

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LILANI HOT SPRINGS:  
AN ANALYSIS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC  
AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

by

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## ABSTRACT

Tourism development in remote areas of South Africa is often being proposed as the solution to poor rural communities' development needs. However, experience indicates that tourism development can result in a negative impact on a community's culture and way of life. The issue of sustainable development and what it means sets a base in which the research looked at tourism in rural areas. The case study on the impact of the redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs as a tourist resort focusses on both the people and environment. The historical context of the hot springs, their discovery, development and the demise of the old resort is investigated. This was undertaken so that lessons learnt from the past can be taken into consideration with the future development of the resort. This study has included investigating the viability and sustainability of such a tourist resort in the Umvoti Magisterial District and in a rural environment. By focussing on the Lilani community, this research project explores the key factors which have been identified as essential if long-term sustainable tourism is to be achieved in remote rural communities. An appropriate planning approach which stresses local participation and decision-making within the context of a holistic strategy for community development is subsequently proposed. Tourism has the potential of protecting the environment while providing social and economic benefits to the local communities. Clearly if the socio-economic needs of the local community in which a tourism development is set are not addressed, it will not succeed but if the natural environment, which is the very asset on which the tourism development is dependent upon, is not protected the resource which is the source of attracting tourists will be destroyed.

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## **DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY**

### **Declaration of Originality.**

Except where explicitly indicated to the contrary, this study is the original work of the author.

This thesis has not previously been submitted in any form to any other University.



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## CHAPTER ONE

# INTRODUCTION, RESEARCH OUTLINE AND METHODOLOGY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION: BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH PROJECT

There is a clear need for South Africa to address poverty and the lack of development in rural areas while taking advantage of the scenically beautiful countryside and cultural diversity to encourage tourism from the domestic and international market. From an economic perspective, the areas in need of particular attention in South Africa are those which formed part of the former homelands and tribal authority areas. In many cases these areas are underdeveloped with limited economic opportunities for the people to improve their living conditions. Tourism however, is seen as a positive way of creating economic opportunities in the very place these people live, by using the local environmental and cultural attributes as tourism attractions.

Local and international experience has shown that it is not easy to develop tourism in rural areas to benefit the local communities. Tourism often has a negative impact on the very people it sets out to help, especially on their traditional way of life, and then does not provide the hoped for economic benefits. "The perspective of tourism as a community resource is one that requires a realistic assessment of both the benefits that tourism may produce and the costs it may impose" (Smith, 1995: 6). Also, the long term sustainability of rural tourism has been questioned, especially as tourism is subject to the whims of people as to which location or type of holiday or leisure day-trip activity is in fashion. "The initial euphoria of success may, after a brief period, turn sour as tastes and the market move on" (Ryan, 1991:69).

The Lilani Hot Springs, located in the Lilani valley in the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority area of the Umvoti district of the KwaZulu-Natal midlands, is the site of an old resort. The hot springs are presently being promoted as a suitable site for redevelopment as a tourist destination. Previously controlled by the KwaZulu Government administration, the locality has largely been allowed to deteriorate and little has been done in terms of promoting sustainable development in the area. The predominantly rural population bases its livelihood on pensions, subsistence farming and migrant labour.

The old resort around the natural hot springs has been allowed to deteriorate as a tourism destination since the 1960's to the extent that very few people outside the Umvoti district even know of its

existence. Only a crumbling infrastructure, consisting of three swimming pools with ancillary buildings and the remainder of the old hotel building, remains of what once was a sought-after tourist destination and resort. Today only those who live in the valley use the warm water flowing out of the hillside.

Two events have played a major role in attracting people into the Lilani valley. The first is associated with the construction of the access road. This was originally cut out of the hillside to reach the springs in the 1930's and has subsequently been upgraded over the years with the increase in public transport into the valley, especially in recent years with the advent of the mini bus taxi industry. The second event has been the talk of redeveloping the resort ever since it closed its doors as a successful spa resort in the mid 1960's, when the government bought the resort with the intention of using it as a 'black' tourism resort in line with its policy of separate development (Caruso, 1996). People have lived in the hope that jobs would be generated close to where they live. This once pristine natural environment has suffered under population growth and consequent environmental degradation, including overgrazing from increasing numbers of livestock and the removal of trees for firewood. The hot springs, one of only four in KwaZulu-Natal (Booyens, 1981), are a particular environmental asset in the valley, but various other factors including the scenic beauty of the environment, the pleasant climate and the local Zulu culture, have encouraged various roleplayers in the province to identify Lilani hot springs as a site for a potential future tourist development and destination in KwaZulu-Natal. The contemporary growth in the tourism industry and the search for new, out of the ordinary tourism experiences, might well put the future resort on the map again.

This study investigates the possible impacts of the proposed redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs as a tourist resort on the environment and the community. An holistic evaluation of the redevelopment proposal is undertaken to establish what the possible impact will be, both positive and negative, on both the rural community living in the immediate vicinity and on the surrounding environment.

One of the ways of improving the success of tourism in rural areas is by involving the local communities in the planning, decision-making, and managing of a tourist development. This is not a straight forward approach and is often fraught with difficulty. Lilani Hot Springs is a useful case study in which to explore the various issues associated with developing a sustainable tourism resort in a rural area of South Africa. Often there is a potential conflict of interest between conserving the natural environment and development, and between settlement growth and subsistence agriculture and nature based tourism. These are the issues investigated in this study.

The changing racial policies of the South African government in the mid-1960's saw the resort close and then deteriorate as the government's plan to reopen it as a 'black' tourism resort never materialised. Since 1994, the new democratic government has spelt out that tourism is one of the ways it sees upliftment being achieved in rural areas and via this policy the resort may flourish once again. The development of tourism in a rural area has much potential to create employment opportunities for local people and is likely to lead to improvements in the physical and social infrastructure in an area. It is hoped that ecologically sensitive and viable tourism resorts can be developed for the benefit of rural people while at the same time it is important that the increasing impacts on sensitive environments by the local resident people and tourism can be limited.

## 1.2 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

There is a fine balance between both the community and the environment benefiting from a tourism development which could be a huge tourism attraction and financial success or a small low key eco-tourism resort on the fringe of tourism in KwaZulu-Natal. How should, and what potential exists for, the redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs to benefit the local community without a negative impact on the environment is thus considered.

The broad aim of this research is to investigate the socio-economic and environmental impacts of tourism activities in rural areas and use the Lilani Hot Springs as the case study.

The broad objectives of this research are to establish:

1. How tourism will affect and proactively contribute to economic and social needs of the community, tribe and district;
2. Which approach to tourism development will promote minimal impact on the community's culture, way of life and socio-economic environment, while maximising the potential benefits of tourism to the community;
3. What the potential impacts of tourist developments are on the natural, bio-physical environment and rural communities, particularly in terms of the social and cultural impacts of tourism and propose ways of protecting the bio-physical environment; and,
4. How this case study will inform national and provincial policy approaches to rural tourism and methods by which tourism in tribal authority areas could take place.

More specifically, the objective of this research is to make recommendations for the development of sustainable tourism in the Lilani Valley, and, therefore, specific issues pertaining to the case study have been examined. These include:

1. The protection of the sensitive environment and the effect of both increasing the use of the access route and the possible increase of people living in the area seeking work opportunities. Also, the impact on the environment in relation to the number of guests to be catered for at the resort and the visual changes occurring in the area resulting in a decrease in scenic beauty and attraction of the valley.
2. The effect of tourism on the local community which incorporates the effect of the development of the old resort site if the pools and surrounding land are utilised for tourists rather than by local residents, and the impact of strangers coming into the valley and utilizing a wide area for recreational activities and the local peoples' reaction. Also the envisaging social and economic benefits to the community from the development, other than an improved access road and some employment.
3. The upgrading of the local infrastructure and specifically the issues of who will undertake the upgrading of the road and the provision of service utilities for the tourist resort and will the community have access to the same network installed for the resort?
4. The development of a viable tourism development which takes into consideration the balance between preserving the environment and the local people congregating around a potential place of work, access route and communication network to the outside world.

### 1.3 RESEARCH CONTEXT

The aim of this study is to investigate sustainable tourism development in rural tribal areas and the impact on such areas from the social and environmental perspective. This research has resulted in specific recommendations for the Lilani valley and the community living in it. It must be recognised that each area is unique and though general recommendations can be made, they are made in the context of this specific case study area.

The conceptual framework of this research is based on the current concepts of tourism, sustainable tourism, the environment and community-based tourism. Tourism is such a wide encompassing field which impacts on a variety of aspects, including the natural environment, the built form, language and the culture of people, that all these aspects needed to be taken into consideration. They all contribute to the tourism experience and are themselves affected by tourists.

The research into the possible impact of the redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs at this time has made it possible to study the area before any redevelopment takes place, thereby offering an opportunity to assess the implications of such a development in a rural tribal area. The research has endeavoured, through an analysis of the social and environmental characteristics found in the Lilani valley, to highlight factors essential to the design and implementation of future tourist developments in rural tribal areas. As Mallari and Enot (1996:19) note:

“Many mistakes have been made in the name of economic development and there are many examples of the ill effects of tourism development. Communities that are just beginning to consider tourism development are at an advantage in that they can learn from the experience of negative examples in order to prevent unsustainable development practices.”

It is hoped that this study and its case study will inform national and provincial policy on the approach and appropriate methods of introducing tourism into rural settings in tribal authority areas.

#### 1.4 METHODOLOGY

A multi-faceted research approach has been adopted including a literature review of international and national literature relating to issues on tourism, sustainable tourism, the social and cultural dimensions of sustainable tourism and the environmental sensitivity and the degradation of tourist destinations. The study included field work for the collection of data and a socio-economic survey. Personal interviews were conducted with community members to discover the needs and aspirations of the people and to gauge their feelings and expectations with regard to the development. Meetings with the community leaders were also held to develop an understanding of the community's collective expectations, aspirations, fears and hopes regarding potential benefit to their community. The expectations of the people are analysed in the light of what can realistically be achieved and attained within the scope of a relatively small tourist attraction. Impacts on the people and their physical environment are investigated as well as the positive and negative spin offs of the redevelopment of the resort.

The conceptual framework of the research began with the concept of tourism and then investigated the historical aspect of hot spring resorts, from their use in Greek and Roman times to their resurgence in popularity during the period of the Renaissance as they pioneered modern day tourism. The field was then further focussed on South Africa and KwaZulu-Natal hot springs and the case study of Lilani.

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the community context, interviews were conducted with various key roleplayers. These included previous owners of the resort, community members, Itala Development Corporation Ltd (previously known as KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation Ltd) and local people who used to frequent the resort. The area has been visited on many occasions between 1996 and 2000 to undertake the fieldwork, to gauge the reaction of the people to strangers visiting their valley and to find secondary interests in the valley which could also be of interest to tourists.

The collection of primary data from the KwaZulu-Natal archives, newspapers, South African census information and personal communications with people who know the area has added a wider understanding to the history of the old resort and the valley in which it is located.

## 1.5 OUTLINE OF STUDY

The **introduction** to the study sets out the basic background and rationale for the project. **Chapter Two** spells out the conceptual framework around which the thesis is constructed. This includes a range of relevant tourism issues with particular focus on sustainable tourism. This is followed in **Chapter Three** by an historical perspective of hot springs as a tourist destination both internationally and nationally and a look at the geological phenomena causing hot springs. Lilani Hot Springs is one of only four hot springs in KwaZulu-Natal and so before a detailed investigation of the case study is presented, a discussion regarding the other three hot springs resorts in KwaZulu-Natal is presented in **Chapter Four**. The comparative advantages of each are looked at in the context of the future redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs as a tourist destination. Tourism resorts are not developed in isolation to other similar activities and lessons can be learnt from the experiences of other resorts. The focus is then refined to look at an historical account of the development of the Lilani Hot Springs area as a resort in **Chapter Five**. This provides a background to the case study area, placing it into its historical, social, economic, political and cultural context. This leads into an assessment of the potential for the Lilani Hot Springs being redeveloped as a tourist resort and its constraints as a tourist destination. The consideration includes an investigation into the local people's perspective on their living environment, current quality of life and prospects of improvement. The conclusion in **Chapter Six** presents key issues and recommendations specific to the Lilani Hot Springs and the impact development may have on the people and their environment. Recommendations are drawn out to present broad ideas which lend themselves to giving direction for inclusion into future policy formulation.



## CHAPTER TWO

# CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

### 2.1 TOURISM

#### 2.1.1 Defining Tourism

Tourism - the activity, and tourist - the person, are words the concise meanings of which have been the subject of much dispute, despite the fact that both words have been part of the English vocabulary for virtually two centuries. Samuel Pegge is said to have reported the use of 'tour-ist' as a new word for traveller around the year 1800 and "England's Sporting Magazine introduced the word 'tourism' in 1811" (Smith, 1989: 17).

Smith (1989: 17) states that "the lack of consistent and accepted definitions is a continuing source of frustration for tourism planners and analysts." This is partially the reason for the reluctance of some macro-economists even to accept the notion that tourism is a real industry. Holloway (1998: 3) says "conceptually, to define tourism precisely is an all but impossible task. To produce a technical definition for statistical reasons is less problematic."

Graburn (1989, in Harrison and Price, 1996: 1) defines tourism as "a service industry whose primary resource is environments and cultures which differ from those where the tourists usually live." Tourism is essentially an economic activity which is imposed or grafted onto a pre-existing set of economic activities and traditional ways of life (Harrison and Price, 1996: 1). This economic approach to tourism considers its main advantage the employment, income and foreign exchange which it can generate. In South Africa at present the development of tourism is considered to provide an untapped opportunity to improve the welfare of poor rural communities, since many such communities are situated in scenically beautiful and culturally rich areas.

One approach to define tourism is to say that "tourism is just one form of recreation, along with sports activities, hobbies and pastimes, and that all of these activities are discretionary uses of our leisure time" (Holloway, 1998: 1). It can also be stated that tourism usually involves some expenditure, but this is not necessarily the case as someone cycling or hiking in the countryside on a camping weekend in which they carry their own food may contribute nothing to the economy of the region. Therefore, it can be said

that “tourism is one aspect of leisure which usually, but not invariably, involves some expenditure by the participant” (Holloway, 1998: 1).

A further refinement of the term tourism is to define it as “the movement of people away from their normal place of residence” (Holloway, 1998: 1). This approach has led to various organisations proposing different distances before domestic travellers can be counted as tourists. The National Resources Review Commission in the United States decided in 1973 that a domestic tourist would be one who travels at least fifty miles (80km), one way, from his normal place of residence. In 1984 the US Census Bureau supported this by stating that tourism is a round trip of at least one hundred miles (160km). This however is not an internationally agreed upon distance as in Canada the government defines it as a journey of at least twenty-five miles (40km) from the boundaries of the tourist’s home community, while the English Tourist Board has used a distance of twenty miles (32km) and at least three hours’ journey time (Holloway, 1998: 1).

According to Holloway (1998: 1-2), one of the first attempts to define tourism was in 1942 by Professors Hunziker and Krapf of Berne University. They defined tourism as,

“the sum of the phenomena and relationships arising from the travel and stay of non-residents, in so far as they do not lead to permanent residence and are not connected to any earning activity” (Holloway, 1998: 1-2).

This definition makes the assumption that both travel and stay are necessary for tourism, but this would preclude day tours. It would also appear to exclude business travel, which is connected with earnings, even if that income is not earned in the destination country. Moreover, it distinguished between business and leisure tourism which is extremely difficult, since most business trips will combine elements of leisure activity (Holloway, 1998: 2).

The Institute of Tourism in Britain, later the Tourism Society, attempted in 1976 to clarify this issue and came up with this defining statement,

“Tourism is the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places where they normally live and work, and activities during their stay at these destinations; it includes movement for all purposes, as well as day visits or excursions” (Holloway, 1998: 2).

This broader definition was reformulated slightly, without losing any of its simplicity, at the International Conference on Leisure-Recreation-Tourism, organised by the AIEST and the Tourism Society in Cardiff in 1981,

“Tourism may be defined in terms of particular activities selected by choice and undertaken outside the home environment. Tourism may or may not involve overnight stay away from home” (Holloway, 1998: 2).

Finally, the following definition devised by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) was endorsed by the UN Statistical Commission in 1993 following an International Government Conference held in Ottawa, Canada in 1991,

“Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business or other purposes” (Holloway, 1998: 2).

These definitions reveal how broadly the concept of tourism must be defined in order to embrace all forms of the phenomenon. The problem of defining tourism in such general terms is that it could apply to migrant labourers as much as to a pilot flying international flights. These definitions offer neither guidance on activities undertaken, nor distance to be travelled. In fact, with the growth of people owning a second home, which in some cases are a considerable distance away from their main homes, and timeshare owners, it could be argued that a tourist is no longer necessarily ‘outside the home environment’ (Holloway, 1998: 2).

In reiterating Graburn’s definition, it is considered that the definition clearly illustrates tourism, especially in the South African context. He defines tourism as “a service industry whose primary resource is environments and cultures which differ from those where the tourists usually live” (Graburn, 1989, in Harrison and Price, 1996: 1).

### **2.1.2 Tourism as an Integral Part of Leisure**

Towner (1993: 3) says historians have avoided the problem associated with the debate over the definition of the term tourism by using the all-embracing term leisure. Patmore (1983, in Towner, 1996: 3) says leisure “is more readily experienced than defined.” From his observations, Patmore states that there are three distinct ways in which leisure can be considered: “as time, as activity and as an attitude of mind” (Towner, 1996: 3). Leisure, as related to time, “implies the area of life left over when work and other basic functions have been completed” (Towner, 1996: 3). As is realised though, not all non-work time is free time and also some basic functions, for example, eating, drinking and shopping, can also be regarded as important leisure activities (Towner, 1996: 3). Patmore’s next approach to leisure “sees it as time when particular activities can take place” (Towner, 1996: 3). These activities can be wide ranging, from being active to passive forms of activity. They also can vary from reading, relaxing

in a chair and talking to friends to activities simply undertaken for pleasure, such as walking or visiting an art gallery. In his third approach, the attitude of mind, he “argues that what is leisure depends on the individual’s perception of what gives them pleasure” (Towner, 1996: 3). Therefore, to understand what is leisure to a person, there has to be an understanding of the make up of the person and what interests and excites them. This leaves the term leisure as truly an all-embracing term.

### 2.1.3 Tourism as an Industry

Tourism is, according to Hunter and Green (1995: 4), a nebulous phenomenon, characterised by an amalgam of fragmented trades, organisations and activities. However, they state that tourism can be viewed as an industry in itself. In the words of Gilbert:

“tourism while having no clear boundary delineations or concise conceptual clarification does, due to the overall size and impact of spatial and temporal movements of people with varying service needs for shelter, sustenance, entertainment and travel, produce the basis of an industry.”

Gilbert, 1990:17, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 4

The fact that tourism does not have strictly defined boundaries does have an impact on certain situations, particularly when trying to answer such issues as measuring the magnitude of tourism as an industry, or trying to identify the range of business operations and other activities that will become the basis for data collection. A major barrier to the development of a broadly acceptable definition of tourism is that the definition will always need to be formulated for a specific task as tourism does not have a real, objective, precise, and independent existence (Smith, 1989: 31).

Powell (1978: 1, in Smith, 1989: 31) suggests that “tourism is both an industry and a response to a social need. Its product includes all the elements that combine to form the tourism consumer’s experiences and exists to service his needs and expectations.” Leiper (1979: 400, in Smith, 1989: 31) concurs by stating that “the tourist industry consists of all those firms, organizations, and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists.” These definitions are supply-side definitions, focussing on the production of commodities, not on the demand for those commodities. These definitions also have the same weakness as each suggests including businesses such as restaurants that serve the needs of tourists as well as local residents as part of the tourism industry (Smith, 1989: 32).

One solution to this problem of a clear definition has been suggested by the Canadian National Task Force on Tourism Data in 1985. Their definition, a supply-side definition, states that “the tourism industry is the aggregate of those retail goods and services businesses that serve the needs of people travelling outside their home community” (Smith, 1989: 32). They divided tourism businesses into two tiers. Tier 1 businesses are those that would not exist in the absence of travel, and examples include hotels, airlines, cruise ships, and travel agents. Tier 2 businesses are those that would continue to exist in the absence of travel, but only in a diminished form. These businesses include taxis, restaurants, rental car agencies, gift shops, and attractions and events (Smith, 1989: 32).

The view of Pearce (1989: 1, in Towner, 1996: 4) is that tourism is the “relationships and phenomena arising out of the journeys and temporary stays of people travelling primarily for leisure or recreational purposes.” Also the demand for accommodation implied in this idea of tourism is a useful distinction from day visitor recreation. Nevertheless, it is worth remembering Hughes’ (1991, in Towner, 1996: 4) argument that “definitions of tourism have arisen from economic imperatives; the need to measure the significance of travel whether for business or pleasure or any other reason as long as it involves a temporary stay away from home, usually at least one night.”

#### **2.1.4 The Tourist Destination**

All tourist destinations share certain characteristics and Holloway (1998: 7) says “their success in attracting tourists will depend upon the quality of three essential benefits that they offer the tourist: attractions; amenities (or facilities); and accessibility, or ease of getting to the destination.”

The most familiar tourist destination is the seaside resort, and its attraction is “the combination of sun, sand and sea which still appeals to the largest segment of the tourist market, either as a form of passive recreation - lying in a deckchair or on the sand and watching the sea - or a more active pastime, including swimming and other watersports, beach games” (Holloway, 1998: 7), like beach volleyball, and walks along the beach.

The physical features of a destination are a major attraction for tourists and include the beauty of the mountains, the qualities of a particular beach, the architecture and ‘atmosphere’ of a great city. To these can be added numerous man-made and purpose-built attractions to increase the pulling power of the destination, for instance “Blackpool maintains its lead among the seaside resorts in Britain by investing

in indoor entertainments, a conference centre and other features which will appeal to the tourists” (Holloway, 1998: 9).

In Britain and Europe the “rural areas offer stately homes or castles as focal points for visits by day-trippers” (Holloway, 1998: 9). Frequently a man-made attraction, for example theme parks like Disneyland in Los Angeles, become their own destination. The continual success of many spa towns in Europe are attributed to their ability to combine man-made attractions such as casinos with the pleasures and presumed medical benefits of the natural springs (Holloway, 1998: 9-10).

Romeril (1985, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 6) states that “natural assets and attractions, such as ‘sun, sea and sand’, have usually been the major reason for a destination’s popularity.” Similarly, Morrison and Selman (1991, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 6) suggest that “tourism tends to develop in areas which are able to provide natural amenities, together with human assets such as exotic cultures and historic sites.” In quoting these, it shows that there is a clear realisation that tourist activities rely, in some way, on environmental resources and that the natural and built environments provide the features which attract tourists and also support tourism by serving other functions.

“Much of the attraction of a destination is intangible, and depends upon the image which the potential tourist has of it” (Holloway, 1998: 11). These images, whether favourable or unfavourable, are built up over a long period of time, and once established, are difficult to change. The amenities or facilities to cater for the tourists include accommodation and food, local transport, information centres and the necessary infrastructure to support tourism, consisting of roads, public utility services and parking facilities (Holloway, 1998: 11). In some cases the amenities themselves may be the attraction and these include resort hotels which offer a comprehensive range of in-house attractions.

The accessibility of a destination is important to facilitate tourists to reach their holiday destination. The more adventurous tourists may be willing to inconvenience themselves in order to experience some of the more exotic places in the world, but most tourists will not be attracted to a destination unless it is relatively easy to reach (Holloway, 1998: 11). Many tourists are part of package tours and thus the tour operator wants ease of access to transport the tourists to the attraction and then move on quickly to the next destination. Conversely, if access becomes too easy, this may result in over-demand and congestion, making the destination less appealing to the tourist. The perception of accessibility on the part of the tourist is often as important as a destination’s actual accessibility (Holloway, 1998: 11).

These perceptions will undoubtedly have an impact on the way tourists plan and make decisions about their travels.

### 2.1.5 Alternative Tourism

The tourism industry is constantly looking for new avenues to explore and expand business. The main stream tourism industry, centred around coastal resorts, amusement parks, the built environment, including architecture and art work, and other related activities, has found new alternative tourism opportunities to widen the public's interest in what the industry has to offer. Factors attributed to the enhanced awareness of alternative forms of tourism include a greater awareness of the environmental impacts of tourism, a growing demand for new tourism experiences by tourists, an increased attention being given to the integration of environmental conservation and economic development policies, and that the tourism industry is concerned about the future trends in the tourism market. This collective term 'alternative tourism' is used to express a range of terms which are now used in the tourism literature. These terms include eco-tourism, green tourism, low-impact tourism, soft tourism, alternative tourism, nature tourism, gentle tourism, progressive tourism, responsible tourism, appropriate tourism and even sustainable tourism (Hunter and Green, 1995: 79-80).

These terms may emphasise different facets of tourism activities and tourist types, but much common ground exists between these alternatives in terms of the underlying approach to tourism development. Alternative tourism may be the means to an end, the end being sustainable tourism, but the terms should not be confused. Hunter and Green (1995: 80) state the following as what they see to be the characteristics of alternative tourism:

“It is small scale, frequently developed by local people and typically involves travelling to relatively remote, undisturbed natural areas with the objective of admiring, studying and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any cultural features found there. It aims to conserve the environment and sustain the well-being of local people.”

These management principles underlying alternative tourism do appear potentially to represent an environmentally sustainable future for tourism development.

Alternative tourism is seen as being the specialist firm rather than the large operator. Laarman and Durst (1987, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 80), suggest that “the key facets of alternative tourism include its health-minded orientation, the direction of economic activity to remote communities and attention to threats to wildlife.” The emphasis is on small-scale activities in areas where mass tourism at present

is seen to be unacceptable. The following list by Rauhe (1992, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 81-82) spells out what he saw as the required features for an outline proposal for an alternative tourism planning model. They are:

- “1. A special sense of place must result that enhances local heritage and environment;
2. The focus must be on the preservation, protection, and enhancement of the resource quality;
3. Local attributes must be complemented;
4. Local endorsement of growth and development is necessary;
5. Alternative tourism must be sustainable;
6. Proposals must be sensitive to living patterns of the local citizens;
7. Support must be mutual among all parties that are involved and/or affected;
8. The standard of living must be improved (but how will this be defined?);
9. Cross-cultural understanding must be promoted;
10. Priorities must be established (but by who and for what?);
11. Carrying capacities must be determined, not only for natural systems but human systems as well;
12. All parties involved or impacted must be convinced that the net outcome will be positive or at least neutral; and,
13. The community must be receptive to change and see alternative tourism as a constructive means of facilitating positive change.”

Rauhe, 1992, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 81-82

Some sectors of the tourism industry and decision-makers in local and national governments appear to have embraced developments which exhibit alternative tourism credentials of some kind with apparent ease and in some environmental sectors this has raised the issue of whether the primary concern is the environment or another motive. The concept of alternative tourism has been examined as a new marketing opportunity with its focus on maintaining or developing market share or returns for developers, rather than focussing primarily on the issue of sustainability and the quality of the tourism environment. There is concern that alternative tourism will evolve into little more than marketing hype to promote tourism in areas where mass tourism would be unacceptable and undesirable at least for the short term (Hunter and Green, 1995: 83-84).

There is a need for criteria to be established in which alternative tourism can operate within so as to provide appropriate controls and restrictions to limit or even reverse the environmental degradation which is almost inevitable if it is left to its own devices. Saunders (1996: 2) says that “tourism, if it is



to be successfully developed as a leisure activity and an economic activity, has to protect and sustain the environment and the cultures which are in many instances the major attraction which tourists travel to see.”

### 2.1.6 The Nature of Tourism Impacts

Tourism is a major industry in global terms, and “it plays a vital role in the social, cultural and economic development of most nations, and has the potential both to preserve heritage and to destroy it” (Smith, 1995: 1). Without the tourism industry having clearly defined parameters it is difficult to assess the impacts tourism has on its surrounding environment and conversely the impact the environment has on tourism. Some of the major difficulties involved in the assessment of tourism impacts can be summarised as:

1. tourism is an amalgamation of inter-linked activities and it is consequently not easy to distinguish impacts arising from individual activities nor between the activities undertaken by the host community and the tourists;
2. environmental change is a natural phenomena, resulting in tourism-induced change being more difficult to quantify;
3. the lack of a record of detailed information pertaining to the environmental conditions prior to the introduction of tourism into an area often limits the value of undertaking post-development investigations;
4. in addition, tourism may have indirect environmental impacts and encourage further development and associated impacts, which may be difficult to identify and not easy for straightforward assessment;
6. some tourism impacts will only become evident over a period of time, making it difficult to establishment the link to the cause of the problem; and,
7. as the environment is made up of inter-linked components, and so a tourism activity which impacts on one aspect of the environment may produce an indirect impact on another. (Briassoulis, 1991, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 12)

Though it is not the intention of tourists who, through their interests, visit the natural and built environment, they “can unintentionally contribute to the deterioration of the social fabric if they come in large numbers, inject unprecedented wealth into an economy, or display forms of public behaviours radically different from local norms” (Smith, 1995: 4).

Tourism and particularly ecotourism is seen as one way of conserving the natural environment and at the same time providing an income to those who own the land and live in the vicinity of the resource. The conservation community are divided on this subject of ecotourism. Those who support it see it as a source of funding for protected areas and conservation, for the employment of local residents who otherwise might destroy the natural environment, and for environmental education.

The sceptics of ecotourism see the natural environments and the local communities being overrun by hordes of people and the 'eco' prefix being little more than a marketing device, "a green flag in which to wrap one more kind of exploitation" (Norris, 1995: 1), with the profits mainly going to the wealthy entrepreneur, while the local communities remain as poor as before. "Most experts still use words like 'potential' or 'probable' when describing ecotourism's impacts, be they economic, cultural, or conservation" (Norris, 1995: 1).

One of the more theoretical conservation benefits of ecotourism is generally explained this way, "if local residents earn income from protected areas and natural habitats, then they will become a 'first line of defence' for those areas, valuing them more highly in their natural state, than as potential sources of extractive income" (Norris, 1995: 2). There is a logic to this argument, but Norris (1995: 2) says that "studies by the World Bank and the Biodiversity Support Program have shown that in general, buffer-zone-development projects have not successfully made the link between income generation and habitat conservation." An example of this is in the case of Madagascar where Duke University researcher Paul Ferraro (Norris, 1995: 2) has noted that local residents learned that preserving small stretches of forest along scenic roadsides was sufficient to maintain tourist trade while the large interior forests were cut and burnt. The local community at Lilani will have to conserve more than one or two hectares of land around the hot springs to preserve the scenic beauty of the area as the hot springs will only be one aspect which will attract tourists into the valley.

Pollution contributes greatly to the degradation of the environment and tourism is a major offender in this area. As tourism relies partly on the amenity value of the environment, one would consider that the tourism industry would be concerned about the potential threat posed by pollution to the success of destination areas. Generally this has not been the case, and Hunter and Green (1995: 19) state that "the tourism industry itself has been, and still is, a major contributor to environmental pollution in many parts of the world." This places the tourism industry in the position of contributing directly to its own possible downfall over the long term in certain areas. Litter and the polluting of the water are just two ways in which pollution could negatively impact on the tourism experience at the Lilani Hot Springs.

The tourism industry brings both the tourist into the unspoilt area and also much of the support structure that the tourists are used to in their home environment. The attitude is that the beauty of the unspoilt area should to be enjoyed along with all the comforts of home, which include modern sanitation, hot and cold running water, as well as the luxury of being on holiday. The problem this creates is then intensified by the numbers of visitors (Ryan, 1991: 99-100). However, tourism may also bring a greater awareness of environmental legislation to an area or encourage governments to introduce new legislation to improve pollution prevention.

“Environmental ‘pollution’ is as much aesthetic as physical” (Holloway, 1998: 312) and there is a need to protect the scenic beauty of the areas which attract tourists and not allow the natural landscape to be lost to tourist development. Poorly designed, sited and constructed buildings and other tourist facilities are attributed to the insensitivity of many tourism developments, frequently detracting from the visual amenity of the natural environment, failing to integrate resort infrastructure with aesthetically pleasing characteristics of the natural environment (Hunter and Green, 1995: 27).

Other forms of visual pollution by tourists include littering, particularly in areas around picnic sites, and graffiti on buildings. Litter can seriously detract from the quality of the natural environment, giving the landscape an unclean and untidy appearance and can also be a hazard to wildlife.

Conflict has arisen at tourist destinations between local communities and those involved in tourism over the issue of fresh water. Many tourist destinations are located in warm, relatively dry climates where precipitation and fresh-water supplies are scarce. In these areas water shortages can be made worse by tourist consumption. Examples of this are in the Caribbean where water used by tourists can be over three times higher than the consumption by local residents, and in the Mediterranean where hotels can consume 400 litres of water per guest per day on such things as washing, showering, swimming pools and watering lawns, while the local inhabitants only require a maximum of 70 litres per person per day (Hunter and Green, 1995: 24).

From the perspective of the ecological impact of tourism it is not difficult to make the case that “tourism is damaging to the environment” (Ryan, 1991: 95). But tourism and its impact are not necessarily all negative and Ryan (1991: 102) states that in theory, “the tourism industry can become an ally of environmental conservationist groups, as there is a common cause in preserving the quality of the landscape.”

## 2.2 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

### 2.2.1 Defining Sustainable Development

The concept of sustainable development has emerged from the need to balance the purely economic approach to development with the growing awareness of the effects of development on the environment, the growth in nature conservation and the effects on the social and cultural life of the host communities. “As globalization has increased in momentum, ‘sustainable development’ has become the key focus of development studies, a focus as relevant to social structures and cultures as to the relationship of human society with the wider environment” (Harrison and Price, 1996: 6). Perhaps the best known of all definitions of sustainable development is found in the Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development, the Brundtland Report, which regards it as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (WCED, 1987: 43, in Harrison, 1996: 70). Hunter and Green (1995: 52-53) say this definition contains two important components, being human needs and environmental limitations. The human needs include sufficient food, clean water, shelter and clothing and those normal human aspirations for those things which contribute to a better quality of life. Thus Hunter and Green (1995: 53) say “the World Commission regards the major objective of development as the satisfaction of human needs and aspirations. Where basic needs are not being met, the World Commission states that sustainable development clearly requires economic growth.” Harrison (1996: 70) states that “this definition, based on the stated requirement to meet the basic needs of the world’s population, has been much criticized especially for its acceptance of economic growth and, like the Brundt Report, for its naïve assumption of mutuality.”

Hunter and Green (1995: 54) say “there is a limit to the natural environment’s ability to meet present and future needs,” and this includes renewable resources, non-renewable resources, and the ‘free services’ which the natural environment supplies in terms of waste accumulation, climate regulation, clean air, water and food resources. This has resulted in concerns being raised in the tourism literature for environmental conservation as echoed in the World Commission on Environment and Development’s belief that “sustainable development is development that does not endanger the natural systems that support life on Earth” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 54).

While continuing to be a vague term which can be applied by economists and environmentalists alike, sustainable development does bring together a number of factors to the development debate including economics, the environment, and the importance of social and cultural aspects in development. The

term sustainable development “can be held to represent different viewpoints according to one’s stance on the more general debate between economic development and resource conservation” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 57). From an economic perspective, “sustainable development can be seen as equivalent to sustained economic growth, with no particular need for resource conservation” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 58). This concept of continued economic growth promotes that environmental changes can be implemented to improve human welfare, while conveying the misleading implication that some forms of economic growth do not damage the wider environment. On the opposite side of the development/conservation debate is what can be described as “the extreme resource-preservationist zero-growth world-view” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 58). This view demands only the use of products and technologies which “minimise the loss of intrinsic value” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 59). This concept also promotes the idea that the natural environment should be left completely alone. Arguably, the best interpretation of sustainable development lies between these two extremes.

By combining development, inevitably a value-laden concept, with sustainability, which is allegedly a non-operational and reformist approach, the doubly vague concept of sustainable development is reached. Then, only one aspect of this dubious process is focussed on, and that of sustainable tourism (Harrison, 1996: 72). In using this term, Hunter and Green (1995: 70) see sustainable tourism development as recognising “the inter-dependency between the long-term viability of economic investment in tourism projects, programmes and policies and the successful management of the natural, built and human resource bases.” Thus sustainable tourism development endeavours to maintain and enhance the quality of life of those people living at the destination areas and, at the same time, the quality of the tourist experience through promoting the economic developments which have the potential of conserving, and where necessary preserving, the natural, built and cultural resources of the destination area.

Harrison (1996: 72) remarks that the normal and perhaps inevitable procedure is one of treating the relationship between tourism and the physical environment on a kind of profit and loss basis. “Such balance sheets generally indicate that the costs of mass tourism far outweigh its benefits, with highly detrimental effects on the atmosphere, water resources, soil and natural vegetation, wildlife habitats and on entire ecosystems, as well as on the built environment” (Harrison, 1996: 72). Largely as a reaction to this result, emphasis has shifted to sustainable tourism and one of its objectives has been to bring about forms of tourism which are more in keeping with the maintenance and even the enhancement of the physical environment.

At the heart of the issue of sustainable tourism development is the need to find the right balance between the creation of benefits for the current generation, especially the poor, and the protection of the wealth-generating resources for future generations. In doing this, sustainable tourism development must recognise the contribution that local communities and their cultures can contribute to the experience of tourists and that local people must share in the benefits of tourism developments (Hunter and Green, 1995: 71-72).

Sustainable tourism development should not be about new marketing strategies and the selling of new features for exploitation. Nor should it be about “creating cycles of ‘boom and bust’ in ever new locations, initially offering something different to attract the tourist, but ultimately leaving behind a growing trail of environmentally degraded areas, no longer attractive to tourists or the tourism industry because the supporting environmental resources are no longer viable” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 74).

The English Tourist Board has produced a guide for tourism businesses on practical measures for the achievement of sustainable tourism development and outlined the seven principles of sustained tourism as the following:

- “1. The environment has an intrinsic value which outweighs its value as a tourism asset. Short-term considerations should not prejudice its long-term survival and enjoyment by future generation.
2. Tourism should be recognised as a positive activity with the potential to benefit the community and the place as well as the visitor.
3. The relationship between tourism and the environment must be managed so that it is stable in the long-term. Tourism must not be allowed to damage the resource, prejudice its future enjoyment or bring unacceptable impacts.
4. Tourism activities and developments should respect the scale, nature and character of the place in which they are sited.
5. In any location harmony must be sought between the needs of the visitor, the place and the host community.
6. Some change is inevitable and change can often be beneficial. Adaptation to change, however, should not be at the expense of any of these principles.
7. The tourism industry, local authorities and environmental agencies all have a duty to respect the above principles and to work together to achieve their practical realisation.”

ETB *et al*, 1992, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 78

Harrison (1996: 73) points out that “whatever else it means, sustainable tourism does not necessarily denote a sustainable tourism industry. Tourism resorts and regions can and do change, sometimes following a path from development to decline.” This is what happened at Lilani Hot Springs and the reasons for the demise need to be fully appreciated and taken into account in redevelopment proposals.

### 2.2.2 Sustainable Development and Tourism Carrying Capacity

If sustainable development is to enable future generations to meet their needs, measures need to be in place to achieve this goal. As sustainable development is essentially concerned with the management of change over time, one model which has added much value and debate over this topic is the model by Butler on the evolution of a tourism destination area over time. This model depicts six stages of evolutionary development of the tourism destination area, namely, exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, decline, and perhaps rejuvenation (Hunter and Green, 1995: 63-64). Butler (1991: 203, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 63) says that unless specific remedial steps are taken, such as environmental improvements and the adoption of new marketing strategies, tourist destination areas and resources will inevitably become over-used, unattractive, with an inevitable over-reaching of environmental capacity parameters and eventually experience declining use. An example of this is Banff National Park in Canada which is presently being threatened with deproclamation as a World Heritage Site because of over-development.

This model has attracted much attention in the tourism literature as it is an appealing concept for those involved with the environmental impacts of tourism and for those seeking a rationale for interventionist management. And yet much of this same literature has also questioned the scope and interpretation of the term ‘carrying capacity’. From a tourism perspective these could include such issues as the demand on water supplies, land availability and the resilience of flora and fauna to tourist disturbances (Hunter and Green, 1995: 66).

O’Reilly (1986, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 66) proposes that there are two facets to the issue of a tourism carrying capacity. The first facet is considered to be the ability of a destination area to absorb the impacts of tourism development, in a variety of ways, before negative impacts become evident. The second facet is related to “the tourists’ perceptions of environmental quality, i.e. the risk that tourist numbers will decline because perceived capacities have been exceeded and the destination area ceases to attract (a psychological carrying capacity)” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 66). Mathieson and Wall (1982, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 66-67), in their interpretation of carrying capacity, equate tourism

carrying capacity with “the maximum number of people who can use a site without unacceptable effects on the physical environment and/or without an acceptable decline in the quality of experience gained by visitors.” The term tourism, with its wide associated activities, affects the local society and economy as well as the physical environment and so in considering the carrying capacity of a tourism destination area these additional elements must be incorporated. O’Reilly (1986, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 67) describes the various carrying capacities as follows:

*“Physical carrying capacity* – the limit of a site beyond which wear and tear will start taking place or environmental problems will arise.

*Psychological (or perceptual) carrying capacity* – the lowest degree of enjoyment tourists are prepared to accept before they start seeking alternative destinations.

*Social carrying capacity* – the level of tolerance of the host population for the presence and behaviour of tourists in the destination area, and/or the degree of crowding users (tourists) are prepared to accept by others (other tourists).

*Economic carrying capacity* – the ability to absorb activities without displacing or disrupting desirable local activities.”

These individual carrying capacities are clearly inter-related features of the destination area and can not be considered in isolation. They should be taken into consideration when a tourism development is being considered and with the accumulated effect of a number of tourism developments in one area.

