources of energy/ fuel for this household

1. Electricity from public supply		
2. Gas		
3. Paraffin		
4. Wood		
5. Coal		
6. Candles		
7. Other ( )		

## B. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECO-TOURISM PARKS

23. Have you heard of ecotourism in the St. Lucia Area/ The Drakensberg region?

1. Yes	
2. No	

23.1. If yes, could you tell me what you understand by ecotourism?

1. People visiting to see plants and animals	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Vacation	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

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## C. THE COMMUNITY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

23. Is there a relationship between the community management/ staff of the Parks?

1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Don't know	

23.1. If yes, how would you describe the relationship?

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Average	
5. Bad	
6. Very bad	

23.2 Give reasons for your choice of answer.

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24. Do you require access to the park for cultural and social reasons?

1. Yes	
2. No	

24.1. If yes, are you given access into the Park for such activities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

25. Has the Park invested in any of the following projects in the community?

1. None	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Clinics	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Schools	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Educational trusts	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Housing	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Small business ventures	Yes	No	Don't know
7. Sports facilities	Yes	No	Don't know
8. Events	Yes	No	Don't know
9. Community	Yes	No	Don't know
10. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
11. Other	Yes	No	Don't know

26. Do you meet the tourists that visit the Parks?

1. Yes	
2. No	

27. Do you enjoy visitors coming to your Drakensberg/ St. Lucia Park?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
--------	-------	---------------

28. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in?

1. More sex workers in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
2. More casinos in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Other ( )	Yes	No	Don't know

29. Do you think that the establishment of the World Heritage Site has an effect on the people's lives?

1. Yes	2. No	Don't know
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29.1 If yes, in what ways are these changes negative?

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29.2. If yes, in what ways are these changes positive?

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#### **D.THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM**

30. Who do you think owns the Ecotourism Parks?

1. Government	
2. private business	
3. The Nkosi/ Chief	
4. The community	
5. Other (specify)	

31. How much income do you think is generated by Ecotourism Parks per month?

1. 0-R1000	
2. R1000-R10 000	
3. R10 000-R50 000	
4. R50 000-R100 000	
5. R100 000-R500 000	
6.>R500 000	

32. If partnership exists, monies are given to:

1. Community trust fund?	Yes	No	Don't know
2. The i-Nkosi/Chief?	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Counselor?	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Community based organization?	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

33. Who, if anybody, has the Park approached to develop a partnership with?

1. Nobody	Yes	No	Don't know
2. The i-Nkosi/Chief	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Selected members of the community	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Community based organizations	Yes	No	Don't know
5. The counselor	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
7. Other	Yes	No	Don't know

34. Do you or any of the household members work at the tourism park?

1. Yes	
2. No	

35. Are any members of the community on the management of the Parks?

1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Don't know	

35.1. If yes, complete the ff. table.

Family member	Type of job	Salary per month	Permanent,seasonal,casual

Codes

Salary per month	Nature of job
1. <R1000.00	1. Permanent
2. R1000.00-R3000.00	2. Seasonal
3. >R3000	3. Casual

Do you know of any Black-owned tourism business?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
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36.1. If yes, what type of business/es is/are it/those?

1. Resort	
2. Tour operator	
3. Arts and crafts	
4. Community accommodation	
5. Consultancy	
6. Other (specify)	

37. Would you like to have tourist facilities in your community?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
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37.1. If yes, what type of facilities would you like to have?

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37.2. In what ways would you assist in developing the facilities?

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#### **D. THE COMMUNITY AND THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT**

38. Do you depend on any natural resources from the park?

1. Yes	
2. No	

38.1. If yes, do you depend on any of the following natural resources that is within or close to the Park?

1. None	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Water	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Wood (building, fuel)	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Plants (food, medicinal)	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Animals (food, muthi)	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Ancestral worship at specific site	Yes	No	Don't know
7. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

38.2. If yes, are you allowed access into the Park for such natural resources?

1. Yes	
2. No	

38.3. If yes, please state the conditions (if any) under which access is granted?

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39. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in?

1. Plant and tree destruction	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Water pollution	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Air pollution	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Vandalism of artifacts	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Animal Depletion	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
7. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

39.1. If yes, could you please elaborate?

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## **SUGGESTIONS**

40. What are the five biggest strengths of the community?

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41. What are the five major problems faced by the community?

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42. List ways in which you think the Parks can contribute positively towards the economic development of the community.

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[illegible]

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