Hunter and Green (1995: 67-68) divide the factors which influence capacity thresholds into two categories. The first category consists of the characteristics of the tourists, which includes factors determining “the nature, magnitude and frequency of interaction between tourists and the destination area and its people (e.g. age, sex, spending power, motivations, attitudes, expectations, ethnic background, behaviour patterns etc.)” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 67). The second category consists of the characteristics of the destination area, including its local population, and is influenced by the “features of the natural environment, economic development levels and structures, social structures, political organisation, and the pre-existing level and nature of tourism development” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 68). It is clear that these two categories are inter-related and therefore need to be taken into account to ensure appropriate tourism development. Attempts have been made to quantify carrying capacity thresholds and this has experienced a number of difficulties, including quantifying acceptable densities of tourists, use-dependency in terms of acceptable tourist densities, and that the changes in the style of the management of an area may alter carrying capacities over time (Hunter and Green, 1995: 68).



Also, the perceptions of local residents to tourists and tourism are unlikely to remain fixed as development progresses. The carrying capacity of a tourist destination area will differ according to the life-cycle stage of that destination area. “Thus, in the exploration stage, a lack of facilities might limit tourist density, while social carrying capacity might be very high. However, at the stagnation phase, social factors such as tensions between locals and tourists might provide a limit to expansion, despite under-used physical capacity” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 68).

The practical use of the concept has resulted in the concept of carrying capacity not finding wide application as a planning tool to qualify development thresholds. For instance, whilst recognising the relevance of the concept to environmental impact studies, Romeril (1989, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 68-9) bemoans the lack of appropriate research and data available. Pearce (1989, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 69), states that it will not be easy to determine quantifiable levels of development that can be readily included in local plans or planning regulations. Duffield and Walker (1984, in Hunter and Green, 1995: 69) maintain that “ultimately defining what is acceptable is a value choice, rather than a technical issue.” Hunter and Green (1995: 69) state that:

“It is perhaps best to regard the concept as a means of fostering the greater consideration of environmental issues and the quality of experiences available to tourists and the local community, by encouraging tourism planners and managers to set specific goals and objectives.”

Though tourism carrying capacity is difficult to define and even more difficult to measure, it is impossible to ignore. Hanna and Wells (1992/93: 31) say “all too often, the significance of carrying capacity only becomes apparent once it has been exceeded.”

The concept of tourism carrying capacity is important as it does instil a precautionary approach to tourism development and a respect for local environmental limits, which is in keeping with the resource-conservationist interpretation of sustainable development (Hunter and Green, 1995: 69).

In the case of the Lilani Hot Springs the carrying capacity of a resort will hinge around the ability of the environment, which includes the physical and social aspects of the environment, to carry the number of tourists which will make a resort economically sustainable. The long and narrow access road into the valley, the finite amount of hot spring water and the steep valley with its erosion are environmental constraints which, added to the amount of land the community will allow to be set aside for a tourism resort, will be factors that influence the carrying capacity of a resort in the Lilani valley.

## 2.3 SUSTAINABLE ENVIRONMENTAL DEVELOPMENT

### 2.3.1 The Legal Framework

The growing awareness of the impact which tourism can have on the environment has led to a greater awareness of the need for environmentally sustainable development and sustainable tourism. The goal should be that all forms of tourism are 'sustainable', and that they do not destroy the destination to which the tourist is attracted. For this to be achieved there has to be a proper management strategy, involving both the public and private sectors, to prevent irreparable damage to the environment. Governments can impose controls via legislation, but without the co-operation of the tourism industry and in particular the developers, sustainable tourism cannot be truly achieved. Many people in the tourism industry are beginning to realise the importance of sustainable tourism, not simply as a gimmick to get public goodwill, but as a long-term strategy for survival and growth (Holloway, 1998: 323). Holloway (1998: 322) says that "where the public sector has introduced legislation prohibiting development, or controlling tourism, sustainable tourism shows promise of being achieved."

In South Africa the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), Act 107 of 1998, has been promulgated "to provide for co-operative environmental governance by establishing principles for decision-making on matters affecting the environment, institutions that will promote co-operative governance and procedures for co-ordinating environmental functions exercised by organs of state; and to provide for matters connected therewith" (Act 107 of 1998: 2). In the preamble to the Act it states "sustainable development requires the integration of social, economic and environmental factors in the planning, implementation and evaluation of decisions to ensure that development serves present and future generations" (Act 107 of 1998: 2). This is again taken up in Section 2(3) of the Act where it reiterates that "Development must be socially, environmentally and economically sustainable" (Act 107 of 1998: 10). Section 2.(4)(a) spells out what the Act considers sustainability to be. It states that:

"Sustainable development requires the consideration of all relevant factors including the following:

- (i) That the disturbance of ecosystems and loss of biological diversity are avoided, or, where they cannot be altogether avoided, are minimised and remedied;
- (ii) that pollution and degradation of the environment are avoided, or, where they cannot be altogether avoided, are minimised and remedied;
- (iii) that the disturbance of landscapes and sites that constitute the nation's cultural heritage is avoided, or, where it cannot be altogether avoided, is minimised and remedied;

- (iv) that waste is avoided, or, where it cannot be altogether avoided, minimised and re-used or recycled where possible and otherwise disposed of in a responsible manner;
- (v) that the use and exploitation of non-renewable natural resources is responsible and equitable, and takes into account the consequences of the depletion of the resources;
- (vi) that the development, use and exploitation of renewable resources and the ecosystems of which they are part do not exceed the level beyond which their integrity is jeopardised;
- (vii) that a risk-averse and cautious approach is applied, which takes into account the limits of current knowledge about the consequences of decisions and actions; and,
- (viii) that negative impacts on the environment and on people's environmental rights be anticipated and prevented, and where they cannot be altogether prevented, are minimised and remedied.”

National Environmental Management Act, Act 107 of 1998: 10-11

Other relevant aspects of the Act which can be drawn out are that “environmental management must be integrated, acknowledging that all elements of the environment are linked and interrelated, and it must take into account the effects of decisions on all aspects of the environment and all people in the environment by pursuing the selection of the best practicable environmental option” (Act 107 of 1998: 11). This holistic approach to the environment forces government, be they national, provincial or municipal, developers, including the tourism industry, farmers and the general public to see the environment as consisting of all aspects including the physical, social and cultural environment. The Act states that decisions must take into account the interests, needs and values of all interested and affected parties, and this includes recognising all forms of knowledge, including traditional and common knowledge. The social, economic and environmental impacts of activities, including disadvantages and benefits, must be considered, assessed and evaluated, and decisions must be appropriate in the light of such considerations and assessment (Act 107 of 1998: 11).

An Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) will need to be undertaken before any development takes place at Lilani Hot Springs to highlight all the physical, social and cultural aspects of the environment which need to be protected, rehabilitated or taken into consideration during the construction and the running of a resort. An Environmental Management Plan (EMP) will set out the framework and guidelines for the continued protection and management of the environment at the resort.

CHAPTER THREE  
**AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON HOT SPRINGS  
AS TOURIST DESTINATIONS**

**3.1 GEOLOGICAL CAUSES OF HOT SPRINGS**

**3.1.1 The Geological Formations**

Hot and cold water springs are a common occurrence all over the world. Their occurrence is caused by groundwater moving through permeable rocks such as sandstone, or along cracks in less permeable rocks such as granite or limestone. Groundwater descends into the earth until it reaches the water-table, which is the upper surface of the zone of rock completely saturated in water. The depth of the water-table varies and may be quite close to the surface, especially in valleys. However, in limestone or marble the water-table may be very deep. Water can sometimes be trapped above a layer of less permeable rock or clay. The groundwater collects above this impermeable rock or clay and if the impermeable rock intersects the surface of the earth the water will flow out of the ground as a spring. A line of springs can occur at the boundary of this layer of impermeable rock and the rock above it (Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 10-11). Springs formed by this manner are cold water springs.

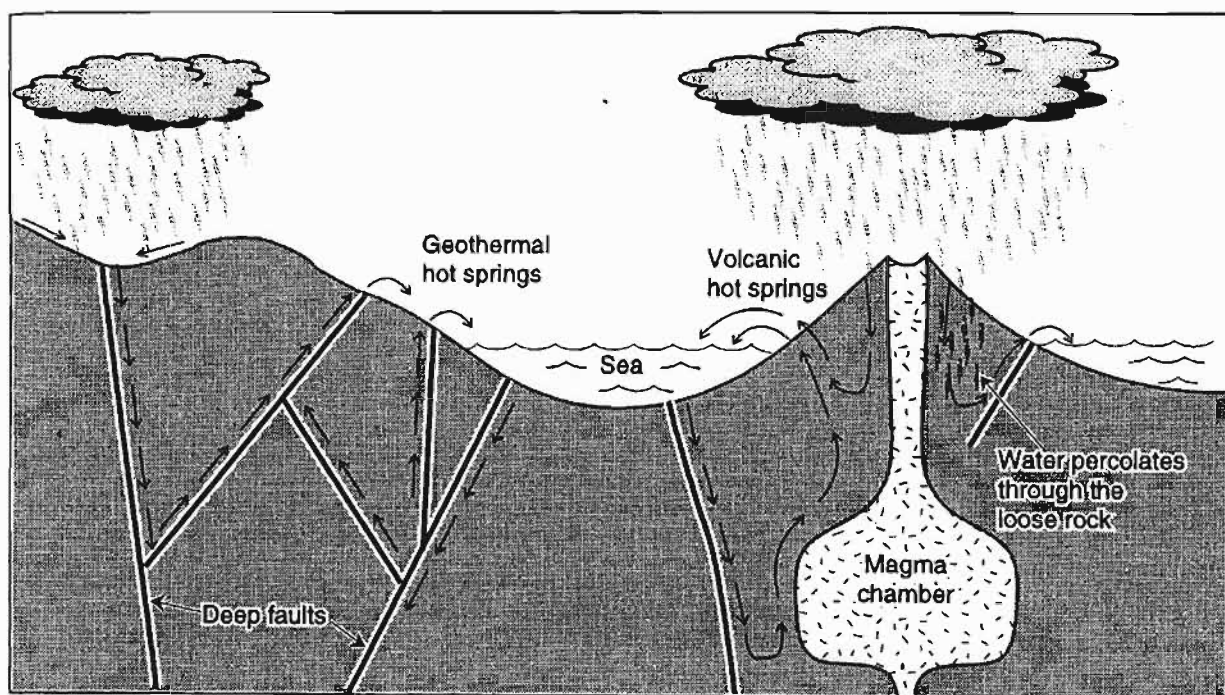
There are two natural phenomena causing the occurrence of hot mineral springs on the earth. The one is associated with volcanic activity and the other is associated with faults and water permeating down some faults and rising up others, causing springs to bubble water out at the earth's surface.

Hot springs thus occur because of convection. The water is heated by the surrounding rock, expands and rises because it becomes less dense than the surrounding cooler and therefore heavier water. As the heated water rises, cooler water flows in to take its place and is in turn heated and rises to continue the cycle (Press and Siever, 1986: 368). The heated water reaches the surface of the earth as a hot spring. The heat of the spring's water will depend on the source of the heat and the depth the water has descended into the earth.

**3.1.2 Hot Springs Associated with Volcanic Activity**

The hot springs which occur in volcanic regions are generally the result of layers of still hot molten rock, called magma, lying relatively near to the surface of the earth, where surface water which has

seeped down to these layers of rock, is heated and rises to the surface of the earth in the form of springs. Press and Siever (1986: 173) say that thermal waters are found in areas of current or recent igneous activity involving both deep-seated plutonics and surface volcanics. Surface water descends into the earth and encounters hot masses of rock, it becomes heated, and may mix with the magmatic waters at depth. This heated water returns to the surface of the earth along fracture zones or faults and reveal itself as continuously fed hot springs or geysers, some of which spout intermittently like the spectacular Old Faithful in Yellowstone Park in the United States of America (Press and Siever, 1986: 173). This phenomenon is illustrated diagrammatically in Figure 3.1.



Source: Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 11

Figure 3.1 “Geothermal springs. The source of heat for most hot springs is the natural increase in temperature with depth of about  $3^{\circ}\text{C}$  per 100m. For some springs in volcanic areas the heat source is cooling magma. Seawater or freshwater descends one fault or percolates through loose rocks, is heated and returns to the surface as hot springs.”

Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 11

### 3.1.3 Hot Springs Related to Deep Faults

Not all hydrothermal circulation in the earth is associated with igneous or volcanic activity as metallic ore and other minerals deposited in some formations far from igneous activity seem to require hydrothermal waters circulating in deeply buried sedimentary rocks to transport these minerals closer

to the surface of the earth and concentrate them in particular areas. In these instances the water is heated by the normal increase in temperature with depth in the earth (Press and Siever, 1986: 173).

Contrary to most peoples' assumptions, most hot springs are related to deep faults, and not to volcanism, as is commonly supposed (Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 11). Water temperature increases with increasing depth in the earth. Cool surface water, from surface runoff, rivers, lakes and seawater may descend one fault to a depth of several kilometres. The water is heated by the surrounding rocks, expands and starts to rise up the other fault, creating a convection system (Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 11). Figure 3.1 explains this phenomenon. The average increase of temperature with depth, as measured in boreholes or mines, is about 2 to 3°C per 100 m (300 ft) (Press and Siever, 1986: 374).

#### **3.1.4 The Mineral Content in the Water of Hot Springs**

Water from hot springs contains considerable amounts of trace elements such as sodium, chloride and fluoride. The chemical compounds found in the water differs from one hot spring to the next, depending on the composition of the rocks the water percolates through. Trace elements are dissolved in the water and are carried in suspension to the earth's surface. Hot water is a better dissolver of minerals in rocks than cold water but this does not mean that springs which are not as hot do not contain minerals. Some minerals will dissolve much more readily than others and some rocks are richer in mineral content than others. As the hot solutions rise to the surface, they cool. If these hot solutions are saturated at the higher temperature, they become supersaturated as they cool and deposit the excess as mineral precipitates. The activity of these mineral waters, or hydrothermal waters ("hot water"), is responsible for extensive travertine and other deposits that encrust rocks around pools (Press and Siever, 1986: 173-174). There is no visible encrusting of rocks at the Lilani Hot Springs and this must be because of the type of rock the water has passed through and therefore the types of minerals dissolved in the water.

Some faults which springs rise out of, and even boreholes, get clogged up with mineral deposits. Borehole water with a high content of lime is known to clog up water pipes. This occurs as the water temperature falls and minerals crystallise in the upper parts of the faults and around springs. These deposits tend to clog up the faults, and consequently in many areas periodic movements of the faults are necessary to maintain the flow of hot water (Higgins and Higgins, 1996: 11).

### 3.1.5 The Type of Hot Springs in South Africa

South Africa has no volcanic activity occurring within its borders and the volcanic activities which geologists have discovered are millions of years old. The basalt capping on the Drakensberg is a case in point, being 160 million years old.

According to Visser (1989) the source of water for all hot springs in South Africa is meteoric (rainfall) rather than magmatic (from deep in the earth's crust), and is typically associated with faulting and shearing. Most of the well-known hot springs rise along fault zones or in zones of intensive jointing along dolerite dykes, and the springs are located on the topographically lowest points (Mander *et al*, 1997: 14). According to Kent (1968: 145), the catchment areas are in the adjoining, more elevated terrain, from where rainwater filters along joint and fracture planes and eventually into narrow conduits. Along these conduits the water descends to such depths where the internal heat of the earth causes local convection cells to develop and the water is heated. It is also believed that impermeable portions of the fault and fracture zones play a role by restricting water from the intake areas to percolate directly to the point where the water finally rises to the surface.

On the geological map of the Republic of South Africa the positions of about 140 springs are indicated, of which the majority are hot (Visser, 1989: 254). According to Kent (1968: 143) eighty-seven springs in South Africa can be classified as thermal springs and the division between thermal and non-thermal waters is taken at 25°C. Thermal waters are also further classified as warm (25° to 37°C), hot (37° to 50°C) and scalding above 50°C. Visser (1989: 254) regards the occurrence of these 87 thermal springs as a relatively high percentage of hot water springs for a country in which no recent volcanism has occurred. He also states that there are no definite thermal regions, and the springs are spread sporadically over the entire country, with the exception of the arid north-west, where the annual rainfall is less than 254mm per annum. Most of the well-known hot springs rise along fault zones or in zones of intensive jointing along dolerite dykes, and the springs are located on the topographically lowest points.

## 3.2 AN HISTORICAL LOOK AT THE USE OF HOT SPRINGS

Hot Springs in different parts of the world have been used for millennia and the use of hot springs occurs in Greek mythology. An example of this is when “Athena persuaded Hephaestos to create the warm springs of Thermopylae so that Hercules could regain his strength” (Yovas, 1979: 7).

Water therapy was practised by the Greeks from at least the year 2000 BC. The ancient Greek's adoration of cleanliness and bodily health bordered on fanaticism. In the ancient Greek religion there was clearly a connection between cleanliness and worship in religious ceremonies. So it was essential that sites chosen for temples were within reach of a spring as this would allow a plumbing system to bring the water to the holy place. Yovas (1979: 7) says that "Herodotus was the first Greek to write about mineral waters (484 - 410 BC)." Herodotus is said to have described a number of medicinal springs and advised on therapy by hot springs during the spring season and cold during the summer season. He also is said to have fixed the length of therapy at 21 days (Yovas, 1979: 7).

The Greeks did not make public bathing baths available, as they preferred to bathe at home, though the use of communal cold baths was part of the culture of the sportsmen of the day. It was the Romans who introduced sophisticated baths after water canals or aqueducts of water increased the amount of water to Rome. This led to the formation of "piscinae" or public swimming baths. Keiser Agrippa (21 BC), Nero (65 BC), Titus (81 BC) and Diocetianus (302 BC) had large bathing baths built, not only in Rome, but in almost every city in Italy and also outside Italy's borders. These baths united the character of Greek gymnasiums and the water of medicinal springs. The Roman baths usually consisted of covered areas, the inner parts being used for social gatherings, serious conversations, teaching and games, especially bath games. Remains of healing water springs, "aquae", as the Romans of the day called them, are found outside Italy in Aken, Trier, Baden-Baden, Badenweiler, Wiesbaden, all in Europe, and Bath in England (Booyens, 1981: 2). Early travelling to spas during this time could be said to have pioneered tourism (Yovas, 1979: 7).

As the Roman Empire declined the use of mineral springs diminished, the buildings became neglected, or were destroyed by invaders, and in general only the poor of the neighbourhood continued to frequent them (Hembry, 1990: 1). It became more difficult and less safe for people to travel and thus the wealthy generally stopped frequenting the baths. The collapse of the trade routes during the middle ages also had a negative impact on maintenance of the baths. Roads and bridges fell into disrepair, hostels and hotels were scarce and uninviting, and overnight accommodation generally was unavailable (Booyens, 1981: 2).

Limited use of warm mineral springs was unpopular with the authorities during the post Roman Empire period in some parts of the western world. The doctors of Salerno were annoyed that the people of Naples used the local vapour baths, and the Christian Church denounced the warm baths as sinful. St



Augustine's 'Rule' permitted bathing but once a month, and the Benedictines allowed it only for the sick, the young, the aged and guests, while Germans were addicted to cold baths (Hembry, 1990: 1).

In Britain, the Romans developed a hot spring at the town of Bath into a unique mineral bath with impressive structures. During the period of 50 AD the hot spring had a reputation for healing rheumatic disorders, leprosy and skin disorders. After the Romans left, Bath was almost forgotten about, but in the Saxon period between the sixth and eighth centuries it became popular again (Booyens, 1981: 8). The Saxon town of Bath, by contrast, became a borough and from the early twelfth century Bath became renowned as a centre of healing.

The use of mineral water springs as 'holy wells' was practised in the Middle Ages, and wells dedicated to saints proliferated in England as the poor carried their sick to them to be cured of a variety of ailments. From about 800 Charlemagne encouraged bathing at the hot sulphureous springs at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle) in France. In Spain thermal baths flourished under the Moorish Empire, and their use was encouraged by Arabian physicians. At the time of the Crusades, when Western people became acquainted with Eastern customs, the use of warm baths became more general. Surviving Roman buildings were taken into use again and new establishments were erected.

This interest and use of warm mineral springs is not unique to Europe and Britain. In Japan, with its many springs, people have frequented these places for their healing properties for many centuries and, for example, "the healing virtues of the hot springs of Nasu in Japan have been utilized for over a thousand years" (Rindl, 1936: 4).

### **3.3 THE HEYDAY OF SPA RESORTS**

#### **3.3.1 The Development of British Spas**

When the Elizabethans rekindled an interest in the merits of hot mineral-water baths and took up the practice of public bathing in England in the sixteenth century, they were but re-adopting a well-established European custom dating from Roman times.

During the Reformation period in Britain, under the orders of Henry VIII and Thomas Cromwell, the use of holy wells was suppressed, but when the English Catholic recusants began travelling abroad to Spa in the Spanish Netherlands under the pretext of drinking the waters at the Pouhon spring, the British

Crown's attitude to the use of mineral waters was revised. There was a real danger of allowing Catholic dissidents to emigrate to territory controlled by Spain under cover of real or pretended need to take the waters. English intelligence agents had reported that there was a potential fifth column of English Catholic recusants being formed in the Netherlands, who might assist in an invasion of England. Faced with this threat, and the reluctance of English people to abandon their practice of using 'holy' waters for the cure of illnesses, the policy of prohibition was abandoned. In lifting the ban on the public bathing in and drinking of domestic mineral waters the government encouraged and promoted the use of a limited number of springs with a more secular and scientific approach divorced from its religious context (Hembry, 1990: 2). The new habit of going to the baths and wells became an accepted part of the social routine of the elite as well as drawing humble people there in their numbers, and Hembry (1990: 8) says "it was the origin of the secular English holiday." The use of prescribed waters for medicinal, as distinct from religious reasons now acquired an aura of respectability and even of high fashion (Hembry, 1990: 8).

Both Bath and Buxton enjoyed an Elizabethan renaissance and with their patronage stimulated by the publicity of Dr William Turner and Dr John Jones, they became renowned as watering-places where, during the summer months, the English aristocracy gathered for health and recreation purposes. In the initial stages neither place was well equipped to receive large numbers of visitors, although Bath had more accommodation than Buxton. "Bath had three springs at temperatures varying from 117° (47°C) to 120°F (49°C), and the abundant Buxton waters from nine springs were cooler but warm at 82°F (28°C)" (Hembry, 1990: 21).

Dr William Turner published a book in 1562 drawing attention to the curative powers of the waters at Bath and on the Continent. Bath itself, along with the spa at Buxton, had been showing a return to popularity among those 'seeking the cure', and the effect of Dr Turner's book was to establish the credibility of the resorts' claims. In 1626, Elizabeth Farrow drew attention to the qualities of the mineral springs at Chalybeate in Scarborough, which became the first of a number of new spa resorts. Also in 1626, according to Holloway (1998: 20), Dr Edmund Deane wrote *Spadacrene Anglica* which drew attention to what Deane claimed were 'the strongest sulphur springs in Great Britain' at Harrogate. These writings rapidly led to the popularity of the town as a spa resort and soon an astonishing number of spa resorts sprang up, sometimes in unlikely places, for example, Streatham in South London which briefly became fashionable following the discovery of mineral springs there in 1659.

A new type of social life evolved around the springs in the late seventeenth century, as health resorts were largely transformed into pleasure grounds for people of importance and fashion when they dispersed from London, the capital, during the summer months. Hembry (1990: 303) says that the spas provided a novelty to the rural public life, with its varied social interaction, which was a welcome alternative to the limitations of the country house.

The growth of spas in Britain was really the story of many creations and many failures. Towner (1996: 62) says “most rural spas were short-lived and, although between 1558 and 1815 about 173 spas were created, the picture at any one time was a shifting pattern of births and deaths.” By 1816 thirty-six spas had had some trade in mineral waters. Some of the rural spas were a spin-off from a larger resort in the locality, like the many in Yorkshire around Harrogate and Scarborough and those near Bath and Cheltenham. The resorts offered, in addition to the warm water mineral baths, assembly-rooms, theatres, libraries, reading-rooms, as well as crescents, squares and terraces and parades or promenades (Hembry, 1990: 312).

### **3.3.2 The Historic Town of Bath, England**

Bath is the most well known spa town in Britain and can trace its origins as a health resort back to the time of the Roman occupation of Britain and its warm mineral waters continued to be visited throughout the middle ages for medicinal reasons. However, by the early seventeenth century the fortunes of the town were uncertain as the woollen cloth industry, and not the spa, formed the economic linchpin and this was in serious decline. This changed by the end of that century as Bath had successfully changed its role from an essentially manufacturing centre into a health and leisure resort and was able to continue to exploit this role throughout the eighteenth century to become one of the largest and wealthiest cities in Britain (Towner, 1996: 65). The attraction to the city initially lay in the supposed healing properties of its mineral springs, and it became fashionable to ‘take the waters’ for the sake of one’s health at this and other contemporary spas in England (Holloway, 1998: 13).

‘Magic, Myth and Medicine’ by John Camp and ‘Taking the Cure’ by GM Turner are two publications which helped to popularise the springs at Bath. The city of Bath rapidly became a major centre of social life for high society during the eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries as pleasure rather than health became the motivation for visits. Commercial opportunities opened up by the concentration of these wealthy visitors and facilities to cater for the entertainment needs of these visitors proliferated, changing the spas into what we would today term holiday resorts rather than watering places. “The building of

a Pump Room as a focal point within Bath was a key development leading to the town's success as a resort” (Holloway, 1998: 21). The treatment consisted of patients being doused with buckets of hot water called ‘bucketing’ later it became ‘pumping’ when it was administered by sprayers or syringes (Booyens, 1981: 8).

The visitors to Bath required accommodation and consequently it was in the construction of lodgings and apartments that the physical growth of the city was most evident. The types of accommodation provided changed between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries, from inns and lodgings in the earlier period to rented apartments in the eighteenth century (Towner, 1996: 73-74), and “it was not until the later nineteenth century that larger hotels, catering for affluent but short-stay visitors, came to dominate the shrinking provision of accommodation and replace long-stay lodgings” (Towner, 1996: 75).

In a survey undertaken by Granville in 1841 of the spas in England, he was optimistic for the future of Bath as he observed that ten times more visitors came to the city than in its fashionable heyday but he also noted that the city was too big and bustling to be exclusive any more. Notwithstanding this, the city’s population and economy did stagnate during the nineteenth century. It was this very stagnation, however, that during the nineteenth century bequeathed a largely unchanged Georgian townscape to the twentieth century and this laid the foundation for the next stage of the ‘resort cycle’. In the later twentieth century, Bath experienced a new tourist boom based on the appeal of the city’s heritage (Towner, 1996: 94), the extensive remains of the Roman baths and the superb collection of Georgian buildings (Holloway, 1998: 13).

Bath and other British springs suffered when members of the aristocracy at the end of the nineteenth century preferred visiting the European springs. The Prince of Wales often visited Bad-Homburg and Baden-Baden. Edward VII preferred Karlsbad and Mariendbad. Whilst British springs’ popularity diminished considerably at the beginning of the twentieth century, many continental springs were still very popular. A second reason for the decrease in popularity of the British springs was the attraction of the seaside.

### **3.3.3 The Spas of Europe, Britain and America**

Prior to the eighteenth century the royal families and aristocracy of Europe and Britain regularly moved between the capital city and their several castles for the hunting and falconry seasons. After the

Renaissance a larger number of the aristocracy began to leave their homes for recreational and health reasons on a regular, seasonal basis, taking the treatments at spas such as at Bath or Baden-Baden. These have been said to be “the forerunners of the strongly re-creational theme in tourism” (Graburn, 1978: 23).

In terms of providing a recreational resort, a range of attractions has always been needed in addition to the spa waters themselves. Simply being the site of a mineral spring was never sufficient to attract large numbers of visitors and most successful spas served pleasure as well as health needs (Towner, 1996: 54). An example of this were the spas around the Bay of Naples in Italy which were especially popular with the hot springs, such as Baiae and Puteoli, combining spa and seaside resort functions (Towner, 1996: 53-54). Another example was Wiesbaden, the capital of Nassau, which was visited by 8000 guests in the summer of 1838. The spa boasted 15 warm and cold springs, and besides the town itself, the surrounding area consisted of beautiful scenery in which the visitors were able to take walks and hikes (Booyens, 1981: 4). Also, the provision of accommodation, utilities such as energy and water supplies as well as transport both for visitors and supplies, were all basic ingredients which spa resort developments required (Towner, 1996: 54).

The relative location and accessibility to population centres were important in influencing the development of spas. Major urban centres could support a number of surrounding spa resorts. An example of this was London which had a whole array of spas at varying distances from its centre but the demand-supply relationship was subtle. The wealth of a population frequenting a particular spa was more important than the numbers, and the catchment area did not have to be exclusively urban. For instance, a number of English spas and the spas of the southern states in the USA drew on the rural elites in their hinterland. Also the proximity to major centres like London influenced both the numbers frequenting the spas and the social tone of spas. “Epsom, 15 miles from London, became a weekend, middle-class resort; Tunbridge Wells, at a further distance, remained more exclusive” (Towner, 1996: 58). The town of Bath, during its heyday, was able to maintain its social exclusiveness, balancing the need to be accessible to London with sufficient distance. The subtle relationship between the type of resort developed and the clientele attracted in the case of Lilani will also need to be taken into consideration for its success.

The main role of the transport industry in recreation and tourism was in terms of forming the linkage between tourist generating and destination areas. But a more subtle role played was in altering the perceptions of time and space and the relationship between traveller and landscape (Towner, 1996: 12).

This role of improving transport for spa developments was complex and usually the improvements were selective. The early spas usually relied on roads and improvements to them often brought more people and ultimately widened the social class at resorts. The development of the railways was insignificant to the success of some spas, for instance Bath in England, but was fundamental for the expansion of others. Buxton, Harrogate and Llandrindod Wells, all in Britain, were essentially Victorian spas whose success was based on the development of the railway system (Towner, 1996: 58). In the case of Lilani, the railway, which has a station 17km away at Ahrens, did assist in its early development but the access into the valley was and still is a limiting factor. If major tourism is going to be developed, innovative ways of getting tourists to the springs is required.

The factors influencing the demand for spas have to be placed within regional, national and, on occasions, international socio-economic and cultural parameters. The rising affluence of people and an emerging elite leisure culture contributed to the growing patronage of spas. The patronage of royalty and nobility was a driving force for a number of successful spas in Europe but this was not a prerequisite for success (Towner, 1996: 59). The proliferation of spas in Britain in the late seventeenth century can be attributed to a general rise in national wealth, the spread of a capitalist free market economy, political stability and a general cultural renaissance in the urban environment centred on an affluent lifestyle (Towner, 1996: 60). Spas in the northern states of the USA relied on a largely urban-based middle-class clientele while the spas in the southern states were patronised by the rural plantation aristocracy. In central Europe, visitors came from a wide social class, and spas such as Radium Hot Springs in British Columbia, Canada, catered for the outdoor activities of middle-class visitors. The catchment areas for patronising of spas also vary enormously, from local and regional use to national and international (Towner, 1996: 59). Baden-Baden was known as the salon of Europe and the Russian aristocracy were important visitors to the resort (Booyens, 1981: 4). Ad Ischl served the Austrian court, Bad Homburg appealed to the British upper classes and the German court patronised Wiesbaden (Towner, 1996: 59).

The successful development of spas depended on the actions of agents of development, whether private entrepreneurs, public authorities or a combination of both (Towner, 1996: 59). Land ownership was instrumental in shaping the layout of the resort town through patterns of land holdings. An example of this is the growth of Cheltenham in Britain during the eighteenth century which was constrained by being surrounded by open fields with rights of common pasture. These proved very difficult to convert to individual property holdings until the 1801 Enclosure Act which enabled entrepreneurs like Joseph Pitt to move in and construct lodging houses and other facilities to the north of the High Street (Towner,

1996: 60). This example shows how both private entrepreneurs and public authorities can influence the outcome of development.

The development of spas in colonial America emerged later than their counterparts in Britain and western Europe and this has been partly attributed to a lingering puritan ethic which resisted the idea of pleasure resorts. When they were developed, cultural variations between the north and south, differences in the stages of economic growth and the geographical spread of settlements created different types of spas in colonial and post-colonial America. By the mid-eighteenth century a group of urban spas had developed around Philadelphia which contrasted with the more rural spas of New England serving Boston. Further south, unsophisticated frontier spas were developed in Virginia which, at the time, was on the edge of the outward spread of settlement. A north-south variation was also evident in Britain. The expansion of a capitalist free market economy in Britain was important for the overall growth of spas and major growth in northern spas had to wait for the industrialisation period in the nineteenth century, which provided more capital and, in particular, a wealthier reservoir of visitors to the northern spa resorts. Major growth in the spa resorts, such as at Harrogate and Buxton, were thus from the mid-nineteenth century, considerably later than growth in southern Britain (Towner, 1996: 60).

One aspect with regard to the use of spa resorts during their heyday is that they should not be seen as having been isolated from each other in terms of patronage. In many cases there was a tour of various spas rather than visits to an individual resort. Also it is clear that spas need to be related to other leisure places and other forms of leisure (Towner, 1996: 95). Even during their heyday spas have always been part of the leisure experience and not the sole experience.

### **3.4 THE DECLINING POPULARITY OF SPAS**

#### **3.4.1 A Change in Holiday Destinations to Seaside Resorts**

Until the Renaissance period, the majority of British people did not favour bathing in the sea. This is not to say that no bathing occurred prior to this time. The bathing which did occur was undertaken unclothed, and this behaviour conflicted with the mores of the day. Blackpool, in fact, had attracted some categories of sea bather well before its growth as a resort, as workers in the area are known to have travelled there by cart in order to wash off the accumulation of dirt resulting from their jobs (Holloway, 1998: 21-22). It was not until the early eighteenth century that sea water was associated with certain health benefits and thus gained popularity among the general public. The change came as health

theorists recognised that the minerals found in the spa waters were also present in abundance in sea water. Initially people frequented the coastal towns to drink the sea water for health purposes rather than to bathe in it.

Small fishing villages around the English coastline began to attract visitors to both drink the sea water and immerse themselves in it. Scarborough was one of the first towns to exploit this new interest in the medical benefits of the sea water, as it was the only coastal town to have an existing spa. Both Scarborough and Brighton were attracting regular visitors by the 1730's (Holloway, 1998: 21). The popularising of bathing in the sea is accredited to Dr Richard Russell and his medical treatise *A Dissertation on the Use of Sea Water in the Diseases of the Glands, particularly the Scurvy, Jaundice, King's Evil, Leprosy, and the Glandular Consumption*, published in 1752 (and two years earlier in Latin) (Holloway, 1998: 21). Soon, Blackpool, Southend, and other English seaside towns were developing into seaside resorts and attracting people to visit and enjoy the activities in the towns and bathe in the sea (Holloway, 1998: 22).

During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the growing wealth in British, European and American societies brought an ever-expanding middle class to the spa resorts. In Britain the inland spas were not able to cope with the influx of more visitors, while in contrast, the newly fashionable seaside resorts were able to expand to cater for the growing need. Like the spas, the seaside resorts developed an array of attractions and activities to amuse the visitors, in addition to the bathing, included assembly rooms, reading rooms, bookshops, walks and excursions. In Europe, spas retained their fashionable prestige, from the large spas such as Baden Baden, Karlsbad or Aix-les-Bains, to the small centres such as the mountain spas in northern Spain which maintained their regional patronage throughout the nineteenth century. Also, within Britain, inland Cheltenham and Leamington were very fashionable in the 1820's and 1830's at the same time as Brighton. Towner (1996:170-171) says "perhaps the seaside resort should be seen as an addition to the leisure places of the elite; a new element to be included in the social round of visits to London, spas, provincial towns and landed estates." The coastal resorts, however, were a more informal social setting and therefore had a wider appeal as they were able to accommodate the demands of families, and particularly children, which were especially important for the middle-class family culture of the Victorian era. "The seaside may have been one of the first places that catered especially for children and their leisure" (Towner, 1996:171).

For the wealthy, starting in the eighteenth century and becoming the fashion in the nineteenth century, luxurious rivieras were built along the Mediterranean and Adriatic shores to accommodate royalty and



the idle rich from the nations of Northern and Eastern Europe. Like the health spas they displaced, these resorts were often only thinly-disguised excuses for gambling and more lascivious pleasures. As the winter abodes for the Northerners were opened in the warmer South, this pleasure-seeking trend led to the establishment of Monte Carlo and other casino resorts (Graburn, 1978: 24).

The advent of cheaper and faster transport, the introduction of public holidays and vocational leave for workers, and therefore the accessibility to the coast for the average person meant that the coastal resorts opened up the opportunity for the masses to participate in the pleasures of seaside resorts. These seaside resorts, because of the number of them, could cater for people of various financial means and the numbers of people wishing to holiday at the coast.

From 1850 onwards, however, a general decrease in working hours is discernible, so that by the 1870's a nine-hour day was practised in Britain, reduced in some sectors of the economy to eight hours by 1919 (Towner, 1996:172). Official legislation gives a broad idea of increased potential leisure time; the Bank Holiday Act of 1871 and 1875 in Britain provided four days statutory holiday. Even before then holidays were common in some areas of Britain (Towner, 1996:172).

A whole range of factors contributed to the growing demand for seaside holidays. Allied to the coastal resort being a place for leisure was the awareness of the benefits to people's health and a desire to escape from the effects of rapid urbanisation. Health reasons had been an important factor in the growth of spa resorts in Europe and North America and, from the mid-eighteenth century, the claims of the seaside were added to those of spa waters. Increasingly, the medical profession was extolling the value of exercise and fresh air, which were easier to obtain at the coast than at inland spas. These, in turn, relate to the role of social class, rising affluence, and the growing popularity of family holidays for which the coast has a particular allure (Towner, 1996:169-170).

Holloway (1998: 21) says that "there are interesting parallels between the decline of the English spas and that of the English seaside resorts one hundred and fifty years or so later." The British spa towns were seen as attractive places in which to live, and residents gradually supplanted visitors. The residents were generally older people whose demands for more passive and traditional entertainment, with a preference for entertaining at home rather than seeking commercial entertainment, hastened the spas' economic decline. However, it was the rise of the seaside resorts which did much to undermine the success of the inland spas, just as later it would be the rise of the Mediterranean resorts which lead to the decline of the British seaside resorts (Holloway, 1998: 21).

### 3.4.2 Continuing Interest in Spas

In the seventeenth century Britain could boast of having over one hundred active spas, but by the 1990's only a dozen remained open to the public, and only one spa, that at Droitwich, continued to offer medical treatment, with a private hospital offering an indoor brine bath (Holloway, 1998: 162). It is a different situation in Europe where the frequenting and use of spas has remained popular. In Germany and France there are over 400 functioning spa resorts (Booyens, 1981: 8). In countries such as Germany, the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Hungary there has been a continuous acceptance that thermal treatments, in mud or mineral water baths, can play an important part in health care of people (Holloway, 1998: 162). The state health in Germany has recognised the benefits of this treatment and over the years contributed substantially to people's stay at these spa resorts. Changes have occurred to this policy in Germany as a result of the high cost of providing such care and in 1996 the government began cutting back on the amount of time its citizens were permitted to stay at spas when funding was provided by the state (Holloway, 1998: 162). Nevertheless, Holloway (1998: 162) says some 15 million Europeans daily immerse themselves in thermal waters in the belief that they will benefit from the mineral water, and thus the spas of Europe continue to benefit from this belief.

As Germany's spas continue to play an important role in that country's tourist industry, it is interesting to note factors which contribute to their popularity. Edwards (1974, in Orton, 1986: 4) says "many German spas are towns in which the individual facilities are combined to form the resort as a whole. As such, most spa towns consist of three main centres: the socio-cultural; the recreational and the bathing areas." An advantage of the resort being part of a town enable the infrastructure to serve a dual purpose, both for the tourists and the residents and therefore the costs are shared by both. Also, the three main foci diversify the interests the tourists can enjoy during their stay.

Britain, where people had frequented spas for centuries, experienced a massive decline in use during the early twentieth century. This was due partially to medical experts who became more sceptical about the health benefits of spas in the twentieth century (Holloway, 1998: 162). This view is being re-evaluated by some medical experts as recent evidence shows that there are real benefits for sufferers from osteoarthritis and osteoporosis, and a growing interest in alternative medicine generally (Holloway, 1998: 163). This may mean that some former spas could reopen in Britain to cater for people seeking treatment via this method.

To the ordinary person, hot springs have been associated with the rejuvenating of tired bodies and the finding of relief from complaints such as arthritis. These issues are universal to people and therefore the hot spring spa resort still has a place in the tourism market to offer the public a well catered for resort which offers recreational facilities, which centre around hot spring baths.

### 3.4.3 The Beginning of Mass Tourism

The ease of travelling, with better roads, and faster transport, in trains from the 1830's and then cars from the early twentieth century, opened up the opportunity for a wider spectrum of society to enjoy the pleasures of travelling and having holidays away from the home environment, both domestically and abroad. This growth in tourism was complemented by the provision of adequate accommodation at the traveller's destination (Holloway, 1998: 23).

In the early twentieth century travel continued to expand as wealth increased. Favourable conditions began to develop which encouraged tourism and therefore travel throughout the world. Conditions for people to travel had become safer from disease and physical attack, the Continent was relatively stable politically and a growing curiosity among the middle classes encouraged them to venture to new holiday destinations (Holloway, 1998: 29). No longer was travel just the domain of the wealthy.

The First World War, 1914 to 1918, brought a halt to travel for recreational purposes for a period of time. Prosperity soon returned in the 1920's to the war ravaged Europe and with large-scale migration, this meant unsurpassed demand for travel across the Atlantic to the Americas as well as within Europe. It is Holloway's (1998: 29) opinion that the first-hand experience of foreign countries by combatants during the First World War aroused a sense of curiosity about foreign travel generally among less well-off sectors of the community for the first time. For many people who had left Britain and Europe it also became a time when they could afford to return to their home country to visit family.

After the First World War mass communication, the radio, cinema and ultimately television, became a new influence on people which encouraged them to travel to see more of the world for themselves. The speed of travel continued to make far away places more accessible and a growing wealth in countries, particularly the developed countries, has enabled more people to engage in travel for both pleasure and business purposes.

The First World War changed the lifestyles of the wealthy of Europe as it pauperized the elite rivieras, and also it did away with many of the ruling families and other European aristocrats whose fortunes had fuelled their lavish life-styles. Graburn (1978: 24) says it was the war that prompted the final cultural revolution that set the stage for mass tourism of today. The winter vacation retreats of the wealthy became the summer pleasure resorts of the masses. An increasing realization of the healthy aspects of exposure to sunlight, pioneered by the discovery of Vitamin D and German experiments during the First World War (Graburn, 1978: 24), and the experience of people on the beaches of Florida, USA and the Caribbean, coursed a major change in the viewpoint of people in that the suntan became fashionable. No longer was white skin universally admired and nature shunned.

There are two important points which can be drawn from the historical context and which have been recognised by researchers which are associated with tourist destinations.

- (i) Firstly, “the chances of their long-term success will be significantly enhanced if the benefits they offer are unique” (Holloway, 1998: 14). However, in conjunction with mass tourism, “it is true to say that the majority of the mass tourism movement is directed at sun, sea and sand destinations, which the Mediterranean and Caribbean countries provide so effectively” (Holloway, 1998: 14). The attraction of a holiday by the sea is primarily that of warm water, a good beach and a pleasant climate (Holloway, 1998: 159). These destinations are generally not unique, though they sometimes may have a unique aspect to them, and the tourists who frequent them do not require them to be so. The mass tourism market will generally be satisfied as long as the amenities are adequate, the resort is accessible and the prices are competitive (Holloway, 1998: 14).
- (ii) The second point is that “the more benefits a destination can offer, the greater the attraction of the destination” (Holloway, 1998: 15). Multiple attractions provide ‘added value’, and the concentration within a specific geographical area of a number of different attractions appealing to different people will improve the chance of success. Most destinations depend at least to some extent on the return visitor, and this will require constant investment to update and augment the range of attractions to encourage visitors to return. Destinations, like all products which depend upon consumer demand, have ‘life cycles’, in which they experience periods of growth, expansion and, eventually, decline” (Holloway, 1998: 15).

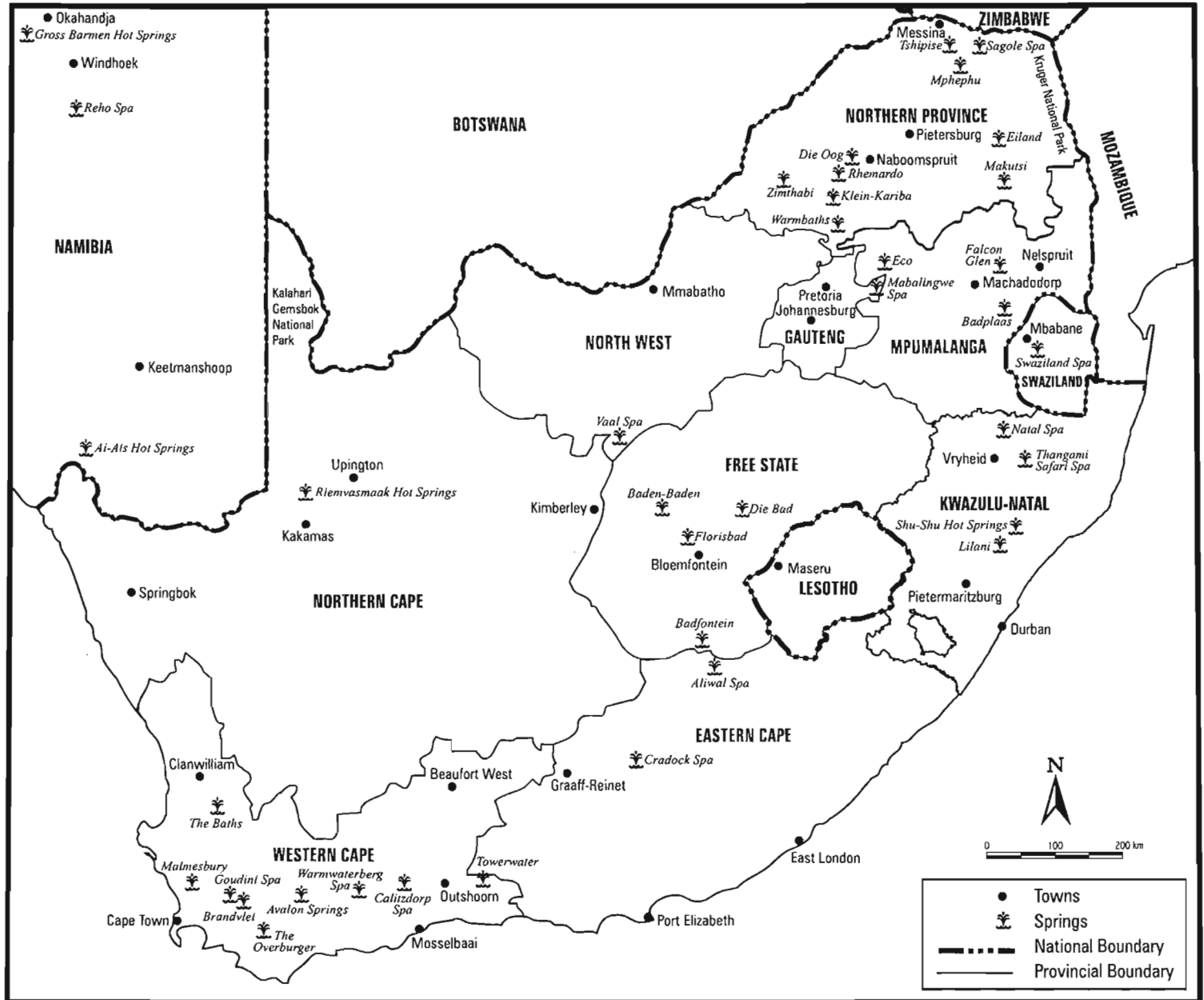


Fig. 3.2 Location of Hot Springs in South Africa

Source: Booyens 1981 and Boekstein 1998

### 3.5 HOT SPRING RESORTS IN SOUTH AFRICA

The attention of the early European settlers in the Cape during the late 1600's and early 1700's, as they explored the hinterland around the settlement at Cape Town, was drawn to the hot springs in the region and towns like Caledon and Malmesbury became known as health resorts (Visser, 1989) as well as towns serving the surrounding farming districts.

In 1695 Mr JG Grevenbroek wrote a letter in Latin to a minister of religion in Amsterdam wherein he described the Khoi (Hottentots) and said "in the territory of the Hottentots warm springs are found" Booyens (1981: 14). Booyens (1981: 14) says it is almost certain to pertain to Caledon as many Hottentots lived in the Hottentots-Holland mountains. The local Khoi (Hottentots) called the hot springs "a 'fountain of life', whose waters, they said, 'will cure you of almost any known ill, and if drunk regularly will keep you active as a young man, even though you live to be a hundred'." (Boekstein, 1998: 5).

Mr WA van der Stel's servant Jan Hartogh recorded that Ferdmand Appel was the first to own land near the hot springs known today as Caledon. On 3<sup>rd</sup> September 1708 he was granted permission to graze his cattle along the Botrivier. He was given permission on 1<sup>st</sup> March 1709 to grazing rights near the "hot water". The 10 hectare land was given to him in 1710 to build a house for the sick next to the hot mineral spring to rent out. Thereafter many nineteenth century visitors to the Cape knew of the famous healing water and South African baths were therefore given attention and became popular, especially the one at Caledon (Booyens, 1981: 15).

Dr Marten Douw Teenstra, a well known doctor in the Cape in the mid 1800's, first visited the Caledon baths in 1825 at the age of 30. His visit to the hot water spring was the result of an illness he contracted whilst at sea which resulted in severe rheumatism and he was forced to stay over in the Cape in order to recover. He was taken to Caledon by ox wagon and arrived on the 9<sup>th</sup> April and departed on the 19<sup>th</sup> May and was at the hot water spring after the bath season was already over. Teenstra was a capable writer, with strong opinions, a sharp observer and a good sense of humour and he wrote a narrative of his 3 week stay all alone at the Caledon hot springs. The bathing establishment made a gloomy impression on him, the rooms were clammy and stuffy and coming from Holland, Teenstra did not appreciate the wet cow dung which was used for the floors (Booyens, 1981: 43).

According to Rindl (1936: 6), the spring at Montagu appears to have been known and frequented by the Khoi (Hottentots) and San (Bushman) people before the advent of European settlers. One of the first written accounts of the hot springs of Caledon is found in a book by Francois Valentin on the Dutch East India Company's possessions, printed in Amsterdam in 1724. In a later book '*Reizen in de Binnenlanden van Africa, langs de Kap de Goed Hoop in den jaren 1750-55*,' he mentions the high esteem in which these baths were held. The Dutch East India Company was aware of their value, and many officials invalidated from the East derived new strength and health from their healing waters. Subsequent to the taking over of the Cape by Britain, many English East India officers visited the baths (Rindl, 1936: 6). The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 changed this as many of the ships used the shorter route from the East to Europe, resulting in a major decline in the use of the springs which limited the development of the hot springs as resorts.

In many respects the hot spring resorts of Europe and America had distinct advantages over those in South Africa where the small population was not able to support in large enough numbers the development of the resorts with the accompanying amenities to the standards and grandeur associated with many of their northern hemisphere counterparts.

Unlike the hot spring resorts of Europe where they were considered to be a high point on the social calendar, in South Africa the resorts were visited for health reasons. The main reason to visit the baths was to benefit from the mineral water and go home rejuvenated and their health restored. Baths became popular due to people's experience of them and knowledge of them spread by word of mouth. Informed visitors such as Mentzel, Sparman, Percival and Barcherds were saddened that users of the baths were often without the necessary information and they often had to come by without the necessary medical advice. They were even of the opinion that patients ran the risk of suffering a setback in health as a result of the lack of information concerning the use of the baths. Booyens (1981:97) says that even the visits of famous doctors such as Dr Heinrich Lichfenstein and especially someone like Dr JF Hassner, who spent many years at the bath complex at Caledon, never wrote down the procedures concerning the treatments used at the hot springs. Bath users thus used their own insight but were led by previous users experiences. Otto Fredrick Mentzel is stated as saying that doctors of the Cape hospital in the eighteenth century sent patients needing special treatment to the Caledon baths (Booyens, 1981: 109).

In 1829 a practising Cape doctor, Dr Johannes Knockers, formally of Oosterzee, for the first time known, printed a work on the benefits and healing qualities of hot water springs entitled *Over het gebruik der natuurlyk warme baden* in the famous Cape magazine of the time *Het Nederduitch Zuid-*

*Afrikaansch Tydschrift*. He was labelled as one of the most qualified and most famous doctors in the Cape, who was also known for his special interest in hot water spring treatments. The writer declared in the beginning of his ten page article that a person has to take cognisance of the benefits of hot water springs on the suffering of humanity. According to the writer, circumstances in the country resulted in health care services only being obtained at a great expense whereas hot water springs were accessible to the country's inhabitants but that bath places were actually only visited as a last resort. The writer relied on his own and other people's experience and admitted that there was not a complete account given of the curing power of the hot water springs. Dr Knockers mentioned that the spring water could be used both internally and externally. The opinion at the time was that the closer the hot spring water was used from its source, the better and more powerful the results would be. At Aliwal North, where water bubbles up at body temperature, there were comfortable floors available where weak patients could sit right above the source. To drink the water at the source was also considered to be more beneficial than to drink the water which had been removed from the source. Dr Knockers based his theory about the benefits of being at the source of the hot water spring on the fact that evaporation of the water's healing powers increased the further away one moved from the source. From there the writer noted that water from a source which was as hot as that at Brandvlei and which first had to run down a few hundred metres lost most of its natural powers. For the same reason he considered the spring water at Caledon and Olifants River was far more beneficial, as the patients could use the water immediately, as it came to the surface at a temperature tolerable for bathing (Booyens, 1981: 97).

One of the ways in which the warm water sources were utilized was in the form of a mud bath. In the days when the bathing establishments in Britain and Europe were still primitive it could not really be otherwise but that the mud bath became part of the therapeutic process. The first bath places which were established at the hot water sources were merely holes, hollows or pits which were dug in the course of the river. This led to the fact that the bath users saw mud as being an inherent part of the "warm water experience" and that it had distinctive healing qualities. Consequently the special application of hot mud became even more important than swimming in the mineral water and as a result people began to visit hot mineral springs frequently for a respectable and repeated mud healing. The nature of the soil of a bath source usually determined whether the mud bath culture would establish itself. At places where the hot water source rises against a steep rock face or in a kloof, mud was scarce. Where the source originated on a flat or low lying area, masses of soil and plant material had been deposited through the centuries, overgrown and swampy areas resulted and formed deep layers of marshy soil. A good example of this kind of soil is found at Warmbaths in the Transvaal, where the whole area surrounding the source consists of deep layers of marshy soil (Booyens, 1981: 103).



The time spent at the baths was seen as a time of relaxation where it was acceptable to do nothing but merely laze around. But in many cases, such as at the Caledon baths, the entire family would accompany a single patient to the baths and so the baths developed into health and entertainment centres. As the numbers increased the necessity for group activities arose and so a camp commander was appointed, the terms for using the baths set out and gatherings, dances and sports activities were organized (Booyens, 1981: 105).

In the eighteenth and early nineteenth century card games were a popular means of passing the time. Hunting was the most popular activity for men to pass the time if it was permitted. Target shooting was the main past time of the men because the old boer farmers would rarely move a foot without their guns. At Towerwater bath close to Uniondale the shooting range was only a few metres from the bath place. Young people would go mountain climbing, picking flowers, picnicking and fishing and towards the beginning of the twentieth century concerts and group activities, dances and debates became popular as evening entertainment (Booyens, 1981: 106).

The hot springs which have been known for a long time in South Africa as health centres include Caledon, Clan William (Olifants River) Gampka (Calitzdorp), Montagu (Uitvlugt), Brandvlei, Goudini (Booyens, 1981: 107) and Warmbaths. The majority of South Africa's hot springs are located in the Western Cape and the Northern Province (Fig. 3.2). There are very few in the Northern Cape and this has to be attributed to the low rainfall in the area. Rindl (1936:7) points out that the majority of the hot springs in the old Cape Province lie in a zone running practically north-south from the north of Namibia (South West Africa) to Caledon in the Western Cape, and then strike off in an almost easterly direction as far as Port Elizabeth in the Eastern Cape. The distribution of the hot springs in South Africa is associated with the geological formations and faults in the rocks found in the country.

People accepted it as a fact that hot spring water had healing powers. The cold and warm water treatments were accepted towards the end of the nineteenth century as highly therapeutical treatments. South Africans enjoyed this treatment locally and many also visited the well known hot spring resorts in Europe (Booyens, 1981: 109). Dr LE Kent of the University of Cape Town declared in 1952 that the hot spring water did have medicinal value and that most of the waters in South Africa are alkaline and can be used for certain digestive ailments. He also stated that the radioactivity found in certain sources, though overemphasized in the past, can in fact have positive effects. It can be advantageous to drink water with certain chemical components as the body is cleansed by getting rid of harmful substances in place of using elements from the body to do this task (Booyens, 1981: 119).

A distinct difference has occurred in the development of the hot springs in South Africa compared to those in Europe. Some towns in South Africa, such as Caledon, Warmbaths and Aliwal North, owe their foundation to mineral springs, but the entire town is not involved with the spa facilities. Most health spas in this country, such as Badplaas, Natal Spa and Christiana, offer the entertainment and recreational facilities of a conventional country hotel, with the hot springs being an added attraction to the resort. However, unlike many of the European spa resorts, South Africa's resorts cater for the middle class family holiday by providing a variety of accommodation ranging from all inclusive hotel rooms to self catering chalets and caravan parks and, with a few exceptions like Warmbaths, do not offer specific medical or therapeutic regimens (Orton, 1986: 12).

South Africa has a national asset in its hot springs, with their medicinal properties, which has the potential of being developed even further especially as people are becoming more aware of health issues and alternative treatments. South Africa has some seventy springs known, or reputed to be endowed with medicinal value, and many of them are undoubtedly as efficacious as some of the best known springs in Europe (Table 3.1). Rindl (1936: 7) says in some respects a few of South Africa's hot springs are unique and one example he gives is that the chalybeate (iron) springs of Caledon are warm, whereas iron springs in other parts of the world are, as a rule, cold.

There are two reasons why people are attracted to hot springs. The first is for a place to swim and relax in warm water any time of the year. The second is for the use of the water for its medicinal and curative properties. In a book compiled by Mark Boekstein in 1998 the current hot springs open to the public in Southern Africa are described (Table 3.1). Some are associated with other attractions, like game parks, but most of the them form part of a resort in which the main focus is the hot spring itself. Rindl (1936: 5) recognised the advantages of South Africa's hot springs for their tourism potential in his statement:

“The medicinal springs of the Union of South Africa all have this great advantage - they are ‘sunshine’ springs. South Africa is recognised as possessing one of the most enjoyable and healthful climates of the world” (Rindl, 1936: 5).

Table 3.1 A Comparison of the Hot Spring Resorts Presently Operating in South Africa

Name	Town or Nearest Town and Province	Available Accommodation and day visitors	Water Temp. at source	pH	Temp. of warmest pool	Minerals in spring water
The Overberger Country Hotel and Spa	In Caledon, Western Cape	94 Hotel rooms Day visitors permitted	49°C	7.2	38°C	Iron, calcium, manganese, sodium, potassium, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
ATKV Goudini Spa	Near Worcester, in Breede River Valley, Western Cape	100 thatched rondavels, 50 flats, 36 caravan/camping sites Day visitors for ATKV members only	40°C	5.7	36°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, chloride, sulphate
Brandvlei Hot Springs	Department of Correctional Services land, near Rawsonville, Western Cape	Facilities for picnics, not swimming, permission required to visit springs	64°C			Data not available
Avalon Springs	On the outskirts of Montagu, Western Cape	14 Hotel rooms, 30 self-catering flats next to Montagu Springs Holiday Resort Day visitors permitted	43°C	6.1	43°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, lithium, chloride, calcium, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Warmwaterberg Spa	Between Barrydale and Ladismith, Western Cape	5 flats, 6 log cabins, 3 houses, 4 caravans, 14 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	43°C	6.4	40°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, iron, manganese, bicarbonate, silica, chloride, sulphate
Calitzdorp Spa	Between Calitzdorp and Oudshoorn, Western Cape	42 self-catering chalets, 18 caravan sites Separate facilities available for day visitors	51°C	7.4	44°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, iron, manganese, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
The Baths	Near Citrusdal, Western Cape	6 chalets, 12 flats 15 caravan sites Day visitors must make prior reservation	43°C	4.9	38°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, chloride, sulphate, silica
Aliwal Spa	In Aliwal North, Eastern Cape	Chalets, also many others around the resort Day visitors permitted	34°C	7.0	34°C	Sodium, potassium, magnesium, lithium, calcium, aluminum, fluoride, chloride, bromide, silica, iodide, sulphate, bicarbonate, dissolved hydrogen sulphide
Badfontein Guest Farm	23km from Aliwal North, on the banks of the Orange River, Eastern Cape	2 bedroomed thatched cottage	30°C		30°C	Data not available
Cradock Spa	Close to Cradock, on the banks of the Great Fish River, Eastern Cape	18 self-catering chalets, 35 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	31°C	9.6	31°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, silica, bicarbonate, carbonate, dissolved hydrogen sulphide
Riemvasmaak Hot Springs	56km north west of Kakamaas, Northern Cape	Camping possible, but no ablution facilities Day visitors permitted	39°C		36°C	Data not available
Aventura Vaal Spa	3km north east of Christiana, North West	90 self-catering 4 bed chalets, 10x2 bed chalets, 14 luxury hotel rooms, 200 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	16°C	7.6	36°C	Sodium, lithium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, nitrate
Florisbad	45km from Bloemfontein, Free State	Day visitors only and must make prior reservations	29°C			Ammonium, lithium, sodium, magnesium, calcium, barium, aluminium, iron, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Thangami Safari Spa	Between Vryheid and Melmoth, off the main road, KwaZulu-Natal	10 self-catering chalets, 3 Bed and Breakfast, 10 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	41°C		36-38°C	Data not available
Natal Spa	On old Vryheid-Paulpietersburg road, KwaZulu-Natal	58 hotel rooms, caravan sites Day visitors permitted	44°C		40°C	Sodium, magnesium, calcium, chloride, sulphate, carbonate, silica
Shu Shu Hot Springs	On an island in the Tugela River, 26km from Kranskop, KwaZulu-Natal	50 camp sites and caravan sites, no permanent ablution facilities Day visitors permitted Resort only open during KwaZulu-Natal June/July school holidays	52°C	7.4	40-42°C	Sodium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica

Name	Town or Nearest Town and Province	Available Accommodation and day visitors	Water Temp. at source	pH	Temp. of warmest pool	Minerals in spring water
Mabalingwe Spa	Near Pretoria and Johannesburg, Gauteng	20 luxury chalets Day visitors must make prior reservations	36°C	7.8	30°C	Sodium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate
Aventura Spa Badplaas	52km from Carolina, Mpumalanga	Hotel, self-catering chalets, log cabins, rondavels, large caravan park	50°C	8.9	43°C	Sodium, potassium, magnesium, calcium, silica, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, carbonate
Falcon Glen Lodge	In Schoemanskloof, 60km from Nelspruit and near Machadodorp, Mpumalanga	15 luxury self-catering chalets Day visitors not permitted	42°C		36-38°C	Data not available
Aventura Spa Warmbaths	In the town of Warmbaths, 93km north of Pretoria, Northern Province	100 self-catering chalets, 300 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	52°C	8.5	40°C	Sodium, potassium, magnesium, calcium, chloride, fluoride, bicarbonate, silica
ATKV Klein-Kariba	In Waterberg Mountains, 7km north of Warmbaths, Northern Province	50 luxury self-catering chalets, 56 flats, 21 luxury hotel rooms, youth hostel, almost 100 caravan/camping sites Day visitors permitted	23°C		36°C	Data not available
Zimthabi Holiday Resort	Near Thabazimbi in the foothills of Kransberg Mountains, Northern Province	9 rondavels, 1 flat, 20 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	32°C		32°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Die Oog Hot Spring Resorts	In the Waterberg region, 14 km from Naboomspruit, Northern Province	200 self-catering rondavels, 209 caravan sites Day visitors not permitted	40°C		38°C	Sodium, magnesium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Rhemardo Holiday Resort	14.5km from Naboomspruit, Northern Province	10 chalets, 30 rondavels, 15 caravan sites Day visitors not permitted	38°C	7.2	36°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Mphephu Hot Spring Resort	On the Nzhelele River, 35km west of Thohoyandou, near Wyllic's Poort, north of Louis Trichardt, Northern Province	20 chalets Day visitors permitted	43°C		36°C	Data not available
Sagole Spa	In the village of Sagole, north of Wyllic's Poort, Northern Province	2 self-catering cottages, 6 rondavels, 2x40 bed dormitories, 10 caravan sites Day visitors permitted	45-49°C	9.6	36°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, chloride, sulphate, carbonate, bicarbonate, silica
Aventura Eco Tshipise	50km from Beit Bridge, Northern Province	195 self-catering rondavels, 21 hotel rooms, 6 bed guest house, almost 400 caravan/camping sites Day visitors not permitted	58°C	8.9	42°C	Sodium, magnesium, fluoride, potassium, calcium, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Aventura Eco Eiland	On the banks of the Lebaba River, near Tzaneen, Northern Province	103 rondavels, over 400 caravan/camping sites Day visitors not permitted	43°C	8.1	38°C	Sodium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, chloride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica
Makutsi Safari Farm	Between Tzaneen and Lydenburg, 61 km south of Tzaneen, Northern Province	30 rondavels, full board or dinner, bed and breakfast Day visitors not permitted	35°C	7.4	34°C	Sodium, magnesium, potassium, calcium, fluoride, sulphate, bicarbonate, silica

(Information sourced from Boekstein, 1998.)

CHAPTER FOUR  
**A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE HOT SPRINGS  
IN KWAZULU-NATAL**

**4.1 INTRODUCTION**

There are four hot springs located in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, namely Natal Spa, Thangami Safari Spa, Shu Shu Hot Springs and Lilani Hot Springs (Fig. 4.8). In considering the redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs as a tourist destination, it is essential to consider the other three hot springs resorts and endeavour to learn from their experiences in the present tourism market. For any redevelopment at the Lilani Hot Springs to be a success, recognition of the problems and constraints experienced by or surrounding the other hot springs must be considered. They will be the direct local competition in attracting people to Lilani, without considering the other tourism attractions in KwaZulu-Natal or further afield which attract local and international tourists.

**4.2 NATAL SPA**

The Natal Spa resort is located between Paulpietersburg and Vryheid in northern KwaZulu-Natal, on the banks of the Bivane River and is 15 km from Paulpietersburg. (Fig. 4.8) The resort is located on privately owned land. Mr PJ Wessels, a Senator in Paul Kruger's cabinet, was the first owner of the farm on which the Natal Spa is located. He bought the farm in 1885 and named it "Koubad". The hot water was discovered in 1888 by his foreman, Mr H van Rensburg. Mr Wessels allowed bathing to take place and accommodation to be built on his property and it became a valued health resort (Booyens, 1981: 95).

Molengraaff (Annual Report, Geol. Survey S.A. Republic for 1898, English Translation, 1903), as quoted by Humphrey and Krige (1932: 13) says,

"The hot springs of the Pivaan [Bivane] River well up through joints in the granite. There are three distinct springs. The first, known as the Pivaan Warmbad, is situated on the farm Koubad No 191, on the left bank and so close to the river that in times of flood it is quite covered. There a powerful stream of water at a temperature of 42.5°C (108.5°F) issues from between large rounded boulders of granite. The second spring, the Pivaans Loubad (tepid bath), lies opposite the first, and a short distance from the right bank of the river, on the farm Pivaansbad No. 533. The water issues at a temperature of 40°C. The third spring,

the Pivaans Koubad (cold bath), is situated on Koubad, at a distance of about 50 metres from the warm bath" (Humphrey and Krige, 1932: 13).

Humphrey and Krige (1932: 13) stated that the water temperature of the cold spring was 18°C.



Fig 4.1 The Main Building at Natal Spa



Fig 4.2 The Hot Pools at Natal Spa

The resort has been developed over the years and today has nine swimming pools, including three children's pools, all filled with mineral water. The warmest pool is approximately 40°C and the others becoming progressively cooler as the water flows from one pool to the next. There are also four private mineral water baths. There is a substantial three storey, fifty-eight bed roomed, two star hotel at this resort. The resort offers a large array of activities and amenities, with its conference rooms, including 'Big Screen' facilities and satellite television, sports facilities including tennis, squash, a gym, bowling green, golf course, restaurant and bar, billiard room, the hot springs, a large variety of bird and animal life, horse riding, walks and fishing (Natal Spa Brochure, 1996). It is also sufficiently close to the Blood River Monument, Anglo-Zulu and Anglo-Boer War battlefields, and the Umfolozi and Itala game reserves for day trips.

### 4.3 THANGAMI SAFARI SPA

Thangami Safari Spa is located 74kms south east of the town of Vryheid in northern KwaZulu-Natal. (Fig. 4.8) Access to the resort is via Gluckstadt which is located just off the Vryheid-Melmoth road (R34). From Gluckstadt the journey is along a 41 km well maintained gravel district road with the resort situated on the road between the Swart Umfolozi store and KwaCeza. The hot springs are located on the slopes of the Ntabayamathole hill, high above and overlooking the Swart-Umfolozi River, with a very good elevated view of the KwaZulu-Natal bushveld in the scenic Umfolozi valley.

The resort is situated on privately owned land and forms part of the farm Boschhoek No. 489. Farms were distributed to the boers after they defeated the Zulus in 1884 (Booyens, 1981: 96) and the farm became part of the 'Nuwe Republiek' in 1884 (Thangami Brochure, 1996). The early white farmers and their families dug out mud holes and dammed up the hot spring water for their own use. Booyens (1981: 96) noted that the water and mud are especially beneficial for disinfecting and thus the healing of wounds.

The place originally consisted of natural bush and the mountain slope at the source of the hot springs was so steep that the farmers and their families who came to use them had to camp a distance away from the source. Only after the 1950's did the present owner, Mr Uys, put terraces along the slope and develop the place into a formal holiday resort. A passable road, baths, bath houses and accommodation were built (Booyens, 1981: 96). During this time the resort was known as the White Waters (Uys, 1996).

In 1992 the resort was closed down by the owner but was reopened by his son in 1996. The buildings and baths have been renovated and an *a la carte* restaurant and bar have been added to the amenities available at the resort (Uys, 1996). The new name of the resort, 'Thangami', is a Zulu word meaning "basking place in the sun where you find peace, happiness and comfort" (Bockstein, 1998: 22).

The resort offers a large array of activities and amenities, with its accommodation, restaurant and bar, curio shop, supply shop, the hot springs and the hot mineral mud deposits, braai place facilities, a large variety of bird and animal life, horse riding, guided walks, fishing and tube rafting, hiking trails, bushman caves, 4x4 vehicular trails, and a small 50 people conference room. It is also sufficiently close to the Blood River Monument, Dingaanstad, Ulundi, Anglo-Zulu and Anglo-Boer War battlefields, and the Umfolozi and Itala game reserves for day trips (Thangami Brochure, 1996).

The focus of the resort has been expanded to include a game park on the 3500ha farm. In 1996 an agreement was signed between the neighbouring farmers in the valley to establish a 40 000ha game park with the intention of establishing five additional game lodges in the valley (Uys, 1996). This game park has been called ThakaZulu Game Reserve (Persad, *et al*, 1998: 15). Thangami Safari Spa now has a double attraction and is able to attract guests from the neighbouring game lodges for day excursions for them to enjoy the hot springs as an alternative to watching game.



Fig 4.3 The Hot Pools at Thangami Safari Spa



#### 4.4 SHU SHU HOT SPRINGS

Shu Shu Hot Springs is located in the Tugela valley below the town of Kranskop in the northern part of the KwaZulu-Natal midlands, on the banks of the Tugela River. (Fig. 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8) Stayt (1971: 79) says the name of the hot springs is descriptive of the bubbling of hot water. Boekstein (1998: 26) says “This is one of the hottest (Shu Shu is the Zulu word for ‘hot’), and probably the most natural of all mineral springs open to the public in South Africa.” Access to the hot springs is via the district road from Kranskop to Ntunjambili and then descending down the twisty tarred road into the Tugela valley. The road, which becomes gravel, continues to the new bridge over the Tugela River, at Middledrift (KwaNdongwana) and the hot springs are located approximately 5 kilometres north of the bridge. The hot springs can alternatively be accessed along the district road from Eshowe. The springs are 25 km from Kranskop and 60 km from Greytown.

The hot springs have been known and used for centuries by the Lala tribes people, the Zulus and by the Colonial Europeans. The following two historical accounts illustrate this early history concerning Shu Shu hot springs.

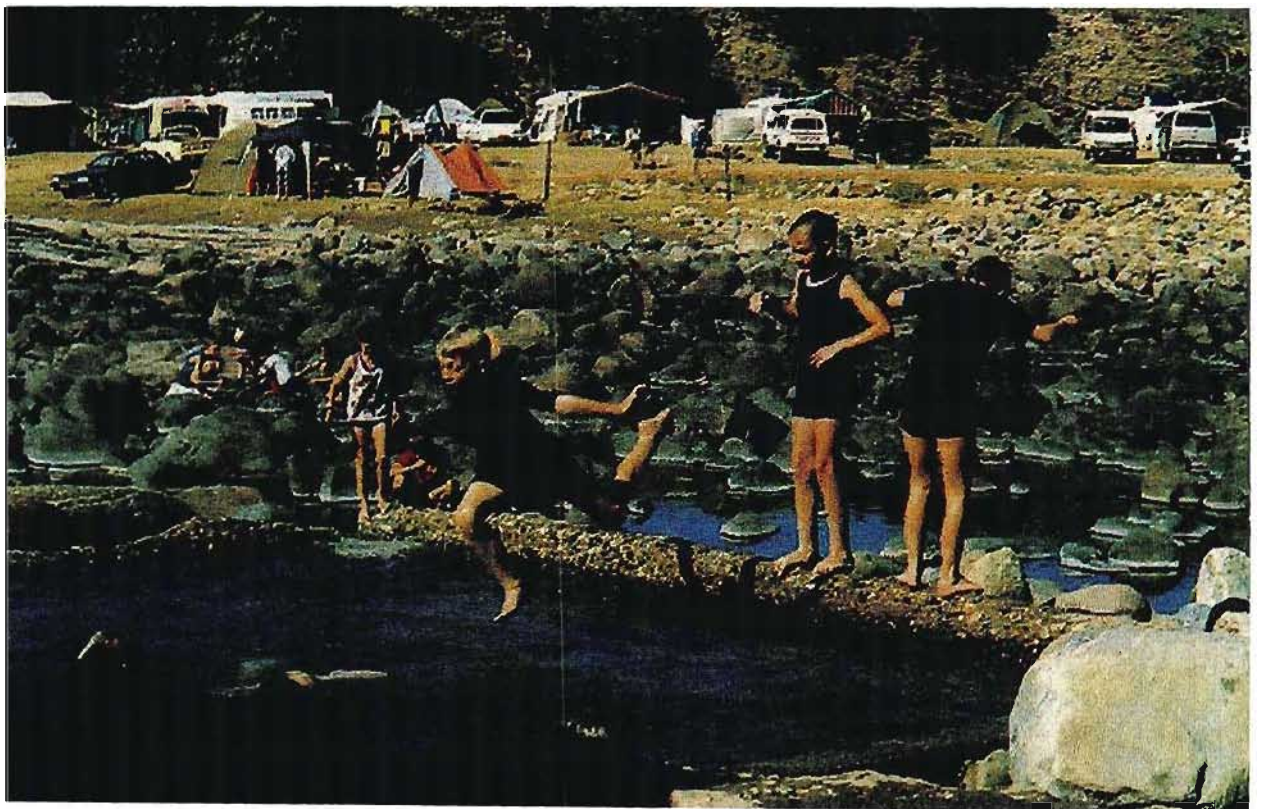
“In November 1868, Charles William Steward announced a find of gold in the rugged country around the Nyembe hill, near the junction of the Thukela and the Mzinyathi Rivers” (Bulpin, 1977:232). In 1869 a group of Australian prospectors went to inspect Steward’s discovery in the Thukela area. “For some time they rummaged around in the bush and heat, finding quite a few mambas, tantalising traces of minerals and, on the islands in the Thukela, several hot springs as well as the ruins of stone walls erected by the Lala tribespeople” (Bulpin, 1977:234). The Lala tribes were an enclave within the Nguni area in the central and southern parts of present day KwaZulu-Natal who were apparently largely dispersed or destroyed during Shaka’s time, and “little study has been devoted to what remains of their culture and language, except the dialect of Kranskop” (van Warmelo, 1974: 61)

An early account of the hot springs being used as a tourist resort is given in the local newspaper where it stated, “During the last 2 months ... there were over 80 European visitors to the Hot Springs on the Tugela” (Greytown Gazette, Sat., Aug. 29, 1903, pg. 3, col. 4.). It is interesting to note that this account of the visitors is during the winter months, just as the major use of hot springs is still today.

The land on which the hot springs are situated is in the ownership of the Ingonyama Trust, and is part of the Amangcolosi Tribal Authority land. There has never been a formal resort built at the Shu Shu



Fig. 4.4 The Kop and caravan campers in the foreground, taken from the island in the Tugela River where the Shu Shu Hot Springs are located



Source: South African Country Life, March 2000, No. 45, page 77.

Fig. 4.5 Children playing in the Shu Shu Hot Springs on the island with a relatively dry Tugela River behind them and the caravan campers on the other side of the river

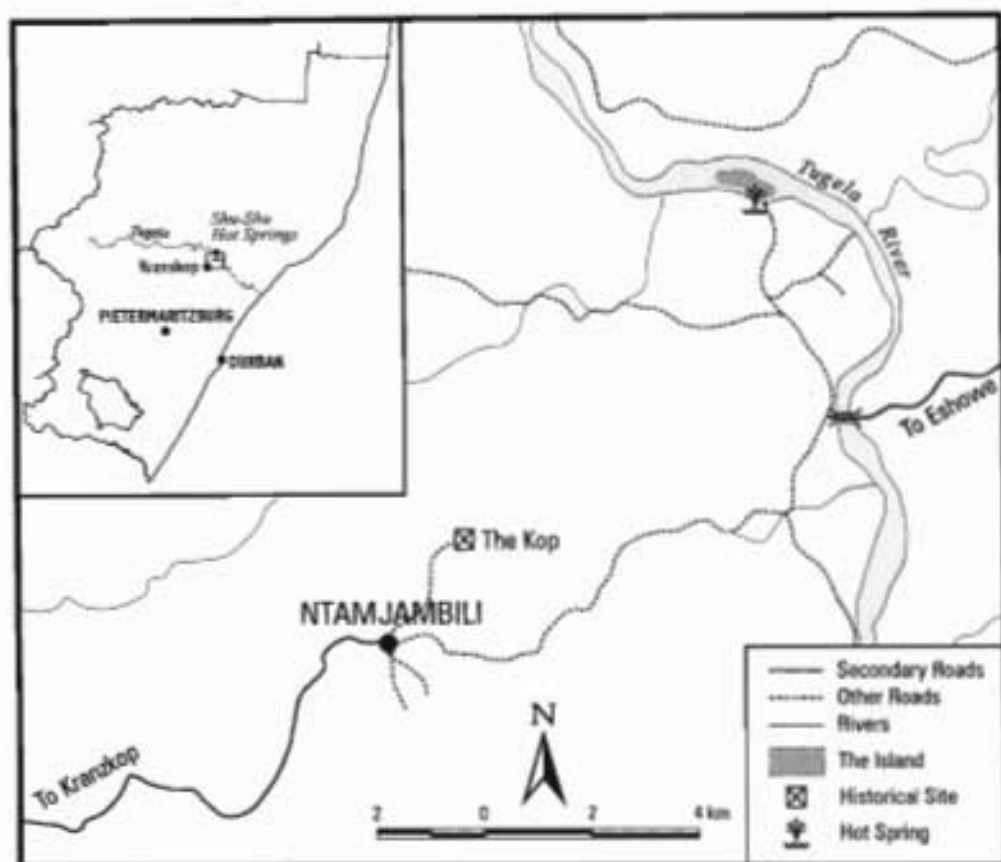
hot springs but they have been frequented annually by white families from Greytown and the surrounding Umvoti and Kranskop districts who have been visiting the hot springs for holidays since about 1880 (Buss, 1996).

In more recent history the Shu Shu Hot Springs Campers Association have leased the land and hot springs from the local tribe during the June/July school holidays, the period in which they frequent the hot springs. There are 50 camp sites on the island and 12 caravan sites on the southern bank of the river. The campers employ members of the tribe to prepare the camping sites and work for them during their stay (Buss, 1996).

The Shu Shu Hot Springs are located in a wide thornveld valley. Although the major river of KwaZulu-Natal, the Tugela, flows through this valley, it is nevertheless a dry and barren place. A major characteristic which anyone venturing into the valley will experience especially in the summer, is “the oven-like heat of the Thukela valley” (Bulpin, 1977:11). The locality is spectacular as the Shu Shu Hot Springs are located on the edge of an island in the Tugela River. Overlooking the Tugela River and the site where the Shu Shu hot springs are situated is the Krantz Kop. The majesty of this rock formation acts as a backdrop, as one looks up from the island. As one author wrote, “[one sees] the colossal valley of the river whose size and flood-power gave it the name of the Thukela (the startling one). In that hot wilderness, with its vast precipices and staggering views” (Bulpin, 1977:11) is located Shu Shu Hot Springs.

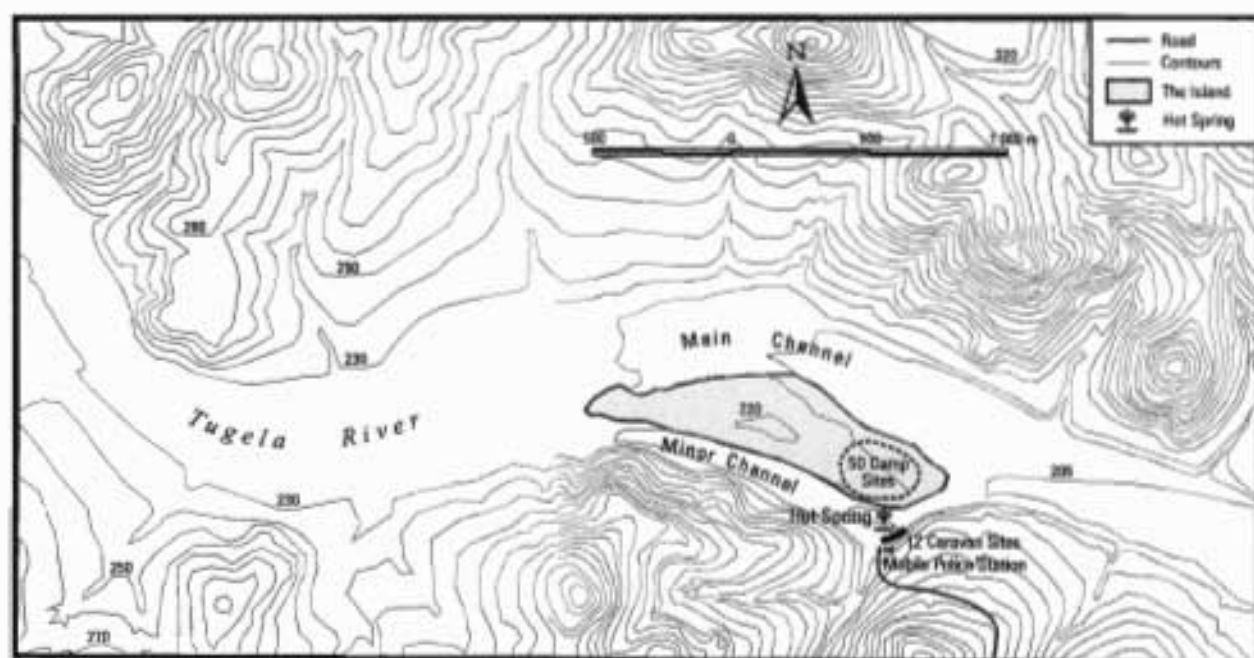
It is not only the valley which is barren, as there are no built facilities at the resort, but also it is the very absence of entertainment facilities that attract people to the hot springs. “Most visitors spend their time relaxing in the hot pools, swimming in the river, fishing and hiking, or simply doing nothing” (Boekstein, 1998: 27). The hot springs are not accessible when the river is in flood or if it has a lot of water in it as the springs are situated on the edge of an island in the Tugela River. Therefore, the time to visit the resort is in winter. There are 7 pools, one of which is scaldingly hot as it is where the main spring bubbles out of the ground.

As Shu Shu Hot Springs and Lilani Hot Springs are in a similar situation as both are not presently being used as resort destinations on a continuous basis and are presently being considered for redevelopment, similar conditions and considerations can apply to the viability of any proposed financial ventures to develop them as tourist destinations on a greater scale than the present situation. A feasibility study was undertaken by Totman *et al* (1998) to consider the possibility of a tourism development being built at



Source: Mander *et al*, 1997

Fig. 4.6 Map of the Locality of the Shu Shu Hot Springs



Source: Mander *et al*, 1997 and Buss, 1996

Fig. 4.7 A Detailed Map of the Shu Shu Hot Springs

Shu Shu. Two sites have been proposed for the location of a resort by Totman *et al* (1998), one in the middle of the island and on the northern side, and the other on the southern bank of the Tugela River, opposite the western end of the island (Fig. 4.7).

The types of visitors the proposed lodge and campsite could attract are backpackers, if a minibus service could be established from Durban youth hostels, small groups on team building exercises, to small conferences and specialist interest groups such as bird watchers as well as overseas tourists (Totman *et al*, 1998: 14). In whatever venture is undertaken at this site, Totman *et al* (1998: 24) say that there is a need to accommodate the Camping Association visitor group as the core user group to the Shu Shu hot springs as they are already a large group of people currently using the facility and their presence financially benefits the local community. Although the Campers Association only use the existing campsite and caravan facilities for one month a year, during the July school holidays, more than 500 people camp at Shu Shu during this period. Day visitors also use the hot springs during this period.

“The area represents an outstanding potential for tourism development, due to the wide range of opportunities which could be made available to visitors. For example, the site is located within reasonable travelling distance from the major historical sites in Zululand and northern KwaZulu-Natal and would be particularly suited as an overnight stop if marketed as part of a cultural and historical tourist route. The area is of special archaeological interest and the recently formulated proposals for a conservancy and museum is likely to make this an important, if not the only, site of this type. While the hot springs are a tourist venue in their own right, the setting in which they are located serves as an additional attraction. The area has abundant birdlife, ample fishing opportunities and the spectacular scenery provides an outstanding vista for walks and hikes. In addition, the interesting geology of the region and associated history of mining will provide further opportunities for recreation and education.”

Mander *et al*, 1997: 23

There have been a number of additional proposals to complement the development of the resort. There has, for example, been a proposal to establish a craft centre at Shu Shu but in the feasibility study it was considered that, though it would add to the development, the costs involved with its establishment and the question of whether the lodge would provide enough visitors to make it financially viable make this option questionable (Totman *et al*, 1998: 12). It was proposed that the craft centre be established as a separate project whose viability would be built around exporting these goods to a far wider tourist market. A game reserve has also been proposed but the cost involved with the establishment of a game

reserve would be prohibitive and its relevance in relation to the proposals for the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative (SDI) would have to be carefully considered. A possible suggested alternative is to establish a biosphere reserve as an independent community project (Totman *et al*, 1998: 12).

The three main environmental aspects which need to be taken into consideration when proposing the development of a resort at Shu Shu are the climate, hydrology and the hot springs themselves. The prevailing daytime temperatures in summer are very high in the Tugela Valley and will need to be borne in mind for the comfort of visitors to Shu Shu and proposed visitor activities (Totman *et al*, 1998: 16). The generally higher water levels in the river in the summer months and the substantial risk of flash flooding, poses a significant risk factor on any proposed use of the hot springs in the summer months and on gaining access to and from the island. Totman *et al* (1998: 16) say that the hot springs are characterised by being of a low flow volume nature. Any tapping of the springs for off-site usage would require further investigation to ensure the sustainability of such abstraction and the flow of the hot springs themselves. Though a tourism development is seen as potentially financially beneficial to the local tribal community who live in the valley, both the bio-physical and socio-economic environments will strongly influence whatever venture is considered practical.

From the findings of the report by Totman *et al* (1998: 24),

“The cost of establishing a lodge and camping facilities is not considered financially viable unless an aid donation or joint venture is secured. It should further be stressed that the establishment of a small tourist accommodation facility at KwaShuShu will only realise limited and localised economic benefits to the local community. As such it can not therefore be seen as a development panacea for the area.”

#### 4.5 LILANI HOT SPRINGS

The Lilani Hot Springs are located 18 km from Ahrens and 38 km from Greytown. (Fig. 4.8) Access to the valley is gained via Ahrens, which is a railway siding and the place of two trading stores and the remains of an old post office. It is located just off the Greytown-Kranskop-KwaDukuza (Stanger) main road (R74). From Ahrens, one travels towards Matimatolo and then along a 12 km windy road at a maximum speed of about 40 km for 10 of those kilometres. Even though the road has been much improved since 1996, access has always been one of the reasons which has caused the hot springs to remain relatively unknown.

The land on which the springs are situated, being Portion 15 of Umvoti Location No. 4667, is under the ownership of the Ingonyama Trust, and is part of the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority land. Ever since a resort was built on the site immediately around the hot springs in 1906 the land has been used in terms of a lease, and the current lease is valid until 2015. However, the present lease holders are willing to relinquish the lease to accommodate a new development if the community can secure a developer to establish a viable development on the site (Labuschagne, 1996).

There are two interpretations of the meaning of the name 'Lilani'. The one is that it is 'a place of sleeping or a place to rest' (Caruso, 1996). The valley is a very restful place, even today, and until the road was built into the valley it was a place cut off from easy access with the plateau. The second meaning is a 'place of sorrow' (Caruso, 1996) or 'a place of weeping or crying' (Labuschagne, 1996).

Lilani is the oldest developed spring in KwaZulu-Natal (Booyens, 1981: 95). The development of the springs occurred shortly after the Zulu rebellion in 1906, when a syndicate from Greytown acquired the right to develop two of the sources of the hot water (Booyens, 1981: 95). The first access road was built to the top of the northern escarpment at the present day Eshane and people descended on foot or were carried down by litter into the valley. Later a rough road was built to the springs resort. The springs in the Lilani valley have been visited by the sick and holiday makers over the years. At first it was known as a sanitarium and then it changed its focus and was developed as a health hydro and a popular holiday resort. Three separate features were developed at the resort: the "radium spa", the "sulfur spring/bath" and about 200 yards or paces eastwards, the "Zulu bath", which consisted of four units and was frequently visited by the Zulus. The Lilani springs were used especially to overcome rheumatism and nervous disorders (Booyens, 1981: 96).

Lilani Hot Springs are at present only frequented by the occasional day visitors and by the local people who live in the vicinity of the springs.

#### 4.6 SUMMARY

The geographical location of the four hot springs in KwaZulu-Natal promotes grouping them into two geographical areas of the province, Natal Spa and Thangami Safari Spa are in the northern KwaZulu-Natal area and Shu Shu Hot Springs and Lilani Hot Springs in the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands.

The Natal Spa and Thangami Safari Spa are located at a considerable distance from the main population of KwaZulu-Natal and therefore, as a tourist destination, they would need to be marketed in a different way to the Shu Shu Hot Springs and Lilani Hot Springs which are in relatively close proximity to both Durban and Pietermaritzburg, the largest urban areas in KwaZulu-Natal.

The strengths of Natal Spa and Thangami Safari Spa, are that they are both well developed and are going financial concerns. They are located relatively close to KwaZulu-Natal's game parks and to major roads which are and can be traversed by South African and international tourists and tour operators.

The Natal Spa could market itself as both a destination and as a stopover on the way to Gauteng and Mphumalanga. Thangami Safari Spa is both a destination on its own and is close to the large game parks in the province. Both these resorts have the potential to be an alternative day trip to visitors to the game parks who wish to relax and want a change of scenery. One major drawback is that the two northern KwaZulu-Natal hot springs do not have the ability to draw the crowds from the major urban areas of KwaZulu-Natal for day trips because of the distance to be travelled. However, they do have the ability to market themselves as a weekend getaway destination, and as an alternative to the Drakensberg resorts, as they are strategically located close to the game parks of KwaZulu-Natal and have something different to offer the local tourist.

Table 4.1: A Comparison of the Hot Springs of KwaZulu-Natal

<b>KwaZulu-Natal Hot Springs</b>	<b>Water temperature at source</b>	<b>Water temperature in warmest pool</b>	<b>State of development/ underdevelopment</b>	<b>Condition of access road</b>	<b>Distance to nearest town</b>
<b>Lilani</b>	39.6°C	38°C	no accommodation available. 3 formal swimming pools in disrepair, 3 pools made of natural materials	non-gravelled, narrow, winding, fair weather district road	38 km to Greytown
<b>Shu Shu</b>	52°C	40 - 42°C (depending on individual control of water flowing into pool)	12 caravan and 50 camping sites available in June/July, concrete pools in the riverbed are the only formal development	tarred then gravel district road	26 km to Kranskop
<b>Natal Spa</b>	42°C	40°C	three storey hotel, 3 chalets, caravan and camping sites. 9 swimming pools - varying temperatures	tarred district road	15 km to Paul-pietersburg
<b>Thangami Safari Spa</b>	41°C	36 - 38°C	10 chalets, 3 bed and breakfast units, 10 caravan and 5 camping sites	gravel district road	78 km to Vryheid



Lilani and Shu Shu, located within one and a half hours of both Durban and Pietermaritzburg, are in areas of great scenic beauty, but are not near any other major tourist attraction, nor are they located near roads traversed by the general tourist in KwaZulu-Natal. The comparative advantages for containing development costs which may have existed for Lilani over Shu Shu must have been reduced or totally removed since the building at Lilani was systematically demolished during a six week period in April and May 1998.

In comparing the two sites, the water at Shu Shu, below Kranskop, is much hotter than that of Lilani (a 12.4°C difference), and therefore lends itself to being piped more easily to a good location for pools as there would be less concern over the temperature dropping. There is also less pressure of people living around the hot springs at Kranskop. This could be attributed to the very barren and isolated location of the hot springs. The island in the Tugela River has lush natural vegetation, consisting of a riverine woodland component close to the river banks and a closed drier woodland on the central elevated part of the island, in contrast to the rest of the Tugela valley which consists of Valley Thicket. The hot springs at Lilani, in comparison, are located in a lush environment with many small streams feeding the Lilani River.

It is noted that the warmest of the three springs at the Natal Spa is located on the one bank of the Pivaan River and suffered the same problem, before it was developed, as the hot springs at Shu Shu, in that it was flooded by the river at times. Shu Shu is not unique in that respect in KwaZulu-Natal but the one disadvantage it has is that the strength of the Natal Spa spring is greater than the Shu Shu springs and therefore makes it harder for the Shu Shu spring water to be considered to be relocated via pipes to a more accessible site off the island. Also, the Tugela River is a very powerful river and any construction to convey the water off the island would need to be built to withstand the periodic floods.

The advantages for Lilani are that it is located in a tranquil environment in the valley and therefore experiences cooler temperatures. Shu Shu is exposed being situated in a hot wide open valley with no respite during the summer months. The vegetation is much more lush and green at Lilani, while, other than the island, the Tugela valley vegetation is dominated by thorn trees. Lilani is located closer to Pietermaritzburg and Durban, but it is possible for people to travel from Durban via KwaDukuza (Stanger) to Shu Shu which may nearly equalise the distances to the two hot springs.

Shu Shu has the possibility of attracting tour operators to use the Eshowe-Kranskop road as an 'out of Africa' alternative route to put them in a position of being seen as a resort and base to be used to explore

the environment of this out of the way, malaria free, natural place which has historic, cultural, environmental, geological and archaeological sites.

The two hot springs which are not on roads which could be said to be able to attract passing traffic are Lilani and Thangami. In this respect Lilani is better located than Thangami, even though both are off the main road, as it is closer to the Pietermaritzburg and Durban urban areas.

To survive, the northern KwaZulu-Natal resorts have had to diversify and add further recreational activities in order to attract additional guests and to keep them entertained. For Lilani to be as attractive to visitors as the other three hot springs in KwaZulu-Natal, it must have more to offer than just the hot springs.

Table 4.2 A Summary of Key Aspects Effecting the Hot Springs of KwaZulu-Natal

	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Natal Spa</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- well developed resort</li> <li>- weekend getaway destination</li> <li>- on main road</li> <li>- restaurant</li> <li>- sports facilities</li> <li>- large accommodation facilities</li> <li>- conference facilities</li> <li>- close to game parks and battlefields</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- considerable distance from main KwaZulu-Natal population</li> </ul>
<b>Thangami Safari Spa</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- well developed resort</li> <li>- weekend getaway destination</li> <li>- restaurant</li> <li>- sports facilities</li> <li>- accommodation facilities</li> <li>- small conference facilities</li> <li>- close to game parks and battlefields</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- considerable distance from main KwaZulu-Natal population</li> </ul>
<b>Shu Shu Hot Springs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- within 150km from Pietermaritzburg and Durban</li> <li>- day visitors / weekend getaway destination from main KwaZulu-Natal population</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- the Tugela River floods</li> <li>- very hot environment in the summer</li> <li>- not on a tourist route</li> <li>- no TV or cellphone reception</li> <li>- no electricity</li> <li>- not close to any other major tourism attraction</li> </ul>
<b>Lilani Hot Springs</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- within 150km from Pietermaritzburg and Durban</li> <li>- day visitors / weekend getaway destination from main KwaZulu-Natal population</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- inadequate access road</li> <li>- not on a tourist route</li> <li>- no TV or cellphone reception</li> <li>- no electricity</li> <li>- not close to any other major tourism attraction</li> </ul>

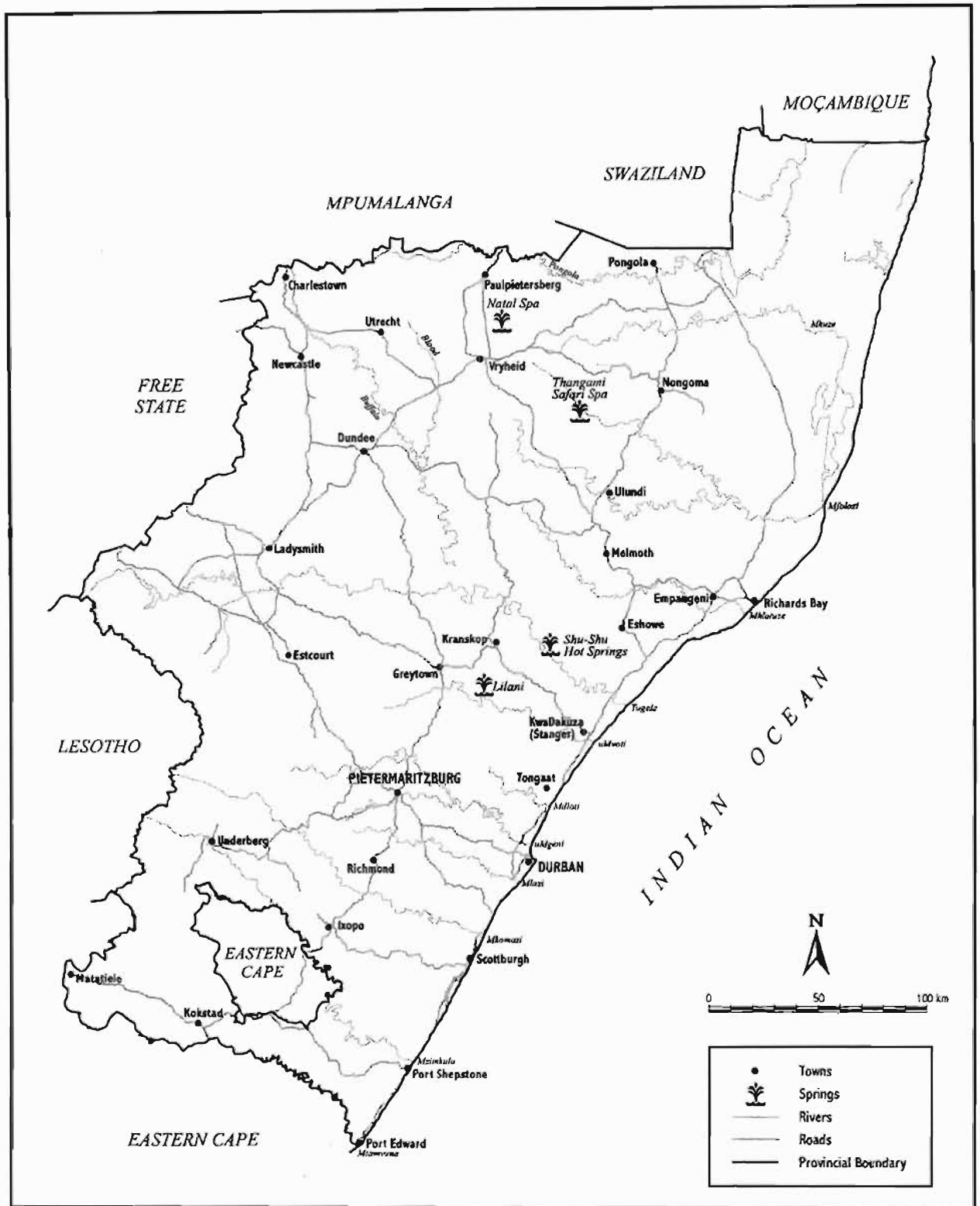


Fig. 4.8 Hot Springs in KwaZulu-Natal

Source: M Design

## CHAPTER FIVE

### LILANI HOT SPRINGS RESORT: A CASE STUDY

#### 5.1 AN HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LILANI HOT SPRINGS RESORT

##### 5.1.1 The Historical Context

An early located written mention of the Lilani hot springs is in a geography and history book for use in the schools of Natal during the latter years of the nineteenth century and early twentieth century, written by Robert Russell, the Superintendent of Education in the Colony of Natal from 1894 to 1903. He wrote,

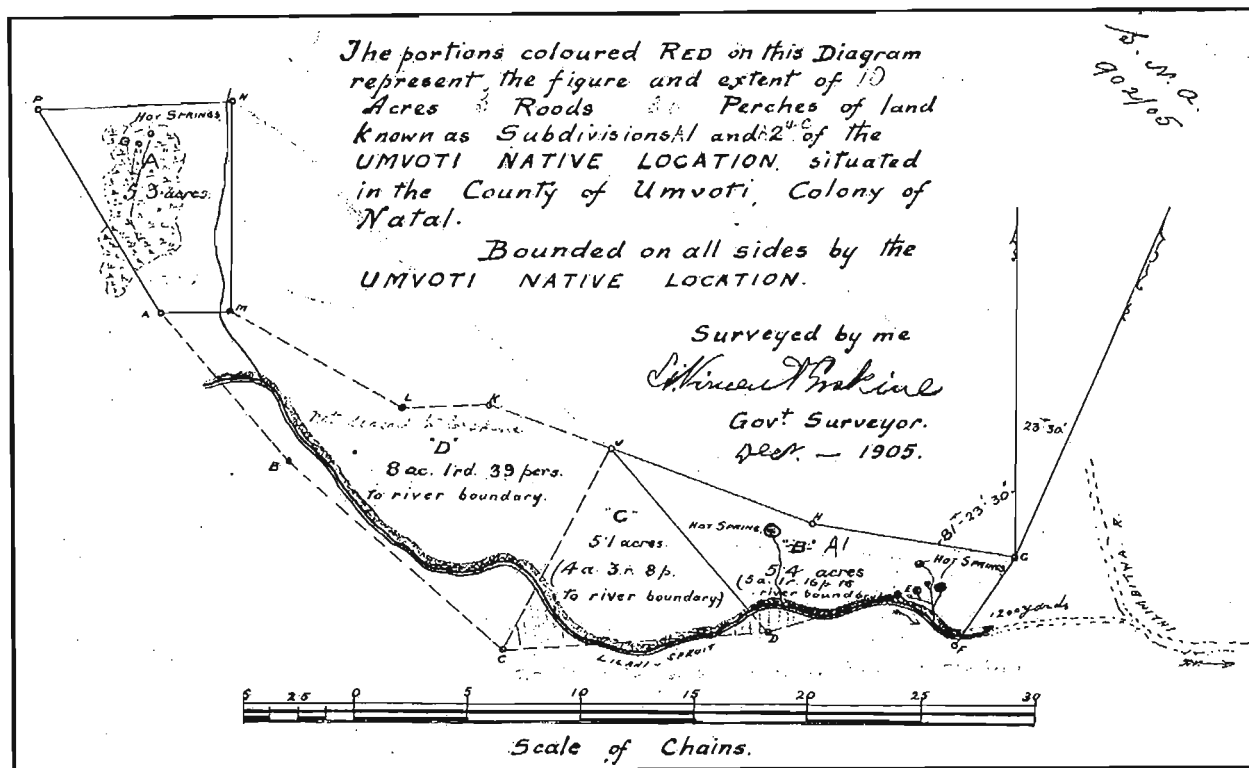
“Umvoti county, drained by the river of the same name, is the sheep-farming county of the Dutch, and has a soil and climate well adapted for tree cultivation. Gold is found in small quantities in the broken country near the Tugela. The Ehlanzeni and Kranskop districts are noted for their wild country. Hot springs, more or less sulphurous, are found in the northern parts of the county. One in the Tugela valley has a temperature of 128°[F]; another near the Ihlimbitwa [River, being Lilani] has a temperature of 101°[F].”

Russell, 1900: 47

Another account, found in the annals of the local newspaper, the Greytown Gazette, states that the “Tshutshu Hot Springs have been included in the quarantine area. Intending visitors to that place will find their way to the Ihlimbitwa Springs, a good substitute for the time being” (The Greytown Gazette, Saturday, May 28<sup>th</sup> 1904, page 6, col. 1). The quarantine was for an outbreak of small-pox. This account shows that even before the establishment of any formal agreement for the use of the hot springs at Lilani, people were trekking down to both the Shu Shu and Lilani hot springs.

In 1905, Mr St Vincent Erskine, on behalf of the Grand Lilani Hot Sulphur Springs Syndicate Ltd, leased 10 acres of land around the hot springs from the Natal Government for a period of 5 years at £25 per annum (Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository). The “syndicate was granted a lease of two of the warm springs and a narrow track was constructed around the nose of the Tshane ridge, dropping nearly 2000 feet in little more than a mile” (Gevers, 1963: 130). This brought change as to the way the hot springs had been used to date. In an article in the local newspaper it was announced that as of the 1st August 1906 a charge of 2 shillings per day was to be made for the use of the hot springs to non-

syndicate shareholders. This arrangement was said to be in place until hotel accommodation was provided (The Greytown Gazette, Saturday, August 4th, 1906, page 3, col. 1-2).



Source: Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository, File CNC 2962/1911

Fig. 5.1 Original Diagram of the Lease Area for Lilani Hot Springs

Three years later, in 1908, a new lease for 25 years was drawn up, increasing the land from 10 acres to 32 acres, in favour of the Hot Springs Syndicate, owned by Messrs Menne and Gibbs.

In 1910 a new partner was brought into the syndicate and the ownership was ceded to Messrs Menne, Matthews and Gibbs. This, subsequently, was sublet to Mrs Matthews for 10 years from April 1910 by the Hot Springs Syndicate. In 1914 the Hot Springs Syndicate went insolvent and the ownership of the lease passed to Mrs Matthews.

During this time facilities were being built down at the hot springs. The initial part of the hotel was built in 1906 which included accommodation for the proprietors. It would appear that Dr and Mrs Matthews were involved in the development of the hot springs from an early stage as in Mrs Matthews's obituary it states that the couple had been there for ten years, therefore since 1906 (The Greytown Gazette, Friday, February 18<sup>th</sup>, 1916). In 1908 the Natal Directory records that Dr JW Matthews was resident at the Hot Sulphur Springs (The Natal Directory, 1908: 755).

By 1911, the Lilani Hot Sulphur Springs, as it was known, already had a postal agency and was a sub-office under Greytown. At the hot springs there was “a noted Sanatorium, situated in a beautiful valley, through which the Lilani Stream winds its way to the Umvoti River” (The Natal Directory, 1911: 783). Dr J Wright Matthews, M.D., was the resident physician and Mrs LV Matthews was the manager of the Sanatorium (The Natal Directory, 1911: 783). The panoramic view of the surrounding mountain scenery was said to be truly magnificent, and the climate, one of the most equable in South Africa. Of the hot springs themselves it was said, “The wonderful powers of the hot mineral springs found here have long been known to the Dutch community in Natal, and an analysis proves that the waters in a great degree possess the same chemical constituents as those which make Harrogate and other spas of a similar character in Europe in so much request” (The Natal Directory, 1911: 783). Even at this time the anticipated extension of the railway line from Greytown to Kranskop was being spoken of, and Lilani would have a station within four miles (The Natal Directory, 1911: 783). This distance of 4 miles shows that the route being used at this time to access the hot springs was via the area where the present settlement of Eshane is situated and then descended down the escarpment (Fig. 5.2).



Source: Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository

Fig. 5.2 The first buildings at Lilani Hot Springs

The development of the hot springs from a rustic camping site to a sanatorium does not appear to have discouraged the long standing frequenters of the springs, as the Greytown Gazette records:

“Writing of the sulphur springs at Krantzkop and Hermannsburg, Natal, a correspondent in ‘South Africa’ says: It is a great pity that these valuable waters are not more generally known throughout Natal. These at Krantzkop, situated near Middle Drift, are of much

greater temperature than the Hermannsburg ones. Dutch families frequently visit these two spots, and spend several weeks at a time “taking the waters.”

The Greytown Gazette, Friday, March 24<sup>th</sup>, 1911, page 5, col. 2

Other accounts record the early use of the hot springs by the local Greytown residents. As recorded by a visitor to the Lilani Hot Springs,

“A large party comprising several families, left Greytown at the beginning of the month for the ever-famous Lilani Sulphur Hot Springs, which are under the able management of Dr and Mrs Matthews, who at all times show unstinted hospitality to visitors. On arrival at the Springs the party camped out in tents and at the present time the Springs present a gay appearance as a holiday resort with from 15 to 20 large tents erected around the place. The baths are very healthy and bathing commences as early as 4.30 in the morning and is indulged in till ten and eleven o’clock in the evening. The scenery surrounding the Springs is beautiful and many pleasant hours are spent in visiting the kloofs connected with these Springs, which are situated about 22 miles from Greytown.

The patent oven, dug out in a large donga, in which bread is baked comes in for a great amount of attraction and the bread produced from this oven is both delicious and wholesome. In the evenings Dr Matthews entertains the visitors with magic lantern lectures, which are greatly appreciated, and on the Sundays Church Services and Sacred Concerts are held.

The party are having a most enjoyable time at these Springs and are expected to return to Greytown early next week.”

The Greytown Gazette, Friday, July 26<sup>th</sup>, 1912, page 4, col. 5

Another visitor to the hot springs complained about the road, saying “What is urgently needed is the construction of a road which, when completed, would render the place more easy to access. It is little short of scandalous that all these years have gone by without Government even taking the trouble to enquire into its necessity, let alone the construction of it” (The Greytown Gazette, Friday, October 18<sup>th</sup>, 1912, page 5, col. 1-2).

An interesting advertisement appeared in the Greytown Gazette in 1916 concerning Lilani Hot Springs, showing that it was a well established resort (Fig. 5.3).

**Where to Gain Health!**

SPEND YOUR NEXT HOLIDAY AT

**The Lilani Hot Sulphur  
Springs, Greytown.**

These waters possess marvellous curative properties  
and are especially recommended for cases of

**RHEUMATISM, SCIATICA, ECZEMA,  
GOUT AND CUTANEOUS DISEASES.**

The Sanatorium and Springs are situated in a  
beautiful valley, about 18 miles from Greytown, and  
anyone wishing a quiet change and rest could not  
visit a better place.

**CUISINE IS EXCELLENT.**

For terms and full particulars apply to the Manager,  
Lilani Post Office, via Greytown, Natal.

Source: The Greytown Gazette, Friday, September 8<sup>th</sup>, 1916, page 1, col. 3-4

Fig. 5.3 Newspaper Advertisement for Lilani, 1916

In 1916, the main driving forces behind the successful sanatorium at Lilani, at that time, died. First, Mrs Lucy Virginia Matthews (1849-1916) died in Durban at Dr McCord's Nursing Home on 12 February, 1916. In her obituary, it was said of Mrs Matthews, that "she was the fifth daughter of the late Daniel Lindley, D.D., an American Missionary, who did much useful work at Inanda. Mrs Matthews inherited the love of mission work and her endeavours on behalf of the natives will be a cherished memory for long to come" (The Greytown Gazette, Friday, February 18<sup>th</sup>, 1916). Though the work she did for the African people of the Lilani valley is not recorded, she must have been one of the first, with her husband, to have had a long interaction with the local people living in this isolated valley.

Dr Josiah Wright Matthews, M.D. (1839-1916), died at Greytown Commercial Hotel, Greytown, Umvoti District, on 8<sup>th</sup> December 1916 (MSCE 954/1916). "To the people of the district he was known mainly as a man of forceful character and as one who occasionally acted as *locum tenens* for Dr Proksch" (The Greytown Gazette, Friday, December 15<sup>th</sup>, 1916), the local Greytown doctor. Prior to coming to Lilani, he had lived in Kimberley and had been "vice-president of the Legislative Council of Griqualand West, and senior member of Kimberley when Griqualand West was annexed by the Cape" (The Greytown Gazette, Friday, December 15<sup>th</sup>, 1916).



When Mrs Matthews died in 1916, the lease of Lilani Hot Sulphur Springs was valued at £200.00 and the furniture was valued at £100.00, as stated in the winding up of her estate (MSCE 187/1916). This value must have included the buildings on the site. The lease was transferred to her son, Mr EL Matthews, in January 1917 (Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository). Mr EL Matthews took over the running of the sanatorium after his mother died and a lady manager, Mrs M Menzies, was appointed (The Natal Directory, 1917: 260). Then in July 1917 the lease of 32 acres was transferred from Mr EL Matthews to Mr Comins (Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository).

Little is known of what transpired at Lilani from 1917 to the 1920's. By 1926 Mr CM Blaine was the proprietor of the Lilani Hot Springs Sanatorium with Mr HC Wessels as the caretaker (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1926: 1175). During Mr Blaine's proprietorship the numbers of people resident at the sanatorium grew and included a number of his family members. Mr Blaine and Mr Surendorff, the neighbouring farmer, built the currently existing road to Lilani. They each started at their own ends of the road and met in the middle (Labuschagne, 1996). By 1940 the establishment was being styled as the Lilani Hot Springs Health Institute (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1940: 1534).

<p>Telegraphic Address— "BLAINE," Ahrens.</p> <p><b>LILANI SANATORIUM</b> AND <b>Hot Sulphur</b> <b>Mineral Springs</b></p> <p>⊙</p> <p><b>P.O. AHRENS</b> (NEAR GREYTOWN.)</p> <hr/> <p>Proprietors : Mr. and Mrs. C. M. BLAINE, (Late of the Boreas Health Institute, DURBAN.)</p>	<p><b>THIS</b> Sanatorium is situated amongst beautiful Mountain Scenery with its Hot Sulphur Mineral Springs.</p> <p>These waters are Radio Active and their wonderful Healing Powers have an almost immediate benefit upon such diseases as Rheumatism, Neuritis, Eczema, Constipation, Liver Complaints, Sciatica, etc., etc., and all Chronic Ailments.</p> <hr/> <p><b>TERMS MODERATE.</b></p> <hr/> <p>Patients met at Greytown by appointment.</p>	<p>OPEN AIR HOT MINERAL SULPHUR SWIMMING POOL.</p> <p>PRIVATE BATHS.</p> <p>MASSAGE.</p> <p>HOT MINERAL MUD BATHS.</p> <p>MINERAL PACKS.</p> <p>SALT GLOWS.</p> <p>SUN BATHS.</p> <p>CAREFUL DIETARY.</p> <p>IDEAL HOME FOR CONVALESCENT PATIENTS.</p> <p>EVERY MODERN COMFORT.</p> <p>ELECTRIC LIGHT.</p> <p>SEWERAGE.</p>
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Source: Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository, File CNC 2962/1911

Fig. 5.4 A Card Advertising Lilani during the Time of Mr Blaine

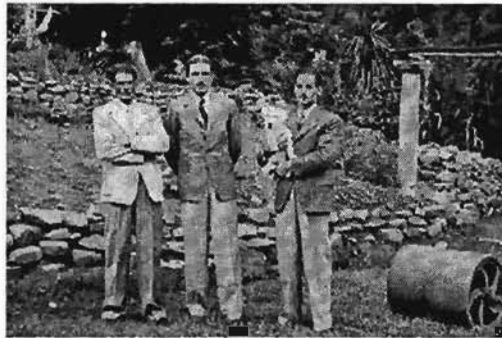
Somewhere between 1942 and 1946 the ownership of the sanatorium changed hands and Mr and Mrs LB Hobbs and Mr WA Sayer became the new proprietors of the Lilani Hydro (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1946: 1504). Mr Sayer's active involvement did not last long and he moved Durban and became the Superintendent Chemical Section of the Durban Corporation (MSCE 3865/1968).



Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown

Fig. 5.5          Guests at the Lilani Hydro, with Mr Caruso Serving

Under the new management of Mr and Mrs Hobbs the character of the place began to change as did the name, which became the Lilani Hydro Mineral Hot Sulphur Springs, Holiday and Health Resort (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1947: 1574). The emphasis moved from being purely a health resort for sick people to a holiday resort where people could come and benefit from the mineral waters. It was at this stage that a general dealers' trading store was opened by Mr and Mrs Hobbs (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1947: 1574). The trading store, also used as a post office, helped to generate more revenue which was plowed back into the resort enabling it to become a viable concern (Caruso, 1996).

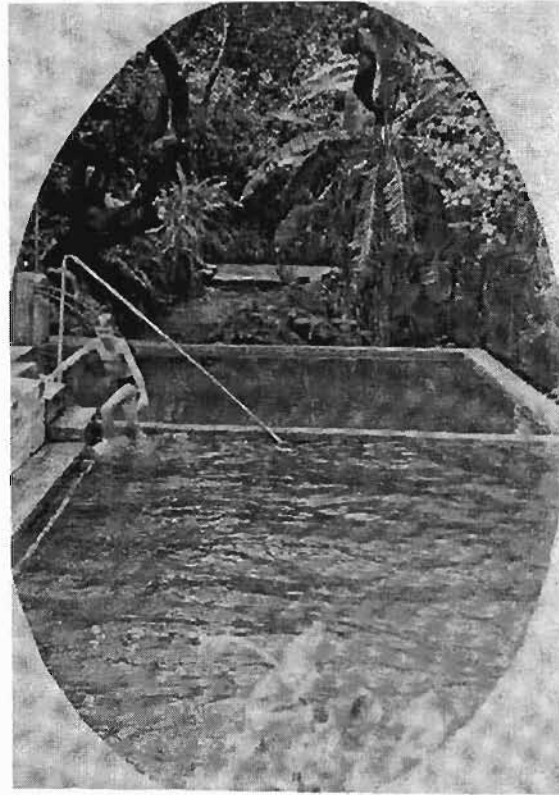


Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown

Fig. 5.6          The Three Italian POW's, Mario, Inchenso and Frank Caruso

During the Second World War, many Italian Prisoners of War (POW's) were brought to South Africa and one of the large POW camps was located in Pietermaritzburg. The Italian POW's were allowed to work on farms in the Natal Midlands area and were responsible for the construction of many fine buildings and gardens in Pietermaritzburg and in the Natal Midlands. Mr and Mrs Hobbs went to the Italian POW camp in Pietermaritzburg and chose three prisoners to go and work at the Lilani Hot Springs. The three men were Frank Caruso, Mario and Inchenso (Fig. 5.6). The men went to Lilani

from March 1945 until 1948 where they worked on the buildings, terraced the gardens, and generally helped with the running of the Hydro resort. They worked for a shilling a day. The war ended for the POW's in 1948 and Frank Caruso applied to remain in South Africa and was accepted. Mr and Mrs Hobbs and Mr Sayer offered him a partnership in the resort which he accepted on the condition that he was given a trip home to Italy the following year. This condition was granted (Caruso, 1996).



Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown

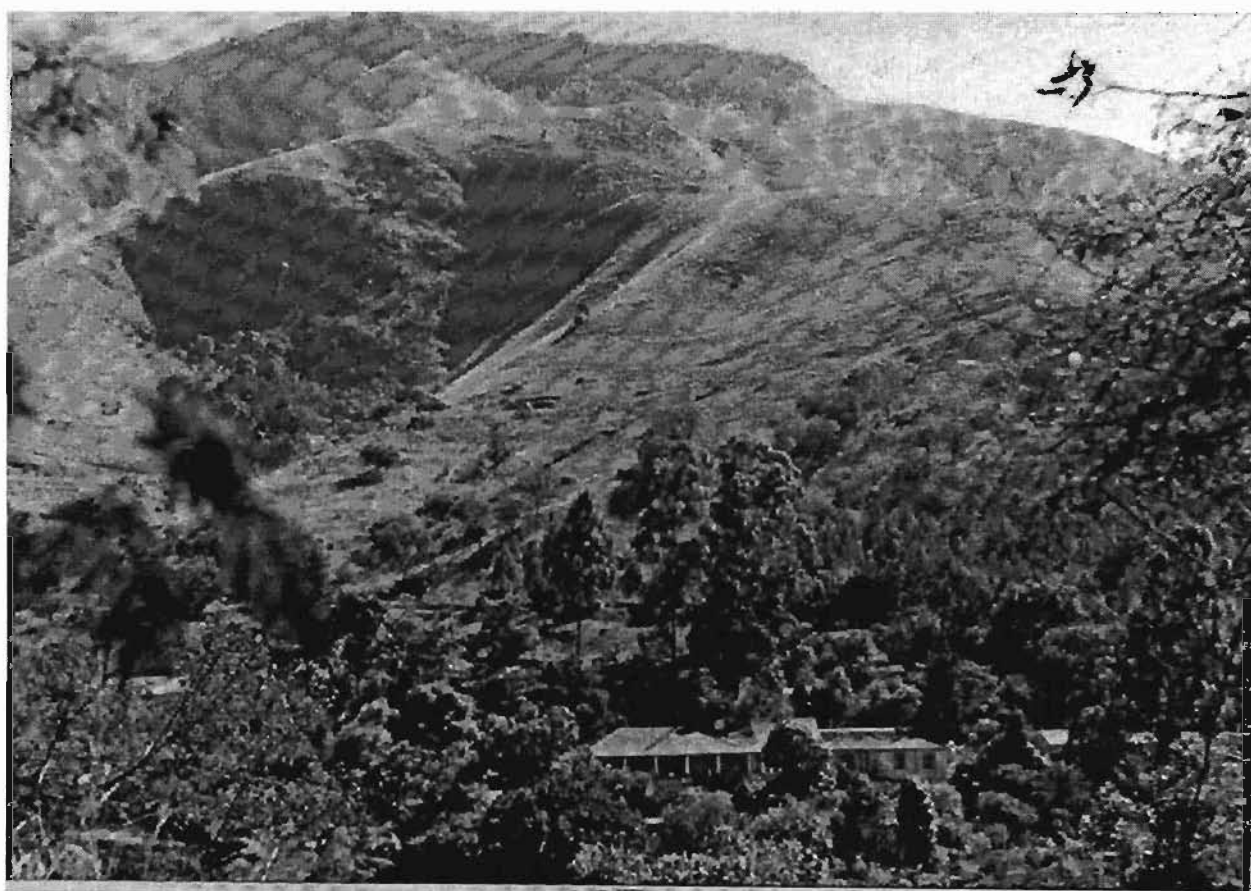
Fig. 5.7 The Lilani Hydro Resort's Main Pools

Magnificent gardens were established at the Hydro during this time, making the environment very appealing as a tourist destination. A bowling green and tennis court were also developed. Flowers and vegetables were grown in the garden, and cows and pigs were also kept for domestic consumption. The place was almost self sufficient. The Lilani Hydro employed 20 to 30 local people at the time (Caruso, 1996). Mr LB Hobbs left his wife in about 1950 and thus the Lilani Hydro resort, leaving Mrs HS Hobbs and Mr Caruso to continue running the resort (Caruso, 1996).

The biggest problem in the running of the resort was the maintenance of the road. Mr Caruso had the support of the local people in this task. To give an indication of the state of the road, it was so bad that some of the guests did not want to drive from Ahrens and Mr Caruso would have to go to Ahrens and fetch them. Some even wanted to be blind-folded when driving along the road, but this did not deter

people from returning year after year. During the peak season, at Christmas, New Year and Easter time, there was never enough accommodation. The main clientele who enjoyed the resort were Germans and Jews, and Sol Kersner spent his honeymoon with his first wife at Lilani Hot Springs (Caruso, 1996).

Professor Gevers of Witwatersrand University used to bring down a student with him for 2 to 3 weeks at a time each year over a period of many years in the 1950's and 1960's. He was a geologist and an authority on the hot springs in South Africa and rated the Lilani spring water as the best in the country (Caruso, 1996). Gevers said "Lilani is the most beautiful of all spas in Southern Africa. Steep and fluted ridges lead up to precipitous kranztes of russet-tinted Table Mountain Sandstone, towering some 2000 feet above the narrow valley floor" (Gevers, 1963: 130).



Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown

Fig. 5.8 The Lilani Hot Springs Resort with the Tshane Ridge in the Background

Once the long lease came to an end in the early 1960's, the Central Government leased the property to Mrs Hobbs and Mr Caruso on a yearly basis. They tried to convince the government to extend this to a 25 year lease agreement but were unsuccessful. They even petitioned the Prime Minister of the time, Mr HF Verwoerd, to give them a longer lease. As they were unsuccessful, they decided it was not

viable to continue investing in the resort without any security of tenure, and closed down the resort in 1966 (Caruso, 1996).

In approximately May 1966 the Government paid out Mrs Hobbs and Mr Caruso the sum of R43 999.00 for the property improvements at Lilani. There had been three valuations done, one as high as R74 000.00, but it was felt that if they fought with the government they might not get anything, and so they accepted the sum offered (Caruso, 1996).

This occurred during the height of the apartheid era when the government wished to create separate development for the various race groups. One aspect of separate development included separate tourism development for the various race groups. This was the motivating factor behind the reluctance to grant a long lease and led ultimately to the termination of the lease agreement.

The idea of expropriating the resort from Mrs Hobbs and Mr Caruso was in order to establish an African tourism resort at the Lilani hot springs (Caruso, 1996). This idea was similar to that of creating the seaside resort at uMgababa (Mnini), situated between Clansthal and Umkomaas, on the KwaZulu-Natal south coast. Nothing came of the Lilani idea, and in 1971 there was already consideration being expressed by the Bantu Administration and Development officials to let the Hotel buildings to a private individual. By 1972, as reported in a letter from the Superintendent of Works, the buildings were becoming completely neglected (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)24). The main concern was that money was being spent on the buildings and then the buildings were just standing empty (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)24). Mr Caruso (1996) said people from the Bantu Administration came to visit him in the 1970's to try and persuade him to reopen the resort. He declined.

In 1979 when Farrell and van Riet undertook a report on the future of the Lilani resort, most of the buildings, though in need of repair, were considered to be structurally sound. The main building was said to have "in general a very interesting atmosphere and architecture and could, in a certain type of development, be restored to serve a useful purpose" (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 7).

Mr BGH Surendorff, a neighbouring farmer to the tribal authority area on which Lilani hot springs are located, battled for 5 years, between 1979 and 1984, to obtain a Permission To Occupy (PTO) for Lilani. He even went to parliament over the issue. The opinion at the time was that only black people should use the resort. However, in 1984 Mr Surendorff was eventually successful in gaining a PTO for the site, the extent of which is approximately 12,7359ha and includes all the buildings at the Hot Springs. The

said PTO expires on 30th September 2014. After all his hard work, Mr Surendorff never lived to see his dream of re-establishing Lilani hot springs as a resort because he died on 15<sup>th</sup> June 1985 (Labuschagne, 1996).

Mrs LIA Labuschagne and Mrs Keightley inherited the PTO for Lilani Hot Springs from their father, Mr BGH Surendorff (PTO Endorsement Ref. T8/4/9/2/G36/1, 1985). Mrs Keightley relinquished her share to her sister. The resort was cleaned up and run by Mr and Mrs Labuschagne, who employed people to manage it on their behalf. One of the regular chores at the resort was to drain the water out of the pools and wash them. This was undertaken on a Monday, after a busy weekend and allowed the pools time to refill for the next group of guests (Labuschagne, 1996).

Some of the problems experienced by the Labuschagnes concerned the road and the fresh water pipeline. The road was maintained by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Transport. However, in the floods which hit KwaZulu-Natal in 1987, the road was washed away. The store keeper and Mr Labuschagne employed men and women to rebuild the road. A cement drift was built at the head of the valley as 4 or 5 drifts made of rocks had also previously been washed away (Labuschagne, 1996). The cement drift is still currently used in 2000.

The Lilani resort obtained its water via a 3 km pipe line from a spring located to the north-west of the old hotel. The water pipe was repeatedly stolen so the water pipe was re-routed via Chief Sithole's house, to provide water to his household as well as to the resort. This put an end to the pipe being stolen (Labuschagne, 1996). The presently disused rectangular reservoir is approximately 20 metres up the hill and to the north of the old hotel.

In 1992, the KwaZulu Finance Corporation became involved in Lilani with the intention of assisting the local tribal authority to redevelop the hot springs resort. An employee, Mr JI van der Westhuizen, undertook an inspection of the site. In his report he noted that there were three people employed by the owners, Mr and Mrs Labuschagne, a security guard, Mr Mthembu, and two women for cleaning. The security guard was paid R80.00 per month and the two cleaning ladies R70.00 per month each (KFC file, 1996). According to Mr Mthembu, an average of 20 guests a month during 1992 visited the old resort and paid a fee of R5.00 per person for overnight accommodation, providing their own meals, and R1.00 per person for day visitors (KFC file, 1996). At this occupancy rate the owners were not making a profit as the income being generated, according to these figures, was not even covering the wages being paid, let alone the maintenance of the buildings, road, pools and cleaning materials.

Since 1995 the old resort has been abandoned. Material, such as window frames, were slowly removed from the buildings and then over a six week period, in April and May 1998, the buildings were systematically destroyed. People removed the ceilings, roof trusses and roof sheeting, leaving the earth bricks unprotected from the elements. The rain penetrated in between the plastered walls and caused the earth bricks to swell, cracking the plaster and the walls quickly deteriorated within six months of the roof being removed. The reasons given for the removal of the material from the buildings was that the material would be sold in order to raise money for a community project. When asked months later what had happened to the material, it was said to have been stolen.



Fig. 5.9 The Abandoned Lilani Hotel in 1996

Buildings which were used for community functions and which could have been renovated and used as the beginnings of a revitalised resort fell into disrepair instead of being revamped by a community which did not understand the value of the asset they had on their doorstep. Slowly, because of a lack of maintenance, the pools have deteriorated to such an extent that only one of the three main pools holds water. The remaining functioning pool and the other rudimentary built pools are now only used for bathing and washing clothes. There is now nothing left of the old hot springs resort to attract visitors to venture down into the valley.

## 5.1.2 Socio-Economic Spin-offs from the Old Hot Springs Resort

The facilities at the old Lilani Hot Springs Resort catered for Europeans but there were positive spin-offs which were to the benefit of the local African people living in the Lilani Valley and surrounding area, including a post office, trading store, bus service and improved road access, besides employment at the resort.

### 5.1.2.1 Post Office

A post office was established at the resort complex and the Natal Almanac and its successor the Braby's Natal Directory record this being in existence from as early as 1917 to after 1960 (Natal Directory and the Braby's Natal Directory). This facility must have been used by those literate local African people as well as the guests and staff of the resort, for it is unlikely a post office would have been warranted for the resort alone as another post office was located only 17km away, by road, at Ahrens. The postal service at Ahrens, located on the railway line from Greytown to Kranskop, was the logical place for the delivery of mail for the surrounding communities but was also closed in the 1980's. The nearest post box container facility to Lilani is now located at Eshane, which is a settlement situated on top of the northern escarpment and part of the Sithole-Mthembu tribal area, 2 kilometres away.

### 5.1.2.2 Trading Store

There was a trading store situated at Matimatolo, a 4.8 kilometre walk over the southern escarpment of the Lilani valley, as early as 1919, when it was run by a Mr HJ Blumenfeld (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1919: 1203). This store served the people living on top of the escarpment but the nearest post office for the storekeeper, in 1919, was at the Lilani postal agency. This shows that there must have been a lot of contact between the two places, with the local police station also situated at Matimatolo.

No mention is made of a trading store in the valley during the time Mr CM Blaine was the proprietor at the Lilani Hot Springs Health Institute, but during the time Mr and Mrs Hobbs ran the Lilani Health Hydro, a general dealers store, known as the Lilani Trading Store, was established and was in operation as early as 1947 (The Braby's Natal Directory, 1947: 1574). This trading store was opened on the site to help generate more revenue which in turn was plowed back into the resort. This made it possible to build up the resort into a viable concern (Caruso, 1996).

When the resort was closed in 1966 it appears that the trading store did continue operating, but probably under new management, from what can be deduced by the correspondence between government



officials in the early 1970's. In a letter, dated 30 January 1970, from the Bantu Affairs Commissioner in Greytown, concern was raised about the shop which the Bantu Finance Corporation was considering closing if it continued to be run on a lease. The shop was said to serve "a good purpose and provides the people living in the area with living essentials and a post office runs from the shop" (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)13). Also a note written on the letter said the store "can be used for one or another uses but feels the shop needs to be more profitable" (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)13).

Mr PF Ndlovu took over the shop on 12 February 1970 and was required to pay rent from 1 March 1970. A monthly rental payment, in advance, of 7½ % per year of the value of the buildings was to be paid. The establishment which he rented consisted of 3 rondavels which he used as living quarters, a shop and 2 store rooms. In a letter dated 12/02/1970 the buildings were valued at a total of R3 380.00. In a breakdown of that amount, the 3 rondavels were valued at R670.00, the small house at R770.00, the store rooms at R380.00 and the shop building at R1 560.00 (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)13).

A letter, dated 26/07/1971, was written concerning the outstanding rent due from Mr PF Ndlovu for his use of the shop and associated buildings. The rent at 7½% of the value of the shop and associated buildings was R253.50 per year in 1970. The rent owing for 1/3/70 to 28/2/71 was R253.50 and for March 1971 to May 1971 was R63.36. Also after 15 months of occupation the property had not been marked out and enclosed by a fence as initially agreed upon, but it was still being promised to be done "one of these days" by Mr Ndlovu. The government had the buildings insured by SANTAM (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)13).

In 1970 Mr Petrus Fana Ndlovu applied for a General Dealer site at Lilani, Umvoti District, in extent ¼ morgen (2141m<sup>2</sup>) of land. The nearest store to the Lilani store was said to be 3 miles (4.828 kilometres) away, on the top of the southern ridge, known as the Amatimotolo store. The Lilani store site was an old established site and authority for its first occupation had been applied for to the Bantu Affairs Commissioner in Greytown at a much earlier date. The new application was dated 11 September 1970. Permission was granted in 1971 and a Deed of Cession was issued on 18 August 1971. In February 1972 Mr PF Ndlovu was appointed as a postal agent for the Lilani area. (KwaZulu Archives, Ulundi, file N2/4/3(11)13).

The trading store changed hands and a Mr Mbambo took over the running of it. On his death one of his sons took over the store. Information from the present owner of the PTO for the resort is that Mr Mbambo senior was very keen to purchase the PTO for the resort. He said he had a PTO on the area on which the trading store is situated, but when asked to prove it, he never did. It would appear he only had a trading licence as the trading store is on the Lilani PTO land (Labuschagne, 1996). This fact could be a course for future disagreements with the present owner of the trading store and a future development on the site.

The trading store has changed hands again and is presently run by Mr Shelembe (Quabe, 2000). It is still the only store in the valley and stocks the basic essentials and a few luxuries like cool drinks and sweets. The store has declined under its present management and no longer carries the amount of stock it used to (Quabe, 2000). The reason for this must be attributed to the local residents having improved vehicular access out of the valley to the neighbouring towns.

### 5.1.2.3 Bus Service

During the 1950's and early 1960's there was a bus service run by the proprietor of the hotel which provided transport for the local people and also served as a means of receiving the mail and other supplies for the hotel on a daily basis (Caruso, 1997). The end of this service must have been a great loss to the local community. In recent years a few minibus taxis venture down the road but the people are aware that if the road were not a cul-de-sac, it would see much more traffic travelling along the road and therefore it would make the outside world more accessible to the residents of Lilani Valley (Mukakwa, 1998). There are two possible routes to make this road a through route and the first option would be to join up with the road on the eastern side of the Hlimbitwa River which would require major bridge and road construction. The second option would be to construct an all weather road up the northern escarpment to Eshane.



Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown.

Fig. 5.10 The Bus used in the Lilani Valley

#### 5.1.2.4 Police Station

A police station, though not a spin-off of the resort, was located at Matimatolo, within walking distance of the old resort in the valley and situated on top of the southern escarpment. This was in existence during the time Dr and Mrs Matthews (1906-1916) ran their health spa and is still located there today.



Photograph courtesy of the Greytown Historical Museum.

Fig. 5.11 Mrs Nicholson being carried down by Litter into the Lilani Valley

#### 5.1.2.5 Road Access

Road access into the valley has always played a key role in the success of any commercial activity at the Lilani Hot Springs. There have, over the years, been three ways of getting to the hot springs. The first access point to the resort was via the northern escarpment, where the road through to Eshane is presently situated. A track descended the escarpment and people were either walked, carried by litter or went down by donkey. At one stage a road was built down this escarpment but because of the steepness of the gradient it was never a feasible route and fell into disrepair. It was still very evident in a late 1950's areal photo and remains of it are still present in 2000. In 1998 this route was upgraded by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Public Works by grading the soil but the installing of culverts was never completed and thus the road deteriorated rapidly when the first rains occurred. Even when the road was first upgraded it proved to be too steep for vehicles to climb out of the valley and was only used by a few vehicles to descend into the valley. It cut off about 20 minutes of travelling time to enter via this route but within six months it was back to being used only by pedestrians. This road was neither completed, nor was it built to the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Transport's specifications and was never taken over by them for maintenance purposes as a district road. This route is a future possible option but would require a substantial amount of investment to upgrade it to an all weather road. The present disused and unmaintained road is a potential environmental disaster and will require rehabilitation to prevent further erosion.

A second early route was a pedestrian track to the police station at Matimatolo, on the southern escarpment of the valley, approximately 4.8 km (3 miles) from the resort. A portion of this route was upgraded to a road during the time of the asbestos mine's operations but since the mine's demise has fallen into disrepair and has reverted back to being used only by pedestrians accessing their homes or on journeys to Matimatolo on foot (Fig. 5.16).

The third route was built in the 1920's and early 1930's (Caruso, 1997). It was a long and difficult task to construct this road as it had to be cut out of the rock by blasting (Fig. 5.16). This opened up the valley for the first time to vehicular traffic but the road was very narrow and extremely winding and proved to be very difficult to drive along as it took a lot of manoeuvring especially for the large vehicles of the 1940's and 1950's (Nel and Wessels, 1998). This road, the only feasible vehicular access route into the valley at present, is a district road and is maintained by the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Transport. It is an unsurfaced, graded, one laned, road which can become muddy in times of rain and could be classed as a fair weather road. This road, in recent years, has been considerably upgraded, improving some of the bends, building culverts and concrete-based fords over the streams. This has dramatically improved access into the valley as far as the hot springs, but it still takes 20 to 30 minutes to travel the 10 kilometres of winding road. Driving along this road reveals the scenic beauty of the Lilani Valley and at the same time the extensive erosion occurring which the valley is subjected to.

#### **5.1.2.6 New Uses at the Old Hotel Site**

The traffic turning circle and the actual old hotel site at the hot springs have had various uses over the years by the local community. The old hotel building was used for community meetings but since it was pulled down by the community they have not had that facility at their disposal.

The site of the old hotel, since its demise, continues to be a draw card for the community as it is the farthest point vehicles can travel into the valley. A clinic was built beside the road, approximately 100 metres before the resort, and a full time nurse, paid by the government, was stationed there (Caruso, 1996). That has closed down and now the community is served by a mobile clinic which operates once every two weeks, on a Monday, in the turning circle. The turning circle is also used as the pension payout point and thus at least five days a month is a meeting point for members of the community. The location of the only store in the valley at the old hotel site and a primary and high school within 500 metres all adds to the nodal importance of this site to the community.

### 5.1.2.7 Summary

The redevelopment of the Lilani spa resort would see the definite improvement and reintroduction into the valley of some of these amenities and infrastructure which would benefit those people living in the valley. It is a surety that whatever is developed in the valley the road will need to be vastly improved, even from its present state, to attract the number of visitors to make the resort viable. If the foreign tourism market is to be attracted to the resort the road will need to be accessible for large luxury coaches. Modern forms of transport and consequently the relative ease of movement of people will bring changes to the lives of the people in the valley. The bad road access has been the main constraint which has caused this valley to be left relatively cut off from the outside world and will remain the main constraint on implementing any development proposal).



Photograph courtesy of Mr Frank Caruso, of Greytown.

Fig. 5.12 A Scene of the Old Lilani Hotel

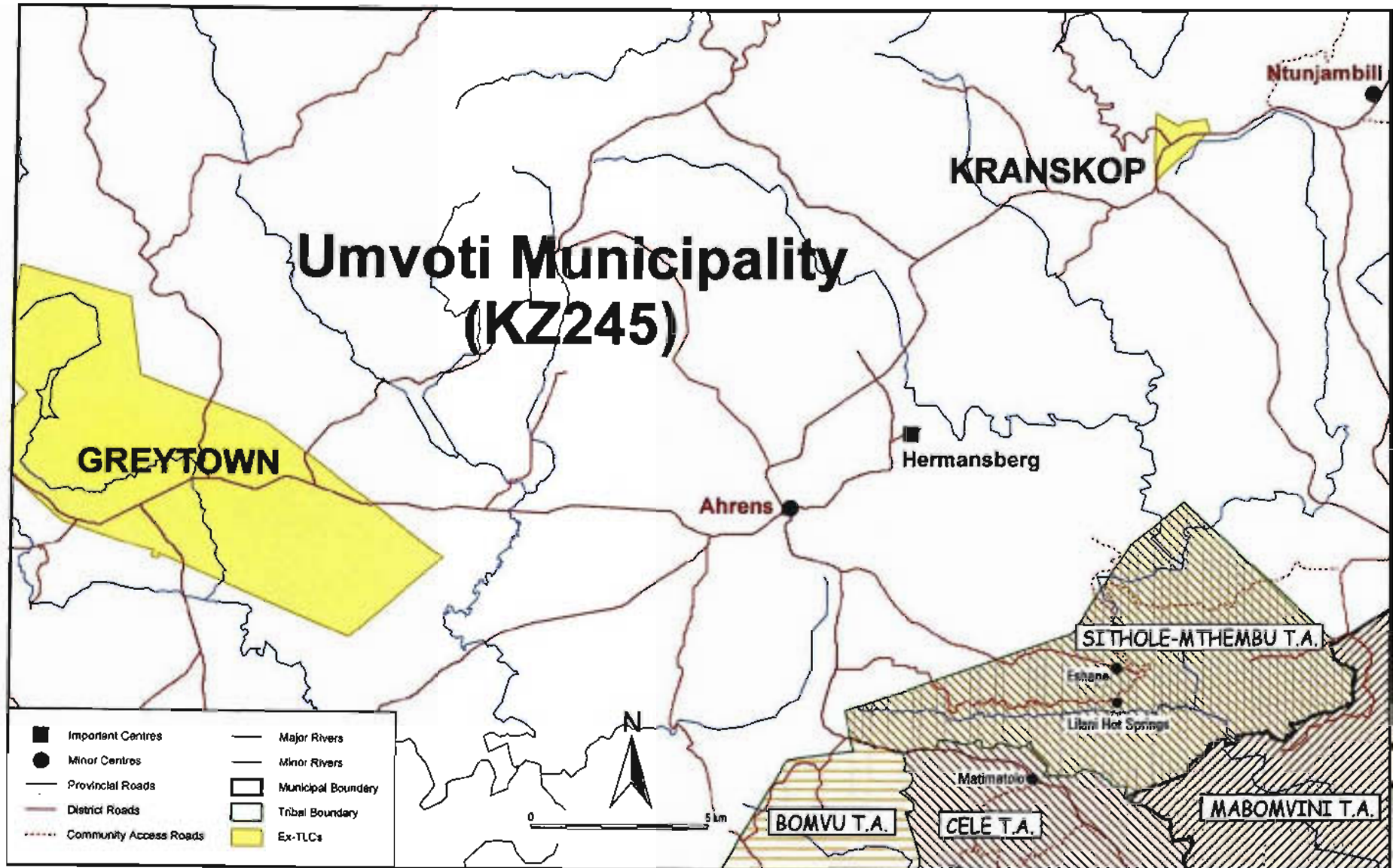


Fig. 5.13 Locality Plan of Lilani Hot Springs

Source: Development Planning, Dept. of Traditional and Local Government Affairs, KZNPA

## 5.2 THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

### 5.2.1 Topography and Geology of the Lilani Valley

The difference in scenic aspect between the undulating wattle and sugar cane covered plateau of horizontal sediment and dolerite sills, edged by cliffs of sandstone, and the 'Valley of a Thousand Hills' type of landscape developed on the steeply tilted and more massive ancient rocks below is striking. Flowing in wide and gently sloping valleys on the uplands, the major rivers in the area, the Umvoti and the Hlimbitwa Rivers, take a sudden plunge through the steep-walled gorges in the sandstone and then once more meander among a maze of fluted hills. These two rivers usually take little heed of the geological structure as they meander through the rock formations except where some loop sections of the Hlimbitwa River have been cut along the foliation of banded gneisses (Gevers, 1963: 130).

The structural control in the tributaries of the Umvoti and Hlimbitwa Rivers is more pronounced than in the main rivers. In the deep gorges of the Lilani River it is clearly visible. Incised more or less parallel to the east-west strike of the ancient rock, there is considerable control between its southern and northern flanks. South of the stream a dendritic pattern of tributaries, separated by diverging ridges, descends from below the sandstone cliffs of the Matimatolo mountains, whose edge is strongly indented. North of the river, by contrast, the sandstone cliffs of the Tshane ridge, apart from minor indentations, are remarkably rectilinear and numerous parallel tributaries of great steepness flow down to the main stream below. The separating ridges are correspondingly sharp and knife-edged (Gevers, 1963: 130).

The highly erosion-resistant quartzites which create this distinct landscape are part of the pre-Karoo sandstones in the Natal Group and rest on Basement granites. This sandstone was formerly classified as part of the Table Mountain Series of the Cape System. (Brink, 1981: 224). The Lilani River has cut its way back into the sandstone plateau along a major fault-zone that trends parallel to the strike of the ancient rocks underlying the more or less horizontal sandstone (Gevers, 1963: 130-131). Though subjected to erosion prior to the deposition of the overlying Karoo sediments, some 152 metres (500 feet) of sandstone are still preserved on the Tshane ridge. In the Matimatolo mountains on the southern side of the gorge the preserved thickness is roughly similar (Gevers, 1963: 139).

The southern edge of the Tshane ridge is classified as a fault-line scarp. The reason for its less rapid recession from the fault trace is probably because of the more resistant rock types on the north side of the river, consisting of aplitic granite and massive hornblende-biotite granite-gneiss. To the south of

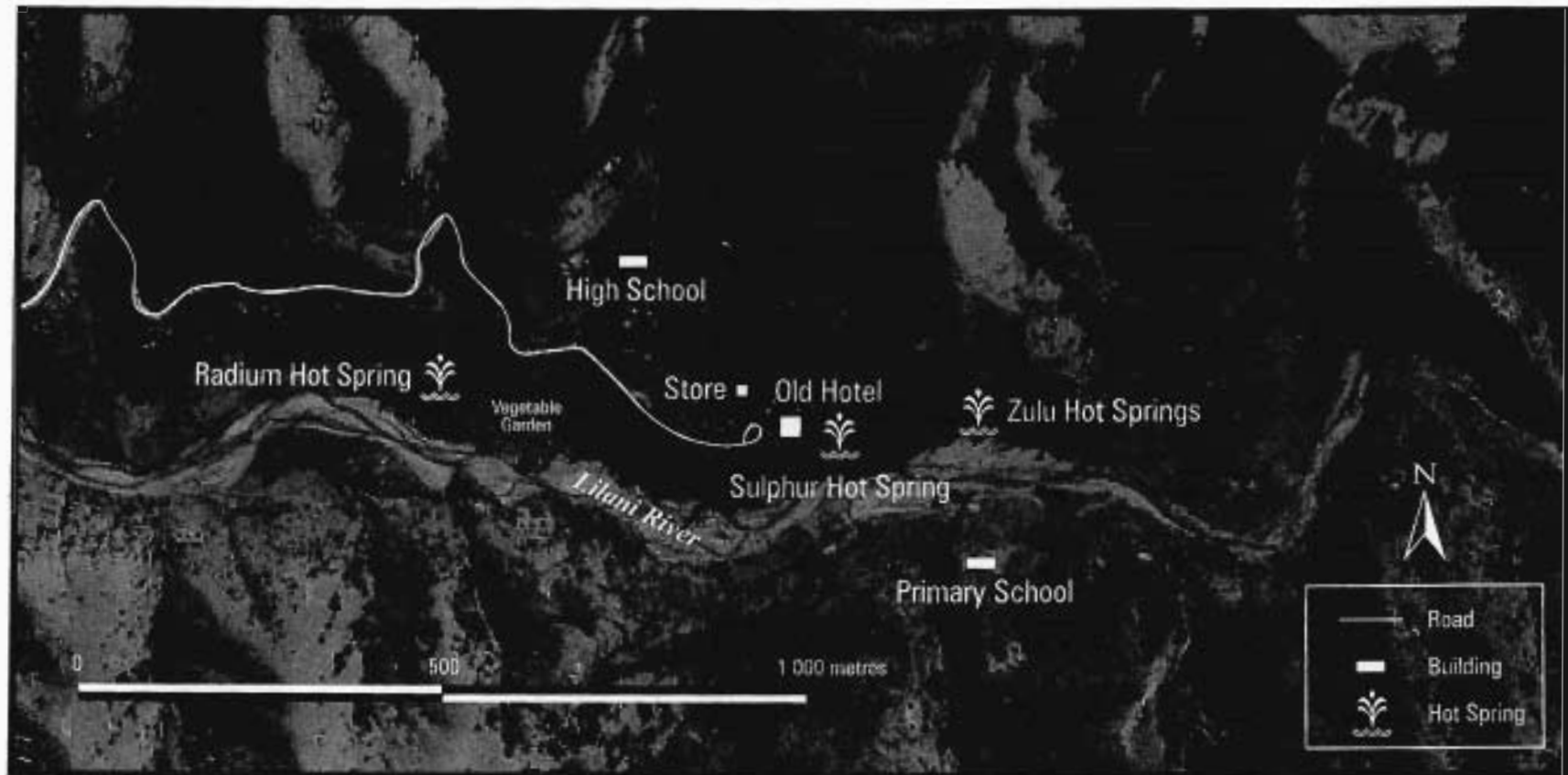


Fig. 5.14 Aerial Photograph of the Lilani Hot Springs

Source: Aerial Photograph, Strip No. 2, Photo No. 1699, Date 1989  
 Survey and Land Information, Dept. of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Mowbray  
 and Fieldwork Observation

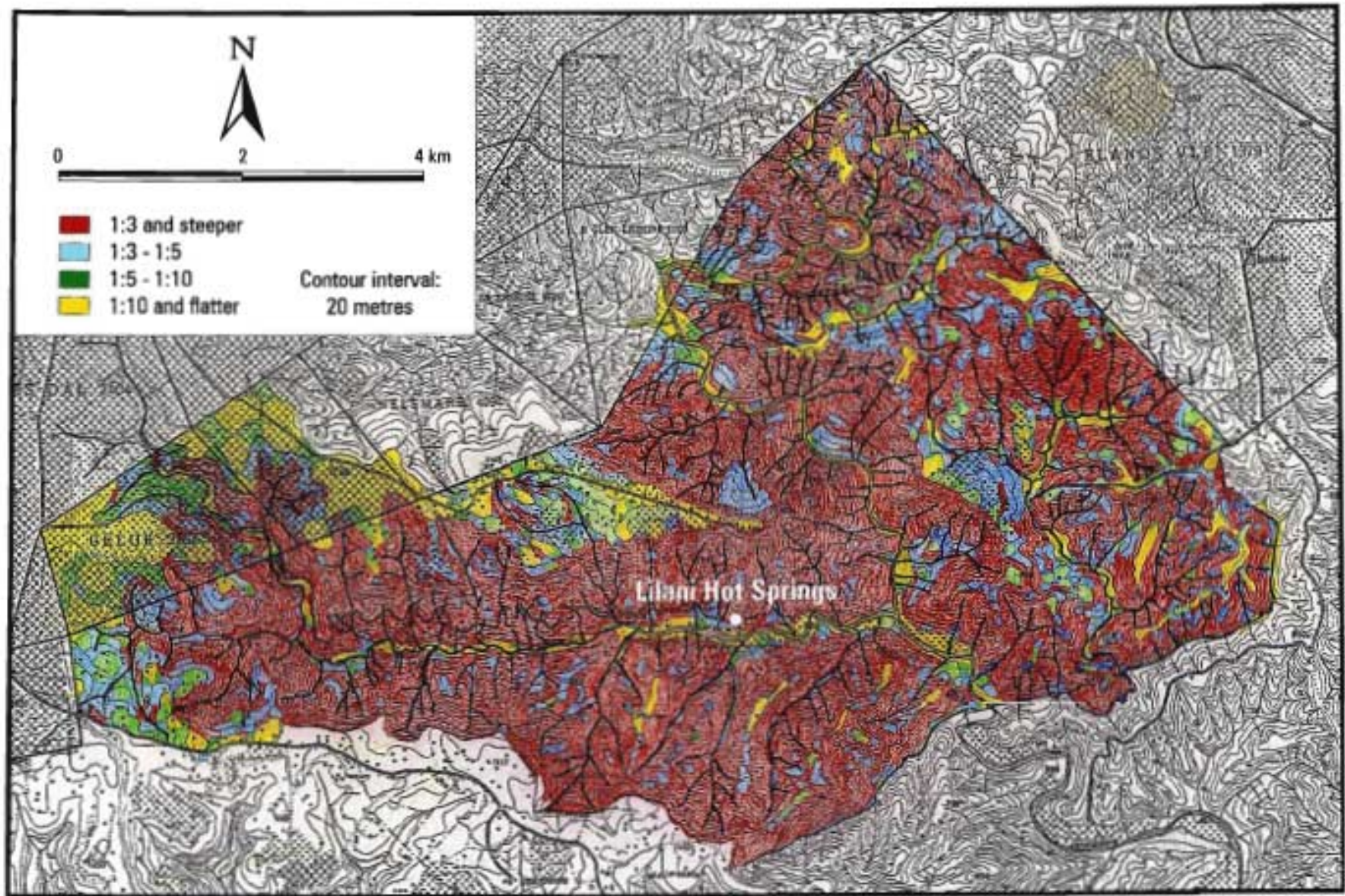


the river, by contrast, the sandstone is underlain by a broad belt of much more easily weathered banded amphibolitic gneisses (Gevers, 1963: 131).

### 5.2.2 Slope Analysis

An appreciation and understanding of the constraints which face any form of development, including tourism and agricultural development, to improve the subsistence agricultural way of life of the people living in the Lilani valley, can be seen in the slope analysis map (Fig. 5.15). The slope map reveals that there is very little land which can be used for any form of infrastructural development or sizable intensive agriculture, except where the valley begins to open up around the locality of the hot springs. This land, because of its remoteness to the outside world, does not lend itself to small scale commercial agricultural activity. There are more accessible locations which are better positioned in relation to road networks and larger populations, for example Eshane (see Fig. 5.13), on the northern ridge overlooking the valley, which are better located to allow for the provision of services for a large community. If the population continues to increase in the valley and the demand for more amenities is satisfied, the little available land for agriculture would be encroached upon and this would force a larger population to use, to an even greater extent than now, the steep slopes for planting crops and digging out platforms to build houses. The location of the present services, for example schools, will have a negative impact on the relatively flat land which also happens to be the position of the hot springs. There will be a potential clash between any form of development to cater for the local community in close proximity to a future tourism development in an eco-tourism and cultural tourism environment.

A one in three (1:3) slope or greater is not desirable for any agricultural use, other than limited grazing. A one in five (1:5) to one in three (1:3) slope is not desirable for building houses on nor for use for intensive agriculture. Much of the Lilani valley is not suitable for any form of development or agricultural activity and thus is more suited to nature-based tourism with a small cultural based aspect centred around the hot springs.



Source: 1 : 50 000 Topographical Map No. 2930 BH Ahrens,  
 Survey and Land Information, Dept. of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Mowbray  
 Slope Analysis Overlay by H. Young

Fig. 5.15 Slope Analysis of the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority Land

### 5.2.3 Mining Activity in the Lilani Valley

The Umvoti region has seen a lot of prospecting over the years. In the Umvoti Magisterial District, with Greytown as its main town, and in the Kranskop Magisterial District, a variety of minerals were worked in the early days and amongst these were asbestos, coal, copper, corundum, gypsum, magnesite, mica, platinum and gold (Moloney, 1983: 19). The search for gold and other valuable minerals in economically viable quantities has consumed many people's time and energy. Gold was found and mined in the Nkandla region, north of the town of Kranskop. Gold was also found in the Msinga and Kranskop regions but never in large enough quantities for a major gold rush. The Lilani valley was not excluded by prospectors searching for valuable minerals. In an account in the Greytown Gazette on October 26<sup>th</sup>, 1907, Colonel Leuchars, "in the company with Mr Erskine and Mr Mare, was walking along a property situated in the vicinity of the Lilani Hot Springs when the party came across a formation of rock that attracted attention. It was in an elevated position and Col. Leuchars, evidently being the nimblest of the party, ascended to make a test of its quality" (page 5, col. 3). For his efforts he got slightly injured and therefore the incident was recorded in the newspaper. The local people of the region were obviously aware of the fact that there were valuable minerals, for example gold, in the region and keenly aware of rock outcrops which might reveal their source. In the 1980's an investigation in the Umvoti region was undertaken to see if there was a large enough deposit of bauxite, one of the chief sources of aluminium, to warrant exploitation of this mineral resource (Moloney, 1983: 19).

Dr J Wright Matthews, the first proprietor of the Lilani Hot Springs Spa, paid the sum of £2.10 shillings as a deposit to the Natal Native Trust, Colony of Natal, on 28<sup>th</sup> July 1909 for a prospecting license (CNC 2962/1911). In a letter, dated 21<sup>st</sup> December 1911, Dr Matthews applied for the return of his money as he had not used his prospecting license. In the reply to his request, dated 28<sup>th</sup> December 1912, his request was granted by the Acting Chief Native Commissioner in Natal, on the condition that Dr Matthews forwarded an affidavit to the effect that no surface damage was done under the prospecting permit issued (CNC 2962/1911): This affidavit was duly drawn up, dated 5<sup>th</sup> January 1912, in Johannesburg, and the Acting Secretary for Native Affairs in Pretoria was instructed to forward a cheque to Dr Matthews by the Acting Chief Native Commissioner in Natal in his letter dated 9<sup>th</sup> January 1912 (CNC 2962/1911).

No other records could be found in the Pietermaritzburg Archives Repository recording any further mining or proposed mining activities in the valley during those early years of the twentieth century.

Mining has subsequently taken place in the Lilani valley (Fig. 5.16). The remains of an old asbestos mine, located to the south of the Lilani River and up a small tributary, reveals that there are minerals of sufficient quantities that warranted the establishment of a small mining operation in the area. It appears transport costs were a problem for the old mine to be viable (Labuschagne, 1996). Gevers (1963: 144) confirms that prospecting has taken place for chrysotile at the asbestos mine below the Matimatolo mountains where a lenticular body of well-preserved serpentine, roughly 100 yards [91.5 metres] wide and approximately 300 yards [274.5 metres] long exists. Gevers (1963) says that the serpentine varies in colour from dark bluish-black through brown to greyish-green, with a bright apple green type developed along shear-zones. Marginally the serpentine has been talcified; bright green, brittle, micaeous flakes have also been developed. Contact against the enclosing banded amphibolites are steep and where exposed, conformable. All features suggest a lenticular intrusion of dunite (Gevers, 1963: 144).

During the 1990's one of the large mining houses undertook a prospecting evaluation of the southern part of the valley, to the south of the Lilani River, in the vicinity of the old asbestos mine (Mukakwa, 1998). A drilling rig was lowered over the escapement of the Lilani valley from the Matimatolo side, in the south, to undertake the drilling for core samples. Though the outcome of the drilling is a closely held secret by the mining company, the area is known to have quantities of asbestos.

In South Africa the three main minerals mined as asbestos are chrysotile, crocidolite and amosite (MacIntosh, 1983: 79). Chrysotile is a hydrous silicate of magnesium and is a fibrous variety of serpentine and the main sources of the mineral are found in Kaapsehoop, near Barberton in Mpumalanga Province, and the Havelock Mine, just over the border of South Africa in Swaziland (MacIntosh, 1983: 79). Chrysotile is an industrial mineral which is widely used for thermal and electrical insulation (Mondalor, 1983). The other two types of asbestos mined in South Africa are crocidolite, found mainly in the Prieska area, northward through Kuruman and as far as the Botswana border, and in the Pietersburg and Letaba districts to the Olifants River in the east (MacIntosh, 1983: 81), and amosite, which is mined near Potgietersrus, Zeerust and Messina and closely follow the deposits of crocidolite in the Northern Province (MacIntosh, 1983: 81). Neither of these latter two types of asbestos are associated with serpentine. It is interesting that hot springs are also found in eastern Mpumalanga and Swaziland where chrysotile is found.

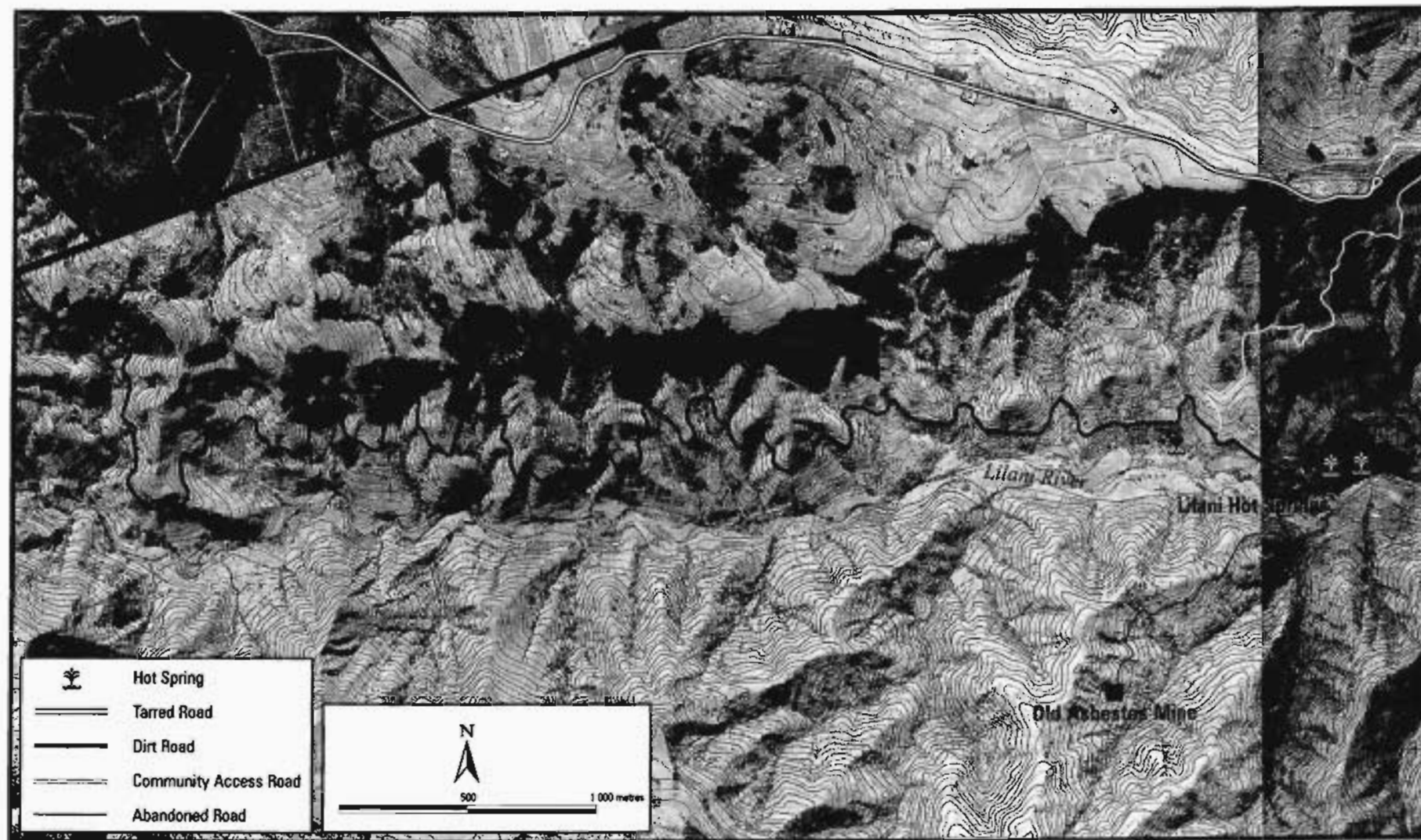


Fig. 5.16 Aerial Photograph of the Lilani Valley

Source: 1 : 10 000 Orthophoto Map No. 2930 BB 11, 12 and 13, Survey and Land Information, Dept. of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Mowbray

The same road by which access is gained into the valley to the Lilani Hot Springs was used for the old asbestos mine. The remains of where the old mining road branches off the main access road is about half a kilometre to the west of the old resort and went south and up into the side of the valley. This poor access must have played a part in the non-viability of the mining operation. Access to the mining area has deteriorated over the years since it closed and this is reflected in the fact that the drilling rig for the latest prospecting was lowered over the side of the valley wall.

If mining was ever to take place in the valley, and especially in the vicinity of the old mine, there would be a conflict of interest between the mining and tourism activities. There would be a conflict from an environmental point of view, especially in terms of visual aesthetics between any tourism development at the hot springs and a mining operation. The access road, the location of the old resort and the hot springs are all located on the northern side of the valley and thus the views as people enter and leave the valley and when at the hot springs are southward. Any mining operation developed, even on a small scale, would scar the open grasslands of the northern facing slopes of the valley. It is the southern facing slopes which have a more moist environment and thus more lush foliage and also because of its different underlying rock structure, which makes it easier to camouflage any activities, such as the road construction.

TABLE 5.1 - An Analysis of the Individual Hot Springs in the Lilani Valley

SPRINGS	Temp. in °C	Flow rate in litres per hour	State of development / non-development
"Radium Bath" Spring	36.5°C	2455 litres per hour	Stone and cement wall and natural floor where spring rises.
Little Spring	38.8°C	-	Appears to have never been developed and is not used.
Sulphur Spring	39.6°C	2137 litres per hour	Three pools, changing rooms and individual baths all in a state of disrepair with only one pool with no major leaks.
"The Women's Washing Pool" Spring	37.4°C	2614 litres per hour	A roughly made stone and cement wall.
"Small Spring"	35.2°C	773 litres per hour	The location of this spring is unknown.
"The Zulu Men's and Boys' Bath" Spring	39.5°C	3546 litres per hour	A pool dug out of the bank and rock with stones damming up additional the water to increase its depth.
The Abandoned Spring	40.6°C	773 litres per hour	Developed at one time, soil and leaf material have collected in the pool, not maintained and therefore not used.

Information sourced from Gevers (1963) and fieldwork observation.

#### 5.2.4 The Thermal Hot Springs of the Lilani Valley

Six individual spring orifices have been identified in the Lilani valley during fieldwork for this research (Fig. 5.16). When Gevers (1963: 131) undertook a study of the springs on 1 May 1959, he took the measurements, temperatures and yield of six hot springs. Of the six he identified only five are the same springs identified in this study. He included one located among the most easternly group of springs which has not been identified recently and he ignored or did not count a small one on the edge of the path near to the most westerly of the springs. These springs are strung out, over a distance of approximately 730 metres, on the northern bank of the Lilani River in roughly a straight line. The river flows slightly obliquely to the fault trace, so that the first, westernmost spring, is farthest from the river while the easternmost group is situated on the steep rock bank of the Lilani river's old riverbed.

##### **“Radium Bath” Spring**

The most westerly located spring is located approximately 410 metres upstream from the old hotel site (Fig. 5.16). It was named the “radium bath” spring as it was thought to be radioactive (Caruso, 1996). Kent (1968, in Booyens, 1981: 119) says that the radioactivity in certain water sources was overemphasized in the past and that it can have positive effects.

The spring rises from the floor of a small elliptical pool, 6 x 5 metres wide, surrounded by trees and reeds and built up with stones to give it a depth of approximately one metre of water. The floor of the pool consists of dark mud except in the centre, where sand surrounds the spring orifice. Rather frequent bubbles of gas rise from the latter. There is normally no marked odour of sulphuretted hydrogen in the air around the pool. The surface temperature in the centre of the pool, where gas bubbles rise, was measured as 38.5°C. On inserting the thermometer into the sand around the actual orifice on the floor of the pool, the temperature rose to 41.1°C. Gevers (1963: 131) measured the yield at the overflow as 540 gallons (2455 litres) per hour or some 13,000 gallons (59 098 litres) per day.

A small cold spring trickles out of the ground only a few metres to the north of the pool and is channelled along the western side of the pool. In this channel maintained by the local community and flowing about 30cm from the stone wall of the pool, the orifice of a small hot spring was identified in July 2000. This indicates that there are a number of hot springs in an area 10 metre either side of the pool, in a west-east line of the existing pool especially as an area of about ten metres on the western, southern and eastern sides of the pool is marshy. To identify further springs, some of the vegetation

would have to be removed. As there is at least one more small spring in the vicinity of this spring, this site appears to have more potential than what has been developed to date.



Fig. 5.17 The Radium Pool

### **Little Spring**

There is a small spring located alongside the well established path to the “radium bath” spring from the location of the old hotel and is approximately 40 metres east from the “radium bath” spring (Fig. 5.16). It has never been developed nor does it appear to be very strong. The temperature of the water was measured at 38.8°C. This spring is not mentioned in any literature concerning investigations into the hot springs in this area and only Mrs Labuschagne, one of the previous people involved with the resort who were interviewed, mentioned it.

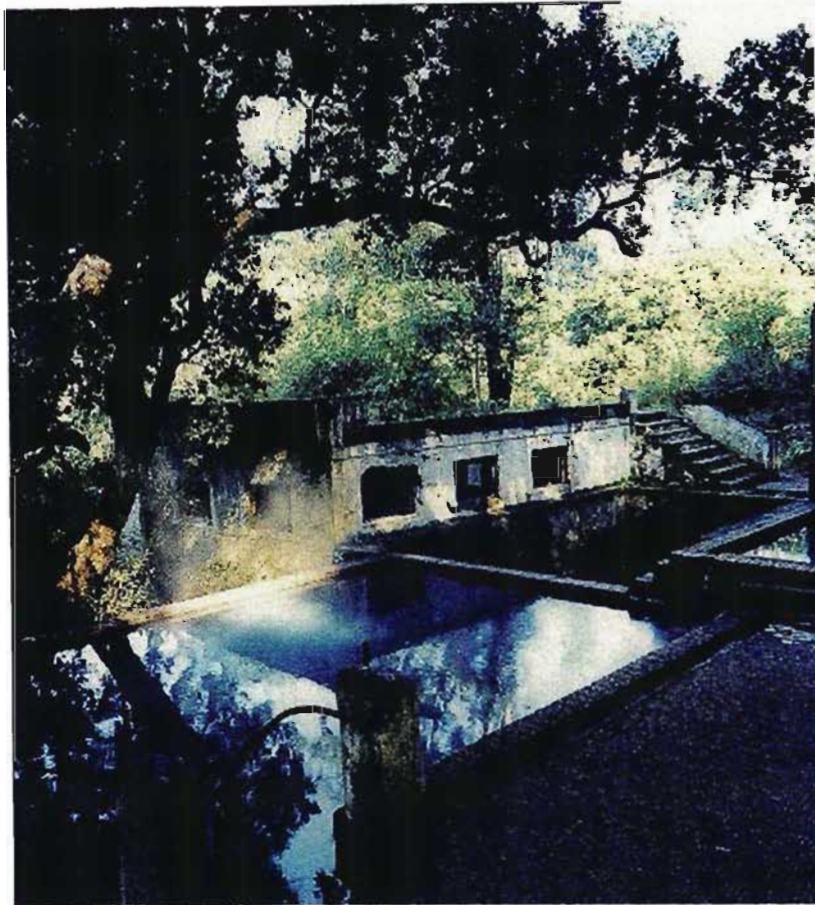
### **Sulphur Spring**

This spring, situated 50 metres east of the old hotel site (Fig. 5.16), has been encased in concrete to form a small, sealed enclosure, the walls and floor of which are coated with a greyish-white algal slime. When the pools were maintained, the water for private baths was piped directly from the spring enclosure to the baths, but most of the water discharged into a small built-up bathing pool, from where it flowed successively into two larger swimming pools. The small pool is still in good condition but the two larger pools no longer hold water and the pipes to the baths have corroded away (Fig. 5. 18).

The temperature within the sealed spring enclosure was measured as a consistent 39.6°C. Gevers (1963: 131), who measured the temperature of the pools when they were well maintained measured, when air temperature was 18.8°C, the overflow from the first warm bathing pool as 34.3°C and the discharge from



the second into the third pool as 28.8°C. Du Toit, as quoted by Gevers (1963: 131), gave the temperature of this spring in 1918 as 39.5°C.



Source: KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation Ltd.

Fig. 5.18 The Sulphur Pools

No gas bubbles can be seen within the spring enclosure, but there is a pronounced odour of sulphuretted hydrogen. This is still marked in the first pool and distinctly noticeable at its overflow into the second. The latter often exhibits a marked bluish opalescent sheen (Fig. 5.19), probably due to colloidal sulphur derived from the oxidation of dissolved  $H_2S$ . The bluish colour appears to vary in intensity, being much more marked at certain times than at others. This would indicate variations either in the  $H_2S$  content or in the abundance and activity of micro-organisms that aid in its oxidation or depend on  $H_2S$  for their metabolic processes (sulphur bacteria).

The water has a smooth silky, almost 'soapy', feel on the skin. Gevers (1963: 132) attributes this to colloidal sulphur and probably in part due to colloidal silica and dissolved sodium silicate. The yield was measured as 470 gallons (2137 litres) per hour or 11,200 gallons (50 915 litres) per day (Gevers, 1963: 132).



Fig. 5.19 The Bluish Opalescent Sheen of the Medium sizes Sulphur Pool

### **“Zulu Baths” Springs**

The previous operators of the hotel resort always left some of the springs for use by the local community (Fig. 5.16). Approximately 200 metres east of the main pools and right on the bank of the Lilani River bed three springs have been used for decades by the local Zulu inhabitants. These springs have no visible gas bubbles as two springs flow out of the rock and cascade down into the pool below. The third spring is a pool where the water seeps out of the bank and no gas bubbles have been seen to rise. A slight “whiff” of  $H_2S$  is often noticeable from these springs (Gevers, 1963: 132). A fourth spring in the proximity of these three springs was recorded by Gevers (1963: 132) and is discussed under the title of small spring.

#### **1. “The Women’s Washing Pool” Spring**

Appearing from beneath a shallow covering of calcareous-siliceous sinter, this spring cascades over a vertical height of one metre into a pool, 6 x 8 metres wide and half a metre deep, within the valley-floor on the edge of a rocky cliff (Fig. 5.16). It is extensively used by Zulu women for washing clothes, subsequently rinsed in the rapidly flowing Lilani stream close by. Also the women and girls performing their ablutions here. The temperature in the spring orifice was measured as  $38.4^{\circ}C$ , that of the adjacent water in the pool being  $37.4^{\circ}C$ , and where the latter discharges into a marshy area on the old Lilani riverbed, a few dozen metres away, being  $32^{\circ}C$ . Gevers (1963: 132) measured the yield of this spring was measured as 575 gallons (2614 litres) per hour or 13,800 gallons (62 735 litres) per day.



Fig. 5.20 The Spring Water Flowing into the Women's Washing Pool

## 2. "Small Spring"

Gevers (1963: 132) mentions that a small spring, roughly 11 metres further east of the "washing pool" spring, cascades down the rocky cliff (Fig. 5.16). He said that the spring's orifice was rather obscured. He was only able to measure the temperature of the water at a distance of approximately 9 metres from its first appearance, and his reading was 35.2°C. He calculated the yield to be 170 gallons (773 litres) per hour or 4,100 gallons (18 639 litres) per day (Gevers, 1963: 132). A lot of loose crumbly rock, the vegetation growth on the bank and water from the various springs which flow into a marshy area below the bank obscure any trace of this spring. Thus the existence of this spring has not been identified during fieldwork, nor is it known to the local community.

## 3. "Zulu Men's and Boys' Bath" Spring

Approximately 30 metres eastwards and roughly 15 metre above the river bed, there is another strong spring frequented mainly by Zulu men and boys (Fig. 5.16). During the time Gevers (1963:132) visited Lilani, this pool was used by the Zulu girls. This has changed as the most easterly spring, once used by the Zulu men, is no longer used by anyone as it has fallen into total disrepair.

The spring orifice is well exposed with the water gushing out of a narrow cavity in highly shattered, banded amphibolites and cascades about a third of a metre into a small rocky pool, 2,5 x 2 metres wide and about 0,3 metres deep. The temperature of the water within the orifice of the spring was measured at 39.6°C and that of the water in the shallow pool being 38.2°C. Gevers (1963: 132) measured the yield

as 780 gallons (3546 litres) per hour or 18,700 gallons (85 010 litres) per day. This is the strongest flowing of all the Lilani hot springs.

#### 4. The Abandoned Spring

Approximately 25 metres eastwards, at a slightly higher elevation, there is the last of the Lilani thermal springs (Fig. 5.16). During the time Gevers (1963:132) visited Lilani, this pool was used by the Zulu men and boys. This spring is no longer used as the bank has fallen into the pool and has not been cleaned out. The main problem with this pool is that the bank is made up of loose material and is prone to slipping.

Gevers (1963: 132) recorded that it was a small pool, 4 x 2 metres wide and 0,6 metres deep, was built up with stone walls against a low cliff of quartzose rock. Gevers (1963: 132) recorded that the actual orifice is covered by water, but the latter is hottest in the NNE corner of the pool, where 40.6°C was measured some distance below the surface. At the opposite end of the pool the temperature was only 34.2°C. A small amount of cold water trickled down into the pool from rocks above. Water seeped out of the latter from below the stone walling. This flow was measured as 170 gallons (773 litres) per hour or 4,100 gallons (18 639 litres) per day. Owing to additional, non-measurable, seepage, the actual yield was considered to probably be somewhat higher. The temperature at the surface of the pool, closest to the position Gevers identified the orifice, was measured as 39.4°C.



Fig. 5.21 The Abandoned Spring

Gevers (1963: 134) placed the total combined yield of the six springs identified and measured by him in the region of 65 000 gallons (295 490 litres) per day.

## 5.3 THE PEOPLE AND THEIR ENVIRONMENT

### 5.3.1 The Current Socio-Economic Context

During the period of information collection, a socio-economic survey was drawn up and translated into Zulu (Appendices A and B). The intention was to undertake the survey in the whole of the Lilani Valley. The problem of getting permission to undertake the survey was exacerbated by the fact that there is no inkosi (chief) in the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority area as, since the last inkosi died in 1987, no one else has been appointed (Quabe, 2000). The induna for the area around the Lilani Hot Springs was consulted but he was very reluctant, even though he read the survey questionnaire in Zulu, to allow such an exercise to be undertaken in his area. His suggested alternative was to attend an upcoming meeting and ask the survey questions there. This route was taken at an initial stage in the endeavour to undertake a socio-economic survey in the valley to gain an understanding of their existing situation and of the people's needs and aspirations regarding that area.

The community meeting was held at the cattle dip tank on 5 January 1998. This meeting was attended by 22 men from the wider Sithole-Mthembu community and the majority were older men. The local induna and some of the tribal councillors were present. The dip tank is used for all the cattle in the tribal area, including the cattle belonging to the people in the Eshane area and in the Hlimbitwa River valley and thus is a focal point for the men of the community.

The questions were asked in this open forum and the answers were a corporate response under the scrutiny of the other members of the community. Those at the meeting estimated that there were approximately 800 cattle in an area which was served by this cattle dip tank. The exact boundaries of this area in which the cattle come from is uncertain, but it includes at least the whole of the Sithole-Mthembu tribal authority area (Fig. 5.13).

A variety of questions were asked of those men gathered which are contained in the questionnaire (Appendices A and B). It was asked if the water in the Lilani River had ever dried up and they said it had not done so in living memory, but the small streams do dry up during droughts.

The question concerning what the people like about living in the Lilani Valley drew answers from a number of people. Some were that there are no 'tsotsis' (criminals), they can look after their cattle, goats and poultry, there is no violence, they are born and bred in the valley, the hot springs, looking

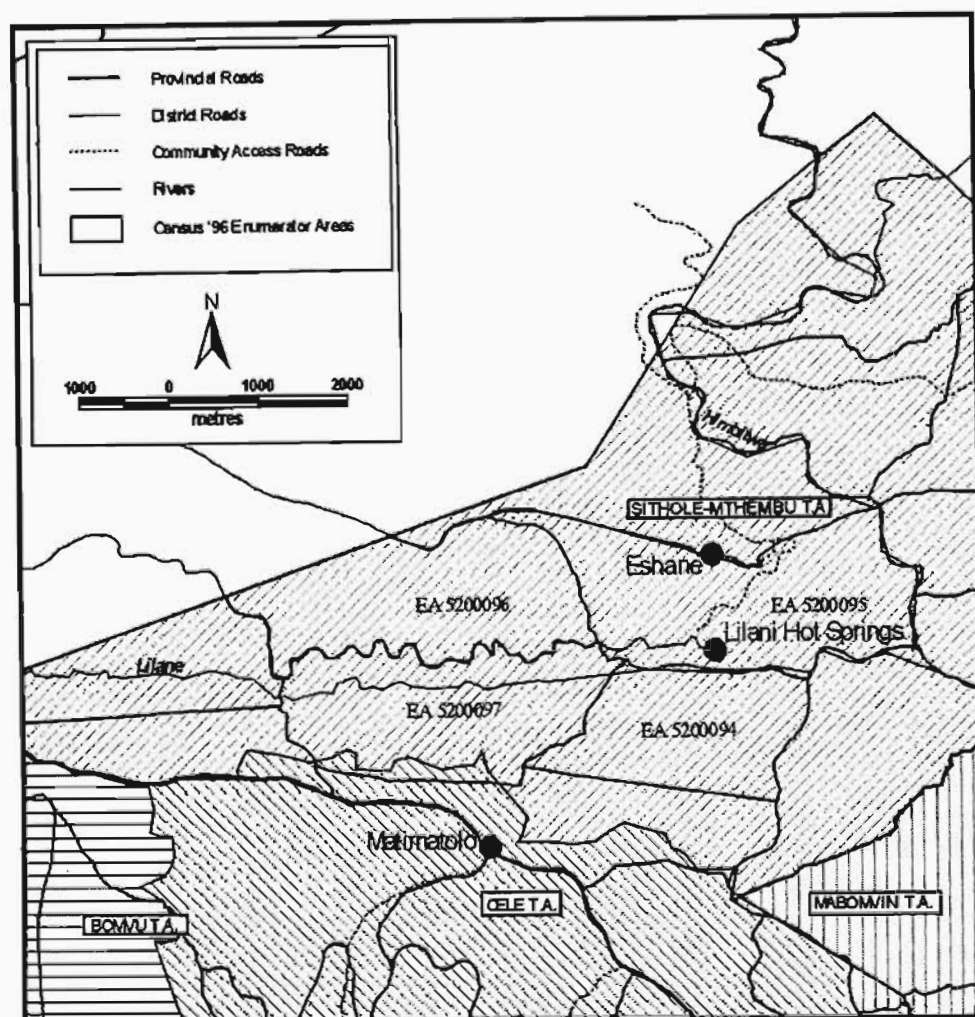
forward to the place being developed and no faction fighting. As they said, there may be faction fighting downstream in other tribal areas but not in their area.

The question concerning what things the people do not like about living in the Lilani Valley drew even more responses. These included the replies that the people are living without electricity, the lack of a larger shop (a supermarket), no telephones, the TV does not work in the valley as they can not pick up a signal, and no clinic as only a mobile clinic comes every second Monday. Even though a clinic has been built at Eshane they still want a clinic in the valley. They were concerned that there was no grazing camp to leave the cattle and goats in while the children, whose responsibility it is to look after the cattle so they do not get into the crops, go off to school. The lack of access roads was a concern and they wanted a road to go downstream from the old hotel site and join up with the road on the other side of the Hlimbitwa River.

This information, though limited, does provide a picture of the circumstances under which people live in the tribal area. It also is a typical male response to situations as the domestic issues are not a high priority. The lack of electricity was the first issue to be raised under what they did not like about living in the valley and very soon after that the issue of the lack of a TV signal was raised. This combination of TV and electricity is commonly raised by men in community meetings.

Information was sourced by informal communication with a wide variety of community members and though a desire to undertake a socio-economic survey was not abandoned, without formal sanction from the tribal leadership it was not possible. Four survey questionnaires were surreptitiously administered and filled in by members of the community. The 1996 South African census information was consulted to provide a more complete picture of the area. The boundaries of the enumerator areas were not completely satisfactory for this purpose as they incorporated people living in the Lilani Valley with those living on the ridge at Eshane.

In the 1996 South African census statistics the Lilani Hot Springs is situated in Enumerator Area 5200095 (Fig. 5.22). The enumerator area includes the area south of the tarred road at Eshane on the ridge and the northern side of the Lilani River down to the Hlimbitwa River. Three other enumerator areas in the valley are 5200094, 5200096 and 5200097. Though two of these areas (5200095 and 5200096) include portions of Eshane only one enumerator area (5200097) includes any area outside the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority area (Fig. 5.22). Tables of statistics from the Statistics South Africa Census 1996 for these four enumerator areas are included at Appendix C.



Source: Development Planning, Dept. of Traditional and Local Government Affairs, KZNPA

Fig. 5.22 The Statistics South Africa Census 1996 Enumerator Areas for the Lilani Hot Springs

Set against the context of the 1996 census information, the surrogate information, derived from key people in the valley and a community meeting the socio-economic picture of the lives of the people living in the Lilani Valley around the hot springs was assessed. There are 34 homesteads located within the Lilani Valley and within approximately 1 kilometre radius of the old hotel site. This was the area targeted for the four surreptitiously asked socio-economic survey questionnaires.

Of these 34 homesteads, the number of huts making up a family unit range from one to seven. The majority of the houses are made of wattle and daub. Only one house is made of concrete blocks, this being the house of the owner of the trading store. The roofing material used is a mixture of thatch and corrugated iron. Some of the corrugated iron has come from the old hotel when it was demolished by the community in 1998. This shows that the households living in the valley are of a traditional nature and for those who aspire to have a corrugated iron roof there is limited available income to use to buy

building materials. Also, transporting materials from neighbouring towns is not available for all members of the community because of transport and economic constraints.

In the enumerator area that Lilani Hot Springs is located in (5200095), 54% of the households are headed by women and the average for the four enumerator areas considered was 50% (Statistics South Africa Census, 1996). The parents and grandparents have very little education and from information from the community only one adult living in the immediate vicinity of the Lilani Hot Springs has a tertiary qualification, being a teacher's diploma. The school going children and young adults up to their late twenties have better education than their parents. There are no employment opportunities in the valley for educated people, except teaching at the two schools, so other than pursuing an agricultural or small scale entrepreneurial career in the valley, these educated young adults will be forced to leave in search of employment or further education.

The children walk to school. The primary school is located on the southern bank of the Lilani River, approximately 400 metres away from the old hotel site and a new high school is located approximately 300 metres up the hill above the old hotel site. Some high school children walk up the hill to the high school at Eshane as they consider it to be a better school. The high school in the Lilani Valley opened in 1996 with only a grade 8 (standard 6) class and has added a new grade each year until in 2000 it offered its first grade 12 (standard 10) class. These two schools are built out of concrete blocks with corrugated iron roofs and have VIP pit latrine toilets, but no electricity or running tap water. There are approximately 200 children at the primary school and approximately 100 children at the high school (Quabe, 2000).

The question about source and level of income was not well received. People do not like talking about this issue, as it is a private matter and maybe because it is an indicator of levels of poverty. Therefore the Statistics South Africa Census 1996 information is relied upon for this information. With the number of pensioners living in the vicinity of Lilani, this is a major source of income. The Statistics South Africa Census 1996 information records that from an individual income basis (EA 5200094), the Lilani Hot Springs EA area has 82% of individuals either with no income or unspecified and 16% earning less than R1000 per month. Therefore only 2% of individuals are earning more than R1000 per month. Then, from a household income, only six households have no income and 42 are unspecified out of 146 households. There is no market for agricultural products nor informal income from trading. Other than state pensions, most households had no visible source of cash income.



In answering the question of how many separate households (i.e. not eating from the same pot) live on each site, there was a 100% answer that it was one household. In comparing this answer to the breakdown of each household, this shows that the extended households are living together as one unit. There are children from different extended family members being cared for by one adult or a married couple while the children's parents are working in Greytown, Durban, Ladysmith and Johannesburg (Mngadi, 1996).

In answering the question of how long each household had been living in their dwelling drew answers of 30 or 50 years. Two households have relocated closer to the road during 2000, the communal vegetable garden site and the old hotel site, and one in 1999. The answers to this question contrast with the photos taken in the 1950's and 1960's as they show no houses in close proximity to the old hotel site nor on the other side and close to the Lilani River (Fig. 5.8 and 5.12). The population in the valley has definitely grown over the last few decades and these households have relocated themselves in close proximity to the available facilities and road access.

The main source of water for drinking and cooking was small streams and springs feeding the Lilani River and the Lilani River itself. The source of water used was dependent on how close they were to the Lilani River. Only one household said that they used rain water stored in a tank for drinking and cooking. The household who used tank water stated that it was occasionally not reliable while the rest stated that springs and the river were a reliable source of water.

In answering the question on the three main reasons why they liked living in the valley, the local community members always spoke of the hot springs. This is considered to be so high because the women use the hot water for washing clothes in and the people use the hot water for bathing in, but some say it is too hot in summer. They also all said it was a peaceful place to live in and it had a lot of water. This has been one reason why people have enjoyed living in the valley rather than on top of the ridge, at Eshane, which is part of the same tribal authority area. The people of Eshane do experience difficulty because of a lack of water on the ridge itself and have to collect water from springs on the edge of the escarpment. About half the people asked said they liked living in the valley because it was good for growing crops. Though further up the valley there is very limited land for horticulture, the valley opens up in this area around the hot springs giving better opportunities for growing vegetables and maize. These crops would appear to be for home consumption. A communal vegetable garden is situated on the northern side of the Lilani River and is well utilised by the women in the community.

Interesting answers came from the question about what three things the people did not like about living in the valley. The three answers of highest importance are bad roads, no electricity and no telephone. This is interesting because the answers were orientated towards services and infrastructure and not employment. The fact that something is happening concerning the hot springs being redeveloped may have lessened the importance of this factor but also this issue was not raised when talking to the men at the cattle dip tank. These answers automatically led onto the next question which asked what they considered to be the three most important needs in the community. The first was that the road needed upgrading, secondly electricity to the houses and thirdly a public telephone. In talking to the people they would like to see the road upgraded and even linked to the road on the other side of the Hlimbitwa River, about 3km from the old hotel site. The access road from Eshane, constructed in 1998, only lasted about 6 months in a useable state before deteriorating into an impassable track for vehicles and only useful for herding cattle and walking to Eshane. Electricity is seen as important and it would make the people's lives much easier but it is questionable if many people in the community could afford it. A public telephone is seen as important as the nearest one is at Eshane. For those who could afford it, cell phones are not an alternative as no signal can be picked up in the valley.

As electricity is not available, other forms of energy sources are used by the individual households. One household uses paraffin for lighting and the rest use candles. One household uses coal for cooking while the rest use wood. All the households use wood for heating water and household heating. The implication of this is that the indigenous forest on the northern slope of the valley has trees cut down for firewood and invasive exotic trees, such as wattle, are also used.

The level of agricultural skills that members of the household have was said to be extensive by all people. This was the terminology used in the questionnaire. It is not sure what this was gauged against but they do have a wide range of subsistence practices, from vegetable and maize growing, to cattle and goat husbandry. This differs completely with the census information which has only four people in the whole of the four enumerator areas saying that they are skilled agricultural workers.

There is a clear differentiation between those who have many animals and those who have only a few or none. Of those 34 households living in close proximity to the old resort, one person has 8 head of cattle, the induna has 5 head of cattle and of the remaining people who have cattle, the numbers range from 1 to 5 head of cattle. More than half of the people have no cattle. The relatively low level of cattle ownership correlates strongly with the number of female household heads surveyed. There are no sheep in the valley but goats are common with every household having at least one goat and one household has 11 goats, but interestingly that household also has no cows and it is a male headed household.

Chickens are not common and approximately half of the households have none and for those who do have chickens, the largest number in one household is said to be 10 chickens.

### 5.3.2 Existing and Planned Development Initiatives for Lilani

There have been a number of proposed initiatives over the last thirty years for the redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs as a resort, but nothing has yet materialized. These include the following:

- In the 1970's a request for Mr Caruso to reopen the resort by the then Bantu Administration;
- In 1979 Mr Farrell and Mr van Riet compiled a report for the KwaZulu Development Corporation Limited titled Report on the Future Development of the Lilani Mineral Water Resort;
- In 1985 Mr BGH Surendorff acquired the PTO for the old hotel site but died in the same year before he could initiate his redevelopment plans;
- In 1985 Mrs LIA Labuschagne inherited the PTO and with her husband ran the resort, with the help of managers, at a relatively low key;
- In 1986 Mr JR Orton, a Bachelor of Architecture student at the School of Architecture, University of Natal, Durban, submitted his thesis titled A Spa Resort for Lilani Hot Springs;
- In 1992 KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation Limited compiled a brochure titled Developing a Dream, Lilani, seeking a developer and investor to redevelop the resort;
- In 1998 Mr R Persad, Mr R Choromanski and Mr N Ramlagan, compiled a report for the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority titled The Rehabilitation of Lilani Hot Water Springs: Proposal for the Establishment of Tourist Accommodation Facilities; and,
- In 2000 Dr PA Joslin compiled an Environmental Impact Assessment scoping report on behalf of the Mthembu-Sithole Development Committee titled African Hot Springs Development at Lilani, KwaZulu-Natal.

In the last ten years there have been architectural drawings and talk of a game park in the valley but the present initiative, initiated during 1998, is the first to see substantial financial commitment to the project, by KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority and the national government in the form of R3 million, and an application being submitted to begin the process for gaining environmental and development approval from the relevant provincial authorities. The latest report, titled 'The Rehabilitation of Lilani Hot Water Springs: Proposal for the Establishment of Tourist Accommodation Facilities' compiled by the consultants, Policy and Praxis (Persad, *et al*, 1998) for the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority, has led to the latest initiative and the submission of an Environmental Scoping Report compiled by Walmsley Environmental Consultants (Joslin, 2000) to the KwaZulu-Natal provincial Department of

Agriculture and Environmental Affairs in October 2000 for their approval in terms of the current environmental legislation.

After community consultation, concept development and financial feasibility investigations, the consultants, Policy and Praxis, recommended the establishment of self catering accommodation facilities, a three star lodge and a limited set of recreational facilities. They are of the opinion that these could be phased ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)). The current proposal is to redevelop the site in two phases.

The first phase consists of:

- “- Upgrade (themed) of existing sulphur springs
- Self-catering accommodation [for 12 people]
- Camping area with new ablution facility
- Entrance gates
- Parking facilities
- Upgrading of community ‘Zulu Springs’
- Upgrading of ‘Radium Springs’
- New septic tank and possible artificial terraced wetland for vegetable cultivation
- Upgrading of gazebo
- Piped drinking water supply and chlorinator treatment plant
- Any upgrading of road infrastructure that is required” (Joslin, 2000: 2).

It is envisaged that the self-catering accommodation will consist of a 12-bed chalet with communal kitchen, lounge and dining room and ablutions which will all be owned by the community ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)). Concern is raised that the access road is a low profile aspect in the current planned development and yet it has always been the limiting factor associated with the development of the resort.

The second phase, also referred to as the future phase, is proposed to consists of:

- “- A 32 bed Health Lodge
- Recreation facilities associated with the Health Lodge
- Covered hydropool – to be located close to themed sulphur hot baths built in phase 1
- Upgrading of shop (owned and managed by community)
- Upgrading of existing community facilities (clinic, church, etc.)
- Parking facilities (45 cars) and any road infrastructure upgrading required” (Joslin, 2000: 3).

The lodge is envisaged to be the anchor project for the resort (Persad, *et al*, 1998: 20)

Day visitors are destined to become an important aspect of the development and they will be able to use the facilities and picnic under the trees. Overnight visitors will be able to either camp in the designated camping area or stay in the self-catering accommodation lodge after the first phase is complete and after the second phase is complete they will also be able to stay in the three star lodge.

This project is said to be a community based eco-tourism project, which will have an African theme (Joslin, 2000: 3). The community has already collected some stones out of the river for the construction of the resort but the continued activity at the site is awaiting the approval of the environmental application and a future development application in terms of the relevant legislation controlling the area.

Two middens (rubbish dumps) have been identified on the old resort site. The one is said to predate 1959 and may be one of the earlier middens of the hotel (Anderson, 2000: 6). The Institute for Cultural Resource Management, at the Natal Museum has shown interest in these as “the archaeological database for colonial colonisation of KwaZulu-Natal is under-represented and under-researched at the moment. These middens have the potential to inform historical archaeologists and historians more about the first half of the [20<sup>th</sup>] century in this valley” (Anderson, 2000: 6). There is also a Remembrance Rock for Mr Mbulungeni the ‘founder’ of the Lilani Hot Springs and people of the area is on the site (See 5.3.3 for details). Anderson (2000: 7) says that these sites have tourism potential and that the proposed resort development should include the local oral history and the Remembrance Rock as part of the history of the hotel and that the story of Mr Mbulungeni should be displayed near the Remembrance Rock to encourage tourists to read the story, and other oral histories, of the local community. “By using the communities direct history and the colonial history a viable and historical interpretation of the Lilani Hot Springs can be added as part of the tourist experience” (Anderson, 2000: 8).

The current redevelopment proposals centre the resort activities solely around the hot springs. In a previous report, Farrell and van Riet (1979: 8) elaborated on the extra recreational activities which could be developed. These were categorised into three sections:

1. the extensive recreation which consisted of hiking, mountaineering and horse riding;
2. the social active facilities being tennis, swimming, bowls and a possible sports hall; and,
3. the social activities consisting of a restaurant and the mineral baths.

There is a need for further consideration of appropriate recreational facilities for Lilani. Water slides could be an added attraction and could utilise water from a cold water spring. This would add to the entertainment value of the resort, especially for children, as parents often want to relax while knowing their children are safely enjoying themselves. If a portion of the resort focus is on children they will

want to return and thus encourage their parents to return also. Hot Springs in other parts of the country have provided both recreational facilities and the hot spa pools to diversify the attraction of the resorts. The children tend to go for the cooler pools and recreation facilities at these other facilities leaving the hottest pools for adults who just want to relax.

The importance of having top quality management to run and develop a resort of this nature is stressed (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 5). One aspect in which good management will be crucial is to ensure that the water quality is of a sufficiently high standard to kill harmful micro-organisms which are able to live in the warm water, which is only just above human body temperature. There also needs to be provision made for a manager's house, control centre and entrance definition, office, workshops, stores, service buildings and possibly provision should be made for heating the water (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 9).

The architectural design and the landscaping of the resort should take into consideration the hot summers. Verandas and trees will be important to shade people from the hot African sun. The heat of the sun is not as intense as in the Tugela Valley at Shu Shu and often there is a breeze in the valley which cooling the air. The pools should offer a variety of temperatures so the resort is enjoyable whatever the air temperature is, thus making the resort an attractive tourism destination all year round.

The development proposal which was undertaken in 1979 by Farrell and van Riet (1979: 9) did not recommend the development of a conventional recreational holiday resort and did not consider the resort viable due to the following factors:

- “1. The resort is not situated on a major route and if developed will have to be the main and sole reason for tourists visiting the area.
2. The road leading to Lilani passes Ahrens (a typical shopping complex) through cane fields and typical Zulu subsistence agricultural areas. At no stage when travelling to Lilani does one enter what could be termed a tourist area such as wilderness, forest or water landscape.
3. The 17km dust road from Ahrens is considered a negative aspect, the last 12km being a hazard due to sharp curves and poor visibility, especially if the traffic should increase to a possible 1 000 cars per day. The road is narrow and subject to washouts.
4. The meandering road exposes the view of the north facing slope which has serious erosion dongas.
5. In order to develop a node of sufficient importance to ensure success the development may cost as much as R3m [in 1979]. A resort of this size would

require more domestic water and mineral water than is at present available. This problem may be relieved by drilling for additional water supplies.

6. The existing community facilities would have to be moved to create an environment conducive to recreation and tourism” (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 10).

Although Farrell and van Riet (1979: 10) did not recommend the development of a conventional recreational holiday resort at Lilani, they did say:

“the mineral water resource could be developed if the entire valley is declared a nature reserve, the indigenous peoples of the valley moved, the erosion reclaimed and the area stocked with game species. This, however, will also depend on adequate mineral and fresh water being made available by drilling or pooling of the various mineral springs by means of pumping. In the event of the Lilani valley being made available as a nature area this would have a great impact on the feasibility of development” (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 10).

These ideas included making the north facing slope available for development, and thus utilizing the view to the north, the perennial stream being incorporated into the design, all the natural assets, i.e. waterfalls, cascades and forest patches in the entire valley being utilised as a rare and unique natural area with game and a total area of approximately 1 000 ha (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 10). The issues raised in the proposal by Farrell and van Riet twenty-one years ago still need to be considered for the present planned development initiative. The possibility of 1000 cars per day using the narrow access road to Lilani seems remote and moving community facilities would not be a cheap option but may result in better facilities being provided, though these may no longer be in such convenient locations for the people living around the old resort site.

The KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority’s official website states that the site for the resort is approximately 12 hectares in size ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)). If this is the case then a number of households will have to move as there are at least five households presently residing on the site.

The KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority is the driving force behind the research and feasibility study at Lilani, putting together a complete development package, which will have undertaken most of the preparatory work for an investor ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)). During the last two years (1999-2000), the Tourism Authority has actively pursued partnerships and relationships to help facilitate the tourism investment promotion process.

Four KwaZulu-Natal tourism projects have been granted additional funding of approximately R2.5 million each from the national government's Poverty Relief Fund. The criteria in selecting these projects have been for their intrinsic tourism appeal and historical interest, the high levels of poverty in these regions and that their development will benefit local communities and generate jobs through tourism. Lilani Hot Springs is one of the four projects to receive this money and it is intended to go towards the development of a lodge with catering services, the reconstruction of the natural hot springs and training for local people involved in this local tourism initiative ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)).

The Tribal Authority are currently working in partnership with the Department of Economic Development and Tourism to develop a 12 bed chalet with communal kitchen, lounge/dining area and ablution facilities. This will be owned by the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority. Funding has been provided by the Department and the Tourism Authority for this initial phase ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)).

The express aim of the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority is to bring economic empowerment to the people of this area, while also creating a financially viable investment opportunity. A joint venture partnership with the Tribal Authority, or a percentage of community equity is part of the agreed criteria of the ownership structure of the new development. The value of the capital expenditure of the project to develop Lilani into a holiday destination that offers the true essence of Africa is envisaged to be approximately R8-10 million. The proposed development is aimed at international and local, middle-to-high income tourists ([www.tourism-kzn.org](http://www.tourism-kzn.org)).

For this development to be viable it needs to be linked into a tourism and heritage route in the area which could include the towns of Greytown and Kranskop, the Greytown Museum, Hermannsburg Mission House Museum, Bamabatha's Kraal on the Keats Drift road, the Ngome Community Game Ranch, Montello private game ranch, Mhlopheni Nature Reserve, Olifantshoek Nature Trails, Umvoti Vlei Bird Trail and Hide, the Blinkwater Trail, the Silo Trail, and the Shu Shu Hot Springs.

For the present proposed redevelopment a study has been undertaken by the consultants, Policy and Praxis, "to assess the financial feasibility of the proposed rehabilitation of Lilani's Hot Springs and the construction of accommodation facilities in the Lilani valley" (Persad, *et al*, 1998: 2). The three options investigated were a lodge owned solely by an investor, a 50/50-equity partnership and a 75/25 equity option, with the community controlling a 25 percent equity stake in the proposed project. Persad *et al* (1998: 2) say the financial benefits of the project to the community in all of the options proposed are ultimately linked to the competitiveness of the proposed facilities and their associated profit margins. For the community the benefits extend beyond issues of money.



“The community would gain from an improved infrastructure (access to water and upgraded roads), from having a revenue structure in its midst and its associated multiplier effects, from the employment generated in the construction and operation of the lodge and the transfer of skills which may also occur in these processes” (Persad, *et al*, 1998: 2).

### 5.3.3 The Local People’s Perspective

The community, living in homesteads scattered in the Lilani Valley, forms part of the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority. There are a number of facilities serving the local community such as a Methodist church, a Catholic church, a store and two schools. The community are involved in subsistence agriculture and rely mainly on income from pensions and members of the community working in towns and cities as far away as Durban and Johannesburg.

The key objective of the redevelopment of the hot springs resort is the social upliftment of this community by providing employment and a source of income. The support of this initiative has been further enhanced by the fact that R2.56 million, additional to the R400 000 given to undertake the preparatory work such as the architectural drawings and Environmental Impact Assessment, has been given to this project in the latter part of 2000 from the Poverty Relief Fund ([www.tourism.kzn.org](http://www.tourism.kzn.org)). It is one of four tourism projects which has been selected to receive this funding at this time. The handing over ceremony to the Mthembu-Sithole Development Trust of this money was on Sunday 26 November 2000 (Natal Witness, 28 November 2000, pg. 5). The Mthembu-Sithole Development Trust has been established, with the assistance of the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority, to facilitate the present initiative and the Trustees, chaired by Mr Quabe, will represent the Tribal Authority in the negotiations for the establishment of a resort at the Lilani Hot Springs.

The perspective of the local people on the redevelopment of the Lilani hot springs resort centres around the spin-offs which they envisage will come about as a result of such a development. Historically the resort brought development and employment into the valley and it is considered that this is what older members of the community remember and therefore see as what could possibly happen in the future. The ownership of the resort by the community will result in the community benefiting directly from the profits of the resort unlike what happened in the past where the money paid for the lease was paid to the government.

The community is looking forward to and has a very positive attitude towards the redevelopment of the resort. A concern is that they only see the positive aspects of the proposed redevelopment and do not

seem to realise that there will also be some negative effects. This was clearly illustrated during a community meeting held in 1996 for the opportunity of the then KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation, now the Itala Development Corporation, to address the people concerning development proposals. A presentation was given at a public meeting at the old Lilani hotel by the engineering firm Scott Wilson who proposed the creation of a game park in the valley as an additional attraction to the hot springs in order to increase the proposed resort's viability. The community heard the presentation, as it was translated into Zulu, but they never comprehended what was actually proposed, but only the fact that the road and other infrastructure was going to be upgraded. The proposal included moving all the people out of the valley, save the retention of a few families living in a cultural village setting. When the community heard of the improvements they were jubilant but in their jubilation they did not realise that the proposal did not include them in the equation. A proposal like this may have environmental and economic reasoning but would require extensive consultation and agreement before such an idea could ever be embarked upon because of the social upheaval it would inflict upon the people.



Fig. 5.23 A View of the Homesteads around the Lilani Hot Springs in October 2000

iNkosi (chief) Sithole of the Sithole-Mthembu tribe died in 1987, and a replacement has not yet been appointed (Quabe, 2000). The lack of leadership has hindered progress and the reasons around the leadership void, if investigated, may reveal the reasons surrounding the community's inability to capitalise on the economic benefits which could be generated from the resource they have in terms of the hot springs. With the final demise of any outside management of the old resort in the mid 1990's the people were not able to initiate the continued maintenance and clearing of the resort facilities nor to collect an entrance fee from the few people who continue to frequent the hot springs. It is a known that "local communities, for the most part, do not have the skills or the resources to take full advantage of their tourism potential" (Norris, 1995: 2). In the case of Lilani, where consultants and parastatals claim to have been working with the community for many years, in the case of KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation since at least 1992, they have never been able to impart to the leaders of the Sithole-Mthembu tribe, nor the people, the value of the old resort buildings and the natural resources,

in the form of the hot springs and the natural beauty of the valley, available to them. The destruction of the old hotel building during April and May 1998 further illustrated the lack of leadership to direct the community into preserving a valuable asset which could have been revitalised at a lower cost to building new buildings in such an isolated place. The present consultants held two discussion workshops with the community leadership and Persad, *et al* (1998: 6) say they

“led the discussion on the design concept, marketing and feasibility of the proposed facilities. At the outset it must be noted that the community’s inputs at these workshops was very brief. Indeed, the community indicated that the key decisions related to the type of facilities and possible equity options that could be pursued by themselves must be suggested by the consultants and representatives of DEAT [now the Department of Economic Development and Tourism (DEDT)] and the KZNTA [KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority]. The community made it explicit that they trusted both the consultants and the DEAT/KZNTA representatives and relied on the skills they brought to the process. Nevertheless at least some direction was provided by these workshops in the form of indications of the options that should be pursued by the consultants.”

The meetings were held at the tribal court, at Eshane, showing that, though they are part of the tribe, the people of Lilani are being overshadowed by others living outside the valley, who already have many services and a tarred road. The community is totally reliant on the consultants and outsiders, so it depends on the outsiders’ commitment for the completion and successful management of this project. This is hopefully set to change with the establishment of the Mthembu-Sithole Development Trust and the initiation of the redevelopment of the hot springs resort with the funding and backing of the provincial government.

It is clear from the socio-economic information that the community sees the advantages of the development as receiving services and other spin-offs for their benefit. The community seems happy to surrender access and control over some land in return for the economic advantages tourism is expected to bring. It is unclear if the community realises how much land is really required for a successful resort. The old resort was on a 12 hectare site which incorporated the store and the Radium Spring and thus the site incorporates at least five homesteads. The distance between the western and eastern springs is approximately 750 metres.

Though the Lilani Hot Springs are only 103km from Pietermaritzburg, the people are isolated from the outside world to a great extent because of the limiting factor of the access road. This expressed need by the community for the road to be upgraded and access improved is seen as a major way of bringing

upliftment to the community. The cost and difficulty of upgrading the access road to a two-lane road and even the thought of linking the access road to the road on the eastern side of the Hlimbitwa River, takes no consideration of the impact on the peaceful nature of the environment in which the people currently live, let alone other environmental impacts of such roadworks.

There are profound differences in the subregion between the predominately subsistence agricultural activities occurring in the tribal areas of the old KwaZulu districts, and commercial agriculture in the remainder of the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The Sithole-Mthembu tribal authority borders commercial agriculture, consisting of sugar cane lands and wattle plantations. The two access roads into the tribal area, the one to the Lilani Hot Springs and the other to Eshane, are along district roads past commercial farmland growing these two crops. Only a small portion of the tribal land at Eshane would have been suitable for this type of farming if it had not been used for residential purposes and subsistence agriculture, as is most of the tribal authority area in the Hlimbitwa and Lilani valleys.

The people living in the valley are generally very poor and there are mainly old women and men, and children living in the valley. In earlier times the young men worked on the mines but now there are more young men around as jobs are harder to find (Labuschagne, 1996). But as tourism is destined to return to Lilani in the near future, it will give an opportunity for some people to be employed at the resort and others may be able to sell their produce and crafts to the resort and visiting tourists. The community has traditional dancing to offer, as demonstrated by the youth and adults at community functions. The school choir has also shown itself to consist of very accomplished singers and has done well in interschool competitions in the province and nationally. These talents could be used to entertain tourists. The lack of English by many of the local Lilani community may be a barrier to genuine local contact by tourists and also hinder employment in some categories of work.

A potential threat to the marketing of tourism in this area is the continued violence including murders in the region. When the media reports on the violence, they give a general name to the area in which it has occurred and names such as Kranskop, Matimatolo and Mapamulo are used to describe the region. The same names are associated with the Lilani Valley and even though they may not be close, perceptions are created that it is a dangerous area to go into. These perceptions are not all unfounded as at least five people have been murdered in their homes within a 500 metre radius of the old hotel site between 1996 and 2000 (Quabe, 2000).

Oral tradition states that Mr Mbulungeni, who was an early member of the community and who could have been an inkosi of the community, found the hot springs in the Lilani Valley. Mr Mbulungeni is

said to have sat on a large rock while waiting for the sunrays to shine into the valley, either before or after having a bath in the hot springs. He was buried beside the large rock and to some of the community it is known as a Remembrance Rock and to others as the man's gravestone (Nkomo, 2000).

The Remembrance Rock for Mr Mbulungeni is situated above the road, at the last fork to the right before the turning circle at the old hotel site. It is Anderson's (2000: 5) opinion that the Remembrance Rock has tourism potential. Anderson (2000: 8) states that "by using the communities direct history and the colonial history a viable and historical interpretation of the Lilani Hot Springs can be added as part of the tourist experience." It is his opinion that it can be used to enhance any future development plans for the Lilani Hot Springs. Also, "the Remembrance Rock should not be moved and a permit will be required for any changes to its current location" (Anderson, 2000: 7). This, and other oral history, could be incorporated into the development by displaying written accounts of them so that tourists can read and appreciate the communities' history.



Fig. 5.24 A View of the Lilani Valley from above the Old Hot Springs Resort in October 2000

In investigating the historical use of the springs, Caruso (1996) stated that in the early days the Bantu did not like using the hot water. This view was supported by Labuschagne (1996) who stated that Blacks started using the hot water after pools were developed. This information tallies with what has happened to the most easterly of the springs, the abandoned spring, in that since soil has caved into the pool from the bank on the northern side, it has not been removed. Also none of the other pools, and especially the rudimentarily developed pools, have been developed by the community to improve their use for the community's benefit. This brings into question the priority in cultural terms these hot springs have to the community living in close proximity to them. It appears that the hot springs are simply a local convenience and that once a pool developed by the old resort ceases to function it is allowed to be abandoned and no one appears to care. The community use the hot springs for bathing and washing

clothes in, but very little maintenance, even in the rudimentary fashion, has ever been done by them. In contrast, when the hot springs were an economically run resort the Sulphur Spring was developed to supply three swimming pools with water and individual baths, and the Radium Spring, which also formed part of the resort, and Zulu Springs, which were for the use of the local community, were developed as stone and cement walled pools.

#### **5.4 THE POTENTIAL IMPACT OF TOURISM ON THE LILANI VALLEY AND ITS PEOPLE**

##### **5.4.1 The Environmental Impact of Tourism Development**

Natural environments are continually under pressure by the world's growing population ever in need of land either to extract natural resources or to satisfy the growing need for housing and agriculture. Land in its natural form must be seen to be productive in some form so as to resist this challenge. In the case of the Lilani Hot Springs, eco-tourism is one way of conserving the natural environment and at the same time providing an income for those who own the land and live in the vicinity of the resource.

As the aim of the new development at Lilani Hot Springs is to have the community participating in the ownership and management of the resort, the profits generated will directly benefit the community. It is hoped that as the local community earns an income from the hot springs and the surrounding natural environment, they will become a 'first line of defence' for those areas, valuing them in their natural state.

One of the problems associated with tourism and its impact on the environment is that the tourist wants to visit unspoilt areas but also wants to enjoy all the comforts of the home environment, as well as the luxury of being on holiday. The impact of this is intensified by the increase in the number of visitors. Tourism can be a major offender in contributing to the pollution of an area and thus to the degradation of the environment. Since tourism relies partly on the amenity value of the environment it is important that all aspects of pollution are monitored. In this way the Lilani Valley and the redeveloped hot springs resort will not fall into the trap of the area becoming degraded and thus undesirable for tourists.

One must not forget that the existing pollution in the area in which a tourism facility is to be located, especially when located in rural tribal areas with no sanitation, can have an impact on tourists and the running of the tourism facility. Contaminated water, high levels of ecoli in streams and rivers, plastic bags littering the countryside, failure to bury household waste and the associated flies and possibly

disease, all are a threat to tourism. As members of the community are located close to the hot springs at Lilani, this situation will have to be addressed by any development. In addition, the tourism facility may add to the strain on the environment if control measures are not put into place to deal with the potential additional pollution associated with extra people, besides the existing problem. Litter bins should be readily available and also attractively designed and in keeping with the architectural theme of the resort. The disposal of the litter and other refuse from the resort would need to be transported to the regional landfill site.

The generation of electricity via a diesel engine for the old Lilani resort must have increased air and noise pollution. This means will not have to be taken at the new resort as an Eskom electricity supply is available in relatively close proximity to the site, at Eshane. However, the developer should be sensitive to the aesthetics of the environment and not use overhead cables and thus conserve the visual amenity of the area from being polluted by poles and wires across the countryside. This is a likely condition upon which EIA approval will be granted and is a situation in which mitigation is strongly possible.

With a greater environmental awareness among the government and the tourism industry, tourism may not necessarily always create or add to pollution problems. Hunter and Green (1995: 22) say that increasingly, it would appear that infrastructure for the treatment and disposal of waste is being built or upgraded, often rather belatedly, to accommodate tourism developments, with net benefits for local environmental quality. Also, tourism may bring a greater awareness of South Africa's environmental legislation to the community at Lilani.

Present environmental legislation requires an Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) for establishing a resort such as the one proposed at Lilani Hot Springs. There appears to be no major concerns related to the development which can not be mitigated or overcome. What is very important is an Environmental Management Plan (EMP) for the area so the resort and its surrounding area is managed on an environmentally sustainable basis. As the resort will most probably be a joint venture with the private sector and the community, an area of land larger than just the piece the resort is situated on could be incorporated into the EMP so that the area as a whole could be well managed. For this to be monitored, an environmental audit should be incorporated into the development process to ensure that the ideas encapsulated in the EMP are actually achieved.

Environmental pollution is as much aesthetic as it is physical and any tourism development at Lilani needs to protect what remains of the scenic beauty of the valley which has the potential of attracting

tourists as much as the hot springs. If they allow the natural landscape to be lost to degradation or development the situation will eventually result in the site no longer being seen as 'scenic', and the tourists will move on to find somewhere more tranquil and beautiful to enjoy their leisure time.

The architecture and amenity of the resort complex needs to be sensitively designed to integrate the resort buildings and infrastructure with aesthetically pleasing characteristics of the surrounding natural environment. This can be achieved by building the resort in locally available materials, such as the various types of rock found in the valley, or conforming to the vernacular styles of architecture, that is, the building style indigenous to the region. An additional way of achieving this is to limit the height of buildings to that of the surrounding trees. The rather staged results, with thatched cottages vaguely resembling African homesteads may be questioned, but no one questions the appeal which these accommodation units have for tourists. Such guidelines on the style of resort developments must apply to all buildings in the vicinity, not just to those for tourism.

When driving to Lilani Hot Springs on the meandering access road the tourist is shown indigenous Zulu homesteads of varying quality. If this was all indigenous styled housing, it would add to the scenic beauty of the gateway to the hot springs. However, western styled houses balanced precariously on steep slopes have been built in the area and detract from the image otherwise created. Also an increasing number of homesteads exist very close to the hot springs and once again many of these developments are not of a traditional Zulu style but of a semi-westernised type house. The close proximity of these houses to the tourism resort and the style they are built in does not present an environment conducive to recreation and tourism. The identified need to improve the surrounding built environment is not new and Farrell and van Riet (1979: 5) say that "apart from the re-development of the actual resort an effort should be made to encourage people residing in the immediate environment of the resort to improve the quality of their houses and immediate surroundings."

The main view from the site of the hot springs and old hotel is in a southerly direction and the scenic beauty of the view is marred by the construction of the primary school on the southern bank of the Lilani River (Fig. 5.14) and natural Zulu farmland landscape with erosion dongas, some semi westernised type houses and small patches of cultivated fields. The site of the resort, with hot springs to the east and west of it, is clearly defined by the Lilani River to the south and steep slopes to the east and north of the site (Fig. 5.14 and 5.16). The Sulphur spring is situated on a steep area of the site and this limits the development of a mineral bath. Three of the mineral springs are situated very close to the flood plain and these springs have through the years been developed for the utilisation by the local community as a public bath amenity. Development of these springs consists of rough stone work but apart from this,



these springs are in their natural state. Any planning of Lilani must make provision for these springs to continue to function as public baths for the local population.

There are environmental benefits which can follow the growth of tourism. For instance, tourism may be used as a catalyst to revitalise and improve degraded rural areas, bringing in investment and encouraging environmental upgrading. “The beautification of derelict or aesthetically unappealing areas can do much to counteract the potential negative visual impacts associated with overcrowding, litter, traffic congestion and the construction of inappropriate buildings” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 32) which are not in keeping with the local landscape. One drawback is that even where environmental benefits do occur, these may accrue largely to the tourists or those working at the tourism development.

Mass tourism in the latter part of the twentieth century has created the problem of congestion. This problem manifests itself in two forms, at a psychological level as well as a physical one. The physical congestion is more easily measured in terms of the capacity of an area to cope with tourists as roads, accommodation, car parks, beaches, and all tourist visitor destinations have a finite limit to the number of tourists which they can accommodate at any given time. The psychological congestion of a site is equally important as “this is the degree of congestion which tourists will tolerate before the site starts to lose its appeal” (Holloway, 1998: 314). This is far more difficult to quantify, as the perception of capacity will differ according to the nature of the site itself and also to the type of people attracted to a particular site.

The concept of a tourism carrying capacity has attracted much attention, presenting the idea of being able to measure the ability of an area to sustain a given number of tourists that does not pose a threat to ecological or social systems. Barkham (1973, in Ryan, 1991: 107) indicates that “carrying capacity is a phrase delightful in its simplicity, complex in its meaning and difficult to define, as in different situations and to different people it is understood in different ways.”

A problem with the Lilani Hot Springs is that the psychological capacity will be met when the car parking area is full, especially in the way it is laid out at present. People will be put off by the thought of coming so far and finding a crowd. Also, as the road is a narrow one laned access road for the last 10km to the Lilani Hot Springs, people will not want to meet cars all along the road travelling in the opposite direction, where they will have to reverse into passing bays to let them through, or wait until another person has passed.

There will have to be care and consultation in the use of fresh water from springs for the tourism resort. Conflict can arise at tourist destinations between local communities and those involved in tourism over the issue of fresh water and this must be avoided. It must be realised that tourism resorts can use considerably more water than the local community for cooking, washing linen and dishes, showering, swimming pools and watering lawns.

Mashy wetland areas have been created by the water from the hot springs. There are two distinct areas, one south of the “Radium Bath” spring and the other on the flood plain below the “Zulu Baths” springs. Joslin (2000: 9) says “these wetlands appear to perform a bioremediation function in removing pollutants, which contaminate the water from the thermal spring pools through their present use for washing, bathing etc.” It is his opinion that these wetlands should be protected and form a part of any future development to ensure the continuance of these natural water-cleaning processes.

Joslin (2000: 10) observed that the Lilani River contains “a rich diversity of invertebrate species such as molluscs, crustaceans and the nymphs and larvae of insects such as *coleoptera* (beetles) and *ephemeroptera* (mayflies). This is indicative of unpolluted water with a high level of dissolved oxygen.”

During the construction phase and the running of tourism developments the natural resources of a destination area, which include the biological, physical, renewable and non-renewable resources, may become altered, impoverished or depleted. An example of this is in the use of wood for braais, a practice which could increase the rate of deforestation by the local community to provide fuel-wood for tourists at the self catering accommodation and camping sites. The tourism resort will need to bring wood from outside the valley so as to ensure the existing indigenous forest is not further depleted. This could be an entrepreneurial opportunity for members of the local community to engage in but would have to be monitored to ensure that the wood was sourced from exotic trees.

It is essential that the environmental balance is maintained and in the case of the Lilani Hot Springs, rocks have already been removed out of the river bed for the construction of the future resort. The removal of a large quantity of rocks from a small area in the river bed will have environmental consequences and could affect the wide flood plain during a flood.

Many cycads have been removed from the Lilani valley during the 1996-1998 period, especially around the old resort site which is also the end of the district road. This was most probably for economic gain but even souvenir-hunting by tourists can affect the ecological balance of a region by the selective

removal, collection or killing of often rare plants and animals. Though there can be this negative impact, tourism developments often can result in the rehabilitation of the indigenous vegetation especially in areas degraded or disturbed by human settlement and agriculture.

Vegetation cover is also lost or damaged through trampling by walkers or crushing by tourist vehicles. This form of environmental degradation is often accompanied by soil compaction and a loss of soil structure, leading to increased surface water runoff, soil erosion and a decline in species diversity (Hunter and Green, 1995: 15). The Lilani Valley is already subjected to much trampling by walkers as the community live in a dispersed settlement pattern.

According to Camp (1999) the northern side of the Lilani Valley, approximately divided by the Lilani River, is Moist Coast Hinterland Ngongoni Veld, while the southern side is Coastal Hinterland Thornveld. On top of the escarpment, at both Eshane and Matimatolo, is Moist Midlands Mistbelt. Acocks (1988: 24) says the Ngongoni Veld, where the hot springs are located, is found between  $\pm 450$  and  $\pm 900$  metres above sea level and in a rainfall range from 750 to 1300mm per annum. "According to the KZN Nature Conservation Service the vegetation type for the area is coastal hinterland short forest (wooded savanna/Zululand Thornveld), which is rated as having moderate conservation interest" (Joslin, 2000: 10). Indigenous trees identified on the site of the old resort, confirming Acocks classification, are *Ficus natalensis* (Natal fig), *Cussonia spicata* (common cabbage tree) and *Syzygium cordatum* (umdoni).

The exotic plants are very prominent around the old hotel site. The gardens were once very beautiful and remnants can still be seen. Jacaranda and other exotic trees were planted to provide shade. There are a number of valuable mature trees which should be preserved and incorporated into the redeveloped resort. The stability of the site, given its relative steepness, will be aided by keeping as many of the larger trees as possible, including exotics such as jacarandas and eucalyptus, which bind the soil with their roots. Joslin (2000: 7) suggests that these exotic species should gradually be replaced by appropriate indigenous species and not all removed at once. This would allow time for indigenous trees to grow under the protection of other plants and the exotic trees will provide shade for tourists and present an established appearance to the resort.

Erosion of a serious nature is common to the whole area to the south of the Lilani River and below the Matimatolo escarpment. The erosion is a natural phenomenon due here to the types of soil and underlying rock, and it is being increased by agricultural activities, veld fires and overgrazing. Any development that may be planned in the Lilani Valley will require serious steps to be taken to reclaim

the erosion and to improve agriculture practises on the southern slope. The topography of the northern slope presents a beautiful natural scene with a diversity of natural assets such as forest patches, waterfalls, cascades and krantzes. Verster *et al* (1992) assert that “soil erosion may well be the greatest environmental problem facing South Africa.” So this problem is not unique to the Lilani Valley but will directly affect the visual scenic beauty of the area, especially as tourists enter along the access road.

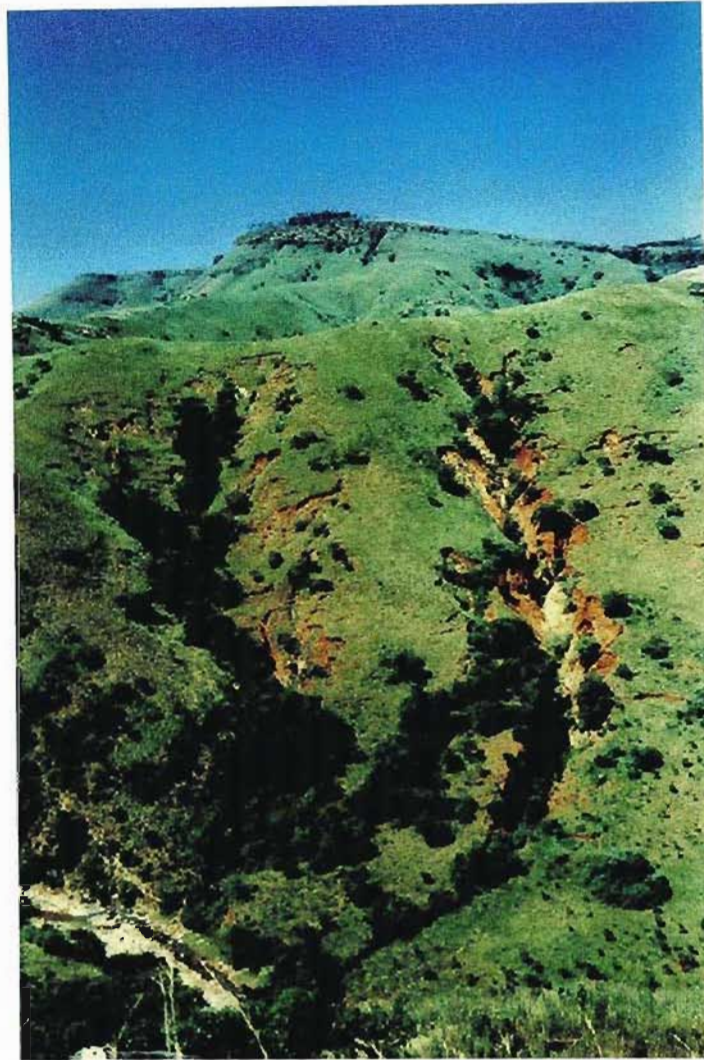


Fig. 5.25 Erosion on the Southern Slope of the Lilani Valley

Tourism orientated literature deals with the environment as though it is not under any threat until tourism arrives, and thus the impact it may and does have. There is a need to look at the whole picture of where the local community live, including where commercial farming is taking place, as the impact by these groups of people is severe on the environment. As populations grow they may no longer be the ‘good custodians of the land’ but instead contribute towards environmental degradation. An example of this is the Dukuduku state forest situation, on the KwaZulu-Natal north coast, where people stated that they wanted to return to their land and harvest, on an economically sustainable basis, the

resources of the indigenous forest. In reality they cleared their plots of all vegetation and exposed it to erosion besides destroying the natural forest. This problem has still not been resolved by the KwaZulu-Natal provincial government, even though a lot of resources and energy have been expended by them in this regard. Whatever happens at Lilani, it must be realised that the increasing population and grazing pressures on the land are going to continue and will need to be addressed so as to avert an environmental disaster.

There is also an accumulative negative effect on the environment as tourism facilities are being developed in the tribal areas of rural KwaZulu-Natal which is already burdened by the existing high populations, with no sanitation facilities. When considering a new development the existing population must be taken into consideration as an existing factor which has an impact on the land. The environment is under pressure at Lilani with the growing number of people moving into the area, maybe with the hope of finding a job in the promised tourism resort. Though there can be negative impacts by tourism on the environment, in the case of Lilani, the pressure of people presently living in the valley will have a negative impact on tourism, so the movement of more people into the valley should be discouraged to lesson any increase in pressure on the environment and hopefully create the desire for people to preserve the area for tourism.

“On a more positive note, there are many studies in the literature which emphasise the actual or potential benefits of tourism to the wildlife of an area. Tourism may result in the creation, or continued existence, of a wildlife park or reserve for example. Similarly, habitat restoration appears to be becoming more frequently associated with tourism projects” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 18) and thus the tourism industry can become an ally of environmental conservation as tourism also will be adversely affected upon if the environment is degraded or destroyed. “As long as ecotourism is seen as a potentially valuable tool to be applied judiciously, and not as a panacea, there is reason for a good deal of optimism. ‘We are pretty sure ecotourism, by itself, cannot assure conservation,’ concludes Conservation International’s Karen Ziffer. ‘However, it can be a very powerful part of an overall conservation strategy’” (Norris, 1995: 3).

Sustainable development is required to ensure that the environment is taken into consideration and protected for the next generation to enjoy. There are those who take issue with the term sustainable development because of its emphasis on ‘development’ which, to some, is at the root of environmental malaise. The obvious challenge is translating sustainable development into practice (Schulkin and Sarokin, 1996: 286). The alternative is to stop development but “on the other hand, can the planet

continue to withstand the effects of massive poverty which debilitates the environment as well as the people who suffer through it?" (Schulkin and Sarokin, 1996: 286).

#### 5.4.2 The Economic Impact of Tourism Development

"Tourism has been identified as one of the fastest growing industries in the world" (Ryan, 1991: 65). It also has been stated that "travel and tourism is the world's largest industry and its most powerful generator of jobs" (Saunders, 1996: 2). This growth in the tourism industry is occurring in South Africa and government departments are taking an active part in its promotion as they realise tourism is a means of generating employment and income which benefits both the main stream and marginalised economies. De Kadt (1992, in Archer, 1996: 8) maintains that there is a need for future growth in some countries and regions in order to improve the material well-being of the resident population, and there is also a need for policy-makers to promote sustainability by constantly striving to make conventional tourism more sustainable. But De Kadt (1992, in Archer, 1996: 8) also recognizes that "many 'alternative forms of tourism' will continue to evolve but, for economic reasons, will 'almost inevitably [ride] ... piggy-back on the more cost-effective forms of the conventional, integrated international tourism industry'."

There are a number of determinants of economic impact associated with tourism. One of them is the "level of economic development of the destination area" (Ryan, 1991: 67). A second is the nature of the tourist facilities and their attractiveness as they help to determine the total expenditure that takes place. Another factor is the degree of foreign ownership of the resort. Although the resort may be successful in attracting guests, the leakages of revenue away from the area in which it is located may be increased by factors other than simply where the resort management buys its resources. Foreign owners will take their profits out of the country and therefore that money will not go into the local economy. But in considering this fact, it must not be forgotten that foreign capital would have been initially injected into the economy to develop the tourist facility or attraction. This scenario is not restricted to hotels or retail businesses, but is repeated wherever the tourist business is not owned by local people (Ryan, 1991: 67).

The impact of tourist expenditure in terms of generating local revenue may also be partly diminished by the employment of labour from outside the area. A reason for this may be that businesses require expertise not found in the host community, as they may lack the experience of managing large-scale organisations (Ryan, 1991: 68). This may be a very real factor in the case of Lilani but the training and

employment of the younger generation may see young management staff emerging from within the ranks of the community.

In many cases the government will have to provide a range of infrastructural support. Accessibility will be improved by the provision of roads and car parking spaces, utility services will need to be provided including sewage disposal and treatment, refuse removal and water treatment plants. In a rural context the provision of services by government may be very minimal and only consist of roads, and the services at the resort would be at the cost of the developer. The provision of such services requires funding, and where national government is involved, “the simple economic costs of expenditure on these investments is shared amongst the wider community, and not simply the host community in the tourist destination” (Ryan, 1991: 69). If a private developer is required to supply them, this will be a further financial outlay which will require the developer to make more profit to make it a worth while financial venture. “The final balance sheet of costs and revenues will thus depend upon the success of the venture, for there is no guarantee of success” (Ryan, 1991: 69).

These issues tend to be ‘supply led’ in nature, and indicate the economic flows that arise from the provision of services to tourists. But the impact of tourists themselves is greater the larger the number of tourists, and the higher the average expenditure per tourist. Also the nature of their demand is important as if mass tourists require items that the local community is unable to provide, the result is that a significant proportion of the revenue gained from tourism is immediately lost in terms of the need to import those items from outside the region or country. “Greater numbers of high spending tourists may, perversely, have less beneficial impact than a smaller number of lower spending tourists if the latter creates a lesser need to import” (Ryan, 1991: 70). Equally, it can be argued that larger numbers of tourists generate higher social costs in terms of their impingement upon the life styles of the host community. This is particularly true if there exists wide disparities between the life styles of the tourist and the local population (Ryan, 1991: 69-70).

The economic impacts of tourism are complex to assess but it is possible to identify some of the variables which will determine the value of the impact. Ryan (1991: 91-92) summarised them as being:

- “1. The nature of the tourist facilities and their attractions. The size of the tourist destination and its context is important. Can the tourist destination absorb large numbers of tourists and does it have the necessary infrastructure, both physically and economically to not only support any given number of tourists but to also retain tourist expenditures within its own area?

2. The volume, and nature, of the tourists and their spending patterns. Can the area sustain tourists requiring overnight stays, or is it simply meeting a need for day visits? What are the forms of accommodation that are available? Are the tourists visiting all the year round, or simply at certain times of the year? Do they tend to patronise local businesses? Do they require resources from outside the host community?
3. The skills of the host community and the levels of, and numbers of, jobs held by them. Do tourist organisations import labour of all types, or can the local labour force meet the requirement of the tourist enterprises?
4. Are local tourist facilities owned by members of the host community? What is the size of businesses? To what extent are they locally financed?"

From an economist's viewpoint "tourism is basically an economic activity on the part of the host country. Its main advantage is that it generates employment, income and foreign exchange inflows" (Archer, *et al*, 1996: 1). Harrison and Price (1996: 1) say "tourism is an economic activity that is imposed, or at least grafted, on a pre-existing set of economic activities and traditional ways of life." Like other industries, tourism affects the economy of those areas where it takes place, whether it be on a local, regional, provincial or national scale.

The income that tourism generates is in the form of wages and salaries, interest, rent, profits and taxes. As tourism is a labour intensive industry, the greatest proportion of income generated is likely to be derived from wages and salaries paid to those working in the industry either directly by serving the needs of tourists or benefiting indirectly from the tourists' expenditure. Holloway (1998: 46) says the income generated "will be greater in those areas which receive large numbers of tourists, where visitors tend to stay for longer periods, where the destination attracts an up-market or more free-spending clientele, and where there are many opportunities to spend." One of the major economic problems for Lilani is that other than the hot springs resort and the store there are no other existing opportunities for tourists to spend money in the valley. For the community to benefit fully from tourism, other small enterprises need to be developed. The profit margins may be small as it will depend on what they can produce, what appeals to the tourists and the number of tourists who visit the resort.

It is considered that "tourism may in fact be of greater value in those areas where there are few other opportunities for employment" (Holloway, 1998: 46). However, the tourism industry is often criticised for providing only low-wage, seasonal employment, but Holloway (1998: 46) says "this is in fact a gross exaggeration, and many posts associated with the tourism business are neither seasonal nor temporary."



Concerning low-wage jobs, it must be taken into account that in places where this is considered the case if there was no tourism in the area, many workers would be unemployed, as there may be few alternatives. In the Lilani Valley other than those who work in the store, school teachers and a few small entrepreneurs, there are no employment opportunities and many people have had to leave the valley in search of work.

“Tourism’s contribution to the income of an area is enhanced by a phenomenon known as the *tourism income multiplier* (TIM). This arises because money spent by tourists in the area will be re-spent by recipients, augmenting the total” (Holloway, 1998: 47). The multiplier is the factor by which the money spent by the tourist is increased in this process. Each time the money is circulated in this way, some will be lost to the area. Taxes paid are transmitted outside the area, some of the savings may be similarly removed from the area, and some of the money spent will have gone to pay for goods imported into the area from other regions of the country or even from overseas. Expenditures in which the money is lost to other areas are known as *leakages* from the system (Holloway, 1998: 47). “So in an economy with a high proportion of leakages, such as high tax rates, ... or where many of the goods demanded by consumers are imported, TIM may be quite low, and the economy will not benefit greatly from tourism” (Holloway, 1998: 48). Taxation is raised on tourism activities, such as Valued Added Tax (VAT) on accommodation bills and other purchases or the direct taxation which South Africa levies on tourists to raise additional public income such as at airports and at KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services game parks and resorts. However, it must be remembered that the government does reinvest its revenue raised via taxes into the local economy and in Lilani it does this by building and maintaining the access road, running and staffing the two schools and two clinics, one being at Eshane and the other a mobile one serving the valley, and providing services like police.

Tourism is also an important generator of employment in the economy. Jobs are created in travel agencies, tour operators and other intermediaries which supply tourist services in both the generating and destination areas. Transport companies such as airlines and coach operators also employ staff to serve tourists in both areas. But the bulk of employment is in the destination country, with jobs ranging from hotel managers to waiters and waitresses, from excursion booking clerks to cleaning and maintenance staff. For the community in the Lilani Valley to benefit the most from employment at the resort they need to allow for a resort to be developed with good management and financial backing so that it can attract a good number of tourists and thus employ the greatest number of members from the local community.

Tourism can be seen as an industry and one important characteristic of the tourism industry is that it is labour-intensive. Smith (1995: 7) says “a given level of revenue or capital investment creates many more jobs in tourism than the same level of revenue or investment would in agriculture, automobile manufacturing or petrochemicals.” Holloway (1998: 50) says “the extent to which tourism benefits employment can be seen when it is appreciated that roughly one job in fifteen in the world is directly ascribed to tourism, according to estimates by the World Travel and Tourism Council.”

“The multiplier which affects income in a region affects employment in the same way” (Holloway, 1998: 50). Employment is directly created in the tourism industry where tourists visit and stay at a destination. The employees and their families living in the neighbourhood also buy goods and services locally and require education and medical care. This in turn gives rise to jobs in shops, schools and hospitals to serve these needs. The value of the employment multiplier is likely to be broadly similar to that of the TIM. Fortunately for those destination areas which rely heavily on the tourism industry to create employment, and where the tourist seeks a high level of personal service, the nature of the tourist experience will ensure that technology cannot replace many jobs (Holloway, 1998: 50).

“It can be observed that the values of the multipliers decline the smaller the area under study, a reflection of the greater propensity for leakages that exist in smaller areas since they are less likely to be economically self-sustaining” (Ryan, 1991: 78). The Lilani Valley, if seen in isolation will have a very high leakage but if seen in the context of the new Umvoti Municipality, incorporating the Umvoti and Kranskop magisterial districts, will potentially add great value to this region and therefore the employment of the region.

Ryan (1991: 82) says “Tourism in developing economies may not only have positive multiplier effects from the ‘injections’ of tourist spending, but there are also costs, and, indeed tourism may not generate as much additional income as is hoped.” Wages paid, whilst higher than possibly the earnings in alternative forms of employment, if available, are not always sufficiently high enough to improve the standard of living to any great extent. For the host community to derive the highest possible tourism multipliers to the tourism expenditure it is important that there is local ownership and control of the tourism enterprise. This viewpoint has its limitations as it is also important to obtain access to the tourism generating markets. Locally based businesses may not have this ability, and they will therefore need to utilise businesses located in those areas (Ryan, 1991: 82). If Lilani is to succeed it is going to be heavily reliant on the Department of Economic Development and Tourism, the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority and other organisations to advertise its existence. The number of tourists visiting

the resort and the amount of money they spend will dictate how many people are employed and how much they earn, and consequently how much the community benefits.

There is no doubt that in South Africa, on a national basis, the economic impact of tourism is already significant, but nevertheless, well below its potential. Saunders (1996: 10) says “on a national level the tourism multiplier has generally been estimated to be about 1,5 times. In rural areas, the impact is much less due to leakages and the failure to develop economic linkages to local communities and businesses.” Weak multipliers from tourism may be no more than a reflection of deficiencies in the support structure of the economic system. If labour is comparatively unskilled, if there are shortages of assets and infrastructure, then almost by definition any economic activity will suffer (Ryan, 1991: 85-86). In rural KwaZulu-Natal and especially in the tribal authority areas such as the one the Lilani Hot Springs are located in, the support structure of the economy is very weak. The lack of roads and other infrastructural provisions weaken any economic activity in the area and these could be strengthened. But conversely, the economic viability of the area needs to be taken into consideration as well. The two main assets of the Lilani Valley are the hot springs and the scenic beauty. Agricultural potential is limited by the topography and erosion potential of the area. Therefore to strengthen the support structure in the valley may actually destroy the only economic opportunity available.

The redevelopment of Lilani Hot Springs resort had a clear advantage in the form of the old hotel buildings over Shu Shu Hot Springs, being the other hot springs in close proximity to the large urban centres of KwaZulu-Natal. But this comparative economic advantages for containing development costs which may have existed for Lilani over Shu Shu has been reduced or totally removed since the main building at Lilani was systematically demolished during a six week period in April and May 1998. This loss of economic advantage will be very hard to regain as this activity shows a lack of respect for other people’s possessions and that the social pressures from the people living in the Lilani Valley are growing while the economic opportunities are not.

Some of the reasons for tourism’s far reaching and significant economic impacts are summarised as follows:

1. tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world;
2. tourism is a labour intensive industry which can generate large numbers of jobs. Often quoted statements are that one annual job is created on average by every 11 international tourists, and that tourism has one of the lowest ratios of investment to job creation. This is as a result of the tourism industry requiring a multiplicity of lower-level skills which creates employment opportunities for people who can gain appropriate on-the-job training;

3. employment can be created in a very short time-frame in the tourism industry;
4. entrepreneurial opportunities are created in the tourism industry and afford the potential for poor marginalised communities to take advantage of these opportunities;
5. tourism can bring development to rural areas which often have virtually no other economic opportunities other than low-level subsistence farming.
6. tourism is a finished good and unlike mining and some agricultural goods, tourism has amongst the highest levels of value added of all goods. This results in the value being added in the country receiving the tourists, ensuring that many sectors of the economy are involved in creating the tourism product;
7. tourism is a major generator of foreign exchange for those countries receiving tourists;
8. tourism has the potential of creating a massive economic multiplier effect because of its enormous potential for linkages throughout the economy. Tourism can stimulate other economic sectors in a country, such as agriculture, manufacturing, construction, and the service industry. Depending on the degree of economic development and the economic linkages within an area or a country, it is stated that the tourism multiplier can be up to 2 or 3 times the initial direct tourism expenditure; and,
9. the size and potential of the tourism industry can result in it being a major generator of taxes for governments.

(Saunders, 1996: 9-10)

#### 5.4.3 The Social and Cultural Impact of Tourism Development

Community benefits from tourism are a major focus of the South African government in its endeavour to uplift poor rural areas. Tourism projects are seen as a way of creating employment, raising income and improving skill levels. Eco-tourism developments, in particular, are thought to hold significant promise for uplifting poor rural communities and transferring wealth from the developed cities to peripheral rural areas. The role of communities in tourism development in South Africa has been extremely limited and in the past much development took place with little thought of the impact on the local communities, and often they were dispossessed of land in order to create parks and other tourism facilities. However, there is no doubt that, whilst what happened in the past was an incorrect approach, additional impacts now come into effect with the result of local communities becoming an integral and essential part of successful tourism development (Saunders, 1996: 3).

The level of involvement of rural communities in tourism activities ranges from leasing tribal land for game reserves, to joint private sector and local community projects with local entrepreneurs becoming suppliers of services and products for the tourism industry. The types of informal, small or medium

sized businesses in which the local people can become involved in to serve the tourism development at Lilani are growing vegetables for the resort's kitchen, laundry services, gardening services, speciality agriculture including herbs and organically-grown produce, production and selling of crafts, operating a craft shop at the resort, traditional cultural and historical attractions, including traditional dancing and singing, and even a small guest house or bed and breakfast in a traditional African homestead. Also there will be a need for suppliers of various articles for the resort, such as the collection of locally available building materials, thatching and interior decor items including rugs, wall hangings and art. Items used in the decor of the resort could also be available for sale to the tourists. Local building contractors could also be utilised for both the construction and maintenance of the resort facilities.

The old Lilani resort site has through the years developed into a form of a community focal point with the local store, the mobile clinic and the pension payout point at the site as well as a high school and a primary school in close proximity. These facilities are of great importance to the local people and must continue to exist for their benefit. It is quite obvious that the proposed land use of a high quality hot springs resort and the above mentioned social facilities are land uses in conflict (Farrell and van Riet, 1979: 8). Planning of the resort must tackle the whole picture and not just focus on the hot springs and the old hotel site. In the design concept of the redevelopment of Lilani a place for these community activities to continue to take place needs to be considered and constructed. This area may be set away from the resort site so that community activities and tourists are not jumbled together. The design of the resort must look at all the social aspects which are presently happening and work them into the overall design concept.

The redevelopment of Lilani will change the social behaviour of the local community in many aspects. Pedestrian movement of people, which is at present through the old hotel site and past the Sulphur Hot Spring, will need to change as this area will be set aside for tourists. If more land, which could be the size of the of the PTO which is 12 hectares, is not set aside for the tourism, the resort will be hemmed in by people living on the northern and western side of it. If more land is set aside, or the present PTO is given to the joint private developer and community based tourism venture, people will be forced to move. Security for the tourists will become an issue which will need to be provided for by the management of the resort. If the resort is fenced off, tourists will not want to see the fence close to their activities and the local community might not want to have that physical barrier cutting them off from a section of their land which has given them access to other facilities like the store and schools, forcing them to go around. The bigger the area set aside for tourism the better for the resort but also a bigger area to walk around for the local community. Also, the local community will find it hard to be

excluded, if they do not pay the entrance fee, from using the resort even when there are no tourists visiting the resort.

The tourism industry is closely associated with globalisation, and with increased access to more remote regions of the world, economic, social and cultural isolation of regions or communities are difficult to maintain. Harrison and Price (1996: 6) do raise the important point, however, that “social change is not new.” Social theory in general recognises that human societies must adapt to external pressures to survive, however, the difficulty is in assessing how much of this change is negative or positive.

Three key factors are suggested by Harrison and Price (1996) when considering a community’s response to tourism:

1. Access to local resources as it concerns the degree their own freedom will be limited by tourism, and illustrates that “they want the economic benefits brought by tourism, but also want to minimise the costs which tourism incurs” (Harrison and Price, 1996: 9).
2. Community cohesion and consensus as this varies widely from community to community and depending on the degree of consensus within a community and the approach taken when developing for tourism, communities can be drawn together or further divided.
3. External involvements as few communities are autonomous and most are willingly on the path to modernisation with the outside involvement of government and the private sector. What matters, if the social fragility of environments are to be protected, is to ensure that local institutions and voices are heard and the goals of the community efficiently implemented.

Sustainable tourism requires that the benefits of tourism to a community are equitable and that the wishes of the local community guide development (Harrison, 1996: 76). However, in reality, communities do not in general consist of one homogenous mass, as most societies contain deep divisions of class, status, power and gender. Harrison (1996: 77) says “in fact, as every social anthropologist knows, small communities in most known societies frequently contain deep divisions.” The aim of sufficiently uniting the wishes of local people is indeed difficult and often impossible to achieve (Harrison, 1996:83). Harrison (1996: 76) says:

“this sounds both reasonable and highly moral, until one asks exactly what it means, and then problems arise. Is everyone in the community, man, woman and child, to receive an equal share? Does this include the lazy and the deliberately unemployed? Men and Women? Are their shares to be the equal of one another and/or to those of everyone involved in the tourism industry in the region? Is this egalitarianism to be imposed even if it contravenes the norms of specific communities?”

Consensus in host communities cannot be assumed but the more comprehensive the consultation, the more involved the members of the local community are at all levels of decision making, and the fairer, not necessarily the most equal, the distribution of benefits appear, the more successful the tourism industry is likely to be. "In this way, there may indeed be a somewhat loose fit between local democracy and sustainable tourist development" (Harrison, 1996: 86).

The Sithole-Mthembu tribe does not appear to be a united community and the people living in different areas have varying social and economic status. The community in the Lilani Valley appear to have a lower status than those in Eshane and this could be attributed to the fact that the community are more isolated and less sophisticated than their neighbours. Also there is a question of who should be benefiting most from this hot springs resort, the community who live in the vicinity of it who have less economic opportunities than others in the tribe or the whole tribe, many of whom have very little to do with the hot springs because of the distance and semi-remoteness from where they live.

With the international growth of alternative tourism, including cultural tourism, concern has grown over the impact of tourism on local cultural environments. The term culture in this instance is used in its widest sense to refer to many of the social impacts and the social context of tourism development. There are a number of areas in which tourism can, both positively and negatively, impact on social and cultural aspects of the host community.

Traditional art and handicrafts are often the first things which local communities are able to produce as souvenirs for sale to tourists and this can lead to a resurgence in local art forms and help to regenerate an awareness and pride in local culture and traditions. This reviving of often dying local arts and craft skills has led to communities benefiting economically from the impact of tourism. The artist, in order to sell, might introduce changes that are not consistent with past traditions. It is also frequently argued that items produced for sale rather than for domestic use lose their cultural significance for producers. Art that is associated with religious symbolism may lose its meaning if it begins to meet totally different sets of criteria that may be imposed by what the tourist wants, or is perceived to want (Ryan, 1991: 138). Tourists are often satisfied to purchase what they believe to be an authentic example of local art and this has led to the mass production of poorly crafted works, sometimes referred to as *airport art*, common among African nations and the Pacific islands (Holloway, 1998: 330).

Alternately, it encourages the freezing of art styles in pseudo-traditional form (Holloway, 1998: 330). A culture is named, and stereotyped. The danger is that the myths are incorporated into the culture and succeeding generations do not know anything but the enactment of a past that may not have existed, and

come to accept it (Ryan, 1991: 154). Though “it is frequently difficult, if not impossible, to disaggregate tourism-related chains of cause and effect from the more general changes brought about by the globalisation of development” (Hunter and Green, 1995: 36).

Tourism has also helped to create an interest in traditional dress. Throughout the world performances for tourists help to maintain the existence of traditional dress as a means of retaining distinctive elements of a culture, and as statements of a tradition and past which are an explanation of the present. The negative aspect is it might be queried whether the occasion for the wearing of traditional dress is not also faked for the tourist (Ryan, 1991: 143).

Throughout the world, culture is being offered as a tourist resource, a commodity to be sold to tourists. This was initially motivated by a pride in their dance and dress but the sheer repetition resulted in the events becoming a professional show performed by paid actors. And yet in a changing world, an evolving modern society might arguably have no place for these past traditional performances were it not for tourism maintaining at least a bank of skills in dance and dress, so that the host society can call upon the traditions for its own cultural events (Ryan, 1991: 144).

The role of languages is an important social and cultural aspect of communities. Holloway (1998: 328) says that “language may form an impenetrable barrier to genuine local contact.” This is a major possibility for the Lilani community as it is only the younger people who speak English and very few of those who live in the valley are fluent in English. This also will be a barrier for the local community to initially participate in the running and management of the resort. This will most probably create a desire for local people to learn English as they see the comparative advantages of speaking the language. This could lead to the introduction of English words and phrases into Zulu speech. As a community’s language is one means by which it can maintain its distinctiveness from tourists or any other ‘outsider’, the erosion of language can have a significant implication for the host society, “for it implies a supplanting of its norms and values by an outside culture in the very matter of everyday communication” (Ryan, 1991: 138). Language also has an important role as it is not simply a means of communication but also a means of shaping the perception of the world (Ryan, 1991: 138).

Traditions may have an economic as well as a cultural value. Tourism can change the traditional economic order as it creates employment opportunities which are inconsistent with past work patterns. “Tourism replaces the agricultural timetable with work that is based on buildings and not fields, with work based on service to those engaged in leisure and not seeking food as a necessity, and with work



that continues into the late hours rather than that based on the rising and setting of the sun” (Ryan, 1991: 138-139).

It is not that culture disappears but rather, with the advent of tourism, the meaning attributed to traditional activities by members of the host community are changed (Harrison, 1996: 79). But culture is highly flexible and dynamic, and even where tradition may be regarded as an important guide to current behaviour, specific traditions change and are replaced by others, to which people become equally committed.

There are some less direct, and perhaps less visible, effects on local communities at tourist destinations, known as ‘relative deprivation’ (Holloway, 1998: 327). The comparative wealth of tourists may be resented or envied by the local people who begin to experience dissatisfaction with their own standards of living and way of life, and seek to emulate that of the tourists. “In some cases, the effect of this is marginal, as in the adoption of the tourists’ dress or fashions, but in others the desire to emulate the tourists can threaten deep-seated traditions in the community, as well as leading to aspirations which are impossible to meet” (Holloway, 1998: 327).

Tourists can favour more of an ‘international cuisine’ rather than venturing to eat the dishes that are eaten by local people. This reflects the differences in culture, and can give the impression to the local community that the local food is not good enough for tourists. This, however, is changing as tourists are increasingly prepared to try new things and the host community can begin to take pride in its own style of food preparation (Ryan, 1991: 139).

Western styles of architecture can be introduced into local communities via the design of resort buildings into areas. Alternatively, resorts can be built in a pseudo-indigenous architectural style which can rekindle a pride in traditional building methods and styles.

It has been raised that the livelihoods obtained from catering for tourists are less dignified or more onerous than, for example, manual labour involved in agriculture. Certainly, it would be difficult to argue that tourists are a less sustainable source of income than agriculture, or that workers in tourism are less able to meet their basic needs than those in more traditional occupations (Harrison, 1996: 78).

The values and norms of communities help to distinguish them from their neighbours. Sustainability is a difficult concept to apply to cultures and social structures as a community’s way of life or culture which is passed down from generation to generation is continually evolving. The degree of how much

a culture should be sustained or defended against change brought about by tourism is difficult to assess. Culture is highly flexible and it is not easy to decide which elements of traditional culture should be maintained or discarded in the light of development pressure and in particular with tourism development. The impact in terms of the demonstration effect, whereby local people modify their own behaviour and aspirations following the example of the tourist, can potentially be the most potent mechanism of cultural impact as local values and norms change under the influence of tourism (Hunter and Green, 1995: 39).

“No community in the world now exists in isolation; few ever did” (Harrison and Price, 1996: 2). Willingly or not, all communities are part of nation-states and are influenced by outside forces. State education and health care, communication networks and the police and justice system all bring the state’s influence onto communities and therefore social change.

There are many diverse and complex channels of cultural change. The television is a major channel for the introduction of cultural changes. It is difficult to disentangle the separate processes of change mechanisms and though tourism may be a catalyst of change, it may not all be bad (Ryan, 1991: 146).

“Cultures change because the environment within which the culture exists changes – an environment which is both physical and social” (Ryan, 1991: 165). Many cultures exhibit processes of change independent of those associated with tourism and tourism is only one means by which acculturation, the borrowing from one culture by another, occurs (Ryan, 1991: 165).

“The development of tourism in developing, peripheral economies undoubtedly changes female roles, and potentially male/female relationships within the host society” (Ryan, 1991: 151). This is often the result of employment opportunities being available for women and as they contribute to the household’s income their often low status in the household is uplifted. Also, in some cases, employment opportunities may be greater for the younger members of the household. This can lead to rifts in the traditional family structure and changing patterns of economic leadership (Hunter and Green, 1995: 38). The older members of a community may lose their leadership status as the younger, more learned members of the community take the leadership role in dealing with the modern society in which the tourism industry is located.

Tourism needs to be developed in ways which are compatible with maintaining and enhancing the lifestyle and sense of community that presently exists and in ways that conserve the natural and cultural resources. Mallari and Enoté (1996: 19) say that tourism is a double-edged sword and more often than

not tourism destroys what it originally set out to enhance. Therefore communities must know exactly what they do and don't want from tourism before tourism is developed (Mallari and Enote, 1996: 19). Many host communities have benefited from the influx of tourist spending and yet have also found it necessary to restrict access to their land and culture in order to prevent encroachment and loss of control (Mallari and Enote, 1996: 19-20).

If tourists stay within the walls of the holiday village, then it is true that their appreciation of the host culture is small. But equally, it is true that the demonstration effects are not on display for the mainstream of life within the host community. The 'pseudo-event' satisfies the tourist wish to see the culture of the area, and it does so in a package which is of meaning to the tourist. It avoids the situation whereby the host community finds that its own events become a 'theatre experience' for the tourist and the host community is able to retain the meanings of its own events (Ryan, 1991: 152).

The nature of the relationship between the tourist and the host community tends to be so fleeting and yet tourists present such a challenge to the social and cultural norms of the host society. This is the result of the relative importance of the tourist industry to the individual and the community, and whether or not the host group can handle the amount of traffic that tourism is being generated (Ryan, 1991: 145). "Tolerance of the tourist is thus a function of the returns and compensations that tourism creates, and the amount of 'nuisance' that it brings" (Ryan, 1991: 145).

As much as there can be cycles of life for a resort, from development to decline, there can be a cycle of the host community's attitude towards tourists, from euphoria to antagonism. Holloway (1998: 328) says "the breakdown in host-guest relationships can be largely ascribed to the volume of visitors." Doxey (1975, in Holloway, 1998: 328) developed an 'Irridex' model of the relationship between tourism growth and community stress (Table 5.2). In the early stages of tourism development, the local community is positive about seeing investment and improved job prospects for local community members. The comparatively small number of tourists, and the fact that most of them will belong to the 'explorer' category and accept the norms and values of the hosts, means that tourists are welcomed, and even cultivated as 'friends'. As the community becomes used to the benefits they receive from tourism, and become aware of the problems which tourism generates as it grows, so they come to accept it, and their interaction with tourists become more common and commercially orientated. Further growth leads to a general feeling among the community that tourists are an irritant rather than a benefit, with the recognition of the way in which tourism is changing their community and their cultural norms. Finally, the community shows open antagonism towards the steady stream of visitors, many of whom

will have the attitude that the local community is there to meet the tourists' needs and will insist on western standards (Holloway, 1998: 328).

Table 5.2 Irridex Model of Stress Relative to Tourism Development

Stages	Characteristics	Symptoms
Stage 1	EUPHORIA	Visitors welcomed, little formal development
Stage 2	APATHY	Visitors taken for granted, contacts become commercial
Stage 3	IRRITATION	Locals concerned about tourism, efforts made to improve infrastructure
Stage 4	ANTAGONISM	Open hostility from locals, attempts to limit damage and tourism flows

Source: GV Dosey, A Causation Theory of Visitor-Resident Irritants, (1975, in Holloway, 1998: 328)

For the Sithole-Mthembu tribe, as they begin their venture into the tourism arena, there will need to be a conscious effort to mitigate any negative social impacts which could arise as a result of the development and strengthen their leadership role in managing the joint venture between a private developer and themselves. The local Lilani community are going to experience the greatest impacts with this development and the rest of the tribe will benefit, to a certain degree, from the rewards generated. For the benefits to be more equally distributed there should be a bias towards those whose lives will be most effected.



Fig. 5.26 The Sign Post for the Lilani Hot Springs

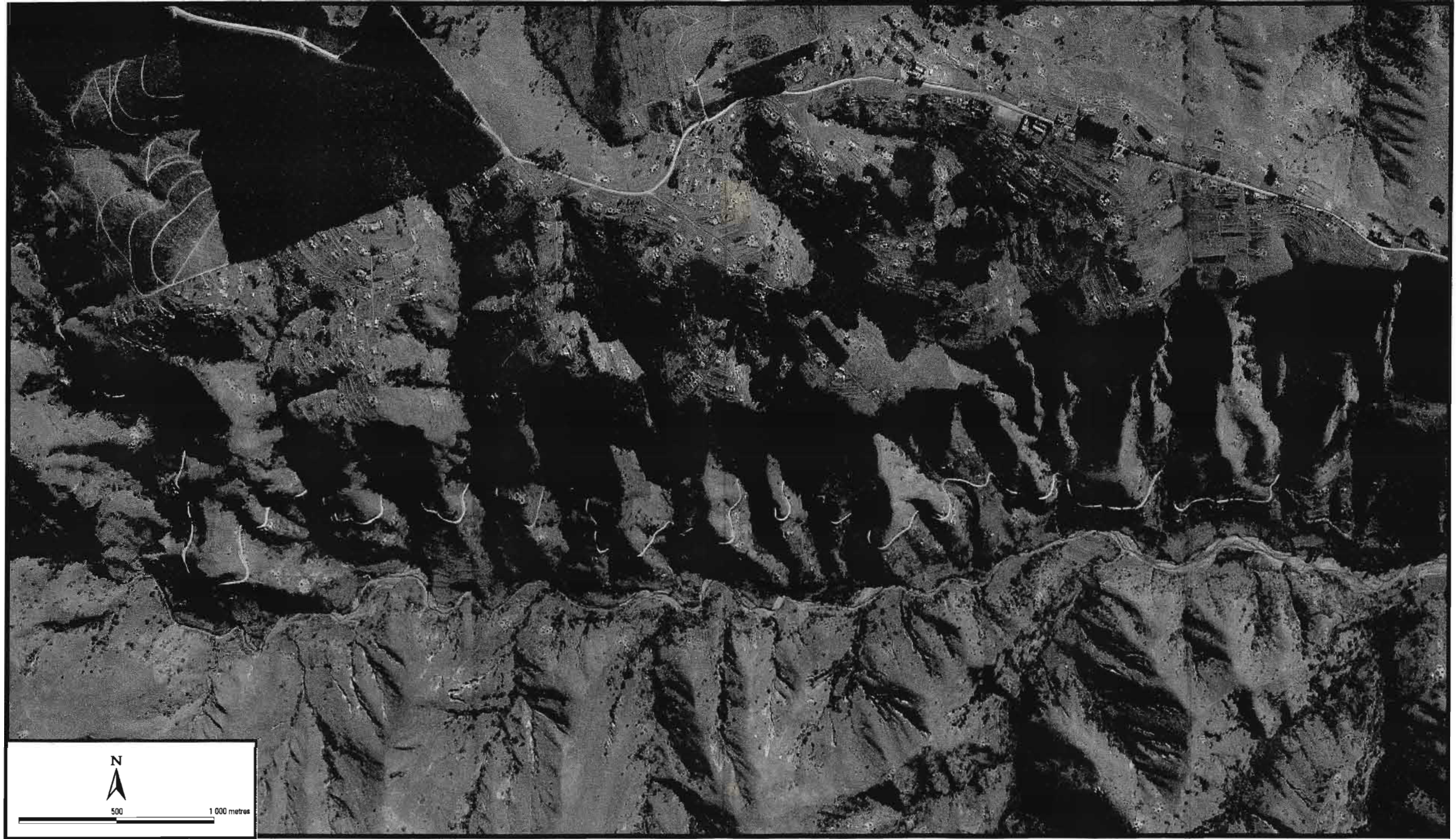


Fig. 5.27 An Aerial Photograph of Eshane and the Lilani Valley

Source: Aerial Photograph, Strip No. 2, Photo No. 1699, Date 1989  
Survey and Land Information, Dept. of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Mowbray  
and Fieldwork Observation

## CHAPTER SIX

### CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 THE RESORT: ITS POTENTIAL AND CONSTRAINTS AS A TOURIST DESTINATION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT ACTIONS

The Lilani Hot Springs resort has a lot to offer both to the tourist and to the local community. The tourist has the opportunity to enjoy natural hot water springs in a scenically beautiful valley away from the worries of urban life and yet in relatively close proximity to the major urban centres of KwaZulu-Natal. The local community has the opportunity to develop their land as a first class tourism development initiative and earn an income from it. At the same time the project could provide employment opportunities for community members and they would also benefit from any infrastructural improvements in the area.

The South African government has realised the potential for tourism development to aid in relieving poverty in marginalised rural areas. In so doing it has provided funding for the initiation of a number of tourism developments to be operated as joint ventures between the private sector and the local communities. The Lilani Hot Springs is one of these projects, and the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority, as the beneficiary, has the opportunity to initiate a project with a substantial community equity share in the project. The community will thus benefit from a viable and sustainable tourism development. The importance now is for those involved in the project to help the local community fulfil their potential by providing the design concept, management and support mechanism for the resort to be drawn together into a viable and sustainable economic entity.

All tourist destinations share certain characteristics and Holloway (1998: 7) says “their success in attracting tourists will depend upon the quality of three essential benefits that they offer the tourist: attractions; amenities (or facilities); and accessibility, or ease of getting to the destination.” For Lilani Hot Springs to be a successful tourism resort these issues will need to be addressed.

Further places of interest need to be identified in the region around the Lilani Hot Springs to increase the interest factor for tourists coming into the area. The Hermannsburg Mission and School with its museum is one of these places. Day trips to Shu Shu Hot Springs on the Tugela River could be offered, especially during the June-July school holidays when that resort is operating. Game farms could be a further interest both to tourists staying at Lilani to visit and tourists staying at the game farms could also to make day trips to Lilani.

In considering any further development of the village at Eshane, located on the northern ridge above the hot springs, the source of the water which descends into the earth and then rises up the faults providing the hot water needs to be considered. If this groundwater is contaminated by sewage disposal the springs will lose their value completely. The source of this potential tourism revenue needs to be protected. Also the source of water for drinking from cold water springs needs to be protected and this may be the water source most affected by the growing population at Eshane.

The Hot Springs site has constraints as there is limited level land between the river and the ridge upon which to develop a resort. If a small development fills up the level land it will constrain expansion in the future. The most ideal plan would be to design a spatially large resort from the beginning and thus ensure that there is adequate open space so the area does not become congestion. The best place to build the proposed three star lodge would be on the slopes before the cul-de-sac circle, near the Remembrance Rock, leaving the old hotel site for development for the hot spring pools and any future hydro centre. This lodge could be situated in between the existing sulphur pools and the radium pools. Parking will have to be provided well before the present turning circle. The open space below the present road and old hotel site could be used for the future development of chalets or for grass areas and a park like environment. The design concept must cater for the numbers which will make the resort viable and generate the returns on the investment and profits for both the investor and the community. It must be remembered that the PTO site of 12 hectares is much larger than the small piece of land presently seen by the community as the land requirements for the resort. The present communal vegetable garden was previously the old resort's vegetable garden which enabled the old resort to be virtually self-sufficient in vegetables and is located between the Radium and Sulphur Springs (Fig. 5.14).

The scale of development will be constrained if not enough land is set aside at the outset for the resort. There is a potential conflict concerning the land resource as the valley opens up just before the hot springs creating opportunities for some agriculture, but is it feasible to have tourism in between this agricultural and residential mix. The people want tourism for the potential money it can make for them but they appear to be completely unrealistic about the space required as the current proposals are for the resort to be located in an area of about 1½ to 2 hectares. It appears that they are not aware of the potential disruption to their present lives and are not realistic about the benefits which will be reaped from tourism.

The architecture style developed for the resort would best be an African style which is rustic and in keeping with the rural surrounds and indigenous vegetation cover. The local community's houses, if they were all built in a traditional African style, would then complement the resort's architectural style.

The open areas would need to be softened by the planting of appropriate indigenous trees. It must be remembered that the open areas naturally would be grasslands and not trees as in the krantzes, therefore trees may not easily establish themselves. The exiting exotic plants and trees, though not ideal, would portray an established look to the resort while indigenous plants and trees established themselves. Thorn trees would not be desirable for areas where people are running around bare foot beside pools and planting of such indigenous trees would need to be done sensitively.

All developments must take into account the environmental, social and cultural effects as well as the more readily observable economic costs and benefits. Many of the proposed 'alternative forms' of tourism, because of the small scale of their operations, would not be financially viable unless they are able to exist in parallel with more mainstream forms of tourism. Many alternative forms of tourism depend upon 'special interest tourists' (Archer, 1996: 14) and hot springs fall into that category. Marketing is such an important aspect of tourism and identifying the market is equally as important. The Europeans, especially the Germans, are still extensive users of spa resorts. This could be an overseas market which could be targeted. But overseas tourists will want to experience part of Africa at the same time as enjoying the healing properties associated with hot springs. For the marketing strategy to sell this angle a small game park with relatively tame buck and zebras wandering around the resort would be an added attraction but the impact on the community would be greater as more land would be required.

There are some risks associated with the redevelopment of the Lilani Hot Springs to create a successful resort and they are:

- the limiting access route to the resort and thus the difficulty of accessibility;
- the need for good hygienic management of the water quality in the hot pools;
- that enough land is set aside for the resort;
- that the local community's long term feelings concerning the social cost, sacrifice of land and inconvenience of having the resort and tourists in their area remains positive;
- that the pressure on the environment is not increased by more people moving into the valley as it becomes to be perceived be to more advantageous;
- that tourists will come in sufficient numbers to justify the cost of the redevelopment of the resort;
- that the tourists will not find the trip to the resort too onerous;
- that tourists will not find the resort too congested and overcrowded;
- that the advertising of the resort will be sufficient to draw tourists, both international and domestic;
- that the activities and products the local community engage in to earn money by selling them to the resort and tourists will reap sufficient rewards to warrant their involvement in these activities;
- that crime will not become an issue;



- that tourists will perceive that the resort is a safe place to visit; and,
- that there will be sufficient activities to keep tourists entertained and encourage them to return.

Even during their heyday, spas in Britain and Europe were always part of the leisure experience and not the sole experience, and a range of attractions have always been needed in addition to the spa waters themselves. This fact is shown clearly in the way that the Natal Spa and Thangami Safari Spa have successfully developed complimentary activities to enhance their resort developments.

This resort needs to be able to accommodate a minimum of 200 visitors at any one time, including day visitors, and thus the development of both the Radium and Sulphur Springs as pools and alternative activities, such as water slides, are required so the place never creates the feeling of being congested and can also cater for all age groups. The psychological carrying capacity, as perceived by the tourists, is an important aspect of the management of the resort and will need to always be constantly monitored.

In the case of Lilani Hot Springs the carrying capacity of a resort will hinge around the ability of the environment, which includes the physical and social aspects, to carry the numbers of tourists which will make a resort economically sustainable. The narrow access road into the valley, the finite amount of hot spring water and the steep valley with its erosion are environmental constraints which, added to the amount of land the community will allow to be set aside for a tourism resort, will be factors that influence the carrying capacity the valley, its resources and its people can sustain.

There is a concern that once the local community have received the infrastructural benefits they see as materialising from the building of a tourism resort, they will lose interest in the tourism development and for the first time see the negative aspects associated with it.

The conflict of interest between the protection of the environment and tourism development should not be seen as an issue in the case of Lilani Hot Springs and many other tribal areas in KwaZulu-Natal. The pressure of people on the physical environment is so great that tourism developments may be the only way of protecting and alleviating the pressure on the physical environment. Equally so, tourism developments, with their potential of providing jobs in areas where there are few alternatives, may be the only way of alleviating the poverty trap into which many of the rural areas have fallen. It also will help to protect the social and cultural heritage of these rural areas. Though the cultural dancing and architectural style of the buildings may appear to be staged, this may also be the only way aspects of the cultural history of African people can survive in the face of globalisation, westernisation and urbanisation.

Eco-tourism proposals and developments are so centred on their core activity that they fail in the same areas as many main stream tourism projects. Developers, and local communities frequently look at the tourism development alone and not looking at the bigger picture. Tourism is going to have an impact on the people living in the area and ways of mitigating such impacts need to be investigated. One way is to have the tourist activity physically separated from the host homesteads. In the past people were simply moved out of the tourist's way and lost connection with their land. The approach has changed but it does not necessarily alleviate the situation as the close contact with tourists who are wealthy and on holiday creates its own problems.

The ability of tourism to survive at Lilani Hot Springs, as in many other rural areas, will be dependent upon the level of infrastructure required and the ability of the resort developers, in the absence of the government's provision, to finance the requirements.

Access to Lilani is the crucial issue but the potential environmental damage and cost to upgrade and maintain the existing access as a two-lane road is astronomical. Two options are open to any developer venturing to overcome this problem. The one is to build a one-lane tarred road, where the graded road presently descends down the escarpment from Eshane to the Lilani Hot Springs, and then to establishing a one way road network for entering and leaving the resort. This will not solve the problem of accessing the resort with large buses used by the tour operators for overseas tourists, but it will make the resort much more accessible by individual travellers. This road would be very steep in parts and if it could be used as a two way road it would experience the same problems as the other road in being too narrow. It would reduce the travelling time to the resort by at least 20 minutes and thus shorten the distance or perceived distance, and time, to get to the resort to make it more desirable to visit on day excursions.

The alternative would be to move the proposed three star lodge higher up the ridge and thus capitalise on the tarred access road to Eshane. This creates new problems and the hot spring water would either need to be pumped up the hill or the people would need to be ferried down by vehicle or cableway. Whatever solution is found, it will have to be innovative and cost effective to overcome the one main problem which has hindered development of the Lilani Hot Springs - the road.

If the entry point is at Eshane the spin-off effects for the people could be greatest at this point. A cultural village or craft shop could be built up at Eshane as an alternative to such a possibility in the Lilani Valley. This would not cross any tribal authority boundaries and therefore it could be seen as an extension of the tourism experience and spread the benefits to other parts of the tribal area. This broadening of the area which could be effected by the redevelopment of Lilani shows how wide the

planning of such a resort has to be. This also could further marginalise the people living in the Lilani Valley as the opportunities could more readily be taken up by the people at Eshane.

The community which is to benefit from the redevelopment of Lilani does not just consist of those people living close to the hot springs in the valley but of the whole Sithole-Mthembu tribe who live at Eshane and in the Hlimbitwa and Lilani valleys. The distribution of the benefits should be linked to the costs to portions of the tribal community as those living in the immediate vicinity of the resort will have the most social upheavals and yet the Lilani community could potentially benefit the most from employment opportunities.

For tourism to be the answer to South Africa's development and employment needs there has to be a long term vision and for tourism to be sustainable there has to be "harmony between the visitor, the place and the host community" (Holloway, 1998: 320).

Historically, the rise of the seaside resort finally led to the demise of the inland spas of Britain. The lure to the sea has not changed and the marketing strategy of a new hot springs resort will need to be undertaken to ensure that it can survive in a competitive tourism environment. How well will Lilani do as a tourist destination is an unknown. Substantial advertising campaigns for Lilani and the many other tourism destinations being promoted and encouraged by the various tourism bodies will be required. Establishing a resort is one large hurdle to be overcome but to make it a financial success in both the short term and on a sustainable basis is the real test of success for these bodies, especially as the communities are not going to look favourably on a failure after so many promises.

The guests to the resort would not only use the hot water pools, but would possibly go for walks in the surrounding valley, walking along the river's edge and in close vicinity of the local people's homes and washing facilities. All this will have an impact on the way of life of the local people and their perception of the benefits of the resort.

The impact of tourism on the physical environment from the added pressure of additional people visiting the area must be seen in conjunction with the pressure already being exerted on the physical environment by the present residents of the area. The residents are exerting a pressure on the environment which is not generally regulated and as the population increases no form of management, which is being required for tourism developments in the form of Environmental Management Plans is required. In some cases, fragile environments are developed as residential areas to meet the needs of the resident communities in isolated and unsustainable locations, without looking at the larger picture. Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) focus on the property being identified for a tourism

development and the accumulative environmental impact on a wider area are not always considered. There is a need to draw up plans which begin to identify the places where residential and tourism developments are desirable from an environmental perspective as well as outlining the type of development which would be desirable. Extensive developments, like game parks and wilderness areas, can have a much lower overall impact on the environment.

The EIA process is largely restricted to the evaluation of individual development projects and this approach means that the EIAs are mainly focussing on the technical issues, like waste minimisation, and are very site specific. The cumulative impact of development needs to be taken into consideration in the proposals and development of any tourism development. No development is undertaken in isolation, however remote it is, and once established will always have the opportunity and possibility for expansion. So, however small the proposed development, it should not be excluded from undertaking an EIA and the wider area around the proposed project site should be taken into consideration, especially for possible cumulative effects, as the protection of the environment is essential for the continued success of any tourism destination.

Clearly, the argument is that tourism, unlike the majority of other industries, relies for its continued well-being on the maintenance of environmental resources. Effective local control over development, guided by national and provincial legislation, policies and guidelines, is necessary so that minimum standards can be applied to similar proposals. This will result in the more environmentally conscious developers who put in all the resource conservation measures, especially those not apparent to the casual observer, not being penalised by this as other developers ignore such requirements. Therefore, there is a need for continuous environmental monitoring. "Environmental auditing" (Hunter and Green, 1995: 177-178) could be the appropriate approach. This is undertaken in South Africa by some large companies and the practice could be further expanded to include all companies and in particular those who have an impact on the environment and could have their product endorsed as not being harmful to the environment or at least meeting the minimum standards. Environmental auditing could even form part of local municipalities' yearly Integrated Development Plans reassessment so that from an overall perspective the impact of development on the environment could be monitored and addressed if necessary.

Tourism is an effective land-use option in rural areas which needs to be clearly planned, controlled and monitored so that it is a "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987: 43, in Harrison, 1996: 70) and thus becomes a sustainable development. There is a need to find that balance in each case and manage it so that all benefit - the community, the environment, the economy and the tourist.

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QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY - English

A SOCIO-ECONOMIC SURVEY OF THE PEOPLE LIVING  
IN THE LILANI VALLEY.

Original Household	Substitute Household	Interviewer Name:
AREA	Number of Huts?	
	<p>Type of dwelling? (Main material)</p> <p>Brick Block Corrugated Iron Wattle and daub Shack (various materials) Other (specify)</p> <p>.....</p>	

N°	Sex M/F	Age Yrs.	Relation to Head of House	Education Level - Std	Economic Status employed/ unemployed	Type of Employment	Travel Mode to Work /School	Motor Vehicle Ownership	Town Where Working	Period of Employ- ment (Yrs)
1.										
2.										
3.										
4.										
5.										
6.										
7.										
8.										
9.										
10.										
11.										
12.										
13.										
14.										

Income Source	Person Number	Monthly in Rands	Yearly in Rands
Agricultural Income			
Rent			
Pensions (private and state)			
Maintenance/Disability Grants (private or state)			
Wages/Salary			
Informal Income			
Money Received from Children/Family			
Other Income (please state)			
<b>Total</b>			

**Q.1. How many rooms are slept in, in your home?**

**Q.2. How many separate households (i.e. not eating from the same pot) live on this site?**

- |     |        |
|-----|--------|
| One | Three  |
| Two | Four + |

**Q.3. How long has the household been living in this dwelling (in years)?**

**Q.4. Main source of water for drinking and cooking?**

- Borehole
- Spring
- Tank
- River

**Q.5. Consistency of water source for drinking purposes?**

- Reliable
- Occasionally not reliable
- Unreliable

**Q.6. What do you like about living here? (Please list only 3 main likes)**

1.

2.

3.

<b>Q.7. What don't you like about living here? (Please list only 3 main likes)</b>			
1.			
2.			
3.			
<b>Q.8. What do you consider to be the 3 most important needs in your community?</b>			
1.			
2.			
3.			
<b>Q.9. Types of energy sources used?</b>			
1. Battery	4. Electricity	7. Wood	
2. Candles	5. Gas	8. Other	
3. Coal	6. Paraffin		
for Cooking	for Lighting	for Heating Water	for Household Heating
<b>Q.10. How would you describe the level of agricultural skills that you and the members of you household have?</b>			
None		Moderate	
Limited		Extensive	
<b>Q.11. Number of Livestock owned by the household?</b>			
Cattle	Sheep	Goats	Fowls Other
<b>Q.12. Crops grown during the past year? (More than one answer possible)</b>			
1. Less than 3 months			
2. 3-6 months			
3. More than 6 months			
Vegetables	Maize	Other	

## QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY - Zulu

ukuhlolwa kusetshenziswa iphepha elinamahlelo emibuzo.

**A SOCIO-ECONOMIC SURVEY OF THE PEOPLE LIVING  
IN THE LILANI VALLEY.**

Abomuzi ngokwendabuko	Umbambeli womuzi	Igama lokuxoxwa naye.
<b>INDAWO</b>	Inani Lezindlu?	
	<b>Uhlobo Lwendlu?</b> (Impahla yokwakha)  izitini amabhlokhsi uthayela uwatela nodaka imikhukhu Okunye (chaza)  .....	



N°	ubulil M/F	ubudala iminyaka	ukuhlobana nenhloko yomuzi	izinga lemfundo	Ukuma kwezo mnotho abasebezayo / abangasebenzi	Uhlobo lomsebenzi	Okusebezisayo mawuya emsebenzini /esikoleni	ubunikazi bemoto	Ibolobha osebenza kulo	isikhathi osusisebenzile (iminyaka)
1										
2										
3										
4										
5										
6										
7										
8.										
9.										
10										
11										
12										
13										
14										

<b>Umthombo lapho umutu ethola khona imali.</b>	<b>Inombolo yomuntu</b>	<b>Amarandi ngenyanga.</b>
Imali etholakayo ngezolimo.		
Rent / Renti		
Impesheni (yangasese noma kaHulumeni)		
Imali oyithola ngokulimala emsebenzini		
Wages / Amaholo		
Iholo elingenamicikishane		
Imali etholwe ivela ezinganeni / kumndeni		
Makukhona enye imali oyitholayo (chaza)		
<b>Inani</b>		

<b>Q.1. Zingaki izindlu okulalwa kuzona, ekhaya lakho?</b>	
<b>Q.2. Zingaki izindlu/imindeni ezikhona ekhaya (makube imindeni engapheki ndawonye) kodwa eyakhe khona ekhaya?</b>	
One/Uwodwa	Three/Mithathu
Two/Mibili	Four + /Mine nona ngephezulu
<b>Q.3. Sekuyisikhethi esingakanani lenhloko yomuzi ihlala kulelikhaya (iminyaka)?</b>	
<b>Q.4. Lapho nithola khona amanzi okuphuza nokupheka?</b>	
Ipitsi	
Isiphethu	
Ithangi	
Umfula	
<b>Q.5. Lapho kutholakala emanzi okuphuza?</b>	
Ungathembela khona	
Ungethembeli khona njalo	
Ungeke wethembele khona	
<b>Q.6. Ikuphi okuthandayo ngokuhlala lapha? (Bhala kube kuthathu)</b>	
1.	
2.	
3.	

<b>Q.7. Ikuphi ongakuthandiyo ngokuhlala lapha? (Bhala kubekuthathu)</b>			
1.			
2.			
3.			
<b>Q.8. Ikuphi okuthathu okubona kuyisidingo esikhulu emphakathini ohlala kuwo?</b>			
1.			
2.			
3.			
<b>Q.9. Izinhlobo zamandla emithombo ezisetshenziswayo?</b>			
1. Amabhetry	4. Ugesi	7. Izinkuni	
2. Amakhandlela	5. Igesi	8. Okunye	
3. Amalahle	6. Upharafini		
okupheka	okokukhanyisa	okushisisa amanzi	okufudumalisa Ikhanya
<b>Q.10. Ulibona linjani wena nomndemi wekho izinga lamakhono kwezolimo eninalo?</b>			
kalikho		elilingene	
lilinganiselwe		liningi	
<b>Q.11. Abomuzi benenani elingakanani lemfuyo?</b>			
izinkomo	izimvu izimbuzi	izinkukhu	Okunye
<b>Q.12. Izitshalo ezimilile ngonyaka odlule? (Makube impendulo engaphezulu kweyodwa)</b>			
1. Ngephansi kwezinyanga ezintathu			
2. Kusuka ezinyangeni ezintathu kuya kwezine			
3. Ngaphezulu kwezinyanga ezi - 6			
Imifino	Umbila	Okunye	

### Statistics South Africa census 1996

The information relates to Chapter 5.3.1 and the Enumerator Areas 5200094, 5200095, 5200096 and 5200097 are in the Sithole-Mthembu Tribal Authority area, in the new Umvoti Municipal of KwaZulu-Natal.

#### Population group by geographical areas for weighted person

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
African/Black	933	794	942	528	3 197
Coloured	-	-	-	-	-
Indian/Asian	-	-	-	-	-
White	2	-	-	-	2
Unspecified	-	65	36	58	159
Total	935	859	978	586	3 358

#### Gender of head of household by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Male	77	67	68	60	272
Female	78	79	85	28	270
Unspecified/Dummy	-	-	-	-	-
N/A: Institution/hostel	-	-	-	-	-
Total	155	146	153	88	542

#### Occupation by geographical areas for weighted person

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Legislators, senior officials and managers	3	-	-	-	3
Professionals	4	3	-	4	11
Clerks	-	-	-	1	1
Service workers, shop and market sales workers	2	2	-	3	7
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	1	3	-	-	4
Craft and related trade workers	2	7	1	3	13
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	8	5	2	9	24
Elementary occupations	8	17	1	8	34
Total	28	37	4	28	97

Employment status by geographical areas for weighted person

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Employed	85	52	6	42	185
Unemployed, looking for work	21	98	88	14	221
Not working -not looking for work	149	3	39	2	193
Not working - housewife/home-maker	60	58	78	20	216
Not working - scholar/full-time student	99	160	129	122	510
Not working - pensioner/retired person	61	82	85	46	274
Not working - disabled person	11	2	18	12	43
Not working - not wishing to work	2	2	3	71	78
Not working - none of the above	21	55	116	61	253
Unspecified	-	-	4	10	14
N/A: Aged < 15	426	348	412	187	1,373
N/A: Institution	-	-	-	-	-
Total	935	860	978	587	3 360

Derived household annual income by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
None	11	6	23	22	62
R1-2400	16	4	4	14	38
R2401-6000	13	17	24	24	78
R6001-12000	8	38	45	15	106
R12001-18000	1	13	26	7	47
R18001-30000	-	18	20	-	38
R30001-42000	-	3	6	-	9
R42001-54000	1	1	1	-	3
R54001-72000	-	-	-	-	-
R72001-96000	-	3	1	-	4
R96001-132000	-	-	-	-	-
R132001-192000	-	1	1	-	2
R192001-360000	-	-	-	-	-
R360001 or more	1	-	-	-	1
Unspecified/dummy	104	42	2	6	154
N/A: Institution/hostel	-	-	-	-	-
Total	155	146	153	88	542

Individual annual income by geographical areas for weighted person

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
None	515	503	792	470	2,280
R1-200	7	26	23	18	74
R201-500	13	84	111	51	253
R501-1000	2	25	30	6	63
R1001-1500	2	7	12	1	22
R1501-2500	-	1	-	-	1
R2501-3500	-	-	1	1	2
R3501-4500	-	4	-	-	4
R4501-6000	1	1	-	-	2
R6001-8000	2	-	-	1	3
R8001-11000	1	-	-	-	1
R11001 or more	-	-	-	-	-
Unspecified/dummy	398	209	9	39	655
Total	935	860	978	587	3,360

Type of dwelling by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
House on separate stand	3	-	2	2	7
Traditional dwelling	151	144	151	61	507
Flat in block of flats	-	-	-	4	4
Town/cluster/semi-detached house	-	-	1	-	1
House/flat/room in backyard	-	-	-	1	-
Unspecified/dummy	1	2	-	17	20
Total	155	146	153	88	542

Number of rooms by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
0	-	-	-	-	-
1	9	2	71	1	83
2	26	27	58	6	117
3	25	41	7	13	86
4	40	21	11	36	108
5	18	34	3	15	70
6	19	11	-	8	38
7	13	1	3	-	17

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
8	2	2	-	3	7
9	2	4	-	3	9
10 and more	1	2	-	-	3
Unspecified/dummy	-	1	-	3	4
Total	155	146	153	88	542

#### Water supply by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Piped water in dwelling	-	-	-	3	3
Piped water on site	-	-	-	9	9
Public tap	-	-	-	38	38
Water-carrier/tanker	-	-	1	-	1
Borehole/rainwater tank/well	1	1	-	-	2
Dam/river/stream/spring	156	140	152	35	483
Unspecified/dummy	-	3	-	3	6
Total	157	144	153	88	542

#### Refuse disposal by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Removal by local authority at least weekly	-	-	-	-	-
Removal by local authority less often	-	-	-	1	1
Communal refuse dump	-	-	1	2	3
Own refuse dump	134	13	149	81	377
No rubbish disposal	21	128	2	1	152
Unspecified/dummy	2	3	1	3	9
Total	157	144	153	88	542

#### Fuel used for lighting by geographical areas for weighted household

	5200094	5200095	5200096	5200097	Total
Electricity direct from authority	-	-	-	1	1
Electricity from other source	-	-	-	-	-
Gas	3	-	-	1	4
Paraffin	5	2	-	-	7
Candles	147	139	152	82	520
Unspecified/dummy	2	3	1	4	10
Total	157	144	153	88	542